

## Functions and branching

UFC/DC  
FdP - 2019.1

### Functions

Mathematical functions as Python functions  
Local and global variables  
Multiple arguments  
Function argument v global variable  
Beyond math functions  
Multiple returns  
Summation  
No returns  
Keyword arguments  
Doc strings  
Functions as arguments to functions  
The main program  
Lambda functions

### Branching

IF-ELSE blocks  
Inline IF-tests

## Functions and branching

### Foundation of programming (CK0030)

Francesco Corona

## FdP

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IF-ELSE blocks  
Inline IF-tests

- 🕒 Intro to variables, objects, modules, and text formatting
- 🕒 Programming with WHILE- and FOR-loops, and lists
- 🕒 **Functions and IF-ELSE tests**
- 🕒 Data reading/writing, error handling and making modules
- 🕒 Arrays and array computing
- 🕒 Plotting curves and surfaces

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## FdP (cont)

Two fundamental and extremely useful programming concepts

- **Functions**, defined by the user
- **Branching**, of program flow

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## Functions

The term **function** has a wider meaning than a mathematical function

### Definition

#### Function

A **function** is a collection of statements that can be run wherever and whenever needed in the program

The **function** may accept input variables

- To influence what is computed inside
- (A function contains statements)

The **function** may return new objects

**Functions** help avoid duplicating bits of code (puts all of them together)

- A strategy that saves typing and makes it easier to modify code

**Functions** are also used to split a long program into smaller pieces

Python has pre-defined **functions** (`math.sqrt`, `range`, `len`, `math.exp`, ...)

~ We discuss how to define own **functions**

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# Mathematical functions as Python functions

## Functions

## Functions

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## Math functions as Python functions

We construct a Python **function** that evaluates a mathematical function

### Example

Consider a function  $F(C)$  for converting degree Celsius  $C$  to Fahrenheit  $F$

$$\sim F(C) = \frac{9}{5}C + 32$$

The **function** ( $F$ ) takes  $C$  ( $C$ ) as its input argument

```
1 def F(C):
2     return (9.0/5)*C + 32
```

It returns value  $(9.0/5)*C + 32$  ( $F(C)$ ) as output

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

All Python **functions** begin with **def**, followed by the **function name**

- ~ Inside parentheses, a comma-separated list of **function arguments**
- ~ The argument acts as a standard variable inside the **function**

The statements to be performed inside the **function** must be indented

After the **function**, it is common (not necessary) to **return** a value

- ~ The **function output** value is sent out of the **function**

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

### Example

The **function name** is **F** (*F*)

$$F(C) = \frac{9}{5}C + 32$$

There is only one **input argument** **C** (*C*)

```
1 def F(C):  
2     return (9.0/5)*C + 32
```

The **return** value is computed as **(9.0/5)\*C + 32** (it has no name)

- It is the evaluation of **F(C)** (implicitly **F(C)**)

The **def** line (**function name** and **arguments**) is the **function header**

The indented statements are the **function body**

```
1 def F(C):                                     # Function header  
2     return (9.0/5)*C + 32                     # Function (mini) block
```

The **return** often (not necessarily) associates with the **function name**

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

To use a **function**, we must **call** or **invoke** it with **input arguments**

~ The **function** will process the **input arguments**

~ As a result, it will return an **output value**

We (may need to) store the result in a **variable**

### Example

```
1 #####  
2 def F(C):                                     # T conversion function #  
3     return (9.0/5)*C + 32                     # F(C) #  
4 #####
```

The value returned from **F(C)** is an object

~ Specifically, it is a **float object**

The call **F(C)** can be placed anywhere in a code

- A **float** must be valid

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

```
1 #####  
2 def F(C):                                     # T conversion function #  
3     return (9.0/5)*C + 32                     # F(C) #  
4 #####  
5  
6 temp1 = F(15.5)                             # Store return value as variable (temp1)  
7  
8 a = 10                                       # Given input argument 'a' (value 10)  
9 temp2 = F(a)                               # Store return value as variable (temp2)  
10  
11  
12 print F(a+1)                               # Given input argument 'a+1' (value 10 + 1)  
13                                     # Print return value to screen (no storing)  
14  
15 sum_temp = F(10) + F(20)                   # Two calls to get two output values  
16                                     # Combine output values and store
```

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

### Example

Consider the usual list **Cdegrees** of temperatures in degrees Celsius

- Interest in computing a list of corresponding Fahrenheit's
- We want to use function **F**, in a list comprehension

```
1 #####  
2 def F(C):                                     # T conversion function #  
3     return (9.0/5)*C + 32                     # F(C) #  
4 #####  
5  
6 Cdegrees = [-20, -15, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35]  
7  
8 Fdegrees = [F(C) for C in Cdegrees]
```

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

### Example

Consider a slight variation of the `F(C)` function

↪ `F2(C)`

We define `F2(C)` to return a formatted `string`

↪ (Instead of a real number)

```
1 #####
2 def F2(C):                                #
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32              #
4     return '%.1f degrees Celsius correspond to '\
5           '%.1f degrees Fahrenheit' % (C, F_value)  #
6 #####
```

How to use this new function?

```
1 >>> s1 = F2(21)
2
3 >>> print s1
4      21.0 degrees Celsius correspond to 69.8 Fahrenheits
```

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### Mathematical functions as Python functions

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def F2(C):                                #
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32              #
4     return '%.1f degrees Celsius correspond to '\
5           '%.1f degrees Fahrenheit' % (C, F_value)  #
6 #####
```

Note the `F_value` assignment inside the `function`

- We can create `variables` inside a `function`
- We can perform operations with them

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

### Example

Consider the construction of a temperature-conversion program `c2f.py`

```
1 #####
2 def F(C):                                #
3     F = 9./5*C + 32                      #
4     return F                             #
5 #####
6 dC = 10
7 C = -30
8
9
10 while C <= 50:
11     print '%5.1f %5.1f' % (C, F(C))
12     C += dC
```

The code contains a function `F(C)` and a `while` loop

↪ Print a table of temperatures

↪ Both Celsius and Fahrenheit

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## Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

Programmers must understand the sequence of statements in a program

- There are excellent tools that help build such understanding
- A `debugger` and/or the `Online Python Tutor`

A debugger should be used for all sorts of programs, large and small

- `Online Python Tutor` is an educational tool (small programs)

Go to `Online Python Tutor` (link/click me), copy and paste your code

Use the 'forward' button to advance, one statement at a time

- Observe the sequence of operations
- Observe the evolution of variables
- Observe, observe, observe, ...

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# Local and global variables

## Functions

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## Local and global variables

### Definition

*Local variables are variables that are defined within a function*

*Local variables are invisible outside functions*

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## Local and global variables

### Example

Consider the following function

```
1 #####
2 def F2(C): #
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32 #
4     return '%.1f degrees Celsius correspond to '\ #
5         '%.1f degrees Fahrenheit' % (C, F_value) #
6 #####
```

Consider a simple function call

