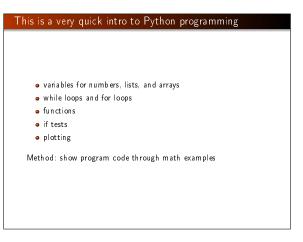
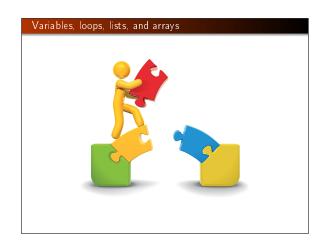
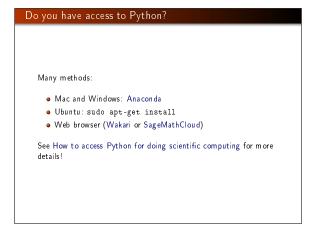
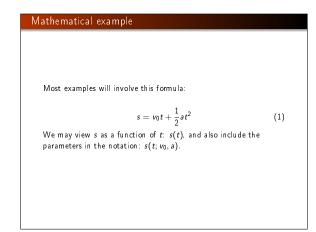
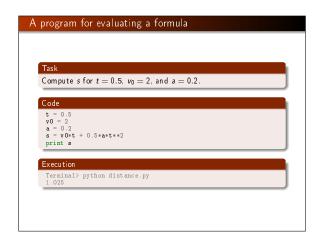
Intro to scientific Python programming Hans Petter Langtangen^{1,2} Simula Research Laboratory¹ University of Oslo² Jan 12, 2015











Assignment statements assign a name to an object t = 0.5 v0 = 2 a = 0.2 s = v0*t + 0.5*a*t**2 Rule: evaluate right-hand side object, left-hand side is a name for that object

```
    Task: write out s=1.025
    Method: printf syntax
    print 's="%g' % s  # g: compact notation print 's="% 21' % s  # f: decimal notation, .2f: 2 decimals
    Modern alternative: format string syntax
    print 's={s:.2f}' .format(s=s)
```

```
Programming with a while loop

• Task: write out a table of t and s(t) values (two columns), for t ∈ [0,2] in steps of 0.1

• Method: while loop

v0 = 2
a = 0.2
dt = 0.1 # Increment
t = 0 # Start value
while t <= 2:
s = v0+t + 0.5*a*t**2
print t, s
t = t + dt
```

```
Output of the previous program

Terminal> python while.py
0 0.0
0.1 0.201
0.2 0.404
0.3 0.609
0.4 0.816
0.5 1.025
0.6 1.236
0.7 1.449
0.8 1.664
0.9 1.881
1.0 2.1
1.1 2.321
1.1 2.321
1.2 2.544
1.3 2.769
1.4 2.996
1.5 3.255
1.6 3.456
1.7 3.689
1.8 3.924
1.9 4.161
```

```
The Python Online Tutor can help you understand the program flow

Python Online Tutor lets you step through the program and examine variables.

a = 1
da = 0.5
while a <= 3:
print a
a = a + da

(Visualize execution)
```

```
Lists

A list collects several variables (objects) in a given sequence:

L = [-1, 1, 8.0]

A list can contain any type of objects, e.g.,

L = ['mydata.txt', 3.14, 10]

Some basic list operations:

>>> L = ['mydata.txt', 3.14, 10]

>>> print L[0]

mydata.txt
>>> print L[1]

3.14

>>> del L[0]  # delete the first element
>>> print L

[3.14, 10]
>>> print len(L)  # length of L

2 >>> L append(-1)  # add -1 at the end of the list
>>> print L

[3.14, 10, -1]
```

