

# MAS212 Scientific Computing and Simulation

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# Python basics

- These slides are intended as a guide to some basics of the Python 3 language.
- Many other tutorials are available on the web.
- See also course webpage; and MAS115.
- These slides show output from the standard Python interpreter, e.g.

```
>>> 3 + 4
7
```

- I recommend that you try entering the code snippets for yourself in (e.g.) an `ipython` terminal within Spyder (lower right panel).
- The best way to learn programming is through self-study.

# Comments in Python

- **Comments** in Python are preceded by # symbol
- Comments are intended for humans, and they are ignored by the interpreter
- Example:

```
>>> 3 + 4 # Python will ignore this comment  
7
```

- Comments can be used to help explain to yourself, or others, what your code is doing . . . or at least what you hope it is doing!

# Arithmetic

- Add, subtract, multiply and divide:

```
>>> 2 + 3
5
>>> 2 - 3
-1
>>> 2 * 3
6
>>> 2 / 3
0.6666666666666666
>>> 2 / 3.0
0.6666666666666666
```

- NB: In Python 2.7, dividing an `int` by an `int` returns an `int` (after rounding down).
- In Python 3.x this is **not** the case. Use `2 // 3` if you want only the integer part.

# Arithmetic

- Raise to a power with \*\*. Find the remainder with %.

```
>>> 5**2
25
>>> 2**0.5
1.4142135623730951
>>> 11 % 3
2
>>> 26 % 7
5
```

- Recall that raising to power of 0.5 is same as taking the square root.

# Data Types

- `bool` : a Boolean, either `True` or `False`
- Numerical types:  
`int`, `float`, `complex`
- Container types:  
`list`, `tuple`, `str`, `set`, `dict`
- Other types: `type`, `function`, `NoneType`, ...
- Specialized types:  
<https://docs.python.org/3/library/datatypes.html>
- Find out the data type with `type` function:

```
>>> type(3)
int
```

# Data Types: Numerical

- Examples:

```
>>> type(True)
bool
>>> type(3)
int
>>> type(3.0)
float
>>> type(3.0 + 2.0j)
complex
```

# Data Types: Containers

- Examples of str, list, tuple, set, dict types:

```
>>> type("hello")
str
>>> type([1,2,5])
list
>>> type((1,2,5))
tuple
>>> type({1,2,5})
set
>>> c = {"level": 2, "code": "MAS212", "lecturer": "Dolan"}
>>> type(c)
dict
>>> c["lecturer"]
'Dolan'
```



# Variables

- Data types are assigned to variables using =

```
>>> a = 3
>>> b = 4
>>> a + b
7
```

- Check you understand the following:

```
>>> a = [1,2]
>>> b = a
>>> a.append(3)
>>> b
[1, 2, 3]
```

- Lists are *mutable*: they can be changed. Tuples and strings are *immutable*.

## Testing for equality and identity

- We test for equality with a double-equals ==

```
>>> 0 == 1
False
>>> 1 == 1
True
```

- Two lists are equal if their corresponding elements are equal:

```
>>> a = [1,2]
>>> b = [1,2]
>>> c = [2,1]
>>> a == b
True
>>> a == c
False
```

- Though *a* and *b* are equal, they are *not the same list*:

```
>>> a = [1,2]; b = [1,2]
>>> a == b
True
>>> a is b
False
```

- Each object in memory (e.g. each list) has a unique ID:

```
>>> id(a), id(b)
(139763716892936, 139763717044344)
```

- The `is` keyword compares the IDs, to see if two objects are actually the same object.

```
>>> a is b
False
```

# Testing inequalities

- Further tests:

- != 'not equal'
- > 'greater than'
- >= 'greater than or equal to'
- < 'less than'
- <= 'less than or equal to'

- Examples:

```
>>> a = 1.0; b = 1.0; c = 1.1;
>>> b > a
False
>>> c > a
True
>>> b >= a
True
>>> b != a
False
```

# Lists

- Lists are great!
- Making a new list:

```
>>> [0, 1, 4, 9, 16] # you can specify elements explicitly
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16]
>>> list(range(5)) # or use a function to generate a list
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
>>> [i**2 for i in range(5)] # or make a new list from another
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16]
```

