Python Study Notes

February 10, 2022

1 Python Basics

This notebook serves as the sutdy notes for Python Language. The material is mainly follow the MIT courseware Introduction to Computer Science and Programming Using Python. This Chapter describes the basic objects/while/for/if/logic/operations concepts in Python language.

- Scalar and Non-scalar Objects
- Expressions in Python
- Binding Variables
- Comparison Operators
- Logic Operators
- Conditional Statement
- Strings
- While Loops
- For Loops
- Iteration
- Guess and Check

1.1 Scaler and Non-scalar Objects

int, float, bool, NoneType are built-in scalar obejcts (Python is an object-oriented language and eveything in python is an object of a class).

list, tuple, list, dictionary are non-scalar objects.

Can use type() to see the type (class) of an object.

We can directly convert object of one type to another.

```
[]: print(type(5))

[]: print(type(3.0))

[]: print(float(3))
    print(int(3.9))
```

1.2 Expressions in Python

Syntax for a simple expression <object> <operator> <object>

Common operators on ints and floats are +,-,*,/, int division //, remainder % and the power **.

Parentheses have the highest priority.

```
[]: # 6/3 get 2.0 returns float 3.0, 5//2 returns integer 2
print(6/3)
print(5//2)
print(5%2)
```

1.2.1 Input/Output in Python

Keywords are print(), input()

Text = input("Type anything..."), input() takes string input and we can convert string to integer using num=int(input("Type a number"))

1.3 Binding variables and Values

Equal sign is an assignment of a value to a variable name. Re-bind variable names using new assignment statements. Previous value may still stored in memory but lost the handle of it.

1.4 Comparion Operators

Used for integers and floats i>j,i>=j, i<j, i<=j, equality test i==j, and inequality test i!=j.

1.5 Logic Operators

Used for bools not a, a and b, a or b.

1.6 Conditional Statement

```
if (condition): ... elif (condition): ... else:, indentation matters in Python
```

```
[]: # x = int(input('Enter an interger')) # input in Python
# COMPOUND BOOLEANS
x = 1; y =2; z = 3
if x<y and x<z:
    print('x is least')
elif y<z: # ELSE IF
    print('y is least')
else:
    print('z is least')</pre>
```

1.7 Strings

Strings can represent letters, special characters, spaces, digits. Strings are enclosed in double or single quotation marks.

1. Double quotation is handy and we can mainly use double quotes.

- 2. Use + to add (concatenate) strings together
- 3. Use " " as a blank space
- 4. String is a **non-scalar** object, meaning there are attributes associated with each string object.

```
[]: hi = "Hello There!"
  print(hi)
  name = "eric!"
  greeting = hi+" "+name
  print(greeting)
```

1.7.1 String Operations

Concatenation, successive concatenation, length, indexing, slicing, reverse, in (Note python uses a 0-based indexing system, while MATLAB uses the 1-based indexing system).

Strings are **immutable**; however, we can do re-assignment to modify the String.

```
[]: hi = 'ab'+'cd' # CONCATENATION
     print(hi)
    hi1 = 3*'eric' # SUCCESSIVE CONCATENATION
     print(hi1)
     hi2 = len('eric') # THE LENGTH, ALSO INCLUDES THE SPACE
     print(hi2)
    hi3 = 'eric'[1] # INDEXING, BEGINS WITH INDEX O, THIS RETURNS r
     print(hi3)
    hi4 = 'eric'[1:3] # SLICING, EXTRACTS SEQUENCE STARTING AT FIRST INDEX AND
      → ENDING BEFORE THE 3 INDEX
     print(hi4)
     # STRING OPERATION EXAMPLES
     str1 = 'hello'
     str2 = ','
     str3 = 'world'
     print('a' in str3) # bool, False, in/not in ARE TWO BASIC PYTHON MEMBERSHIP
      → OPERATORS
     print('HELLO' == str1) # bool, False
     str4 = str1 + str3 # STRING CONCATENATION
     print('low' in str4) # bool, True
     print(str3[:-1]) # string, worl, note -1 means the last element, -2 means the
      ⇔second last element
     print(str4[1:9:2]) # string, elwr, EXTRACT THE LETTERS WITH INDEX 1,3,5,7
     print(str4[::-1]) # string, dlrowolleh, (REVERSE ORDER)
     print(str4) # str4 itself is not changed in slicing operations
     s = "hello"
     s = "y" + s[1:len(s)] # strings are immutable, but we can re-assign the string.
     print(s)
```

1.7.2 String Comparison Operations

```
==, !=, >, >=, <, <=
```

PYTHON COMPARES STRING LEXICOGRAPHICALLY (USING ASCII VLAUE OF CHARACTERS)

e.g. Str1 = "Mary", Str2 = "Mac", THE FIRST TWO CHARS ARE M = M, THE SECOND CHARS ARE THEN COMPARED a.a

ARE STILL EQUAL, THE THIRD TWO CHARS ARE THEN COMPARED r(ASCII 114) > c (ASCII 099)

