

Warmup (L3)

Create a cell in Jupyter that has a different behavior the first time you run it than the second time you run it.

Note 1: You may need to create and run another cell first to set up the environment

Note 2: Your cell may show an error when you run it, but as long as it *also* has different output it works

Bonus: Make the cell have a different behavior *every* time you run it

Docstrings

- The docstring is the first statement in a function
- Triple-quote can be used to make a multi-line string anywhere; it's only a docstring when it's the first statement

```
def sillystring() :  
    return """  
    Hello world!  
    """ # This is not a docstring
```

Docstrings

- In this course, you must write a docstring for every function you write
- Your code is graded not just for correctness (doing what it's supposed to) but for documentation and readability!

Docstrings

- Conventions for good docstrings:
 - Refer to parameters by name

```
"""... with side lengths a and b."""
```

not

```
"""... with the two sides."""
```

Docstrings

- Conventions for good docstrings:
 - Describe what it does, not how it does it

```
"""Return the length..."""
```

not

```
"""Return sqrt(a**2+b**2)"""
```

Docstrings

- Conventions for good docstrings:
 - The docstring should be a command for the function to obey

`"""Return the length..."""`

not

`"""Computes the length..."""`

Comments

- Comments (with #) should be used to clarify
- It's assumed that whoever's reading the code knows English and Python, so
 - If your variable names are good and the steps are obvious, you may not need comments to make the code understandable
 - but, err on the side of caution: use comments where it *might* be confusing
 - Assume the reader is as stupid as possible while still being able to read English and Python

Avoiding bugs: types

- We've seen numbers and we've seen strings
- Look at the result of `hypotenuse`: note how `hypotenuse(3, 4)` is written as `5.0`, not just `5`
- Internally, Python stores integers and rationals differently
- It is often useful to distinguish between them

Numeric types

- In Python, we can store a number as an `int` or a `float`. `int` corresponds to integers. `float` corresponds to rationals (and is used to approximate reals).
- Since all integers are rationals, we can store an integer as a `float`.
 - If a number *could have been* a non-integer, it's usually a `float`, even if it *is* an integer in practice!

Numeric types

- In Python, we can store a number as an `int` or a `float`. `int` corresponds to integers. `float` corresponds to rationals (and is used to approximate reals).
- Note “*corresponds to*” here. An `int` can store any integer (as long as your computer has enough memory!), but `floats` have limited capacity. It’s hard to intuit about, so just remember: it’s rounded!

Float?

- “float” stands for “floating point”
- It means the point (the dot separating the integer part from the fractional part) can float (be anywhere within the number)
- Don't overthink the name. It's just a name.

Numeric types

- It mostly won't matter how a number is stored (`float` or `int`)
- ... but it can. We'll see situations later where it matters.

- You can convert in a few ways:

```
float(42) # 42.0
```

```
int(41.999) # 41
```

```
round(41.999) # 42
```

Documenting types

- It's often useful to document what type you expect something to be
 - If it's the wrong type, your code will do something unexpected!
- When writing a function, you can (and should!) document the types of its parameters and the type it returns

Documenting types

```
def hypotenuse(a: float, b: float) -> float:  
    return sqrt(a**2 + b**2)
```

- These *type annotations* are documentation. Even if they're wrong, your code will run.
- If you set up Jupyter with `Assignment-00.ipynb`, it will warn you when they're wrong

Documenting types

- Although documentation, annotations are so-called *checked documentation*
- That is, they don't change your code (just document it), and yet we can check that they're correct
- If you don't use types as you describe them, you'll get typing errors, but your code will still run

int vs float

- Every integer is a rational, so it's tempting to write `float` everywhere
- This is poor documentation! If you expect an integer, write `int`

```
def stableNeutrons(protons: int) -> float:
    """
    Return approximately how many neutrons
    are needed to stabilize a nucleus with
    this many protons.
    """
    return protons * 1.5
```


Type errors

- Using an unexpected type won't always stop your code from running
- But it can. E.g., trying to treat `None` like a number will cause an error

```
print(42) / (7) # Note wrong parentheses
```

- Let's explore the errors reported by the above code (it's a lot!)