```
1 >>> s1 = F2(21)
2
3 >>> s1
4 '21.0 degrees Celsius correspond to 69.8 Fahrenheits'
```

In function **F2(C)**, variable **F\_value** is a **local variable**

- It is inside a **function**

A **local variable** does not 'exist' outside the **function**

- (It cannot be accessed and used for computations)

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def F2(C): #
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32 #
4     return '%.1f degrees Celsius correspond to '\ #
5         '%.1f degrees Fahrenheit' % (C, F_value) #
6 #####
```

The (main) program around function **F2(C)** is not aware of variable **F\_value**

~ If invoked, an error message is returned

```
1 >>> c1 = 37.5
2
3 >>> s2 = F2(c1)
4
5 >>> F_value
6 ...
7 NameError: name 'F_value' is not defined
```

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Remark

**Local variables** are created inside a **function**

~ They are destroyed when leaving the **function**

Also **input arguments** are **local variables**

~ They cannot be accessed outside the **function**

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Example

Consider the **input argument** to **function F2**, variable **C**

~ Variable **C** is a **local variable**

```
1 #####  
2 def F2(C):  
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32  
4     return '%.1f degrees Celsius correspond to '\  
5           '%.1f degrees Fahrenheit' % (C, F_value)  
6 #####
```

We cannot access variable **C** outside the **function**

```
1 >>> c1 = 37.5  
2 >>> s2 = F2(c1)  
3 >>> F_value  
4 ...  
5 NameError: name 'F_value' is not defined  
6  
7 >>> C  
8 ...  
9 NameError: name 'C' is not defined
```

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## Local and global variables (cont)

### Definition

**Variables** defined outside the **function** are **global variables**

**Global variables** are accessible everywhere in a program

~ Also from inside a **function**

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Example

```
1 #####  
2 def F2(C):  
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32  
4     return '%.1f degrees Celsius correspond to '\  
5           '%.1f degrees Fahrenheit' % (C, F_value)  
6 #####
```

~ **C** and **F\_value** are **local variables**

```
1 >>> c1 = 37.5  
2 >>> s2 = F2(c1)
```

~ **c1** and **s2** (and **s1**) are **global variables**

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Example

```
1 #####
2 def F2(C):
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32
4     return '%.1f degrees Celsius correspond to '\
5           '%.1f degrees Fahrenheit' % (C, F_value)
6 #####

1 >>> c1 = 37.5
2 >>> s2 = F2(c1)
3
4 >>> F_value
5 ...
6 NameError: name 'F_value' is not defined
7 >>> C
8 ...
9 NameError: name 'C' is not defined
10
11 >>> c1
12 ... 37.5
13 >>> s2
14 ... '37.5 degrees Celsius correspond to 99.5 Fahrenheits'
```

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Example

Consider a slight modification of our original function

```
1 #####
2 def F3(C):
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32
4     print 'In F3: C=%s F_value=%s r=%s' % (C,F_value,r)
5     return '%.1f Celsius correspond to '\
6           '%.1f Fahrenheit' % (C,F_value)
7 #####
```

We ask the function to write out its variables

- Two **local variables** `F_value`, `C`
- A **global variable** `r`

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def F3(C):
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32
4     print 'In F3: C=%s F_value=%s r=%s' % (C,F_value,r)
5     return '%.1f Celsius correspond to '\
6           '%.1f Fahrenheit' % (C,F_value)
7 #####

1 >>> C = 60
2 >>> r = 21
3
4 >>> s3 = F3(r)
5     In F3: C=21 F_value=69.8 r=21
6     # Internal variable C has value 21
7     # Assign output to variable s3
8
9 >>> s3
10 '21.0 Celsius correspond to 69.8 Fahrenheit' # It is a string object
11
12 >>> C
13 60
    # External variable C has value 60
```

The example illustrates also that there are two different variables `C`

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

The two variables `C`

- `C` **local variable** exists only when the program flow is inside `F3`
- `C` **global variable** is defined outside in the main (an `int` object)

```
1 #####
2 def F3(C):
3     F_value = (9.0/5)*C + 32
4     print 'In F3: C=%s F_value=%s r=%s' % (C,F_value,r)
5     return '%.1f Celsius correspond to '\
6           '%.1f Fahrenheit' % (C,F_value)
7 #####
```

```
1 >>> C = 60
2 >>> r = 21
```

The value of the latter (**local**) `C` is given in the call to **function** `F3`

- When we refer to `C` in `F3`, we access the **local variable**
- Inside `F3`, **local variable** `C` shades **global variable** `C`

**Local variables** hide/shade **global variables**

~ This is important

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Remark

Technically, **global variable** `C` can (still) be accessed as `globals()['C']`

- This practice is deprecated

Avoid **local** and **global variables** with the same name at the same time!

The general rule, when there are **variables** with the same name

- ① Python first looks up the name among **local variables**
- ② Then, it searches among **global variables**
- ③ And, then among **built-in functions**

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Example

Consider the single-line piece of code

```
1 print sum # sum is a built-in Python function
```

There are no **local variables** in the first line of code

Python then searches for a **global variable**, `sum`

~ It cannot find any

Python then checks among all **built-in functions**

~ It finds a **built-in function** with name `sum`

~ `print sum` returns `<built-in function sum>`

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

Consider now this three-line piece of code

```
1 print sum # sum is a built-in Python function
2
3 sum = 500 # rebind name sum to an int object
4 # sum is a global variable
5
6 print sum
```

The second line binds global name `sum` to an **int object**

At accessing `sum` in `print` statement, Python searches **global variables**

- Still no **local variables** are present
- It finds the one just defined

The printout becomes `500`

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

```
1 print sum # sum is a built-in Python function
2 sum = 500 # rebind name sum to an int object
3 # sum is a global variable
4
5
6 #####
7 def myfunc(n):
8     sum = n + 1 # sum is a local variable #
9     print sum #
10    return sum #
11 #####
12
13 sum = myfunc(2) + 1 # new value in global variable sum
14 print sum
```

Call `myfunc(2)` invokes a **function** where `sum` is a **local variable**

`print sum` makes Python first search among **local variables**

~ `sum` is found there, the printout is `3`

~ (The printout is not `500`, the value of **global variable** `sum`)

Value of **local variable** `sum` is returned, added to `1`, to form an **int object**

- The **int object** is then bound to **global variable** `sum` (value `4`)

Final `print sum` searches **global variables**, it finds one (value `4`)



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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Remark

The values of **global variables** can be accessed inside **functions**

- Though their values cannot be changed
- Unless the variable is declared as global

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## Local and global variables (cont.)

### Example

Consider the following piece of code