 $A {<} B {<} C {<} ... {<} Z {<} a {<} b {<} c {<} ... {<} x {<} y {<} z$

```
[]: print("tim" == "tie") # False
print("free" != "freedom") # True
print("arrow" > "aron") # True
print("right" >= "left") # True
print("teeth" < "tee") # False
print("yellow" <= "fellow") # False
print("abc">"") # True, NOTE THE EMPTY STRING "" IS SMALLER THAN ALL OTHER

→STRINGS
```

1.7.3 String Method

- 1. EVERYTHING IN PYTHON IS AN OBJECT. OBJECTS ARE SPECIAL BECAUSE WE CAN ASSOCIATE SPECIAL FUNCTIONS, REFERRED TO AS OBJECT METHODS, WITH THE OBJECT.
- 2. More methods associated with Strings can be found here

```
[]: s = 'abc'
     s.capitalize # returns the function type
     s.capitalize() # invoke the function and returns Abc (need () to indicate a
      →method is invoked)
     print(s.capitalize())
     s.upper() # Return a copy of the string with all the cased chars converted tou
      uppercase
     print(s.upper())
     print(s.isupper()) # Return true if all cased characters in the string are
      \hookrightarrowuppercase
                 # and there is at least one cased character, false otherwise.
     print(s.islower()) # similar to s.isupper
     print(s.swapcase()) #Return a copy of the string with uppercase chars converted ⊔
      ⇔to lowercase, vice versa.
     print(s.find('e')) # Return the lowest index in the string where substring 'e'
      ⇒is found, -1 if sub is not found
     print(s.index('c')) # Like find(), but raise ValueError when the substring is_
      \rightarrownot found.
```

```
print(s.count('e')) # Return the number of non-overlapping occurrences of usubstring e
print(s.replace('old','new')) # Return a copy of the str, all occurrences of usubstr 'old' replaced by 'new'
```

1.8 While Loops

while <condition>: <expression>, note <condition> evaluates to a Boolean. If <condition> is True, do all the steps inside the while code block, and then check the <condition> again and repeat until <condition> is False.

Indentation matters!

```
[]: # CONTRL FLOW while LOOPS , range(start,stop,step)
n = 0
while n<5: # CTRL + c IN THE CONSOLE TO STOP THE PROGRAM
    print(n)
n = n+1</pre>
```

1.9 For Loops

for n in range(5), is equivalent to n in [0,1,2,3,4]

range(7,10) starts at 7 stops at 10 (7,8,9) and range(5,11,2) starts at 5, stops at 11, step 2 (5,7,9)

break can be used for exiting the innermost loop (for, while)

for can loop through characters in strings

```
[]: # break STATEMENT
mysum = 0
for i in range(5,11,2):
    mysum = mysum + i
    if mysum == 5:
        break
print(mysum)

# h, o ,l, a (for CAN LOOP CHARACTERS IN THE STRING)
for letter in 'hola':
    print(letter)
```

1.10 Iteration

Repeatedly use the same code. Need to set an iteration variable outside loop then test variable to determine when done and change variable within the loop.

Iterative algorithms allow us to do more complex things than simple arithmetic, one useful example are **guess and check** methods.

```
[]: x = 3
ans = 0
itersLeft = x
while(itersLeft != 0):
    ans = ans +x
    itersLeft = itersLeft - 1
print(str(x)+'*'+str(x)+'='+str(ans))
```

1.11 Guess and Check Algorithm

We guess a solution and check iteratively. Guess a value for solution. Check if the solution is correct. Keep guessing until find solution or guessed all values. The process is exhaustive enumeration. Can work on problems with a finite number of possibilities.

```
[]: # GUESS-AND-CHECK-cube root
cube = 28
for guess in range(abs(cube)+1):
    if guess**3 >= abs(cube):
        break
if guess**3 != abs(cube):
    print(cube, 'is not a perfect cube')
else:
    if cube < 0:
        guess = -guess
    print('Cube root of ' + str(cube) + ' is ' + str(guess))</pre>
```

2 Function/Iteration/Recursion/Modules/Files

This Chapter describes the Python function/iteration/recrusion/modules/files

- Bisection Search Algorithm
- Floats amd Fractions
- Newton-Rampson Root Finding Algorithm
- Functions
- Recursion
- Modules
- Files

2.1 Bisection Search Algorithms

We can use this algorithm to compute the monthly payment of a mortgage.

```
[]: """

BISECTION SEARCH - SQUARE ROOT

# REALLY RADICALLY REDUCES COMPUTATION TIME

"""

x = 25

epsilon = 0.01
```

```
numGuesses = 0
low = 1.0
high = x
ans = (high + low)/2.0

while abs(ans**2-x) >= epsilon:
    print('low = '+str(low)+' high = '+str(high)+' ans = '+ str(ans))
    numGuesses += 1
    if ans**2 < x:
        low = ans
    else:
        high = ans
    ans = (high + low)/2.0

print('numGuesses = '+ str(numGuesses))
print(str(ans) + ' is close to square root of '+ str(x))</pre>
```

```
[]: """
     BISECTION SEARCH - CUBE ROOT
     # THIS SCRIPT ALSO ADDRESSES THE CASES WHERE X IN (-1,1) AND X < 0
     x = -8
     epsilon = 0.01
     numGuesses = 0
     low = 1.0
     high = abs(x)
     if abs(x) \ll 1:
         low = 0
         high = 1
     ans = (high + low)/2.0 # BISECTION METHOD
     while abs(ans**3-abs(x)) >= epsilon:
         print('low = '+str(low)+' high = '+str(high)+' ans = '+ str(ans))
         numGuesses += 1
         if ans**3 < abs(x):
             low = ans
         else:
            high = ans
         ans = (high + low)/2.0
     if x < 0:
         ans = -ans
     print('numGuesses = '+ str(numGuesses))
     print(str(ans) + ' is close to cubic root of '+ str(x))
```

