5mm.

INF1100 Lectures, Chapter 3: Functions and Branching

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We have used many Python functions

- Mathematical functions:
```
from math import *
y = sin(x)*log(x)
```
- Other functions:
```
n = len(somelist)
ints = range(5, n, 2)
```
- Functions used with the dot syntax (called *methods*):
```
C = [5, 10, 40, 45]
i = C.index(10)        # result: i=1
C.append(50)
C.insert(2, 20)
```
- What is a function? So far we have seen that we put some objects in and sometimes get an object (result) out
- Next topic: learn to write your own functions

Python functions

- Function = a collection of statements we can execute wherever and whenever we want
- Function can take input objects and produce output objects
- Functions help to organize programs, make them more understandable, shorter, and easier to extend
- Simple example: a mathematical function $F(C) = \frac{9}{5}C + 32$
```
def F(C):
    return (9.0/5)*C + 32
```
- Functions start with `def`, then the name of the function, then a list of arguments (here `C`) – the *function header*
- Inside the function: statements – the *function body*
- Wherever we want, inside the function, we can "stop the function" and return as many values/variables we want

Functions must be called

- A function does not do anything before it is called
- Examples on calling the `F(C)` function:
```
a = 10
F1 = F(a)
temp = F(15.5)
print F(a+1)
sum_temp = F(10) + F(20)
Fdegrees = [F(C) for C in Cdegrees]
```
- Since `F(C)` produces (returns) a `float` object, we can call `F(C)` everywhere a `float` can be used

Local variables in Functions

- Example: sum the integers from `start` to `stop`
```
def sumint(start, stop):
    s = 0      # variable for accumulating the sum
    i = start  # counter
    while i <= stop:
        s += i
        i += 1
    return s

print sumint(0, 10)
sum_10_100 = sumint(10, 100)
```
- `i` and `s` are local variables in `sumint` – these are destroyed at the end (return) of the function and never visible outside the function (in the calling program); in fact, `start` and `stop` are also local variables
- In the program above, there is one global variable, `sum_10_100`, and two local variables, `s` and `i` (in the `sumint` function)
- Read Chapter 2.2.2 in the book about local and global variables!!

Python function for the "ball in the air formula"

- Recall the formula $y(t) = v_0 t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$:
- We can make Python function for $y(t)$:
```
def yfunc(t, v0):
    g = 9.81
    return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2

# sample calls:
y = yfunc(0.1, 6)
y = yfunc(0.1, v0=6)
y = yfunc(t=0.1, v0=6)
y = yfunc(v0=6, t=0.1)
```
- Functions can have as many arguments as you like
- When we make a call `yfunc(0.1, 6)`, all these statements are in fact executed:
```
t = 0.1  # arguments get values as in standard assignments
v0 = 6
g = 9.81
return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
```


Functions may access global variables

- The `y(t,v0)` function took two arguments
- Could implement $y(t)$ as a function of t only:
```
>>> def yfunc(t):
...     g = 9.81
...     return v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
...
>>> yfunc(0.6)
...
NameError: global name 'v0' is not defined
```
- `v0` must be defined in the calling program program before we call `yfunc`
```
>>> v0 = 5
>>> yfunc(0.6)
1.2342
```
- `v0` is a global variable
- Global variables are variables defined outside functions
- Global variables are visible everywhere in a program
- `g` is a local variable, not visible outside of `yfunc`

Functions can return multiple values

- Say we want to compute $y(t)$ and $y'(t) = v_0 - gt$:
```
def yfunc(t, v0):
    g = 9.81
    y = v0*t - 0.5*g*t**2
    dydt = v0 - g*t
    return y, dydt

# call:
position, velocity = yfunc(0.6, 3)
```
- Separate the objects to be returned by comma
- What is returned is then actually a tuple
```
>>> def f(x):
...     return x, x**2, x**4
...
>>> s = f(2)
>>> s
(2, 4, 16)
>>> type(s)
<type 'tuple'>
>>> x, x2, x4 = f(2)
```

Example: compute a function defined as a sum

- The function

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

  is an approximation to $\ln(1+x)$ for a finite n and $x \geq 1$
- Let us make a Python function for $L(x;n)$:

```
def L(x, n):
    x = float(x)  # ensure float division below
    s = 0
    for i in range(1, n+1):
        s += (1.0/i)*(x/(1+x))**i
    return s

x = 5
from math import log as ln
print L(x, 10), L(x, 100), ln(1+x)
```


Returning errors as well from the L(x, n) function

- We can return more: also the first neglected term in the sum and the error ($\ln(1+x) - L(x;n)$):

```
def L2(x, n):
    x = float(x)
    s = 0
    for i in range(1, n+1):
        s += (1.0/i)*(x/(1+x))**i
    value_of_sum = s
    first_neglected_term = (1.0/(n+1))*(x/(1+x))**(n+1)
    from math import log
    exact_error = log(1+x) - value_of_sum
    return value_of_sum, first_neglected_term, exact_error

# typical call:
x = 1.2; n = 100
value, approximate_error, exact_error = L2(x, n)
```