Typing errors vs type errors

- Typing errors (or type-checking errors) are about the *documented types*. Code doesn't have to run to check, and errors don't prevent code from running.
- Type errors happen while code is running, and stop it from running further
- Both are about types, and the names are confusing, but they're distinct

Learning to read errors

- Making errors readable and understandable is an area of active research (no, really!)
- For *typing* errors:
 - Look for “expected” and “got”.
 - Think about which way data is moving (into parameters, out of returns)
- For *type* errors and other errors:
 - Start from the *end* and work your way backwards to understand where it’s happening

Learning to read errors

- Let's explore some errors
- ```
print(42/7)
def hello():
 print("World")
```
- ```
def return():
    return 42
```
- ```
def curious():
 return sqrt(9)
```
- ```
fancy:fancy:variable = 42
```
- ```
def weird(x):
 x = x * 5
 return x
```

# In-lecture quizzes

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- This course has in-lecture quizzes
- These are strictly for *participation*
  - Try to give a correct answer, but any answer gets the points
- Linked on the course web page
- <https://student.cs.uwaterloo.ca/~cs114/quiz/>

# In-lecture quiz (L3)

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- <https://student.cs.uwaterloo.ca/~cs114/quiz/>
- Q1: What does this code print?

```
x = 1
y = x * 3
x = 2
print("y=", y)
```

- A. Nothing or an error
- B. y=3
- C. y= 3
- D. y=6
- E. y= 6

# In-lecture quiz (L3)

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- <https://student.cs.uwaterloo.ca/~cs114/quiz/>
- Q2: What does this code print?  
def = 4  
defy = def \* 3  
print("defy", defy)
- Nothing or an error
- defy 4
- defy 12
- defy defy

# Testing

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# Testing

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- Bad development: keep poking at it until it looks right
- Good development: write examples of how it should behave, then write it until it does behave
- Running these examples is *testing*

# Assertions

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- Python has a built-in technique for testing: **assert**

**as·sert** (asserted; asserting; asserts)  
transitive verb

1a: to state or declare positively and often forcefully or aggressively

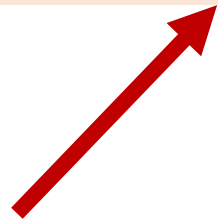
(— Merriam Webster dictionary)

- You assert (declare) something to be true, then fix your code 'til it is 😊

# Assertions

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```
assert hypotenuse(3, 4) == 5, "3-4-5 triangle"
```



The test  
(what you want to be true)



Name for the test  
(documentation)

# Assertions

---

```
assert hypotenuse(3, 4) == 5, "3-4-5 triangle"
```



Since = is variable  
assignment, == is equality

# Assertions

---

```
assert hypotenuse(3, 4) == 5, "3-4-5 triangle"
```




But *do not use == with floats!!!*  
(Remember, they're rounded!)

# Assertions

---

```
assert hypotenuse(3, 4) == 5, "3-4-5 triangle"
```



Note no parentheses. **assert** is a keyword, not a function! If you add parentheses with the test name, it won't do what you think!

Let's look at

```
assert (1 == 0, "Math is broken")
```

# Testing with floats

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- `floats` have limited precision
  - Internally, they're scientific notation in base-2, so have limited base-2 significant figures, but don't try to intuit about base-2 scientific notation...
- The precision can go wrong in very surprising ways:

```
assert 0.3-0.2 == 0.1, "Math too simple to fail"
```

# Imprecise numbers, imprecise tests

- Always test floating points with a range, called the *tolerance*, to avoid precision problems
- Simplest way to test with tolerance is  $|result - expected| < tolerance$
- In Python, that looks like this:

```
assert abs((0.3 - 0.2) - 0.1) < 0.001, "Precision problems!"
```



# Imprecise numbers, imprecise tests

Result

Expected

```
assert abs((0.3 - 0.2) - 0.1) < 0.001, "Precision problems!"
```

abs is the absolute  
value function

< is less-than

Range here is 0.001  
(don't overthink it)

# Imprecise numbers, imprecise tests

- Use similar code any time your numbers won't be integers

```
assert abs(hypotenuse(4, 5) - 6.4031242) < 0.001, "..."
```

# Code style

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- In this course, every function must have
  - A docstring,
  - parameter and return types, and
  - at least two test assertions (other than the ones we provide you)

# Code style

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- We set two tests as a *minimum*
- For most functions, it won't be enough
- Think about corner cases
- ... but don't overthink it. Just make up some tests.

# Other assertions

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- **assert** is often used for tests, but can also be used for other checks
- For instance, if we want to make sure our arguments are positive:

```
def hypotenuse(a: float, b: float) -> float:
 assert a > 0, "a must be positive"
 assert b > 0, "b must be positive"
 return sqrt(a**2 + b**2)
```

# Module summary

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# Module summary

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- We'll be writing Python in Jupyter
- Imperative programming language: give your computer a sequence of commands
- Calculation in Python
- Computation =  
calculation + repetition + decision-making
- Functions box up behavior
- Programming is mostly fighting bugs