For loops A for loop is used for visiting elements in a list, one by one: >>> L = [1, 4, 8, 9] >>> for e in L: ... print e ... 1 4 8 9 Demo in the Python Online Tutor: list1 = [0, 0.1, 0.2] list2 = [] for element in list1: p = element + 2 list2 append(p) print list2 (Visualize execution)

```
For loops used traditionally an integer counter over list/array indices

for i in range(len(somelist)):
    # Work with somelist(i)

Note:

• range returns a list of integers
• range(a, b, s) returns the integers a, a+s, a+2*s, ...
    up to but not including (!!) b
• range(b) implies a=0 and s=1
• range(len(somelist)) returns [0, 1, 2]
```

```
Let's replace our while loop by a for loop

v0 = 2
a = 0.2
dt = 0.1  # Increment
t.values = []
s.values = []
n = int(round(2/dt)) + 1  # No of t values
for i in range(n):
t = ivdt
s = v00t + 0.5*a*t**2
t.values.append(t)
s.values.append(t)
s.values.append(t)
s.values * Just take a look at a created list
# Make nicely formatted table
for t, s in zip(t.values, s.values):
    print '%.2f %.4f' % (t, s)

# Alternative
for i in range(len(t.values)):
    print '%.2f %.4f' % (t.values[i], s.values[i])
```

```
Traversal of multiple lists at the same time with zip

for e1, e2, e3, ... in zip(list1, list2, list3, ...):

Alternative: loop over a common index for the lists

for i in range(len(list1)):
    e1 = list1[i]
    e2 = list2[i]
    ...
```

```
Arrays

• List: collect a set of numbers or other objects in a single variable

• Lists are very flexible (can grow, can contain "anything")

• Array: computationally efficient and convenient list

• Arrays must have fixed length and can only contain numbers of the same type (integers, real numbers, complex numbers)

• Arrays require the numpy module

>>> import numpy
>>> L = [1, 4, 10.0]  # List of numbers
>>> a = numpy array(L)  # Hake corresponding array
>>> print a

[ 1, 4, 10.1]
>>> print a | 10.1]
>>> print a | 4.00
>>> print a | 4.00
>>> brint a | 4.00
>>> brint a | 4.00
>>> brint b | 4.00
>>> brint b | 4.00
>>> print b | 4.00
>>> print b | 4.00
>>> print a | 4.00
|>>> print b | 4.00
|>>>
```

```
import numpy
v0 = 2
a = 0.2
dt = 0.1 # Increment
n = int(round(2/dt)) + 1 # No of t values

t_values = numpy.linspace(0, 2, n+1)
s_values = v0*t + 0.5*a*t**2
# Make nicely formatted table
for t, s in zip(t_values, s_values):
    print '%.21 %.41' % (t, s)
```

```
Standard mathematical functions are found in the math module

>>> import math
>>> print math.sin(math.pi)
1.2246467991473532e-16 # Note: only approximate value

Get rid of the math prefix:

from math import sin, pi
print sin(pi)

# Or import everything from math
from math import *
print sin(pi), log(e), tanh(0.5)
```

```
Use the numpy module for standard mathematical functions applied to arrays

Matlab users can do

from numpy import *

The Python community likes

import numpy as np
print np.sin(np.pi)

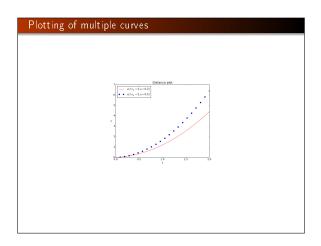
Our convention: use np prefix, but not in formulas involving math functions

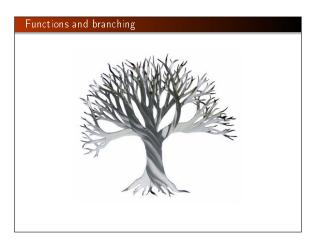
import numpy as np
from numpy import sin, exp
t = np.linspace(0, 4, 1001)
p = exp(-t)*sin(2*t)
```

```
Plotting

Plotting is done with matplotlib:

The plotfile myplot.png looks like
```





Functions

- $s(t) = v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$ is a mathematical function
- Can implement s(t) as a Python function s(t)

```
def s(t):
   return v0*t + 0.5*a*t**2
v0 = 0.2
value = s(3) # Call the function
```

Note:

- functions start with the keyword def
- statements belonging to the function must be indented
- function input is represented by arguments (separated by comma if more than one)
- function output is returned to the calling code
- v0 and a are global variables
- v0 and a must be initialized before s is called

Functions can have multiple arguments

v0 and a as function arguments instead of global variables:

```
def s(t, v0, a):
return v0*t + 0.5*a*t**2
value = s(3, 0.2, 4) # Call the function
# More readable call
value = s(t=3, v0=0.2, a=4)
```

