

02_More_Python

October 31, 2019

1 More on python

Python has many high-level builtin features, time to learn some more!

1.1 3.02 Functions

Functions can be defined using a lambda expression or via `def`. Python provides for functions both positional and keyword-based arguments.

```
[1]: square = lambda x: x * x
```

```
[2]: square(10)
```

```
[2]: 100
```

```
[3]: # roots of ax^2 + bx + c
quadratic_root = lambda a, b, c: ((-b - (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** .5) / (2 * a), (-b + (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** .5) / (2 * a))
```

```
[4]: quadratic_root(1, 5.5, -10.5)
```

```
[4]: (-7.0, 1.5)
```

```
[5]: # a clearer function using def
def quadratic_root(a, b, c):
    d = (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** .5
    coeff = .5 / a
    return (coeff * (-b - d), coeff * (-b + d))
```

```
[6]: quadratic_root(1, 5.5, -10.5)
```

```
[6]: (-7.0, 1.5)
```

Functions can have positional arguments and keyword based arguments. Positional arguments have to be declared before keyword args

```
[7]: # name is a positional argument, message a keyword argument
def greet(name, message='Hello {}', how_are_you_today?):
    print(message.format(name))
```

```
[8]: greet('Tux')
```

Hello Tux, how are you today?

```
[9]: greet('Tux', 'Hi {}!')
```

Hi Tux!

```
[10]: greet('Tux', message='What\'s up {}?')
```

What's up Tux?

```
[11]: # this doesn't work
greet(message="Hi {} !", 'Tux')
```

```
File "<ipython-input-11-0f79efc3a31e>", line 2
greet(message="Hi {} !", 'Tux')
^
```

SyntaxError: positional argument follows keyword argument

keyword arguments can be used to define default values

```
[12]: import math

def log(num, base=math.e):
    return math.log(num) / math.log(base)
```

```
[13]: log(math.e)
```

```
[13]: 1.0
```

```
[14]: log(10)
```

```
[14]: 2.302585092994046
```

```
[15]: log(1000, 10)
```

```
[15]: 2.999999999999996
```

1.2 3.03 builtin functions, attributes

Python provides a rich standard library with many builtin functions. Also, bools/ints/floats/strings have many builtin methods allowing for concise code.

One of the most useful builtin function is `help`. Call it on any object to get more information, what methods it supports.

```
[16]: s = 'This is a test string!'

print(s.lower())
print(s.upper())
print(s.startswith('This'))
print('string' in s)
print(s.isalnum())
```

```
this is a test string!
THIS IS A TEST STRING!
True
True
False
```

For casting objects, python provides several functions closely related to the constructors `bool`, `int`, `float`, `str`, `list`, `tuple`, `dict`, ...

```
[17]: tuple([1, 2, 3, 4])
```

```
[17]: (1, 2, 3, 4)
```

```
[18]: str((1, 2, 3))
```

```
[18]: '(1, 2, 3)'
```

```
[19]: str([1, 4.5])
```

```
[19]: '[1, 4.5]'
```

1.3 4.01 Dictionaries

Dictionaries (or associate arrays) provide a structure to lookup values based on keys. I.e. they're a collection of k->v pairs.

```
[20]: list(zip(['brand', 'model', 'year'], ['Ford', 'Mustang', 1964])) # creates a ↴ list of tuples by "zipping" two list
```

```
[20]: [('brand', 'Ford'), ('model', 'Mustang'), ('year', 1964)]
```

```
[21]: # convert a list of tuples to a dictionary
D = dict(zip(['brand', 'model', 'year'], ['Ford', 'Mustang', 1964]))
D
```

```
[21]: {'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang', 'year': 1964}
```

```
[22]: D['brand']
```

```
[22]: 'Ford'
```

```
[23]: D = dict([('brand', 'Ford'), ('model', 'Mustang')])
D['model']
```

```
[23]: 'Mustang'
```