- You can build a list up from scratch:

```
>>> a = []
>>> a.append("horse")
>>> a.insert(0, "giraffe")
>>> a
['giraffe', 'horse']
```

- Concatenate (i.e. join) two or more lists with +

```
>>> a = ["horse", "giraffe"]
>>> b = ["kangeroo", "hippo"]
>>> a + b
['horse', 'giraffe', 'kangeroo', 'hippo']
```

- Sort a list (e.g. alphabetically):

```
>>> c = sorted(a+b)
>>> c
['giraffe', 'hippo', 'horse', 'kangeroo']
```

- Reverse the list:

```
>>> c.reverse() # in place
>>> c
['kangeroo', 'horse', 'hippo', 'giraffe']
```

# List comprehension

- We've seen how to make (e.g.) a list of square numbers:

```
>>> a = [i**2 for i in range(15)]
>>> a
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100, 121, 144, 169, 196]
```

- Let's break this down a bit:

`range(15)` : iterates over a list of integers 0... 14  
`for i in` : assigns `i` to each value in the list, in turn.  
`i**2` : raises `i` to the power of 2 (squares it).

- Do you understand the following snippet?

```
>>> [i % 5 for i in a]
[0, 1, 4, 4, 1, 0, 1, 4, 4, 1, 0, 1, 4, 4, 1]
```

- We can add an `if` condition when forming a list. For example,

```
>>> [i**2 for i in range(15) if i**2 % 5 < 2]
[0, 1, 16, 25, 36, 81, 100, 121, 196]
```

- We could use this (e.g.) to find the intersection of two lists:

```
>>> a = [5,3,8,11]
>>> b = [8,1,6,3]
>>> [i for i in a if i in b]
[3, 8]
```

- There's a better way:

```
>>> set(a) & set(b)
set([8, 3])
```

- In a **set** (unlike a list), duplicates are eliminated, and ordering is not significant.



# List indexing

- Individual elements:

```
>>> a = [i**2 for i in range(10)]
```

```
>>> a[0] # the first element
```

```
0
```

```
>>> a[1] # the second element
```

```
1
```

```
>>> a[-1] # the last element
```

```
81
```

```
>>> a[-2] # the second-to-last (penultimate) element
```

```
64
```

## List slicing

- We can take slices of lists to get new lists
- Examples:

```
>>> a = [i**2 for i in range(10)]
>>> a[2:5] # i.e. [a[2], a[3], a[4]]
[4, 9, 16]
>>> a[::2] # every other element
[0, 4, 16, 36, 64]
>>> a[::-1] # reversed list
[81, 64, 49, 36, 25, 16, 9, 4, 1, 0]
```

- The syntax here is [first\_index:last\_index:step]
- Omitted indices take default values:  
[0:length\_of\_list:1]

# List slicing

- List slicing can be used to modify part of a list:

```
>>> a = list(range(10))
>>> a[1:3] = ["giraffe", "iguana"]
>>> a
[0, 'giraffe', 'iguana', 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
```

# Swaps

- Suppose we have two variables  $a$ ,  $b$  and we wish to exchange their values,  $a \leftrightarrow b$ .
- It could be done like this:

```
>>> temp = a    # store in a temporary variable
>>> a = b
>>> b = temp
```

- In Python there's a **simpler way**:

```
>>> a, b = b, a
```

- You can swap elements in lists in a similar way, e.g.

```
>>> a = list(range(5))
>>> a[3], a[1] = a[1], a[3]
>>> a
[0, 3, 2, 1, 4]
```

# Strings

- A 'string' of characters that can be indexed like a list.
- Examples:

```
>>> s = "This is a string"
>>> len(s) # How many characters?
16
>>> s[0:5] # Get first five characters
'This '
>>> s[::2] # Get every other character
'Ti sasrn'
>>> s[::-1] # Reverse the string
'gnirts a si sihT'
>>> 'i' in s # Is there an 'i' in the string?
True
>>> 'e' in s # Is there an 'e' in the string?
False
```