Keyword arguments are arguments with default values

```
def s(t, v0=1, a=1):
return v0*t + 0.5*a*t**2
                                      # specify new v0 and a
# rely on v0=1 and a=1
# rely on v0=1
# rely on a=1
value = s(3, 0.2, 4)
value = s(3, 0.2, 4)

value = s(3, a=2)

value = s(3, v0=2)
```

- Arguments without the argument name are called positional
- Positional arguments must always be listed before the keyword arguments in the function and in any call
- The sequence of the keyword arguments can be arbitrary

Vectorization speeds up the code

```
Scalar code (work with one number at a time):
```

```
def s(t, v0, a):
return v0*t + 0.5*a*t**2
for i in range(len(t)):
    s_values[i] = s(t_values[i], v0, a)
```

Vectorized code: apply s to the entire array

```
s_values = s(t_values, v0, a)
```

How can this work?

- Array: t
- Expression: v0*t + 0.5*a*t**2
- r1 = v0*t (scalar times array)
- r2 = t**2 (square each element)
- r3 = 0.5*a*r2 (scalar times array)
- r1 + r3 (add each element)

Python functions written for scalars normally work for arrays

True if computations involve arithmetic operations and math functions:

```
from math import exp, sin
 def f(x):
    return 2*x + x**2*exp(-x)*sin(x)
 v = f(4) # f(x) works with scalar x
 # Redefine exp and sin with their vectorized versions
 from numpy import exp, sin, linspace
x = linspace(0, 4, 100001)

v = f(x) # f(x) works with array x
However, if tests are not allowed:
```

```
return -1 if x < 0 else x**4*exp(-x)*sin(x)
x = linspace(0, 4, 100001)
v = f(x) # will not work
```

Python functions can return multiple values

```
Return s(t) = v_0t + \frac{1}{2}at^2 and s'(t) = v_0 + at:

def movement(t, v0, a):
    s = v0+t + 0.5*a*t**2
    v = v0 + a*t
    return s, v

s_value, v_value = movement(t=0.2, v0=2, a=4)

return s, v means that we return a tuple (\approx list):

>>> def f(x):
... return x+1, x+2, x+3
...
>>> r = f(3)  # Store all three return values in one object r
(4, 5, 6)
>>> type(r)  # What type of object is r?
<type 'tuple'>
>>> print r[1]

5
```

A more general mathematical formula

Equations from basic kinematics:

$$v = \frac{ds}{dt}, \quad s(0) = s_0$$
$$a = \frac{dv}{dt}, \quad v(0) = v_0$$

Integrate to find v(t):

$$\int_0^t a(t)dt = \int_0^t \frac{dv}{dt}dt$$

which gives

$$v(t) = v_0 + \int_0^t a(t)dt$$

Integrate again over [0, t] to find s(t):

Basic if-else tests

An if test has the structure

```
if condition:
    <statements when condition is True>
else:
    <statements when condition is False>
```

Tuples are constant lists (cannot be changed)

Here,

• condition is a boolean expression with value True or False.

Multi-branch if tests

Implementation of a piecewisely defined function with if

A Python function implementing the mathematical function

$$s(t) = \begin{cases} s_0 + v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a_0 t^2, & t \le t_1 \\ s_0 + v_0 t_1 + \frac{1}{2} a_0 t_1^2 + a_0 t_1 (t - t_1), & t > t_1 \end{cases}$$

reads

```
def s_func(t, v0, a0, t1):
    if t <= t1:
        s = v0*t + 0.5*a0*t**2
else:
        s = v0*t + 0.5*a0*t1**2 + a0*t1*(t-t1)
    return s</pre>
```

Python functions containing if will not accept array arguments

```
>>> def f(x): return x if x < 1 else 2*x
...
>>> import numpy as np
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 2, 5)
>>> f(x)
Traceback (most recent call last):
ValueError: The truth value of an array with more than one element is ambiguous. Use a.any() or a.all()
Problem: x < 1 evaluates to a boolean array, not just a boolean</pre>
```