2.2 Floats and Fractions

- 1. Comupter represent numbers in binary format
- 2. Decimal number 302 = 3*100 + 0*10 + 2*1
- 3. Convert an interger to binary form
- 4. For floats, IF WE MULTIPLE BY A POWER OF 2 (e.g 2^3) WHICH IS BIG ENOUGH TO CONVERT INTO A WHOLE NUMBER, CAN THEN CONVERT TO BINARY, AND THEN DIVIDE BY THE SAME POWER OF 2
 - 1. e.g. $3/8 = 0.375 = 310^{-1} + 710^{-2} + 510^{-3}$; $0.375(2^{**3}) = 3$ (DECIMAL), THEN CONVERT TO BINARY (NOW 11)
 - 2. THEN DIVIDE BY 2**3(SHIFT RIGHT) TO GET 0.011 (BINARY)
- 5. THERE ARE SOME PORBLEMS WITH COMPRAING TWO FLOAT POINTS BECAUSE COMPUTER TRIES TO SEE IF THE BINARIES ARE SAME.
 - 1. WE ALWAYS USE abs(x-y) < some small number, rather than <math>x == y

```
[ ]: #THE FOLLOWING PROGRAM CONVERTS INTERGERS TO BINARY FORMS
     num = -10
     if num < 0:</pre>
         isNeg = True
         num = abs(num)
     else:
         isNeg = False
     result = ''
     if num == 0:
         result = '0'
     while num > 0:
         result = str(num%2) + result
         num = num//2
     if isNeg:
         result = '-'+ result
     print(result)
```

```
[]: x = float(input('Enter a decimal number between 0 and 1:'))
p = 0
while ((2**p)*x)%1 != 0: # CONVERT TO A WHOLE NUMBER
    print('Remainder = '+str((2**p)*x-int((2**p)*x)))
p += 1

num = int(x*(2**p))

result = ''
if num == 0:
    result = '0'
while num > 0: # CONVERT TO BINARY
    result = str(num%2) + result
    num = num//2

for i in range(p-len(result)):
```

```
result = '0' + result
result = result[0:-p]+'.'+result[-p:]
print('The binary representation of the decimal '+str(x)+' is'+str(result))
```

2.3 Newton-Raphson

GENERAL APPROXIMATION ALGORITHM TO FIND ROOTS OF A POLYNOMIAL IN ONE VARIABLE $P(X)=a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + ... + a_1 x + a_0 = 0$

2.4 Functions

- 1. Called/invokded/; parameter/docstrings/body; key word def; variable scope/global scope/function scope
- 2. Returns None if no return given
- 3. printName(lastName = 'Huang',firstName = 'Zipeng', reverse = False) (Most robust way with default value)

```
FUNCTIONS

ARE NOT RUN IN A PROGRAM UNTIL THEY ARE CALLED/INVIKED

THEY HAVE: NAME, PARAMETERS (0, OR MORE), DOCSTRING(EXPLAIN WHAT A FUNCTION

DOES), BODY

"""

def is_even(i): # def IS A KEYWORD, IS_EVEN (NAME), i is PARAMETER/ARGUMENT

"""

INPUT: i, a positive int

Returns True if i is even, otherwise False

"""

print("hi")

return i%2 == 0 # None, if no return given, only one return executed inside

a function
```

```
# code insider function but after return statement noe
      \rightarrow excuted
     x = is_even(3) # x is False
     def func a(): # no parameter
         print('inside func_a')
     def func_b(y):
         print('inside func_b')
         return y
     def func_c(z):
         print('inside func_c')
         return z()
     print(func_a())
     print(5+func_b(2))
     print(func_c(func_a)) # call func_c, takes one parameter, another function (au
      ⇔func invokes another func)
     # INSIDE A FUCNTION, CAN ACCESS A VARIABLE DEFINED OUTSIDE
     # INSIDE A FUCNTION, CANNOT MODIFY A VARIABLE DEFINED OUTSIDE
     def g(y):
         print(x)
         print(x+1) \# x = x+1 \text{ is not valid}
     x = 5
     g(x)
     print(x)
[]: """
     KWYWORD ARGUMENTS AND DEFAULT VALUES
     def printName(firstName,lastName,reverse):
         if reverse:
             print(lastName + ','+firstName)
         else:
             print(firstName,lastName)
     # EACH OF RHESE ONVOCATIONS IS EQUIVALENT
     printName('Zipeng','Huang',False)
     printName('Zipeng','Huang',reverse = False)
     printName('Zipeng',lastName = 'Huang',reverse = False)
```