- Strings are *immutable*: e.g. `s[0] = 't'` will not work

# Strings

- Strings can be converted to lists and back again:

```
>>> s = "A string"
>>> list(s)    # a list of characters
['A', ' ', 's', 't', 'r', 'i', 'n', 'g']
>>> " ".join(list(s))    # double spaced
'A  s t r i n g'
```

- Strings can be manipulated with split and join:

```
>>> s = "This is a sentence"
>>> s.split(" ")    # get a list of words
['This', 'is', 'a', 'sentence']
>>> "---".join(s.split(" "))    # Re-join words with three hyphens
'This---is---a---sentence'
```

# Strings

- Changing the case:

```
>>> s = "A String"  
>>> s.upper()  
'A STRING'  
>>> s.lower()  
'a string'  
>>> s.capitalize()  
'A string'
```

# Strings

- Find-and-replace is easy:

```
>>> s = "A hexagon has six sides"  
>>> s.replace("hexagon", "cube")  
'A cube has six sides'
```



## String formatting

- Often, you will want to format data in a particular way.
- Data types can be converted to strings quickly using `repr`.

```
>>> p = 3.1415926
>>> print("Pi is roughly " + repr(p))
Pi is roughly 3.1415926
```

- For more control, you can use the `format` method:

```
>>> for i in range(2,5):
...     print("Square root of {} is {}".format(i, i**0.5))
...
Square root of 2 is 1.41421356237
Square root of 3 is 1.73205080757
Square root of 4 is 2.0
```

# String formatting

- For (e.g.) three decimal places:

```
>>> for i in range(2,5):  
...     print("Square root of %i is %.3f" % (i, i**0.5))  
...  
Square root of 2 is 1.414  
Square root of 3 is 1.732  
Square root of 4 is 2.000
```

- Syntax: combine a string with a tuple using %.
- Here %i means 'integer' and %.3f means 'float with three digits after decimal point'.

# String formatting

- Format codes are common to many languages (Fortran, C, matlab, etc.). Here are the key letters:

- d signed decimal integer

- i integer

- u unsigned decimal integer

- f floating point real number

- E exponential notation (uppercase 'E')

- e exponential notation (lowercase 'e')

- g the shorter of %f and %e

- s string conversion

- c character

- Examples:

```
>>> print("%f %.3f %e %3.3e" % (p,p,p,p))
```

```
3.141593 3.142 3.141593e+00 3.142e+00
```

```
>>> print("%02i %05i" % (3, 3))
```

```
03 00003
```

## chr and ord

- Single characters can be converted to Unicode integers using `ord` ...
- ... and vice versa with `chr`

```
>>> ord('A')
65
>>> ord('!')
33
>>> chr(65)
'A'
>>> chr(33)
'!'
```

- **Challenge:** Can you use `ord` and `chr` to encrypt some text with a Caesar shift?

## for loops

- We have already met for loops, in which a variable iterates over a list.
- Example:

```
>>> for i in range(1, 6):  
...     print("The square of %d is %d" % (i, i**2))  
...  
The square of 1 is 1  
The square of 2 is 4  
The square of 3 is 9  
The square of 4 is 16  
The square of 5 is 25
```

- The *body* of the for loop is indented by one tab-space.

## while loops

- The same result can be achieved with a `while` loop.

Example:

```
>>> i = 1
>>> while i < 6:
...     print("The square of %d is %d" % (i, i**2))
...     i += 1    # increase i by 1
...
The square of 1 is 1
The square of 2 is 4
The square of 3 is 9
The square of 4 is 16
The square of 5 is 25
```

- **Danger:** If you forget to increment the counter variable (`i`), then the loop will not end! (This may crash your computer and you may lose your work!)

