

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
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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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- Intro to variables, objects, modules, and text formatting
- Programming with WHILE- and FOR-loops, and lists
- **Functions and IF-ELSE tests**
- Data reading and writing
- Error handling
- 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

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Functions (cont.)

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

- This is to influence what is computed in it
- (A function contains statements in it)

The *function* may return new objects

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Functions (cont.)

Functions help avoid duplicating bits of code (puts all pf 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
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Math functions as Python functions

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

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Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

Example

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

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

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**, this is followed by the **function name**

- \leadsto Inside parentheses, a comma-separated list of **function arguments**
- \leadsto 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

- \leadsto 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 $F(C)$)

[illegible]

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Math functions as Python functions (cont.)

Example

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

We are interested in computing a list of corresponding Fahrenheits

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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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
7 dC = 10
8 C = -30
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

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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
7
8
9 >>> s3
10 '21.0 Celsius correspond to 69.8 Fahrenheit' # It is a string object
11
12 >>> C
13 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 '\n'  
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 print sum
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)

Local and global variables (cont.)

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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 (,)

Multiple arguments (cont.)

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Example

Consider the mathematical function

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

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

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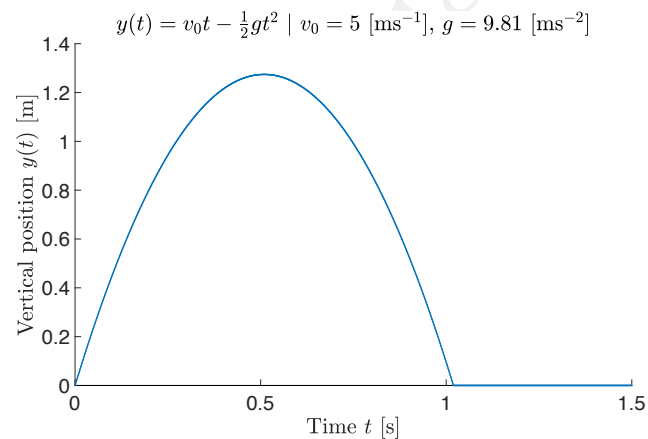
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Multiple arguments (cont.)



Multiple arguments (cont.)

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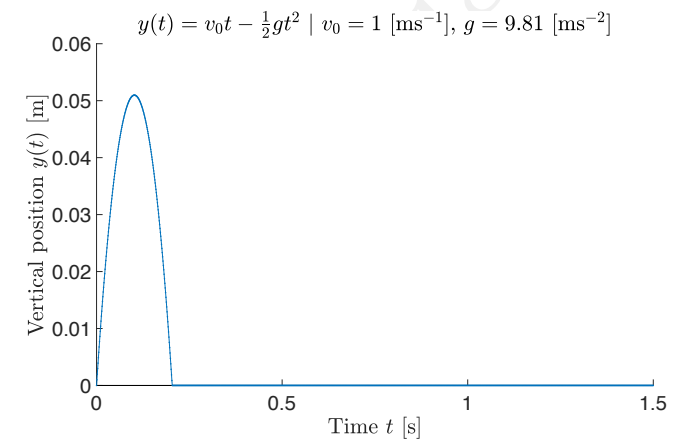
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Multiple arguments (cont.)

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

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**

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Multiple arguments (cont.)

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

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

```
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

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Multiple arguments (cont.)

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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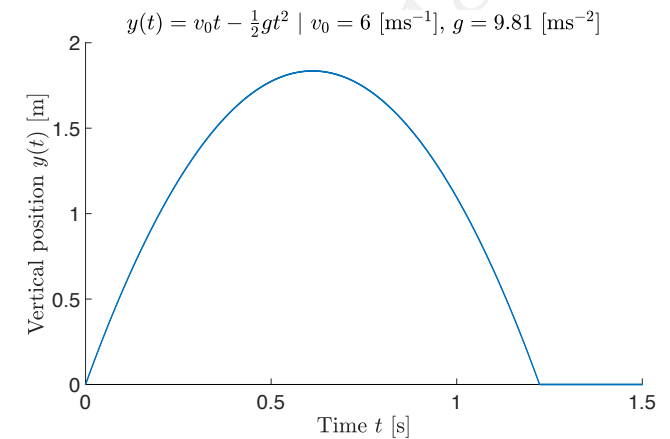
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Function argument v global variable

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

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**

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Beyond math functions

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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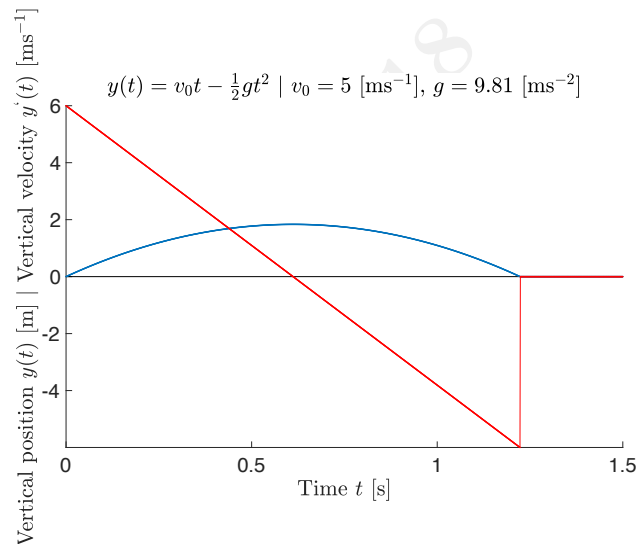
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Multiple returns (cont.)

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 #####
5
6 Three objects are returned as output arguments
7
8 >>> s = f(2)
9 >>> s                                     #           Stored as a tuple
10 (2, 4, 16)
11
12 >>> type(s)
13 <type 'tuple'>
14
15 >>> 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

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

Summation

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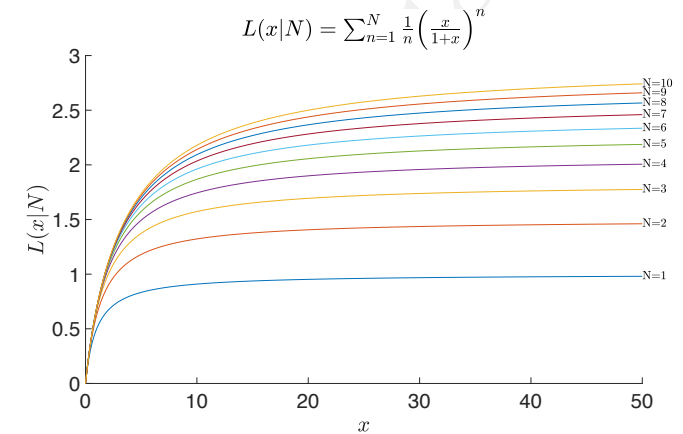
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Summation

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
```