```
1 a = 20; b = -2.5 # global variables
2
3 #####
4 def f1(x):
5     a = 21 # this is a new local variable
6     return a*x + b
7 #####
8
9 print a # shows 20
10
11 #####
12 def f2(x):
13     global a # a is declared global
14     a = 21 # the global a is changed
15     return a*x + b
16 #####
17
18 f1(3); print a # 20 is printed
19 f2(3); print a # 21 is printed
```

Note that within **function f1**, **a = 21** creates a **local variable a**

- This does not change the **global variable a**

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## Multiple arguments

**Functions F(C)** and **F2(C)** are **functions** of one single variable **C**

- Both **functions** take one **input argument (C)**

Yet, **functions** can have as many **input arguments** as needed

- Need to separate the **input arguments** by commas **(,)**

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## Multiple arguments (cont.)

### Example

Consider the mathematical function

$$\leadsto y(t) = v_0 t - \frac{1}{2} g t^2$$

$g$  is a fixed constant and  $v_0$  is a physical parameter that can vary

Mathematically, function  $y$  is a function of one variable,  $t$

- The function values also depend on the value  $v_0$
- To evaluate  $y$ , we need values for both  $t$  and  $v_0$

## Multiple arguments (cont.)

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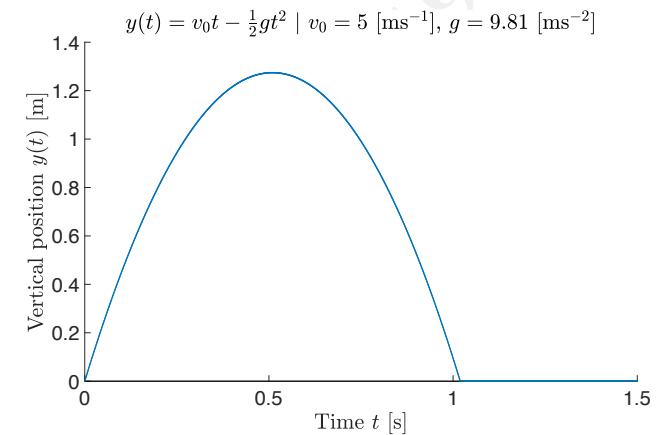
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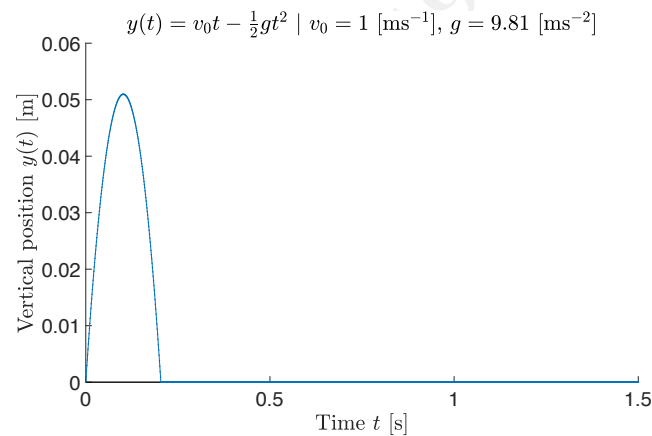
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## Multiple arguments (cont.)



## Multiple arguments (cont.)

$$y(t) = v_0 t - 1/2 g t^2$$

A natural implementation would be a **function** with two **arguments**

```
1 #####
2 def yfunc(t, v0): #
3     g = 9.81 #
4     return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2 #
5 #####
```

Within the **function** **yfunc**, **arguments** **t** and **v0** are **local variables**

- **g** is also a **local variable**

Suppose that we are interested in the function  $y(t) = v_0 t - 1/2 g t^2$

- $v_0 = 6 \text{ [ms}^{-1}\text{]}, t = 0.1 \text{ [s]}$

```
1 #####
2 def yfunc(t, v0): #
3     g = 9.81 #
4     return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2 #
5 #####
6
7 y1 = yfunc(0.1, 6.) # value1, value2
8 y2 = yfunc(0.1, v0=6.) # value1, argument2=value2
9 y3 = yfunc(t=0.1, v0=6.) # argument1=value1, argument2=value2
10 y4 = yfunc(v0=6, t=0.1) # argument2=value2, argument1=value1
```

Advantages deriving from writing **argument=value** in the call

- Reading and understanding the statement is easier

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## Multiple arguments (cont.)

Suppose that the `argument=value` syntax is given for all **arguments**

- The sequence of the **arguments** is no longer important
- (We can place `v0` before `t`)

Suppose that we omit the `argument=` part

- Then, it is important to remember that the sequence of **arguments** in the call must match (exactly) the sequence of **arguments** in the header

### Remark

Consider `argument=value arguments`

They must appear AFTER all the **arguments** where only value is provided

```
1 #####
2 def yfunc(t, v0): #
3     g = 9.81 #
4     return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2 #
5 #####
```

~ `yfunc(0.1, v0=6)` is correct

~ `yfunc(t=0.1, 6)` is illegal

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## Multiple arguments (cont.)

Consider the case in which `yfunc(0.1, 6)` or `yfunc(v0=6, t=0.1)` is used

The **arguments** are automatically initialised as **local variables**

- The 'exist' within the **function**

**Initialisation** is the same as assigning values to **variables**

```
1 t = 0.1
2 v0 = 6.
3
4 #####
5 def yfunc(t, v0): #
6     g = 9.81 #
7     return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2 #
8 #####
```

Such **statements** are not visible in the code

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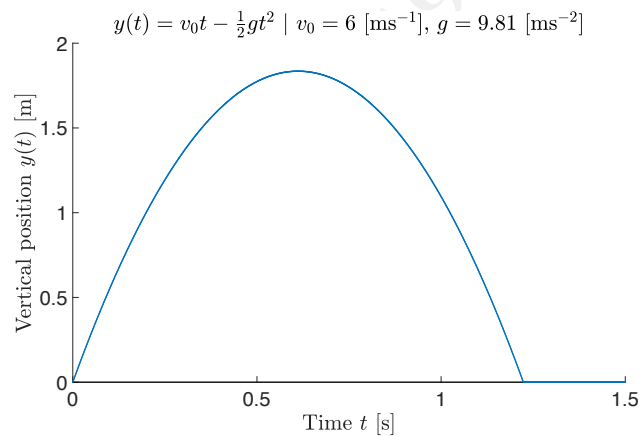
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**Function argument**

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## Function argument v global variable

$$y(t) = v_0 t - \frac{1}{2} g t^2$$

Mathematically, function  $y$  is understood as a function of one variable,  $t$

A Python implementation as **function** `yfunc` should reflect this fact

- `yfunc` should be a **function** of `t` only

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## Function argument v global variable

### Example

Consider the following construction

```
1 #####
2 def yfunc(t):
3     g = 9.81
4     return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
5 #####
```

Variable `v0` is interpreted as a **global variable**

It needs be initialised outside **function** `yfunc`

- Before we attempt to call `yfunc`

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## Function argument v global variable (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def yfunc(t):
3     g = 9.81
4     return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
5 #####
```

Failing to initialise a **global variable** leads to an error message

```
1 >>> yfunc(0.6)
2 ...
3 NameError: global name 'v0' is not defined
```

We need to define `v0` as a **global variable** prior to calling `yfunc`

```
1 >>> v0 = 5.
2 >>> yfunc(0.6)
3 1.2342
```

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## Beyond math functions

So far, Python **functions** have typically computed some mathematical expression, but their usefulness goes beyond mathematical functions

- Any set of statements to be repeatedly executed under slightly different circumstances is a candidate for a Python **function**

### Example

We want to make a list of numbers

Starting from some value (**start**) and stop at some other value (**stop**)

- We have given increments (**inc**)

Consider using variables **start=2**, **stop=8**, and **inc=2**

- This would produce numbers 2, 4, 6, and 8

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## Beyond math functions (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def makelist(start, stop, inc):
3     value = start
4     result = []
5
6     while value <= stop:
7         result.append(value)
8         value = value + inc
9
10    return result
11 #####
```