THE LAST INVOCATION IS RECOMMENDED SINCE IT IS ROBUST

11 11 11

printName(lastName = 'Huang',firstName = 'Zipeng', reverse = False)

```
WE CAN ALSO SPECIFY THAT SOME ARGUMENTS HAVE DEFAULT VALUES, SO IF NO VALUE
SUPPLIED, JUST USE THAT VALUE Default value
"""

def printName(firstName,lastName,reverse = False):
    if reverse:
        print(lastName + ','+firstName)
    else:
        print(firstName,lastName)

printName('Zipeng','Huang')
printName('Zipeng','Huang',True)
```

2.5 Recursion

- 1. DIVIDE AND CONQUER, A FUNCTION CALLS ITSELF (Mathematical Induction Reasoning)
 - 1. WE SOLVE A HARD PROBLEM BY BREAKING IT INTO A SET OF SUBPROBLEMS SUCH THAT:
 - 2. SUB-PROBLEMS ARE EASIER TO SOLVE THAN THE ORIGINAL
 - 3. SOLUTIONS OF THE SUB-PROBELMS CAN BE COMBINED TO SOLVE THE ORIGINAL
- 2. RECURSIVE STEP: THINK HOW TO REDUCE PROBLEM TO A SIMPLER/SMALLER VERSION OF SAME PROBLEM.
- 3. BASE CASE: KEEP REDUCING RPOBLEM UNTIL REACH A SIMPLE CASE THAT CAN BE SOLVED DIRECTLY.
- 4. ITERATION vs. RECURSION (DOES THE SAME THING)
 - 1. RECURSION MAY BE SIMPLER, MORE INTUITIVE
 - 2. RECURSION MAY BE EFFICIENT FROM PROGRAMMER'S POINT OF VIEW
 - 3. RECURSION MAY NOT BE EFFICIENT FROM COMPUTER POINT OF VIEW

```
[]: # MULTIPLICATION-RECURSIVE SOLUTION
    # MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION REASONING OF THE CODE

def mult(a,b):
    if b == 1: # BASE CASE
        return a
    else: # RECURSIVE STEP
        return a + mult(a,b-1)

# FACTORIAL

def fact(n):
    if n==1:
        return 1
    else:
        return n*fact(n-1)
```

```
[]: # TOWERS OF HANOI (THINK RECURSIVELY!)
# SOLVE A SMALLER PROBELM/ SOLVE A BASIC PROBLEM
```

```
[]: # RECURSION WITH MULTIPLE BASE CASES

# FIBONACCI NUMBERS

def fib(x):

"""assumes x an int >=0, returns Fibonacci of x """

if x == 0 or x ==1: # base cases

return 1

else:

return fib(x-1)+ fib(x-2) # we have two recurisve functions calls in a

return
```

```
[]: # RECURSION ON NON-NUMERICS (STRINGS)
     def isPalindrome(s):
         def toChars(s): # convert string to all lower cases
              s = s.lower() # convert to lower case
              for c in s: # remove all the punctuations/space
                  if c in 'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz':
                      ans = ans + c
              return ans
         def isPal(s):
              if len(s)<= 1: # recursive base case</pre>
                  return True
              else:
                  return s[0] == s[-1] and isPal(s[1:-1]) \# recursive step happens_{\bot}
      \rightarrowhere
                                                             # we compare the first and_
      ⇒last letter then
                                                             # we convert the problem to
      \rightarrow a smaller probelm
```

```
return isPal(toChars(s))
```

2.6 Modules

A module is a .py file containing python definitions and statements

- 1. import circle (import a module), we can then use circle.pi to access a attribute/method inside a module
- $2. \ \,$ from circle import *
 - 1. from the module circle import everything
 - 2. we can then directly use pi variable defined in cirle without suing circle.pi
 - 3. Need to make sure no name collision when use importing method
- 3. from circle import pi (equivalent to import module name.member name)
- 4. import numpy as np (import module as another name)

```
[]: # the file circle.py contains
     pi = 3.14159
     def area(radius):
        return pi*(radius**2)
     def circumference(radius):
        return 2*pi*radius
     # then we can import and use this module
     import circle
     pi = 3 # can still define the pi in the shell
     print(pi) # 3
     print(circle.pi) # 3.14159, look for pi defined in the module
     print(circle.circumference(3)) # 18.84953999
     # if we don't want to refer to functions and vars by their module, and the
     ⇔names don't
     # collide with other bindings, then we can use:
     from circle import* # means from the module, import everything (denoted by the
      ⇔star sign)
     print(pi)
     print(area(3)) # we can refer them by calling their own name
```

2.7 Files

Python provides an operating-system independent means to access files, using a file handle.

```
nameHandle = open('kids','w') (open kids for write, r for read)
name = input('Enter name: ')
nameHandle.write(name+ '\n')
nameHandle.close(), (() means that we are referring to the close() function)
```

```
[]: """
    WRITE/READ FILES
    """
    nameHandle = open('kids','w') # 'kid': name of file; w: write command
    for i in range(2):
        name = input('Enter name: ')
        nameHandle.write(name+ '\n')
    nameHandle.close()

nameHandle = open('kids','r') # read
for line in nameHandle:
        print(line)
nameHandle.close()
```