Dictionaries can be also directly defined using { ... : ..., ...} syntax

```
[24]: D = {'brand' : 'Ford', 'model' : 'Mustang', 'year' : 1964}
```

```
[25]: D
```

```
[25]: {'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang', 'year': 1964}
```

```
[26]: # dictionaries have several useful functions implemented
# help(dict)
```

```
[27]: # adding a new key
D['price'] = '48k'
```

```
[28]: D
```

```
[28]: {'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang', 'year': 1964, 'price': '48k'}
```

```
[29]: # removing a key
del D['year']
```

```
[30]: D
```

```
[30]: {'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang', 'price': '48k'}
```

```
[31]: # checking whether a key exists
'brand' in D
```

```
[31]: True
```

```
[32]: # returning a list of keys
D.keys()
```

```
[32]: dict_keys(['brand', 'model', 'price'])
```

```
[33]: # casting to a list
list(D.keys())
```

```
[33]: ['brand', 'model', 'price']
```

```
[34]: D
```

```
[34]: {'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang', 'price': '48k'}
```

```
[35]: # iterating over a dictionary
for k in D.keys():
    print(k)
```

```
brand
model
price
```

```
[36]: for v in D.values():
    print(v)
```

```
Ford
Mustang
48k
```

```
[37]: for k, v in D.items():
    print('{}: {}'.format(k, v))
```

```
brand: Ford
model: Mustang
price: 48k
```

1.4 4.02 Calling functions with tuples/dicts

Python provides two special operators * and ** to call functions with arguments specified through a tuple or dictionary. I.e. * unpacks a tuple into positional args, whereas ** unpacks a dictionary into keyword arguments.

```
[38]: quadratic_root(1, 5.5, -10.5)
```

```
[38]: (-7.0, 1.5)
```

```
[39]: args=(1, 5.5, -10.5)
quadratic_root(*args)
```

```
[39]: (-7.0, 1.5)
```

```
[40]: args=('Tux',) # to create a tuple with one element, need to append , !
kwargs={'message' : 'Hi {}!'}
greet(*args, **kwargs)
```

Hi Tux!

1.5 4.03 Sets

python has builtin support for sets (i.e. an unordered list without duplicates). Sets can be defined using `{...}`.

Note: `x={}` defines an empty dictionary! To define an empty set, use

```
[41]: S = set()
type(S)
```

```
[41]: set
```

```
[42]: S = {1, 2, 3, 1, 4}
S
```

```
[42]: {1, 2, 3, 4}
```

```
[43]: 2 in S
```

```
[43]: True
```

```
[44]: # casting can be used to get unique elements from a list!
L = [1, 2, 3, 4, 3, 2, 5, 3, 65, 19]

list(set(L))
```

```
[44]: [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 65, 19]
```

set difference via `-` or `difference`

```
[45]: {1, 2, 3} - {2, 3}, {1, 2, 3}.difference({2, 3})
```

```
[45]: ({1}, {1})
```

set union via `+` or `union`

```
[46]: {1, 2, 3} | {4, 5}, {1, 2, 3}.union({4, 5})
```

```
[46]: ({1, 2, 3, 4, 5}, {1, 2, 3, 4, 5})
```

set intersection via `&` or `intersection`

```
[47]: {1, 5, 3, 4} & {2, 3}
```

```
[47]: {3}
```

```
[48]: {1, 5, 3, 4}.intersection({2, 3})
```

```
[48]: {3}
```

1.6 4.04 Comprehensions

Instead of creating list, dictionaries or sets via explicit extensional declaration, you can use a comprehension expression. This is especially useful for conversions.

```
[49]: # list comprehension
L = ['apple', 'pear', 'banana', 'cherry']

[(1, x) for x in L]
```

```
[49]: [(1, 'apple'), (1, 'pear'), (1, 'banana'), (1, 'cherry')]
```

```
[50]: # special case: use if in comprehension for additional condition
[(len(x), x) for x in L if len(x) > 5]
```

```
[50]: [(6, 'banana'), (6, 'cherry')]
```

```
[51]: # if else must come before for
# ==> here ... if ... else ... is an expression!
[(len(x), x) if len(x) % 2 == 0 else None for x in L]
```

```
[51]: [None, (4, 'pear'), (6, 'banana'), (6, 'cherry')]
```

The same works also for sets AND dictionaries. The collection to iterate over doesn't need to be of the same type.

```
[52]: L = ['apple', 'pear', 'banana', 'cherry']

length_dict = {k : len(k) for k in L}
length_dict
```

```
[52]: {'apple': 5, 'pear': 4, 'banana': 6, 'cherry': 6}
```

```
[53]: import random

[random.randint(0, 10) for i in range(10)]
```

```
[53]: [7, 3, 2, 10, 0, 2, 3, 3, 5, 5]
```

```
[54]: {random.randint(0, 10) for _ in range(20)}
```

```
[54]: {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10}
```

```
[55]: [(k, v) for k, v in length_dict.items()]
```

```
[55]: [('apple', 5), ('pear', 4), ('banana', 6), ('cherry', 6)]
```

```
[56]: # filter out elements from dict based on condition
{k : v for k,v in length_dict.items() if k[0] < 'c'}
```

```
[56]: {'apple': 5, 'banana': 6}
```