```
1 >>> mylist = makelist(0, 100, 0.2)
2
3 >>> print mylist
4                                     #           It will print the sequence
                                     # 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, ... 99.8, 100
```

- Function **makelist** has three arguments: **start**, **stop**, and **inc**
- Inside the **function**, the **arguments** become **local variables**
- Also **value** and **result** are **local variables**

In the surrounding program (**main**), we define one variable, **mylist**

- Variable **mylist** is a **global variable**

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## Beyond math functions (cont.)

**range(start, stop, inc)** does not make the **makelist** function redundant

- ~ **makelist** can generate real numbers
- ~ **range** can only generate integers

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## Multiple returns

### Example

Suppose that we are interested in a function  $y(t)$  and its derivative  $y'(t)$

$$y(t) = v_0 t - \frac{1}{2} g t^2$$

$$y'(t) = v_0 - g t$$

Suppose that we want to get both  $y(t)$  and  $y'(t)$  from **function** `yfunc`

```
1 #####
2 def yfunc(t, v0):
3     g = 9.81
4
5     y = v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
6     dydt = v0 - g*t
7
8     return y, dydt
9 #####
```

We included both calculations, then we separated variables in the **return**

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## Multiple returns (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def yfunc(t, v0):
3     g = 9.81
4     y = v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
5     dydt = v0 - g*t
6     return y, dydt
7 #####
```

In the main, `yfunc` needs two names on LHS of the assignment operator

~ (Intuitively, as the function now returns two values)

```
1 >>> position, velocity = yfunc(0.6, 3)
```

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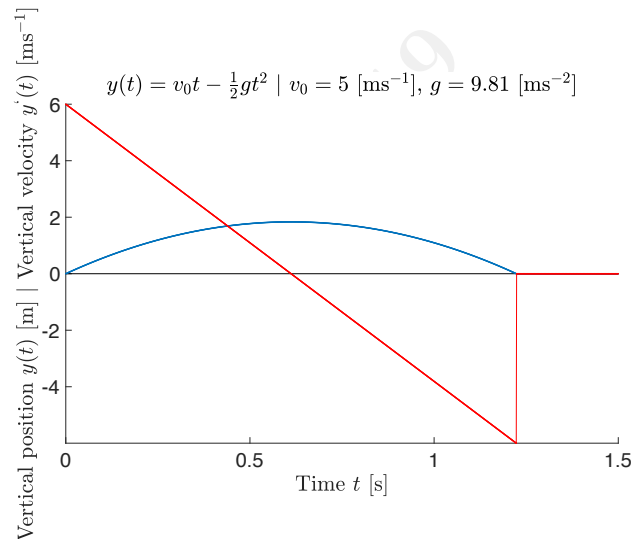
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## Multiple returns (cont.)

We can use the function `yfunc` in the production of a formatted table

- Values of  $t$ ,  $y(t)$  and  $y'(t)$

```
1 #####
2 def yfunc(t, v0):
3     g = 9.81
4     y = v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
5     dydt = v0 - g*t
6     return y, dydt
7 #####
8
9 t_values = [0.05*i for i in range(10)]
10
11 for t in t_values:
12     position, velocity = yfunc(t, v0=5)
13     print 't=%-10g position=%-10g velocity=%-10g' % \
14         (t, position, velocity)
```

Format `%-10g` prints a real number as compactly as possible

- Whether in decimal or scientific notation)
- Within a field of width 10 characters

The minus sign (-) after the percentage sign (%)

- Prints a number that is left-adjusted

(Important for creating nice-looking columns)

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## Multiple returns (cont.)

```
1 t=0      position=0      velocity=5
2 t=0.05   position=0.237737 velocity=4.5095
3 t=0.1    position=0.45095  velocity=4.019
4 t=0.15   position=0.639638 velocity=3.5285
5 t=0.2    position=0.8038   velocity=3.038
6 t=0.25   position=0.943437 velocity=2.5475
7 t=0.3    position=1.05855  velocity=2.057
8 t=0.35   position=1.14914  velocity=1.5665
9 t=0.4    position=1.2152   velocity=1.076
10 t=0.45   position=1.25674  velocity=0.5855
```



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## Multiple returns (cont.)

### Remark

**Functions** returning multiple (comma-separated) values returns a **tuple**

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## Multiple returns (cont.)

### Example

Consider the following function

```
1 #####
2 def f(x):                                     #
3     return x, x**2, x**4                     #
4 #####
```

Three objects are returned as output arguments

```
1 >>> s = f(2)
2 >>> s                                     #           Stored as a tuple
3     (2, 4, 16)
4
5 >>> type(s)
6     <type 'tuple'>
7
8 >>> x, x2, x4 = f(2)                       #           Stored as separate variables
```



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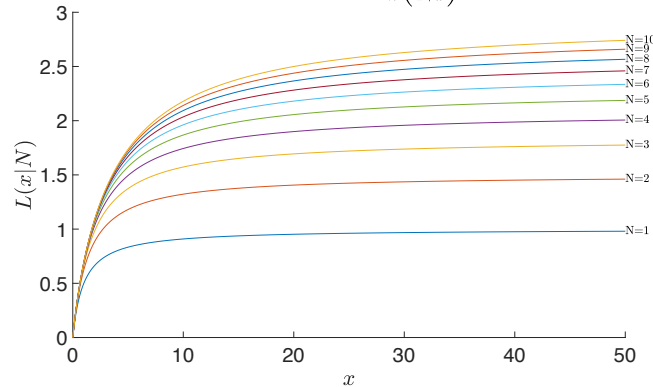
## Summation

### Example

Suppose we are interested in creating a **function** to calculate the sum

$$L(x; n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} \left( \frac{x}{1+x} \right)^i$$

$$L(x|N) = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{x}{1+x} \right)^n$$



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## Summation

To compute the sum, a loop and add terms to an accumulation variable

- We performed a similar task with a **while loop**

Summations with integer counters (like  $i$ ) are normally (often) implemented by a **for-loop** over the  $i$  counter (we performed also this task)

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2$$

```
1 s = 0
2 for i in range(1, n+1):
3     s += i**2
```

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## Summation (cont.)

$$L(x; n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} \left( \frac{x}{1+x} \right)^i$$

```
1 s = 0
2 for i in range(1, n+1):
3     s += (1.0/i)*(x/(1.0+x))**i
```

Observe the terms **1.0** used to avoid integer division

~  $i$  is an **int** object and  $x$  may also be an **int**

We want to embed the computation of the sum in a Python **function**

~  $x$  and  $n$  are the **input arguments**

~ The sum  $s$  is the **return output**

```
1 #####
2 def L(x, n):
3     s = 0
4     for i in range(1, n+1):
5         s += (1.0/i)*(x/(1.0+x))**i
6     return s
7 #####
```

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## Summation (cont.)