3 Tuple/List/Mutability/Cloning/Dict

This Chapter introduces the concept of tuple/list/dict and cloning/mutability

- Tuples
- Lists
- Mutation, Aliasing, Cloning
- Functions as Objects
- Strings, Tuples, Ranges, Lists
- Dictionaries
- Global Variables

3.1 Tuples

- 1. Immutable same as strings (cannot change element values)
- 2. an ordered sequence of elements, can mix element types
- 3. represented with parentheses ()
- 4. use index t[0] to access element, slice tuple as t[1:2], t[1]=2 gives error (cannot modify object)
- 5. (x,y) = (y,x) ease to swap variable values
- 6. used to return more than more value in a function
- 7. nested tupes. we can iterate over the tuples like range/string

```
[]: # USED TO RETURN MORE THAN ONE VALUE FROM A FUNCTION

def quotient_and_remainder(x,y):
    q = x//y
    r = x%y
    return(q,r)

(quot,rem) = quotient_and_remainder(4,5)
print('quotient is '+ str(quot) + ', remainder is '+str(rem))
```

3.2 Lists

- 1. ordered sequence of information, accessible by index, denoted by square brackets []
- 2. list is mutable, elements can be changed e.g. L[1]=5
- 3. we can iterate over lists
- 4. a list contains elements
 - 1. usually homogeneous (i.e., all integers)
 - 2. can contain mixed types (not common)

```
[]: # Indices and ordering
     a_list = [] # empty list, index starts from 0
     b_list = [2, 'a', 4, True] # mixed element type
     L = [2,1,3] # uniform element type
     len(L) # 3
     L[0] # 2
     print(L[2]+1) # 4
     print(L[2]) # 3
     # L[3] # error
     # CHANGING ELEMENTS (MUTABLE)
     L[1] = 5 \# L \text{ is now } [2,5,3]
     print(L)
     # ITERATING OVER LIST, LIKE STRINGS, CAN ITERATE OVER LIST ELEMENTS DIRECTLY
     # NOTE: INDEX O TO len(L)-1, range(n) GOES FROM O to n-1
     total = 0
     for i in L:
         total += i
     print(total)
```

3.2.1 List Operations

```
[]: # OPERATION ON LISTS (ADD)
    L1 = [2,1,3]
     L1.append(5) # L1 is now [2,1,3,5], only works for list
     # lists are python objects, everything in python is an object
     # objects have data/methods/functions/, we can access this info by object_name.
      \rightarrowdo something()
     L2 = [4,5,6]
     L3 = L1 + L2 \# [2,1,3,5,4,5,6] concatenation +
     print(L3)
     L1.extend([0,6]) # mutated L1 to [2,1,3,5,0,6]
     print(L1) # [2,1,3,5,0,6]
     print(L3) # [2,1,3,5,4,5,6]
     # OPERATION ON LISTS (REMOVE)
     del(L1[3]) # delete element at a specific index
     print(L1) # [2,1,3,0,6]
     L = [2,1,3,6,3,7,0]
     L.remove(2) # remove a specific element, [1,3,6,3,7,0]
     L.remove(3) # L = [1,6,3,7,0], if an element appears multiple times, only
      ⇔remove the first instance
     del(L[1]) # l = [1,3,7,0]
     L.pop() # returns 0 and mutates L = [1,3,7] (remove element at end of list)
     print(L)
```

```
# CONVERT LISTS to STRINGS AND BACK
s = 'I < 3 cs' # string
print(list(s)) # returns ['I','', '<','3','','c','s']</pre>
print(s.split('<')) # retruns['I', '3 cs'], splits on spaces if called without_
 \rightarrow a parameter
L = ['a', 'b', 'c'] # list
print(''.join(L)) # returns 'abc' (use join to join a list to string)
print('_'.join(L)) # returns 'a_b_c'
# OTHER LIST OPERATIONS
# MORE
L = [9,6,0,3]
print(sorted(L)) # returns sorted list, does not mutate
print(L)
L.sort() # mutates, L = [0,3,6,9]
print(L)
L.reverse() # mutates L = [9,6,3,0]
print(L)
# More list operations can be found from the link below
import webbrowser
webbrowser.open('https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/datastructures.html')
```

3.2.2 Loops/Fucntions/range/list

- 1. range is a special procedure
- 2. range returns sth that behaves like a tuple! doesn't generate elements at once
- 3. rather it generates the first element, and provides and iteration method by which subsequent elements can be generated

```
[]: range(5) # equivalent to tuple (0,1,2,3,4)
    range(2,6) # equivalent to (2,3,4,5)
    range(5,2,-1) # equivalent to (5,4,3)
    for var in range(5):
        print(var)
    for var in (0,1,2,3,4):
        print(var)
```