## Breaking out of a loop

- To exit a loop early, use the `break` keyword. Example:

```
>>> for i in range(10):
...     if i**2 >= 20:
...         break
...     print(i)
...
0
1
2
3
4
```

- Note that this is **not** a good way of finding numbers whose square is less than 20. Somewhat better would be:

```
>>> [i for i in range(10) if i**2 < 20]
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
```

## Control flow: `if-else-elif`

- `if` statements divert the flow of the program, depending on whether a condition is satisfied.
- `elif` is shorthand for 'else if'.
- Example (try changing the value of `a`):

```
>>> a = "horse"
>>> if a == "pig":
...     print("Oink!")
... elif a == "horse":
...     print("Neigh!")
... else:
...     print("-----")
...
Neigh!
```



# Functions

- A function is like a 'black box' that takes one or more inputs (**parameters**) and produces one output.
- (Since the output may be a container type (e.g. `list`), it can actually produce several outputs).
- New functions are defined with the `def` and `return` keywords. Example:

```
>>> def square(i):  
...     return i**2  
...  
>>> square(7) # try the function  
49  
>>> square(7.0)  
49.0
```

- Try passing a `list` or `str` data type to `square` – what happens?
- More info: <https://docs.python.org/release/1.5.1p1/tut/functions.html>

# Functions

- Functions can have *optional* named parameters. Example:

```
>>> def raisepower(a, power=2):  
...     # Note that 'power' is assigned a default value of 2  
...     return a**power  
...  
>>> raisepower(3)  
9  
>>> raisepower(2, power=3)  
8  
>>> raisepower(2, 0.5)  
1.4142135623730951
```

- The function may be called *without* specifying optional parameters, or,
- optional parameters may be set by name, or in order.

# Docstrings

- At the start of a function, you may write a (multiline) **docstring** to explain what the function does:

```
>>> def raisepower(a, power=2):  
...     """This is a docstring.  
...     This function raises the first parameter to  
...     the power of the second parameter."""  
...     return a**power  
...  
>>> help(raisepower)
```

- Now the docstring should appear in the 'help' for the function.
- In ipython, there is enhanced help. Try entering `?raisepower`.

## An example function: Fibonacci sequence

- Let's try a function to compute the Fibonacci sequence from the recurrence relation  $f_{k+1} = f_k + f_{k-1}$ :

```
>>> def fibonacci(n=10):  
...     """Computes a list of the first n Fibonacci numbers."""  
...     l = [0, 1]  
...     for i in range(n-1):  
...         l.append(l[-1] + l[-2])  
...     return l  
...
```

- Example output

```
>>> fibonacci(10)  
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55]
```

## An example function: Fibonacci sequence

- The ratio of successive terms should tend towards the Golden Ratio ( $(\sqrt{5} + 1)/2$ ). Let's check this:

```
>>> l = fibonacci(100)
>>> l[-1] / float(l[-2]) # an approximation to the Golden Ratio
1.618033988749895
>>> (5**0.5 + 1)/2.0 # the true Golden Ratio
1.618033988749895
```

## Functions: Scope

- Functions can **modify** container-type parameters.

```
>>> def addanimal(a):  
...     a.append("aardvark")  
...  
>>> l = ["horse"]  
>>> addanimal(l)  
>>> l  
['horse', 'aardvark']
```

- But this doesn't work the same way for numeric types:

```
>>> def addone(x):  
...     x += 1  
>>> x = 3  
>>> addone(x)  
>>> x  
3
```

- Solution: declare `x` with the `global` keyword.

## Functions: Scope

- A function can define & use its own **local** variables.
- It can also use **global** variables, defined elsewhere in the program.

```
>>> def fn():  
...     a = 5    # local variable a  
...     print(a,b) # global variable b  
...  
>>> b = 3  
>>> fn()  
5 3
```

- **Warning:** If the global variable `b` has not been defined, then calling the function leads to an error.