Functions do not need to return objects

- Let us make a table of $L(x;n)$ versus the exact $\ln(1+x)$
- The table can be produced by a Python function
- This function prints out text and numbers but do not need to return anything – we can then skip the final `return`

```
def table(x):
    print '\nx=%g, ln(1+x)=%g' % (x, log(1+x))
    for n in [1, 2, 10, 100, 500]:
        value, next, error = L2(x, n)
        print 'n=%-4d %-10g  (next term: %8.2e  '\
              'error: %8.2e)' % (n, value, next, error)
```

- Output from `table(10)` on the screen:

```
x=10, ln(1+x)=2.3979
n=1    0.909091    (next term: 4.13e-01  error: 1.49e+00)
n=2    1.32231     (next term: 2.50e-01  error: 1.08e+00)
n=10   2.17907     (next term: 3.19e-02  error: 2.19e-01)
n=100  2.39789     (next term: 6.53e-07  error: 6.59e-06)
n=500  2.3979      (next term: 3.65e-24  error: 6.22e-15)
```


No return value implies that None is returned

- Consider a function without any return value:

```
>>> def message(course):
...     print "%s is the greatest fun I've "\
...           "ever experienced" % course
...
>>> message('INF1100')
INF1100 is the greatest fun I've ever experienced
>>> r = message('INF1100')  # store the return value
INF1100 is the greatest fun I've ever experienced
>>> print r
None
```

- `None` is a special Python object that represents an "empty" or undefined value – we will use it a lot later

Keyword arguments

- Functions can have arguments of the form name=value, called *keyword arguments*:

```
>>> def somefunc(arg1, arg2, kwarg1=True, kwarg2=0):
>>>     print arg1, arg2, kwarg1, kwarg2

>>> somefunc('Hello', [1,2])   # drop kwarg1 and kwarg2
Hello [1, 2] True 0            # default values are used

>>> somefunc('Hello', [1,2], kwarg1='Hi')
Hello [1, 2] Hi 0              # kwarg2 has default value

>>> somefunc('Hello', [1,2], kwarg2='Hi')
Hello [1, 2] True Hi           # kwarg1 has default value

>>> somefunc('Hello', [1,2], kwarg2='Hi', kwarg1=6)
Hello [1, 2] 6 Hi              # specify all args
```

- If we use name=value for *all* arguments, their sequence can be arbitrary:

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


Example: function with default parameteres

- Consider a function of t, with parameters A, a, and ω:

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

  We can implement f in a Python function with t as positional argument and A, a, and ω as keyword arguments:

```
from math import pi, exp, sin

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

v1 = f(0.2)
v2 = f(0.2, omega=1)
v2 = f(0.2, 1, 3)  # same as f(0.2, A=1, a=3)
v3 = f(0.2, omega=1, A=2.5)
v4 = f(A=5, a=0.1, omega=1, t=1.3)
v5 = f(t=0.2, A=9)
```


Doc strings

- Python convention: document the purpose of a function, its arguments, and its return values in a *doc string* – a (triple-quoted) string written right after the function header
- Examples:

```
def C2F(C):
    """Convert Celsius degrees (C) to Fahrenheit."""
    return (9.0/5)*C + 32

def line(x0, y0, x1, y1):
    """
    Compute the coefficients a and b in the mathematical
    expression for a straight line y = a*x + b that goes
    through two points (x0, y0) and (x1, y1).

    x0, y0: a point on the line (floats).
    x1, y1: another point on the line (floats).
    return: a, b (floats) for the line (y=a*x+b).
    """
    a = (y1 - y0)/(x1 - x0)
    b = y0 - a*x0
    return a, b
```


Convention for input and output data in functions

- A function can have three types of input and output data:
  - input data specified through positional/keyword arguments
  - input/output data given as positional/keyword arguments that will be modified and returned
  - output data created inside the function
- *All output data are returned, all input data are arguments*
- Sketch of a general Python function:

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

- `i1`, `i2`, `i3`, `i6`: pure input data
- `io4`, `io5`, `io7`: input and output data
- `o1`, `o2`, `o3`: pure output data

The main program

- A program contains functions and ordinary statements outside functions, the latter constitute the *main program*

```
from math import *          # in main

def f(x):                   # in main
    e = exp(-0.1*x)
    s = sin(6*pi*x)
    return e*s

x = 2                       # in main
y = f(x)                    # in main
print 'f(%g)=%g' % (x, y)   # in main
```

- The execution starts with the first statement in the main program and proceeds line by line, top to bottom
- `def` statements define a function, but the statements inside the function are not executed before the function is called

Math functions as arguments to Python functions

- Programs doing calculus frequently need to have functions as arguments in other functions
- We may have Python functions for
  - numerical integration: $\int_a^b f(x)dx$
  - numerical differentiation: $f'(x)$
  - numerical root finding: $f(x) = 0$
- Example: numerical computation of $f''(x)$ by

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

```
def diff2(f, x, h=1E-6):
    r = (f(x-h) - 2*f(x) + f(x+h))/float(h*h)
    return r
```

- No difficulty with `f` being a function (this is more complicated in Matlab, C, C++, Fortran, and very much more complicated in Java)

Application of the `diff2` function

Code:

```
def g(t):
    return t**(-6)

# make table of g''(t) for 14 h values:
for k in range(1,15):
    h = 10**(-k)
    print 'h=%.0e: %.5f' % (h, diff2(g, 1, h))
```

Output ($g''(1) = 42$):

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


What is the problem? Round-off errors...