Remedy 1: Call the function with scalar arguments n = 201 # No of t values for plotting t1 = 1.5 t = np.linspace(0, 2, n+1) s = np.zeros(n+1) for i in range(len(t)): s[i] = s_func(t+t[i], v0=0.2, a0=20, t1=t1) Can now easily plot: plt.plot(t, s, 'b-') plt.plot(t[t, t1], [0, s_func(t+t1, v0=0.2, a0=20, t1=t1)], 'r--') plt.ylabel('t') plt.ylabel('t') plt.savefig('myplot.png') plt.savefig('myplot.png') plt.show()

array b where b[i] = t[i] <= t1.

```
Remedy 3: Vectorize the if test with array indexing

• Let b be a boolean array (e.g., b = t <= t1)
• s[b] selects all elements s[i] where b[i] is True
• Can assign some array expression expr of length len(s[b])
to s[b]: s[b] = (expr)[b]

Our example can utilize this technique with b as t <= t1 and
t > t1:

s = np.zeros_like(t)  # Make s as seros, same size 0 type as t
s[t <= t1] = (v0*t + 0.5*a0*t**2)[t <= t1]
s[t > t1] = (v0*t + 0.5*a0*t1**2 + a0*t1*(t-t1))[t > t1]
```



```
Put input data in a text file:

v0 = 2
a = 0.2
dt = 0.1
interval = [0, 2]

How can we read this file into variables v0, a, dt, and interval?
```

```
infile = open('.input.dat', 'r')
for line in infile:
    # Typical line: variable = value
    variable, value = line.split('*')
    variable = variable = strip()  # remove leading/traling blanks
    if variable == 'v0':
        v0 = float(value)
    elif variable == 'a':
        a = float(value)
    elif variable == 'a':
        it = float(value)
    elif variable == 'interval':
        interval = eval(value)
    infile.close()
```

>>> line = 'v0 = 5.3' >>> variable, value = line.split('=') >>> variable 'v0' >>> variable.strip() # strip away blanks 'v0' Note: must convert value to float before we can compute with the value!

```
Modern Python often applies the with statement for file handling

with open('.input.dat', 'r') as infile:
    for line in infile:
    ...

No need to close the file when using with
```

• We have t and s(t) values in two lists, t_values and s_values • Task: write these lists as a nicely formatted table in a file Code: outfile = open('table1.dat', 'w') outfile write('# t s(t)\n') # write header for t, s in zip(t_values, s_values): outfile.write('%.2f %.4f\n', % (t, s))

```
import numpy as np
import n
```

```
Simplified reading of tabular data from file via numpy.savetxt

data = np.loadtxt('table2.dat', comments='#')

Note:

• Lines beginning with the comment character # are skipped in the reading
• data is a two-dimensional array: data[i,0] holds the t value and data[i,1] the s(t) value in the i-th row
```

```
    All objects in Python are made from a class
    You don't need to know about classes to use Python
    But class programming is powerful

    Class = functions + variables packed together
    A class is a logical unit in a program
    A large program as a combination of appropriate units
```

A very simple class

- On e variable: a
- One function: dump for printing a

```
class Trivial:
    def __init__(self, a):
        self.a = a

    def dump(self):
        print self.a
```

Class terminology: Functions are called methods and variables are called attributes.

How can we use this class?

First, make an instance (object) of the class:

```
t = Trivial(a=4)
t.dump()
```

Note:

- The syntax Trivial(a=4) actually means Trivial.__init__(t, 4)
- self is an argument in __init__ and dump, but not used in the calls
- __init__ is called constructor and is used to construct an object (instance) if the class

The self argument is a difficult thing for newcomers...

It takes time and experience to understand the self argument in class methods!

- self must always be the first argument
- self is never used in calls
- self is used to access attributes and methods inside methods

We refer to a more comprehensive text on classes for better explanation of self.

self is confusing in the beginning, but later it greatly helps the understanding of how classes work!

A class for representing a mathematical function

Function with one independent variable t and two parameters v_0 and a:

$$s(t; v_0, a) = v_0 t + \frac{1}{2} a t^2$$

Class representation of this function:

- v0 and a are variables (data)
- A method to evaluate s(t), but just function of t

Usage:

The class code

```
class Distance:
    def __init__(self, v0, a):
        self.v0 = v0
        self.a = a

    def __call__(self, t):
        v0, a = self.v0, self.a # make local variables
        return v0*t + 0.5*a*t**2

s = Distance(v0=2, a=0.5) # create instance
v = s(t=0.2) # actually s.__call__(t=0.2)
```

Class implementation of $f(x, y, z; p_1, p_2, ..., p_n)$

- ullet The n parameters p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n are attributes
- __call__(self, x, y, z) is used to compute f(x,y,z)