Summation (cont.)

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

```
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**

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Summation (cont.)

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

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, ...**)

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 value, approximate_error, exact_error = L2(x, 100)
16
```

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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, eactual_error
14 #####
15
16 #####
17 def table(x):
18     print '\nx=%g, ln(1+x)=%g' % (x, log(1+x))
19
20     for n in [1, 2, 10, 100, 500]:
21         value, next, error = L2(x, n)
22         print 'n=%-4d %-10g (next term: %8.2e '\
23             'error: %8.2e)' % (n, value, next, error)
24 #####
```

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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, eactual_error
14 #####
15
16 #####
17 def table(x):
18     print '\nx=%g, ln(1+x)=%g' % (x, log(1+x))
19
20     for n in [1, 2, 10, 100, 500]:
21         value, next, error = L2(x, n)
22         print 'n=%-4d %-10g (next term: %8.2e '\
23             'error: %8.2e)' % (n, value, next, error)
24 #####
25
26 >>> table(10)
27 x=10, ln(1+x)=2.3979
28 n=1 0.909091 (next term: 4.13e-01 error: 1.49e+00)
29 n=2 1.32231 (next term: 2.50e-01 error: 1.08e+00)
30 n=10 2.17907 (next term: 3.19e-02 error: 2.19e-01)
31 n=100 2.39789 (next term: 6.53e-07 error: 6.59e-06)
32 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
20     for n in [1, 2, 10, 100, 500]:
21         value, next, error = L2(x, n)
22         print 'n=%-4d %-10g (next term: %8.2e '\
23             'error: %8.2e)' % (n, value, next, error)
24 #####
25
26 >>> table(1000)
27 x=1000, ln(1+x)=6.90875
28 n=1 0.999001 (next term: 4.99e-01 error: 5.91e+00)
29 n=2 1.498 (next term: 3.32e-01 error: 5.41e+00)
30 n=10 2.919 (next term: 8.99e-02 error: 3.99e+00)
31 n=100 5.08989 (next term: 8.95e-03 error: 1.82e+00)
32 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'

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No returns (cont.)

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                                # a and c do not refer to the same object
10    False
11
12 >>> a == c                               # a and c are mathematically equal
13    True
```

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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 #####
```

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Keyword arguments (cont.)

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

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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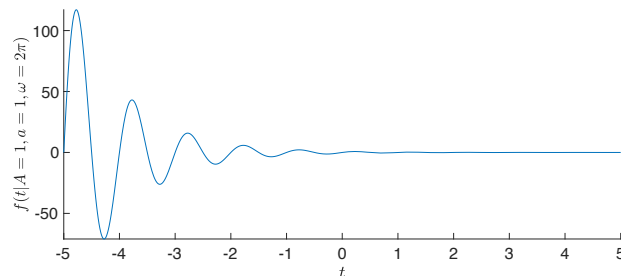
Keyword arguments (cont.)

Example

Consider some function of t also containing some parameters A , a and ω

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

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 ω 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 ε 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 ε

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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 ε

```
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 ε 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

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

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Doc strings (cont.)

Example

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

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

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

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Doc strings (cont.)

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

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

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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

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Functions (cont.)

A general Python function

Definition

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

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**)

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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** for the task

```
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, like other **input arguments**, a name for a **function object**

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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" % (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

- as $h \rightarrow 0$

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

- $g(t) = t^{-6}$ at $t = 1$ as $h \rightarrow 0$

```
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
- Switching from standard floating-point numbers (`float`) to numbers with arbitrary high precision (`module decimal`) solves the problem

■

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The main program

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

- 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
```

- ❶ Import **functions** from the **math** module
- ❷ Define **function** **f(x)**
- ❸ Define **x**
- ❹ Call **f** and execute the function body
- ❺ Define **y** as the value returned from **f**
- ❻ Print a string



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Lambda functions

A 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 def f(x):
2     return x**2 + 4
```

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Lambda functions

Definition

In general, we have

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

This can be re-written

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



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Lambda functions (cont.)

Lambda functions are used for function argument to functions

Example

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`

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

- A lambda function `f` as input argument into `diff2nd`

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

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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

As an example, consider the multi-case function

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

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Example

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

Implementing this function requires a test on the value of x

Consider the following implementation

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



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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-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 outcome

- This statement is not indented

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



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IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

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

Definition

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



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IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

Example

```
1 if C < -273.15:
2     print '%s degrees Celsius is non-physical!' % C
3     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**



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IF-ELSE blocks (cont.)

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



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

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



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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)
```

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Inline IF-test (cont.)

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

Alternatively, we have

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



Functions and branching

UFC/DC
FdP - 2017.1

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

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