It can be shown that  $L(x; n)$  is an approximation to  $\ln(1+x)$

- For a finite  $n$  and for  $x \geq 1$

The approximation becomes exact in the limit

$$\leadsto \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L(x; n) = \ln(1+x)$$

Instead of having **L** return only the value of the sum **s**, it would be also interesting to return additional information on the approximation error



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## Summation (cont.)

$$L(x; n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} \left( \frac{x}{1+x} \right)^i$$

The size of the terms decreases with  $n$

~ The first neglected term ( $n+1$ ) is bigger than all remaining terms

~ (those calculated for  $n+2, n+3, \dots$ )

Yet, it is not necessarily bigger than their sum

The first neglected term is hence an indication of the size of the total error

~ We may use this term as a crude estimate of the error

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## Summation (cont.)

We return the exact error (we calculate the `log` function by `math.log`)

### Example

```
1 #####
2 def L2(x, n):
3     s = 0
4     for i in range(1, n+1):
5         s += (1.0/i)*(x/(1.0+x))**i
6     value_of_sum = s
7
8     first_neglected_term = (1.0/(n+1))*(x/(1.0+x))**(n+1)
9
10    from math import log
11    exact_error = log(1+x) - value_of_sum
12
13    return value_of_sum, first_neglected_term, exact_error
14 #####
15
16 value, approximate_error, exact_error = L2(x, 100)
```

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**No returns**  
**Functions**

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## No returns

Sometimes a `function` can be defined to performs a set of statements

- Without necessarily computing objects returned to calling code

In such situations, the `return statement` is not needed

- The `function` without `return values`

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## No returns (cont.)

### Example

Consider the construction of a table of the accuracy of function  $L(x; n)$

↪ It is an approximation to  $\ln(1+x)$

```
1 #####
2 def L2(x, n):
3     s = 0
4     for i in range(1, n+1):
5         s += (1.0/i)*(x/(1.0+x))**i
6     value_of_sum = s
7
8     first_neglected_term = (1.0/(n+1))*(x/(1.0+x))**(n+1)
9
10    from math import log
11    exact_error = log(1+x) - value_of_sum
12
13    return value_of_sum, first_neglected_term, exact_error
14 #####
15
16 def table(x):
17     print '\nx=%g, ln(1+x)=%g' % (x, log(1+x))
18
19     for n in [1, 2, 10, 100, 500]:
20         value, next, error = L2(x, n)
21         print 'n=%-4d %-10g (next term: %8.2e \'
22             'error: %8.2e)' % (n, value, next, error)
23 #####
```

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## No returns (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def L2(x, n):
3     s = 0
4     for i in range(1, n+1):
5         s += (1.0/i)*(x/(1.0+x))**i
6     value_of_sum = s
7
8     first_neglected_term = (1.0/(n+1))*(x/(1.0+x))**(n+1)
9
10    from math import log
11    exact_error = log(1+x) - value_of_sum
12
13    return value_of_sum, first_neglected_term, exact_error
14 #####
15
16 def table(x):
17     print '\nx=%g, ln(1+x)=%g' % (x, log(1+x))
18
19     for n in [1, 2, 10, 100, 500]:
20         value, next, error = L2(x, n)
21         print 'n=%-4d %-10g (next term: %8.2e \'
22             'error: %8.2e)' % (n, value, next, error)
23 #####
24
25 >>> table(10)
26 x=10, ln(1+x)=2.3979
27 n=1 0.909091 (next term: 4.13e-01 error: 1.49e+00)
28 n=2 1.32231 (next term: 2.50e-01 error: 1.08e+00)
29 n=10 2.17907 (next term: 3.19e-02 error: 2.19e-01)
30 n=100 2.39789 (next term: 6.53e-07 error: 6.59e-06)
31 n=500 2.3979 (next term: 3.65e-24 error: 6.22e-15)
```

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## No returns (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def L2(x, n):
3     s = 0
4     for i in range(1, n+1):
5         s += (1.0/i)*(x/(1.0+x))**i
6     value_of_sum = s
7
8     first_neglected_term = (1.0/(n+1))*(x/(1.0+x))**(n+1)
9
10    from math import log
11    exact_error = log(1+x) - value_of_sum
12
13    return value_of_sum, first_neglected_term, exact_error
14 #####
15
16 def table(x):
17     print '\nx=%g, ln(1+x)=%g' % (x, log(1+x))
18
19     for n in [1, 2, 10, 100, 500]:
20         value, next, error = L2(x, n)
21         print 'n=%-4d %-10g (next term: %8.2e \'
22             'error: %8.2e)' % (n, value, next, error)
23 #####
24
25 >>> table(1000)
26 x=1000, ln(1+x)=6.90875
27 n=1 0.999001 (next term: 4.99e-01 error: 5.91e+00)
28 n=2 1.498 (next term: 3.32e-01 error: 5.41e+00)
29 n=10 2.919 (next term: 8.99e-02 error: 3.99e+00)
30 n=100 5.08989 (next term: 8.95e-03 error: 1.82e+00)
31 n=500 6.34928 (next term: 1.21e-03 error: 5.59e-01)
```

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## No returns (cont.)

```
1 >>> table(10)
2 x=10, ln(1+x)=2.3979
3 n=1 0.909091 (next term: 4.13e-01 error: 1.49e+00)
4 n=2 1.32231 (next term: 2.50e-01 error: 1.08e+00)
5 n=10 2.17907 (next term: 3.19e-02 error: 2.19e-01)
6 n=100 2.39789 (next term: 6.53e-07 error: 6.59e-06)
7 n=500 2.3979 (next term: 3.65e-24 error: 6.22e-15)
8
9 >>> table(1000)
10 x=1000, ln(1+x)=6.90875
11 n=1 0.999001 (next term: 4.99e-01 error: 5.91e+00)
12 n=2 1.498 (next term: 3.32e-01 error: 5.41e+00)
13 n=10 2.919 (next term: 8.99e-02 error: 3.99e+00)
14 n=100 5.08989 (next term: 8.95e-03 error: 1.82e+00)
15 n=500 6.34928 (next term: 1.21e-03 error: 5.59e-01)
```

- Error is an order of magnitude larger than the first neglected term
- Convergence is slower for larger values of  $x$  than smaller  $x$

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## No returns (cont.)

### Remark

For **functions** w/o **return statement**, Python inserts an invisible one

- The invisible return is named **None**
- **None** is a special object in Python

**None** represents something we may think of as the 'nothingness'

Normally, one would call **function table** w/o assigning **return value**

Yet, imagine we still assign the **return value** to a variable

- ~ The result will refer to a **None object**
- ~ **result = table(500)**

The **None** value is often used for variables that should exist in a program

- But, where it is natural to think of the value as conceptually undefined

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## No returns (cont.)

The standard way to test if an object **obj** is set to **None** or not reads

```
1 if obj is None:
2     ...
3
4 if obj is not None:
5     ...
```

~ The **is** operator tests if two names refer to the same object

~ The **==** tests checks if the contents of two objects are the same

```
1 >>> a = 1
2 >>> b = a
3
4 >>> a is b                                # a and b refer to the same object
5     True
6
7 >>> c = 1.0                                # a and c do not refer to the same object
8
9 >>> a is c
10     False
11
12 >>> a == c                                # a and c are mathematically equal
13     True
```

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## Keyword arguments Functions

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## Keyword arguments

The **input arguments** of a **function** can be assigned a default value

~ These arguments can be left out in the call

This is how a such a **function** may be defined

```
1 #####
2 def somefunc(arg1, arg2, kwarg1=True, kwarg2=0):
3     print arg1, arg2, kwarg1, kwarg2
4 #####
5
6 #####
7 def somefunc(arg1, arg2, kwarg1=True, kwarg2=0):
8     print arg1, arg2, kwarg1, kwarg2
9 #####
```

First args (here, **arg1** and **arg2**) are **ordinary/positional arguments**

Last two args (**kwarg1** and **kwarg2**) are **keyword/named arguments**

Each **keyword argument** has a name and an associated a default value

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## Keyword arguments (cont.)