1.7 5.01 More on functions

Nested functions + decorators

==> Functions are first-class citizens in python, i.e. we can return them

```
[57]: def make_plus_one(f):
    def inner(x):
        return f(x) + 1
    return inner
```

```
[58]: fun = make_plus_one(lambda x: x)

fun(2), fun(3), fun(4)
```

```
[58]: (3, 4, 5)
```

A more complicated function can be created to create functions to evaluate a polynomial defined through a vector $p = (p_1, \dots, p_n)^T$

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i x^i$$

```
[59]: def make_polynomial(p):
    def f(x):
        if 0 == len(p):
            return 0.
        y = 0
        xq = 1
        for a in p:
            y += a * xq
            xq *= x
        return y
```

```

    return f

[60]: poly = make_polynomial([1])

[61]: poly(2)

[61]: 1

[62]: quad_poly = make_polynomial([1, 2, 1])
quad_poly(1)

[62]: 4

```

Basic idea is that when declaring nested functions, the inner ones have access to the enclosing functions scope. When returning them, a closure is created.

We can use this to change the behavior of functions by wrapping them with another!

==> we basically decorate the function with another, thus the name decorator

```

[63]: def greet(name):
        return 'Hello {}'.format(name)

[64]: greet('Tux')

[64]: 'Hello Tux!'

```

Let's say we want to shout the string, we could do:

```

[65]: greet('Tux').upper()

[65]: 'HELLO TUX!'

```

==> however, we would need to change this everywhere

However, what if we want to apply uppercase to another function?

```

[66]: def state_an_important_fact():
        return 'The one and only answer to ... is 42!'

[67]: state_an_important_fact().upper()

[67]: 'THE ONE AND ONLY ANSWER TO ... IS 42!'

```

with a wrapper we could create an upper version

```

[68]: def make_upper(f):
        def inner(*args, **kwargs):
            return f(*args, **kwargs).upper()
        return inner

```

```
[69]: GREET = make_upper(greet)
STATE_AN_IMPORTANT_FACT = make_upper(state_an_important_fact)
```

```
[70]: GREET('tux')
```

```
[70]: 'HELLO TUX!'
```

```
[71]: STATE_AN_IMPORTANT_FACT()
```

```
[71]: 'THE ONE AND ONLY ANSWER TO ... IS 42!'
```

Instead of explicitly having to create the decoration via `make_upper`, we can also use python's builtin support for this via the `@` statement. I.e.

```
[72]: @make_upper
def say_hi(name):
    return 'Hi ' + name + '.'
```

```
[73]: say_hi('sealion')
```

```
[73]: 'HI SEALION.'
```

It's also possible to use multiple decorators

```
[74]: def split(function):
    def wrapper():
        res = function()
        return res.split()
    return wrapper
```

```
[75]: @split
@make_upper
def state_an_important_fact():
    return 'The one and only answer to ... is 42!'
```

```
[76]: state_an_important_fact()
```

```
[76]: ['THE', 'ONE', 'AND', 'ONLY', 'ANSWER', 'TO', '...', 'IS', '42!']
```

More on decorators here: <https://www.datacamp.com/community/tutorials/decorators-python>.

==> Flask (the framework we'll learn next week) uses decorators extensively, therefore they're included here.

Summary: What is a decorator?

A decorator is a design pattern to add/change behavior to an individual object. In python decorators are typically used for functions (later: also for classes)

1.8 6.01 Generators

Assume we want to generate all square numbers. We could do so using a list comprehension:

```
[77]: [x * x for x in range(10)]
```

```
[77]: [0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]
```

However, this will create a list of all numbers. Sometimes, we just want to consume the number. I.e. we could do this via a function

```
[78]: square = lambda x: x * x
```

```
[79]: print(square(1))
print(square(2))
print(square(3))
```

```
1
4
9
```

However, what about a more complicated sequence? I.e. fibonnaci numbers?

```
[80]: def fib(n):
    if n <= 0:
        return 0
    if n <= 1:
        return 1
    a, b = 0, 1
    for i in range(n):
        a, b = b, a + b
    return a
```

```
[81]: n = 10
for i in range(n):
    print(fib(i))
```

```
0
1
1
2
3
5
8
13
21
34
```

Complexity is $n^2!$ However, with generators we can stop execution.