3.3 Mutation, aliasing, cloning

- 1. Important and tricky, Python Tutor is a good tool to sort this out.
- 2. listes are mutable and they behave differently than immutable types
- 3. cloning a list, chill = cool[:]
- 4. Nested lists, side effects still possible after mutation (avoid mutation in iteration)

```
[ ]: # ALIASING
warm = ['red','yellow','orange']
```

```
hot = warm # warm points to exact address, different name, but points the same
      \hookrightarrow thing
     hot.append('pink')
     print(hot) # returns ['red', 'yellow', 'orange', 'pink']
     print(warm) # also returns ['red', 'yellow', 'orange', 'pink']
     # if two lists print the same thing, does not mean they are the same structure
     cool = ['blue', 'green', 'grey']
     chill = ['blue', 'green', 'grey']
     print(cool == chill) # return True, == returns True if the objects refereed to⊔
      →by the varibales are equal
     print(cool is chill) # return False, is returns True if two variables point tou
      → the same object
     print(cool) # ['blue', 'green', 'grey']
     print(chill) # ['blue', 'green', 'grey']
     chill[2] = 'blue'
     print(cool) # ['blue', 'green', 'grey']
     print(chill) # ['blue', 'green', 'blue']
[]: #CLONG A LIST (Creat a new list and copy evryt element)
     cool = ['blue', 'green', 'grey']
     chill = cool[:] # clone cool to chill (This is recomended!)
     chill.append('black')
     print(chill) # ['blue', 'green', 'grey', 'black']
     print(cool) # ['blue', 'green', 'grey']
[ ]: # SORTING LISTS
     # sort(), mutates the list, returns nothing
     # sorted(), does not mutate list, must assign result to a variable
     warm = ['red','yellow','orange']
     sortedwarm = warm.sort() # note wortedwarm is none type, since sort does not ⊔
      ⇔return anything
     print(warm)
     print(sortedwarm)
     cool = ['grey', 'green', 'blue']
     sortedcool = sorted(cool) # sorted returns the sorted version, thus should be
      ⇔assigned to a variable
     print(cool)
     print(sortedcool)
[]: # NESTED LIST, side effects still possible after mutation
     warm = ['yellow','orange']
     hot = ['red']
     brightcolors = [warm]
```

```
brightcolors.append(hot) # list of list
print(brightcolors) # [['yellow', 'orange'], ['red']]
hot.append('pink')
print(hot) # ['red', 'pink']
print(brightcolors) # [['yellow', 'orange'], ['red', 'pink']], also mutates
print(hot+warm)
print(hot)
```

```
[]: # MUTATION AND ITERATION
     # avoid mutating a list as you are iterating over it
     # remove duplicates from two lists
     def remove_dups(L1,L2):
         for e in L1:
             if e in L2:
                 L1.remove(e)
    L1 = [1,2,3,4]
     L2 = [1,2,5,6]
     remove_dups(L1,L2) # This returns [2,3,4], not [3,4], you cannot iterate the
      ⇔list while mutating it
                        # Python has an internal counter for the list, say you at 1, __
      →you removed 1,
                        # it actually goes directly to the second element in L1 (3),
      →and skips 2.
     print(L1)
     def remove_dups_new(L1,L2): # This is the correct way to implement
         L1_copy = L1[:] # we use clones
         for e in L1_copy:
             if e in L2:
                 I.1. remove(e)
     L1 = [1,2,3,4]
    L2 = [1,2,5,6]
     remove_dups_new(L1,L2)
     print(L1)
```

3.4 Functions as Objects

- 1. class object, can pass function as arguments of another function
- 2. can process a function operation on each element in a list
- 3. list of functions, pass a lost as an argument to a function
- 4. map(abs,[1,-2,3,-4]), a general purpose (in the sense of iterable) of high-order-programming (HOP).

5. map is the key word. HOP is useful in analyzing high-dimensional data.

```
[]: # LIST OF FUNCTIONS

def applyFuns(L,x):
    """L is a list of functions, x is argument"""
    for f in L:
        print(f(x))
    applyFuns([abs,int],4) # 4 4
```

```
[]: # GENERALIZATION OF HOPS, map (produces an iterable, so need to walk down it)

for elt in map(abs,[1,-2,3,-4]): # simple form-a unary function and a_\( \)

collection of suitable arguments

print(elt) # map gives you a struture acts like a list, but in a way that_\( \)

you have to iterate to

# get all the vlaues, 1,2,3,4

L1 = [1,28,36]

L2 = [2,57,9]

for elt in map(min,L1,L2): # general form- an n-ary function and n collections_\( \)

cof arguments

print(elt) # 1,28, 9
```

3.5 Strings, Tuples, Ranges, Lists

- 1. Only list is mutable
- 2. Common operations: acces element/lengh/concatenation (not range)/repeats(not range)/slice/in/not in/interate
- 3. FOUR DIFF WAYS TO COLLECT THINGS TOGETHER INTO COMPOUND DATA STRUTURES strings/tuples/ranges/lists

```
[]: # COMMON OPERATIONS
seq, seq1, seq2 = 'example', 'example1', 'example2'
```

```
i = 1
print(seq[i]) # i^th element of sequence
print(len(seq)) # length of sequence
print(seq1+seq2) # concatenation of sequences (not range)
n=2
print(n*seq) # sequence that repeats seq n times (not range)
# seg[start:end] # slice of sequence
print('e' in seq) # True if e contained in sequence
print('e' not in seq) # True if e is not contained in sequence
for e in seq: # iterates over elements of sequence
   print(e)
# PROPERTIES
#Type Type of elements Example
                                         Mutable
#str characters
                      '','a','abc'
#tuple any type
                       (),(3,),('abc',4) No
                       range(10)
#range integers
                                        No
                     [],[3],['abc',4] Yes
#list any type
```