## Functions: Scope

- **Q.** What if a function defines a **local** variable which has the same name as a **global** variable?
- **A.** Within the function, the local variable is used. When the function ends, the local variable 'falls out of scope' (it is discarded). The global variable does not change.
- Example:

```
>>> def fn():
...     a = 3 # local variable
...     print(a)
...
>>> a = 4 # global variable
>>> fn() # this will print the value of the local variable
3
>>> print(a) # the global variable has not changed
4
```



## Functions: Scope

- If a local & global variables exist with the same name, then Python uses the local variable.
- **LEGB**: Python searches scope in this order: **L**ocal, **E**nclosing, then **G**lobal, then **B**uilt-in (e.g. `print()`).
- **Warning**: It is **very** easy to 'overwrite' built-in functions!
- Example:

```
>>> a = [3,4,5]
>>> sum(a) # 'sum' is a built-in function
12
>>> sum = 1234 # But what if we use 'sum' as a variable name?
>>> sum(a) # Now the 'sum' function doesn't work!
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<ipython-input-25-dd0a8bf65284>", line 1, in <module>
    sum(a)
TypeError: 'int' object is not callable
```

## Functions: Scope

- We defined a variable 'sum' with the same name as a built-in function.
- The variable did not overwrite the built-in function, but the variable took precedence.
- Python uses the first definition it finds: **L**ocal, **E**nclosing, **G**lobal, **B**uilt-in.
- If we 'delete' the variable, the built-in function works again

```
>>> del sum
>>> sum(a) # Now Python can find the built-in function again.
12
```

- To delete all global variables, use %reset.

## Functions: Good practice

- Split your programming challenge into small tasks, and write a function for each task.
- Use docstrings to describe the task, & the inputs and outputs.
- Avoid using global variables in functions, instead use function parameters, **or**,
- Make global variables explicit using the `global` keyword.
- Avoid repetition of code (i.e. don't copy-and paste lines of code making small changes).
- Instead, write a function, then call it inside a loop, to modify its parameters

## Functions: Good practice

- Example: Suppose you had some repetitive task:

```
>>> print("The mouse eats cheese.")
>>> print("The bird eats seeds.")
>>> print("The cat eats fish.")    # etc
```

- The task can be achieved using a function inside a loop:

```
>>> def eats(a, f):
...     print("The %s eats %s" % (a, f))
>>> data = (("mouse", "cheese"), ("bird", "seeds"), ("cat", "fish"))
>>> for (a,f) in data:
...     eats(a, f)
The mouse eats cheese.
The bird eats seeds.
The cat eats fish.
```

## Built-in functions

- Python has many built-in functions:  
<https://docs.python.org/3/library/functions.html>
- Here are just a few:
  - `abs` : find the absolute value
  - `chr` : convert an ASCII code to a character
  - `id` : find the unique ID of an object
  - `open` : open a file
  - `ord` : convert a character to an ASCII code
  - `print` : print to screen (e.g.)
  - `range` : make a list from an arithmetic progression
  - `repr` : convert object to string
  - `round` : round a number
  - `sum` : sum a list
  - `type` : get the data type
  - `zip` : zip a pair of lists into a list of tuples
- Use `?` to find out more about a function in `ipython`, e.g.:  
`?range`

## Reserved words

- Certain words are reserved by the Python language, and cannot be used for (e.g.) variable names:

```
and, as, assert, break, class, continue, def, del, elif, else,
except, False, finally, for, from, global, if, import, in, is,
lambda, None, nonlocal, not, or, pass, raise, return, True,
try, with, while, yield.
```

- The in-built function names should **not** be used for e.g. variable names

```
print, range, sorted, reversed, sum, # etc.
```

# Namespace

- **'Name collision'**: When two or more variables or functions share the same name (e.g. 'sum').
- **'Namespace'**: A structured hierarchy that allows re-use of names in different contexts, to prevent 'name collisions'.
- Example #1: a file system:  
/code/ and /mas212/code/ are different directories.
- Example #2: Packages & modules in Python:  
numpy.sin() and math.sin() are different functions

# Modules

- A **module** is a file containing variable & function definitions and statements.
- Modules are loaded using the `import` statement.
- Example: the `math` module:

```
>>> import math
>>> math.pi      # a variable, initialized to the mathematical constant pi
3.141592653589793
>>> math.sqrt(2) # a function in the math module
1.4142135623730951
```

- A **package** is a group of modules which can be referred to using “dotted module names”:  
`package_name.module_name.function()`.  
For example, `scipy.linalg.det()` for determinants.