The pattern is to call basically generator.next()

```
[82]: def fib():
    a, b = 0, 1
    yield a
    while True:
        a, b = b, a + b
        yield a
```

```
[83]: fib()
```

```
[83]: <generator object fib at 0x10ab3d0d0>
```

```
[84]: g = fib()
for i in range(5):
    print(next(g))
```

```
0
1
1
2
3
```

enumerate and zip are both generator objects!

```
[85]: L = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
```

```
[86]: g = enumerate(L)
print(next(g))
print(next(g))
print(next(g))
print(next(g))
# stop iteration exception will be done
print(next(g))
```

```
(0, 'a')
(1, 'b')
(2, 'c')
(3, 'd')
```

□

→-----

```
StopIteration
↳last)

<ipython-input-86-a98f42ccb1c3> in <module>
      5     print(next(g))
```

Traceback (most recent call □

```
6 # stop iteration exception will be done  
----> 7 print(next(g))
```

StopIteration:

```
[ ]: g = range(3)  
g
```

```
[87]: L = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']  
i = list(range(len(L)))[::-1]  
  
g = zip(L, i)  
  
for el in g:  
    print(el)
```

```
('a', 3)  
(('b', 2)  
(('c', 1)  
(('d', 0)
```

Note: There is no hasNext in python. Use a loop with `in` to iterate over the full generator.

```
[88]: for i, n in enumerate(fib()):  
    if i > 10:  
        break  
    print(n)
```

```
0  
1  
1  
2  
3  
5  
8  
13  
21  
34  
55
```

1.9 7.01 Higher order functions

python provides two built-in higher order functions: `map` and `filter`. A higher order function is a function which takes another function as argument or returns a function (=> decorators).

In python3, `map` and `filter` yield a generator object.

```
[89]: map(lambda x: x * x, range(7))
```

```
[89]: <map at 0x10ab2c650>
```

```
[90]: for x in map(lambda x: x * x, range(7)):
      print(x)
```

```
0
1
4
9
16
25
36
```

```
[91]: # display squares which end with 1
```

```
list(filter(lambda x: x % 10 == 1, map(lambda x: x * x, range(25))))
```

```
[91]: [1, 81, 121, 361, 441]
```

1.10 8.01 Basic I/O

Python has builtin support to handle files

```
[92]: f = open('file.txt', 'w')

f.write('Hello world')
f.close()
```

Because a file needs to be closed (i.e. the file object destructed), python has a handy statement to deal with auto-closing/destruction: The `with` statement.

```
[93]: with open('file.txt', 'r') as f:
    lines = f.readlines()
    print(lines)
```

```
['Hello world']
```

Again, `help` is useful to understand what methods a file object has

```
[94]: # uncomment here to get the full help
# help(f)
```

2 7.01 classes

In python you can define compound types using `class`

```
[95]: class Animal:

    def __init__(self, name, weight):
        self.name = name
        self.weight = weight

    def print(self):
        print('{} ({}) kg'.format(self.name, self.weight))

    def __str__(self):
        return '{} ({}) kg'.format(self.name, self.weight)
```

```
[96]: dog = Animal('dog', 20)
```

```
[97]: dog
```

```
[97]: <__main__.Animal at 0x10ab9d190>
```

```
[98]: print(dog)
```

```
dog (20 kg)
```

```
[99]: dog.print()
```

```
dog (20 kg)
```

Basic inheritance is supported in python

```
[100]: class Elephant(Animal):

    def __init__(self):
        Animal.__init__(self, 'elephant', 1500)

    #alternative:
    # super().__init__(...)
```

```
[101]: e = Elephant()
```

```
[102]: print(e)
```

```
elephant (1500 kg)
```

3 8.01 Modules and packages

More on this at <https://docs.python.org/3.7/tutorial/modules.html>. A good explanation of relative imports can be found here <https://chrisyeh96.github.io/2017/08/08/definitive-guide-python-imports.html>.

==> Each file represents a module in python. One or more modules make up a package.