3.6 Dictionaries

- 1. Nice to index item of interest directly (store students grades, one data structure, no separate list)
- 2. Similar to cell array in MATLAB
- 3. Store pairs of data: {key: value}, e.g. Grades = {''Ana':'B','John':'A+'}
- 4. Grades['John'] = 'A+', looks up the key and returns the value
- 5. Dictionaries are mutable data structures
- 6. values in dictionary: can be any type. keys: must be unique, immutable type (int, float, string, tuple, bool)

```
[]: # messy if have a lot of diff info to keep track of
def get_grade(student,name_list,grade_list,course_list):
    i = name_list.index(student)
    grade = grade_list[i]
    course = course_list [i]
    return (course,grade)

# A better way and cleaner way - A dictionary
# nice to index (custom index) item of interest directly (not always int)
# key, value
my_dict = {} # cell array in Matlab
grades = {'Ana':'B','John':'A+','Denise':'A','Katy':'A'}
print(grades['John']) # returns 'A+'
```

3.6.1 Dictionary Operations

```
[ ]: # DICTIONARY OPERATIONS
     grades = {'Ana':'B','John':'A+','Denise':'A','Katy':'A'}
     grades['Sylvan'] = 'A' # add an entry, only works in dict
     print('John' in grades) # returns True, test to see if a key is in the
      \hookrightarrow dictionary
     print('Daniel' in grades) # returns False
     del(grades['Ana']) # can remove an entry
     print(grades.keys()) # grdaes.key is a method, need type () to call the method,
      →['John', 'Denise', 'Katy'] (returns an iterable list)
     print(grades.values()) # ['A+', 'A', 'A'] (returns an iterable list)
     grades2 = grades.copy() # copy the dictionary
     print(grades.get('Huang',0)) # The safe way to get value from key 'Huang', ifu
      → 'Huanq' is
                          # not a key, then it returns 0
     # values in dictionary: can be any type
     # keys: must be unique, immutable type (int, float, string, tuple, bool, careful_{\square}
      ⇔with float keys)
     # a list cannot be a key in dictionaies since lists are mutable in python
     d = {1:{1:0},(1,3):"twelve",'const':[3.14,2.7,8.44]}
     # list vs dict
     # lsit: ordered sequence of elements, look up by an integer index, indices have
      ⇔an order, index is an integer
     # dict: matches "keys" to "values", look up one item by another item, no order
      →is quaranteed, key can be any immutable type.
```

3.6.2 Three Function to Analyze Song Lyrics

```
[]: """
EXAMPLE: 3 FUNCTIONS TO ANALYZE SONG LYRICS
"""

# CREATE A FREQ DICTIONARY MAPPING str:int
def lyrics_to_frequencies(lyrics):
    myDict = {}
    for word in lyrics: # iterate over the list
        if word in myDict: # if the word is in the dictionary
            myDict[word] += 1 # increase the value associated with it by 1
    else:
        myDict[word] = 1
    return myDict # returns a dictionary

# FIND WORD THAT OCCURS THE MOST AND HOW MANY TIMES
# 1. use a lsit, in case there is more than one word
```

```
# 2. return a tuple(list, int) for (words_list, highest_freq)
def most_common_words(freqs): # freqs is a dictionary
    values = freqs.values() # all ints note it is a special type not a list
    if values: # find the maxium if values is not empty
        best = max(values)
    else:
         best = 0
    words = []
    for k in freqs: # can iterate over keys in dictionary
        if freqs[k] == best: # is the value is the best
            words.append(k) # append works for list only
    return (words,best) # returns a tuple
# FIND THE WORDS THAT OCCUR AT LEAST X TIMES
# let user choose "at least X times", return a lsit of tuples, each tuple is a_{\sqcup}
\hookrightarrow (list, int)
# containing the list of words ordered by their frequency
# IDEA: from song dictionary, find most frequent word, delete most common word,
 \rightarrowrepeat.
def words_often(freqs,minTimes):
    result = []
    done = False # an initial flag
    while not done:
        temp = most_common_words(freqs)
        if temp[1] >= minTimes: # do this untile the most common words appear
 \hookrightarrow leass than minTimes
            result.append(temp)
            for w in temp[0]: # temp[0] is a list defined as words in_
 →most_common_words function
                del(freqs[w]) # can directly mutate dictionary; makes it easier_
 ⇔to iterate
        else:
            done = True
    return result
lyrics = ['I','love','you','I','love','you','I']
freqs = lyrics_to_frequencies(lyrics)
freqs_copy = freqs.copy() # get a copy of the original dicitonary so that well
⇔will not change the original one
print(words_often(freqs_copy,1))
```

3.6.3 Fibonacci with a Dictionary

- 1. Efficient, can store the computed fab number in a dict
- 2. Do a lookup first in case already calculated the value