### Example

```
1 #####
2 def somefunc(arg1, arg2, kwarg1=True, kwarg2=0): #
3     print arg1, arg2, kwarg1, kwarg2 #
4 #####
1 >>> somefunc('Hello', [1,2])
2 Hello [1, 2] True 0
3
4 >>> somefunc('Hello', [1,2], kwarg1='Hi')
5 Hello [1, 2] Hi 0
6
7 >>> somefunc('Hello', [1,2], kwarg2='Hi')
8 Hello [1, 2] True Hi
9
10 >>> somefunc('Hello', [1,2], kwarg2='Hi', kwarg1=6)
11 Hello [1, 2] 6 Hi
```

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## Keyword arguments (cont.)

### Remark

**Keyword arguments** must be listed **AFTER** **positional arguments**

Suppose that ALL **input arguments** are explicitly referred to (**name=value**)

The sequence is not relevant, **positional** and **keyword** can be mixed up

```
1 >>> somefunc(kwarg2='Hello', arg1='Hi', kwarg1=6, arg2=[1,2])
2 Hi [1, 2] 6 Hello
```

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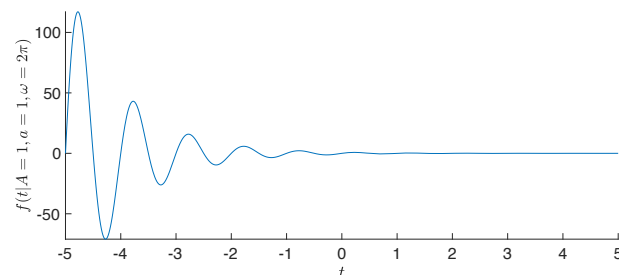
## Keyword arguments (cont.)

### Example

Consider some function of  $t$  also containing some parameters  $A$ ,  $a$  and  $\omega$

$$f(t; A, a, \omega) = Ae^{-at} \sin(\omega t)$$

We have,



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## Keyword arguments (cont.)

$$f(t; A, a, \omega) = Ae^{-at} \sin(\omega t)$$

We implement  $f$  as function of independent variable  $t$ , **ordinary argument**

We set parameters  $A$ ,  $a$ , and  $\omega$  as **keyword arguments** with default values

```
1 from math import pi, exp, sin
2
3 #####
4 def f(t, A=1, a=1, omega=2*pi): #
5     return A*exp(-a*t)*sin(omega*t) #
6 #####
```

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## Keyword arguments (cont.)

```
1 #####
2 def f(t, A=1, a=1, omega=2*pi):
3     return A*exp(-a*t)*sin(omega*t)
4 #####
```

We can call **function** **f** with only **argument** **t** specified

```
1 >>> v1 = f(0.2)
```

Some of the other possible function calls

```
1 >>> v2 = f(0.2, omega=1)
2 >>> v3 = f(1, A=5, omega=pi, a=pi**2)
3 >>> v4 = f(A=5, a=2, t=0.01, omega=0.1)
4 >>> v5 = f(0.2, 0.5, 1, 1)
```



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## Keyword arguments (cont.)

### Example

Consider  $L(x; n)$  and functional implementations  $L(x, n)$  and  $L2(x, n)$

$$L(x; n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} \left( \frac{x}{1+x} \right)^i, \text{ with } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L(x; n) = \ln(1+x), \text{ for } x \geq 1$$

We can now specify a minimum tolerance value  $\varepsilon$  for the accuracy

~ (Instead of specifying the number  $n$  of terms in the sum)

We can use the first neglected term as an estimate of the accuracy

- Add terms as long as the absolute value of next term is greater than  $\varepsilon$

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## Keyword arguments (cont.)

$$L(x; n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} \left( \frac{x}{1+x} \right)^i$$

It is natural to provide a default value for  $\varepsilon$

```
1 #####
2 def L3(x, epsilon=1.0E-6):
3     x = float(x)
4     i = 1
5     term = (1.0/i)*(x/(1+x))**i
6     s = term
7
8     while abs(term) > epsilon:
9         i += 1
10        term = (1.0/i)*(x/(1+x))**i
11        s += term
12
13    return s, i
14 #####
```

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## Keyword arguments (cont.)

We make a table of the approximation error as  $\varepsilon$  decreases

```
1 #####
2 def L3(x, epsilon=1.0E-6):
3     x = float(x)
4     i = 1
5     term = (1.0/i)*(x/(1+x))**i
6     s = term
7
8     while abs(term) > epsilon:
9         i += 1
10        term = (1.0/i)*(x/(1+x))**i
11        s += term
12
13    return s, i
14 #####
15
16 #####
17 def table2(x):
18     from math import log
19
20     for k in range(4, 14, 2):
21         epsilon = 10**(-k)
22         approx, n = L3(x, epsilon=epsilon)
23         exact = log(1+x)
24         exact_error = exact - approx
25     #####
```

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## Keyword arguments (cont.)

The output from calling `table2(10)`

```
1 >>> table2(10)
2 epsilon: 1e-04, exact error: 8.18e-04, n=55
3 epsilon: 1e-06, exact error: 9.02e-06, n=97
4 epsilon: 1e-08, exact error: 8.70e-08, n=142
5 epsilon: 1e-10, exact error: 9.20e-10, n=187
6 epsilon: 1e-12, exact error: 9.31e-12, n=233
```

The `epsilon` estimate is about ten times smaller than the exact error

- regardless of the size of `epsilon`

`epsilon` follows the exact error over many orders of magnitude

We may view `epsilon` as a valid indication of error size

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## Doc strings

There is a convention to augment `functions` with some documentation

- The **documentation string**, known as a **doc string**
- A short description of the purpose of the **function**
- It explains what arguments and return values are
- Placed after the `def funcname:` line of definition

**Doc strings** are usually enclosed in triple double quotes `"""`

- This allows the string to span several lines

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## Doc strings (cont.)

### Example

Consider the following Python function with plain documentation

```
1 #####
2 def C2F(C):
3     """
4     Convert Celsius degrees (C) to Fahrenheit.
5
6     C: Input argument, temperature in Celsius
7     return: Temperature in Fahrenheit
8     """
9
10    return (9.0/5)*C + 32
11 #####
```

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## Doc strings (cont.)