Let's say we want to package our `quad_root` function into a separate module `solver`

```
[103]: !rm -r solver*
```

```
rm: solver*: No such file or directory
```

```
[104]: !ls
```

```
01_Intro_to_Python.ipynb      LICENSE
01_Python_Introduction.ipynb  README.md
02_More_Python.ipynb          __pycache__
02_More_Python_empty.ipynb   file.txt
```

```
[105]: %%file solver.py
```

```
# a clearer function using def
def quadratic_root(a, b, c):
    d = (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** .5

    coeff = .5 / a

    return (coeff * (-b - d), coeff * (-b + d))
```

Writing `solver.py`

```
[106]: !cat solver.py
```

```
# a clearer function using def
def quadratic_root(a, b, c):
    d = (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** .5

    coeff = .5 / a

    return (coeff * (-b - d), coeff * (-b + d))
```

```
[107]: import solver
```

```
[108]: solver.quadratic_root(1, 1, -2)
```

```
[108]: (-2.0, 1.0)
```

Alternative is to import the name quadratic_root directly into the current scope

```
[109]: from solver import quadratic_root
```

```
[110]: quadratic_root(1, 1, -2)
```

```
[110]: (-2.0, 1.0)
```

To import everything, you can use `from ... import *`. To import multiple specific functions, use `from ... import a, b`.

E.g. `from flask import render_template, request, abort, jsonify, make_response`.

To organize modules in submodules, subsubmodules, ... you can use folders. I.e. to import a function from a submodule, use `from solver.algebraic import quadratic_root`.

There's a special file `__init__.py` that is added at each level, which gets executed when `import folder` is run.

```
[111]: !rm *.py
```

```
[112]: !mkdir -p solver/algebraic
```

```
[113]: %%file solver/__init__.py
# this file we run when import solver is executed
print('import solver executed!')
```

Writing `solver/__init__.py`

```
[114]: %%file solver/algebraic/__init__.py
# run when import solver.algebraic is used
print('import solver.algebraic executed!')
```

Writing `solver/algebraic/__init__.py`

```
[115]: %%file solver/algebraic/quadratic.py

print('solver.algebraic.quadratic executed!')

# a clearer function using def
def quadratic_root(a, b, c):
    d = (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** .5

    coeff = .5 / a

    return (coeff * (-b - d), coeff * (-b + d))
```

Writing `solver/algebraic/quadratic.py`

```
[116]: %%file test.py
```

```
import solver
```

Writing test.py

```
[117]: !python3 test.py
```

```
import solver executed!
```

```
[118]: %%file test.py
```

```
import solver.algebraic
```

Overwriting test.py

```
[119]: !python3 test.py
```

```
import solver executed!
import solver.algebraic executed!
```

```
[120]: %%file test.py
```

```
import solver.algebraic.quadratic
```

Overwriting test.py

```
[121]: %%file test.py
```

```
import solver.algebraic.quadratic
```

Overwriting test.py

```
[122]: !python3 test.py
```

```
import solver executed!
import solver.algebraic executed!
solver.algebraic.quadratic executed!
```

```
[123]: %%file test.py
```

```
from solver.algebraic.quadratic import *
print(quadratic_root(1, 1, -2))
```

Overwriting test.py

```
[124]: !python3 test.py
```

```
import solver executed!
import solver.algebraic executed!
solver.algebraic.quadratic executed!
(-2.0, 1.0)
```

One can also use relative imports to import from other files via . or ..!

```
[125]: %%file solver/version.py
__version__ = "1.0"
```

Writing solver/version.py

```
[126]: !tree solver
```

```
solver
__init__.py
__pycache__
__init__.cpython-37.pyc
algebraic
__init__.py
__pycache__
__init__.cpython-37.pyc
quadratic.cpython-37.pyc
quadratic.py
version.py
```

3 directories, 7 files

```
[127]: %%file solver/algebraic/quadratic.py

from ..version import __version__
print('solver.algebraic.quadratic executed!')
print('package version is {}'.format(__version__))

# a clearer function using def
def quadratic_root(a, b, c):
    d = (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** .5

    coeff = .5 / a

    return (coeff * (-b - d), coeff * (-b + d))
```

Overwriting solver/algebraic/quadratic.py

```
[128]: !python3 test.py
```

```
import solver executed!
import solver.algebraic executed!
solver.algebraic.quadratic executed!
```

```
package version is 1.0  
(-2.0, 1.0)
```

This can be also used to bring certain functions into scope!

```
[129]: %%file solver/algebraic/__init__.py  
  
from .quadratic import *  
  
# use this to restrict what functions to "export"  
__all__ = [quadratic_root.__name__]
```

Overwriting solver/algebraic/__init__.py

```
[130]: %%file test.py  
from solver.algebraic import *  
  
print(quadratic_root(1, 1, -2))
```

Overwriting test.py

```
[131]: !python3 test.py  
  
import solver executed!  
solver.algebraic.quadratic executed!  
package version is 1.0  
(-2.0, 1.0)
```

Of course there's a lot more on how to design packages in python! However, these are the essentials you need to know.

End of lecture