- For $h < 10^{-8}$ the results are totally wrong
- We would expect better approximations as h gets smaller
- Problem: for small h we add and subtract numbers of approx equal size and this gives rise to round-off errors
- Remedy: use float variables with more digits
- Python has a (slow) float variable with arbitrary number of digits
- Using 25 digits gives accurate results for $h \leq 10^{-13}$
- Is this really a problem? Quite seldom – other uncertainies in input data to a mathematical computation makes it usual to have (e.g.) $10^{-2} \leq h \leq 10^{-6}$

If tests

- Sometimes we want to peform different actions depending on a condition
- Consider the function

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

- In a Python implementation of f we need to test on the value of x and branch into two computations:

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

- In general (the `else` block can be skipped):

```
if condition:
    <block of statements, executed if condition is True>
else:
    <block of statements, executed if condition is False>
```


If tests with multiple branches (part 1)

- We can test for multiple (here 3) conditions:

```
if condition1:
    <block of statements>
elif condition2:
    <block of statements>
elif condition3:
    <block of statements>
else:
    <block of statements>
<next statement>
```


If tests with multiple branches (part 2)

- Example on multiple branches:

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

```
def N(x):
    if x < 0:
        return 0
    elif 0 <= x < 1:
        return x
    elif 1 <= x < 2:
        return 2 - x
    elif x >= 2:
        return 0
```


Inline if tests

- A common construction is

```
if condition:
    variable = value1
else:
    variable = value2
```

- This test can be placed on one line as an expression:

```
variable = (value1 if condition else value2)
```

- Example:

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

Summary of if tests and functions

- If tests:

```
if x < 0:
    value = -1
elif x >= 0 and x <= 1:
    value = x
else:
    value = 1
```

- User-defined functions:

```
def quadratic_polynomial(x, a, b, c)
    value = a*x*x + b*x + c
    derivative = 2*a*x + b
    return value, derivative

# function call:
x = 1
p, dp = quadratic_polynomial(x, 2, 0.5, 1)
p, dp = quadratic_polynomial(x=x, a=-4, b=0.5, c=0)
```

- Positional arguments must appear before keyword arguments:

```
def f(x, A=1, a=1, w=pi):
    return A*exp(-a*x)*sin(w*x)
```


A summarizing example for Chapter 3; problem

- An integral

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx$$

can be approximated by *Simpson's rule*:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \frac{b-a}{3n}\Big(f(a)+f(b)+4\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} f(a+(2i-1)h) + 2\sum_{i=1}^{n/2-1} f(a+2ih)\Big)$$

- Problem: make a function `Simpson(f, a, b, n=500)` for computing an integral of `f(x)` by Simpson's rule. Call `Simpson(...)` for $\frac{3}{2}\int_0^\pi \sin^3 x dx$ (exact value: 2) for $n = 2, 6, 12, 100, 500$.

The program: function for computing the formula

```
def Simpson(f, a, b, n=500):
    """
    Return the approximation of the integral of f
    from a to b using Simpson's rule with n intervals.
    """

    h = (b - a)/float(n)

    sum1 = 0
    for i in range(1, n/2 + 1):
        sum1 += f(a + (2*i-1)*h)

    sum2 = 0
    for i in range(1, n/2):
        sum2 += f(a + 2*i*h)

    integral = (b-a)/(3*n)*(f(a) + f(b) + 4*sum1 + 2*sum2)
    return integral
```


The program: function, now with test for possible errors

```
def Simpson(f, a, b, n=500):

    if a > b:
        print 'Error: a=%g > b=%g' % (a, b)
        return None

    # Check that n is even
    if n % 2 != 0:
        print 'Error: n=%d is not an even integer!' % n
        n = n+1  # make n even

    # as before...
    ...
    return integral
```


The program: application (and main program)

```
def h(x):
    return (3./2)*sin(x)**3

from math import sin, pi

def application():
    print 'Integral of 1.5*sin^3 from 0 to pi:'
    for n in 2, 6, 12, 100, 500:
        approx = Simpson(h, 0, pi, n)
        print 'n=%3d, approx=%18.15f, error=%9.2E' %              (n, a

application()
```


The program: verification

Property of Simpson's rule: 2nd degree polynomials are integrated exactly!

```
def verify():
    """Check that 2nd-degree polynomials are integrated exactly."""
    a = 1.5
    b = 2.0
    n = 8
    g = lambda x: 3*x**2 - 7*x + 2.5       # test integrand
    G = lambda x: x**3 - 3.5*x**2 + 2.5*x  # integral of g
    exact = G(b) - G(a)
    approx = Simpson(g, a, b, n)
    if abs(exact - approx) > 1E-14:  # never use == for floats!
        print "Error: Simpson's rule should integrate g exactly"

verify()
```