### Example

Consider the following Python function with documentation and arguments

```
1 #####  
2 def line(x0, y0, x1, y1):  
3     """  
4     Compute the coefficients a and b in the mathematical expression for  
5     a straight line  $y = a*x + b$  that goes through two points (x0, y0)  
6     and (x1, y1).  
7  
8     x0, y0: a point on the line (floats).  
9     x1, y1: another point on the line (floats).  
10    return: coefficients a, b (floats) for the line (y=a*x+b).  
11    """  
12  
13    a = (y1 - y0)/float(x1 - x0)  
14    b = y0 - a*x0  
15    return a, b  
16 #####
```

## Functions and branching

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### Functions

Mathematical functions as Python functions

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## Doc strings (cont.)

To extract **doc strings** from source code use `funcname.__doc__`

```
1 >>> print line.__doc__
```

```
1 Compute the coefficients a and b in the mathematical expression for  
2 a straight line  $y = a*x + b$  that goes through two points (x0, y0)  
3 and (x1, y1).  
4  
5 x0, y0: a point on the line (float objects).  
6 x1, y1: another point on the line (float objects).  
7 return: coefficients a, b (floats) for the line (y=a*x+b).
```

If **function line** is in a file **funcs.py**, we can run **pydoc funcs.line**

- Shows the documentation of **function line**
- **Function signature** and **doc string**

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## Doc strings (cont.)

**Doc strings** often contain interactive sessions, from the Python shell

- They are used to illustrate how the **function** can be used

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## Doc strings (cont.)

### Example

Consider the following Python function with complete documentation

```
1 #####  
2 def line(x0, y0, x1, y1):  
3     """  
4     Compute the coefficients a and b in the mathematical expression for  
5     a straight line  $y = a*x + b$  that goes through two points (x0, y0)  
6     and (x1, y1).  
7  
8     x0, y0: a point on the line (floats).  
9     x1, y1: another point on the line (floats).  
10    return: coefficients a, b (floats) for the line (y=a*x+b).  
11    """  
12  
13    Example:  
14    >>> a, b = line(1, -1, 4, 3)  
15    >>> a  
16    1.3333333333333333  
17    >>> b  
18    -2.3333333333333333  
19    """  
20  
21    a = (y1 - y0)/float(x1 - x0)  
22    b = y0 - a*x0  
23    return a, b  
24 #####
```

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## Functions (cont.)

The usual convention in Python

- **Function arguments** represent input data to the function
- **Returned objects** represent output data from function

### Definition

*The general structure of a Python function*

```
1 def somefunc(i1, i2, i3, io4, io5, i6=value1, io7=value2):
2
3     # modify io4, io5, io6
4     # compute o1, o2, o3
5
6     return o1, o2, o3, io4, io5, io7
```

- ~  $i1, i2, i3$  are **positional arguments**, input data
- ~  $io4$  and  $io5$  are **positional arguments**, input and output data
- ~  $i6$  and  $io7$  are **keyword arguments**, input and input/output data
- ~  $o1, o2$ , and  $o3$  are computed in the function, output data

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# Functions as arguments to functions

## Functions

#### Functions

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## Functions as arguments to functions

We can have **functions** to be used as **arguments** to other **functions**

A math function  $f(x)$  may be needed for specific Python **functions**

### Numerical root finding

- Solve  $f(x) = 0$ , approximately

### Numerical differentiation

- Compute  $f'(x)$ , approximately

### Numerical integration

- Compute  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ , approximately

### Numerical solution of differential equations

- Compute  $x(t)$  from  $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x)$ , approximately

In such **functions**, function  $f(x)$  can be used as **input argument** (**f**)

#### Functions

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## Functions as arguments to functions (cont.)

This is straightforward in Python and hardly needs any explanation

- In most other languages, special constructions must be used
- Transfer a function to another function as argument



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## Functions as arguments to functions (cont.)

### Example

Compute the 2nd-order derivative of some function  $f(x)$ , numerically

$$f''(x) \approx \frac{f(x-h) - 2f(x) + f(x+h)}{h^2}$$

$h$  is a small number

A Python **function** that implements this expression

```
1 #####
2 def diff2nd(f, x, h=1E-6):
3     r = (f(x-h) - 2*f(x) + f(x+h))/float(h*h)
4     return r
5 #####
```

$f$  is a name for a **function object**

- It is treated as the other **input arguments**

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## Functions as arguments to functions (cont.)

$$f''(x) \approx \frac{f(x-h) - 2f(x) + f(x+h)}{h^2}$$

```
1 #####
2 def g(t):
3     return t**(-6)
4 #####
5
6 #####
7 def diff2nd(f, x, h=1E-6):
8     r = (f(x-h) - 2*f(x) + f(x+h))/float(h*h)
9     return r
10 #####
11
12 t = 1.2
13 d2g = diff2nd(g, t)
14
15 print "g'(<f>f)=%f" % (t, d2g)
```

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## Functions as arguments to functions (cont.)

$$f''(x) \approx \frac{f(x-h) - 2f(x) + f(x+h)}{h^2}$$

Asymptotically, the approximation of the derivative get more accurate

- For  $h \rightarrow 0$

We show this property by making a table of the second-order derivatives

- $g(t) = t^{-6}$ , for  $t = 1$  and  $h \rightarrow 0$

```
1 for k in range(1,15):
2     h = 10**(-k)
3     d2g = diff2nd(g, 1, h)
4     print 'h=%0e: %.5f' % (h, d2g)
```

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## Functions as arguments to functions (cont.)

The exact answer is  $g''(t=1) = 42$

```
1 h=1e-01: 44.61504
2 h=1e-02: 42.02521
3 h=1e-03: 42.00025
4 h=1e-04: 42.00000
5 h=1e-05: 41.99999
6 h=1e-06: 42.00074
7 h=1e-07: 41.94423
8 h=1e-08: 47.73959
9 h=1e-09: -666.13381
10 h=1e-10: 0.00000
11 h=1e-11: 0.00000
12 h=1e-12: -666133814.77509
13 h=1e-13: 66613381477.50939
14 h=1e-14: 0.00000
```

Computations start returning very inaccurate results for  $h < 10^{-8}$

- For small  $h$  rounding errors blow up and destroy accuracy
- It is necessary to switch from standard floating-point numbers (**float**) to numbers with arbitrary high precision (**module decimal**)

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## The main program

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## The main program

In programs with **functions**, a part of the program is the **main program**

- ~ It is the collection of all statements outside the **functions**
- ~ Plus, the definition of all **functions**

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## The main program

### Example

```
1 from math import * # In main
2
3 #####
4 def f(x): # A function, in main #
5     e = exp(-0.1*x) #
6     s = sin(6*pi*x) #
7     return e*s #
8 #####
9
10 x = 2 # In main
11 y = f(x) # In main
12 print 'f(%g)=%g' % (x, y) # In main
```

Execution always starts with the first line in the **main**

When a **function** is encountered, its statements are used to define it

- Nothing is computed inside a **function** before it is called

Variables initialised in the **main program** become **global variables**

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## The main program (cont.)

```
1 from math import * # In main
2
3 #####
4 def f(x): # A function, in main #
5     e = exp(-0.1*x) #
6     s = sin(6*pi*x) #
7     return e*s #
8 #####
9
10 x = 2 # In main
11 y = f(x) # In main
12 print 'f(%g)=%g' % (x, y) # In main
```

- 1 Import **functions** from the **math module**
- 2 Define **function f(x)**
- 3 Define **x**
- 4 Call **f** and execute the function body
- 5 Define **y** as the value returned from **f**
- 6 Print a string



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# Lambda functions

## Functions

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## Lambda functions

A convenient one-line construction of **functions** used to make code compact

```
1 f = lambda x: x**2 + 4
```

This so-called **lambda function** is equivalent to the usual form

```
1 #####  
2 def f(x): #  
3     return x**2 + 4 #  
4 #####
```

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## Lambda functions

### Definition

*In general, we have the following*

```
1 #####  
2 def g(arg1, arg2, arg3, ...): #  
3     return expression #  
4 #####
```

*This can be re-written*

```
1 g = lambda arg1, arg2, arg3, ...: expression
```

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## Lambda functions (cont.)