# Modules

- Modules can be given shortened names:

```
>>> import math as m
>>> m.exp(1)
2.718281828459045
```

- Specific variables/functions can be loaded into the namespace:

```
>>> from math import sin, pi
>>> sin(pi/4.0)
0.7071067811865475
```

- It is **bad practice** to import *all* module contents into the namespace

```
>>> from math import *
>>> cos(pi/6.0)
0.8660254037844387
```

# Modules

- Python comes with a standard library which includes *built-in modules*:  
<https://docs.python.org/3/library/>
- Useful built-in modules include:  
math, cmath, random, decimal, datetime, io, os, sys
- There are many more modules & packages beyond the standard library
- Three key packages for scientific computing are:  
numpy, matplotlib, scipy
- Others at  
<https://wiki.python.org/moin/UsefulModules>

## Modules: making your own

- Any Python file (\*.py) is a module.
- For example, I could save the Fibonacci function definition in a file called `fib.py`. Starting the interpreter in the same directory, I import it just like a built-in module:

```
>>> import fib
>>> fib.fibonacci(10)
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55]
```

- Where does Python look for module files?
  - 1 First it checks for in-built modules.
  - 2 Then the current directory.
  - 3 Then in directories specified by `sys.path`

```
>>> import sys
>>> sys.path # a list of directories to search
```

- For more on creating modules and packages, see <https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/modules.html>

# Scripts

- A **script** is a module that is intended to be executed.

Any Python module may be executed as a script. When imported as a *module* the filename is used as the basis for the module name. When run as a *script* the module is named `__main__`. So script-specific code can be enclosed in a block under `if __name__=="__main__"`

- The first line of a script : `#!/usr/bin/python`
- A script may be run from the command line: `python script_name.py`
- Scripts can process command-line arguments:

```
import sys
print("Number of arguments: ", len(sys.argv), " arguments.")
print("Argument List: ", str(sys.argv))
```

- <https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/stdlib.html#command-line-arguments>

# Object-orientated programming

- Programming styles broadly divide into two categories: **procedural** and **object-orientated**.
- Scientists typically write procedural-style code:
  - functions process data . . .
  - . . . but do not retain that data, or remember their state.
- Developers typically prefer the object-orientated paradigm:
  - An 'object' represents a concept or thing . . .
  - . . . which holds data about itself ('**attributes**')
  - . . . and has functions ('**methods**') to manipulate relevant data
  - The methods may change the attributes (i.e. modify the state of the object).
- An object is created ('**instantiated**') from a "blueprint" called a '**class**'.

# Object-orientated programming

- In Python, **everything is an object**.
- For e.g., a Python string is an instance of the `str` class.
- The `str` class has attributes (i.e. the string itself) and methods (e.g. `split()`)
- It also has 'hidden' methods for implementing e.g. string slicing.

```
>>> s = str("hello, there") # Instantiates a new string object
>>> s.split(",") # calls the 'split' method of the string object
['hello', ' there.']
>>> s.capitalize() # This method takes no parameters
'Hello, there.'
>>> s[3::2] # This string slice is equivalent to ...
'l,tee'
>>> s.__getitem__(slice(3,None,2)) # ... this.
'l,tee'
```

# Object-orientated programming

- You can make your own class. For example:

```
# Save this in a file e.g. 'person.py'.  
class Person:  
    """An abstract class representing a person."""  
    name = 'unknown' # an attribute  
  
    def __init__(self, name):  
        """Initialise the person by giving their name."""  
        self.name = name  
  
    def sayhello(self):  
        """A method to introduce the person."""  
        print("Hello, my name is %s" % (self.name))
```

# Object-orientated programming

- You can then use this class as follows:

```
>>> from person import Person
>>> p = Person("Elvis Presley") # instantiate
>>> p.sayhello() # call the method
Hello, my name is Elvis Presley
>>> p.name = "Amelia Earhart" # change the attribute
>>> p.sayhello()
Hello, my name is Amelia Earhart
```

- For more on object-orientated programming, see e.g. Sec. 4.6 in *Learning scientific programming with Python* (Christian Hill).