**Lambda functions** are used as **function argument** to **functions**

### Example

```
1 #####  
2 def g(t): # g(t) = t^(-6) #  
3     return t**(-6) #  
4 #####  
5  
6 #####  
7 def diff2nd(f, x, h=1E-6): #  
8     r = (f(x-h) - 2*f(x) + f(x+h))/float(h+h) #  
9     return r #  
10 #####  
11  
12 t = 1.2  
13 d2g = diff2nd(g, t)  
14  
15 print "g' '(%f)=%f" % (t, d2g)
```

Consider the **diff2nd** function used to differentiate  $g(t) = t^{-6}$  twice

- We first make a **g(t)** then pass **g** as **input argument** to **diff2nd**

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## Lambda functions (cont.)

```
1 #####  
2 def diff2nd(f, x, h=1E-6):  
3     r = (f(x-h) - 2*f(x) + f(x+h))/float(h*h)  
4     return r  
5 #####
```

We skip the step of defining `g(t)` and use a **lambda function** instead

```
1 >>> d2 = diff2nd(lambda t: t**(-6), 1, h=1E-4)
```

~ A **lambda function** `f` as **input argument** into `diff2nd`



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## Lambda functions (cont.)

### Remark

**Lambda functions** can also take **keyword arguments**

```
1 d2 = diff2nd(lambda t, A=1, a=0.5: -a*2*t*A*exp(-a*t**2), 1.2)
```

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## Branching

The flow of computer programs often needs to branch

- ~ If a condition is met, we do one thing
- ~ If it is not met, we do some other thing

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## Branching

### Example

Consider the multi-case function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(x), & 0 \leq x \leq \pi \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Implementing this function requires a test on the value of  $x$

Consider the following implementation

```
1 #####  
2 def f(x):  
3     #  
4     if 0 <= x <= pi:  
5         value = sin(x)  
6     else:  
7         value = 0  
8     #  
9     return value  
10 #####
```



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## IF-ELSE blocks Branching

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## IF-ELSE blocks

### Definition

The general structure of the **IF-ELSE test**

```
1 if condition:  
2     <block of statements,  
3     executed if condition is True>  
4  
5 else:  
6     <block of statements,  
7     executed if condition is False>
```

- If **condition** is **True**, the program flow goes into the first block of statements, indented after the **if:** line
- If **condition** is **False**, program flow goes into the second block of statements, indented after the **else:** line

The blocks of statements are indented, and note the two two-points



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## IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

### Example

Consider the following code

```
1 if C < -273.15:  
2     print '%g degrees Celsius is non-physical!' % C  
3     print 'The Fahrenheit temperature will not be computed.'  
4  
5 else:  
6     F = 9.0/5*C + 32  
7     print F  
8  
9 print 'end of program'
```

We have,

- The two **print statements** in the **IF-block** are executed if and only if condition **C < -273.15** evaluates as **True**
- Otherwise, execution skips the **print statements** and carries out with the computation of the statements in the **ELSE-block** and prints **F**

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## IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

```
1 if C < -273.15:
2     print '%g degrees Celsius is non-physical!' % C
3     print 'The Fahrenheit temperature will not be computed.'
4
5 else:
6     F = 9.0/5*C + 32
7     print F
8
9 print 'end of program'
```

The **end of program** bit is printed regardless of the condition check outcome

~ This statement is not indented

It is neither part of the **IF-block** nor of the **ELSE-block**



## IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

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### Definition

The **else** part of the **IF-ELSE test** can be skipped

```
1 if condition:
2     <block of statements>
3 <next statement>
```



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## IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

### Example

Consider the following code

```
1 if C < -273.15:
2     print '%s degrees Celsius is non-physical!' % C
3
4 F = 9.0/5*C + 32
```

The computation of **F** will always be carried out

- The statement is not indented
- It is not part of the **IF-block**



## IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

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Inline IF-tests

### Definition

With **elif** (for else if) several mutually exclusive **IF-test** are performed

```
1 if condition1:
2     <block of statements>
3
4 elif condition2:
5     <block of statements>
6
7 elif condition3:
8     <block of statements>
9
10 else:
11     <block of statements>
12 <next statement>
```

This construct allows for multiple branching of the program flow



## Functions and branching

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### Functions

Mathematical functions as Python functions  
Local and global variables  
Multiple arguments  
Function argument v global variable  
Beyond math functions  
Multiple returns  
Summation  
No returns  
Keyword arguments  
Doc strings  
Functions as arguments to functions  
The main program  
Lambda functions

### Branching

IF-ELSE blocks  
Inline IF-tests

## IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

### Example

Let us consider the so-called HAT function

$$N(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x, & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 2 - x, & 1 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0, & x \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

Write a Python **function** that implements it

## IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

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$$N(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x, & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 2 - x, & 1 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0, & x \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

Consider the following implementation

```
1 #####  
2 def N(x):  
3     #  
4     if x < 0:  
5         return 0.0  
6     #  
7     elif 0 <= x < 1:  
8         return x  
9     #  
10    elif 1 <= x < 2:  
11        return 2 - x  
12    #  
13    elif x >= 2:  
14        return 0.0  
15    #####
```

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## IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

$$N(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ x, & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 2 - x, & 1 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0, & x \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

Consider an alternative implementation

```
1 #####  
2 def N(x):  
3     #  
4     if 0 <= x < 1:  
5         return x  
6     #  
7     elif 1 <= x < 2:  
8         return 2 - x  
9     #  
10    else:  
11        return 0.0  
12    #####
```



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**Inline IF-tests**  
**Branching**

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## Inline IF-test

Variables are often assigned a value based on some boolean expression

Consider the following code using a common **IF-ELSE test**

```
1 if condition:
2     a = value1
3 else:
4     a = value2
```

The equivalent one-line syntax (**inline IF-test**)

```
1 a = (value1 if condition else value2)
```

## Inline IF-test (cont.)

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### Example

Consider the following multiple-case mathematical function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(x), & 0 \leq x \leq \pi \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

We are interested in the corresponding Python function

We have,

```
1 #####
2 def f(x):
3     return (sin(x) if 0 <= x <= 2*pi else 0)
4 #####
```

Alternatively, we have

```
1 f = lambda x: sin(x) if 0 <= x <= 2*pi else 0
```

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## Inline IF-test (cont.)

### Remark

The **IF-ELSE test** cannot be used inside a **lambda function**

Notice that the test has more than one single expression

- **Lambda functions** cannot have statements
- Only a single expression is accepted