3. Modify dictionary as progress through function cal (good for fft algorithm)

```
[]: """
     FIBONACCI AND DICTIONARIES (VERY EFFICIENT)
     GLOBAL VARIABLES/ TRACKING EFFICIENCY
     # ORIGINALLY, WE HAD THIS RESURSIVE FUNCTION
     # TWO BASE CASES, CALL ITSELF TWICE, INEFFICIENT
     def fib(n):
         global numFibCalls # qlobal variable, we can access outside of the function
         numFibCalls += 1
         if n == 1:
             return 1
         if n == 2:
             return 2
         else:
             return fib(n-1)+fib(n-2)
     # INSTEAD OF RECALCULATING THE SAME VALUES MANY TIMES
     # WE COULD KEEP TRACK IF ALREADY CALCULATED VALUES (FIBONACCI WITH A DICTIONARY)
     # USING A DICTONARY TO HOLD ON THE VALUES I HAVE ALREADY CALCULATED
     def fib_efficient(n,d):
         # d is a base dictionary
         global numFibCalls # accessible from outside scope of function
         numFibCalls += 1
         if n in d:
             return d[n]
         else:
             ans = fib_efficient(n-1,d) + fib_efficient(n-2,d)
             d[n] = ans # strore the ans in a dictinary
             return ans
     numFibCalls = 0
     fibArg = 12
     print(fib(fibArg))
     print('function calls', numFibCalls)
     numFibCalls = 0
     d = \{1:1,2:2\} # base cases in a dictionary, memoization: create a memo for
      youself
     print(fib_efficient(fibArg,d))
     print('function calls', numFibCalls)
     print(d) # the base dicironary is updated
```

3.7 Global Variable

1. Accessible from outside scope of function, can be dangerous to use

- 2. But can be convenient when want to keep track of info inside a function
- 3. The key word is global, e.g. global numFibCalls as in the fibonacci example above

4 Testing/Debugging/Exception/Assertion

• Exceptions

```
[]: """

TESTING, DEBUGGING
"""

"""

ERROR MESSAGES-EASY
"""

# IndexError, test = [1,2,3] then test[4]

# TypeError, int(test), '3'/4 (mixing data types)

# NameError, referencing a non-existent variable

# SyntaxError, a = len([1,2,3] (forgetting to close parenthesis, quotation, etc)

# IOError: IO system reports malfunction (e.g. file not found)

# AttributeError: attribute reference fails

"""

LOGIC ERRORS-HARD
"""

# think

# draw pictures

# explain the code to someone else /rubber ducky
```

4.1 Exceptions

- 1. What happens when procedure execution hits an unexpected condition (SyntaxError/NameError/AttributeError/TypeError/ValueError/IOError)
- 2. keywords: try:, except:, else:, finally:, raise:
- 3. Handling specific exceptions: except ValueError

```
[]: # get an exception... to what was expected
# what to do with exceptions?
# DEALING WITH EXCEPTIONS

# try to execute each of the instructions in turn
try:
    a = int(input("Tell me one number:"))
    b = int(input("Tell me another number"))
    print("a/b = ", a/b)
    print("a+b = ", a+b)
# if a exception is raised, jump to here
```

```
except ValueError: # separate except clauses to deal with a particular type of
 \hookrightarrow exception
    print("Could not convert to a number")
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("Can't divide by zero")
except: # for all other errors
    print("Something went very wrong.")
# OTHER EXCEPTIONS
# else: body of this is excuetd when execution of associated try body completes_
→with no exceptions
# finally: body of this is always executed after try, else and except clauses,
 ⇔even if they raised
         # another error or executed a break, continue or return
         # useful for clean-up code that should be run no matter what else
 \hookrightarrow happened
         # e.g. close a file
```

4.1.1 Exception Usages

```
[]: """
     EXAMPLE EXCEPTION USAGE
     .....
     # 1st example
     # Loop only exits when correct type of input provided
     while True:
         try:
             n = input("Please enter an integer: ")
             n = int(n)
             break
         except ValueError: # handles ValueError
             print("Input not an integer; try again")
     print("Correct input of an integer!")
     # 2nd example
     # Contorl input
     data = []
     file name = input("Provide a name of a file of data ")
     try:
        fh = open(file_name,'r')
     except IOError:
         print('cannot open', file_name)
     else:
         for new in fh: # reading a new line
             if new != '\n':
```

4.1.2 Exception as Control Flow

```
[ ]: [
     11 11 11
     EXCEPTION AS CONTROL FLOW
     # WE CAN RAISE AN EXCEPTION WHEN UNABLE TO PRODUCE A RESULT CONSISTENT WITH,
      →FUNCTIONS'S SPECIFICATION
     def get_ratio(L1,L2):
         """ Assumes: L1 and L2 are lists of equal length of numbers
             Returns: a list containing L1[i]/L2[i]"""
         ratios = []
         for index in range(len(L1)):
             try:
                 ratios.append(L1[index]/float(L2[index]))
             except ZeroDivisionError:
                 ratios.append(float('NaN')) # NaN = not a number
             except: # manage flow of program by raising own error
                 raise ValueError('get ratios called with bad arg')
         return ratios
     # ANOTHER EXAMPLE
     # GET A NEW LIST WITH AVERAGE MARKS
     test_grades = [[['peter', 'parker'], [80.0, 70.0, 85.0]], [['bruce', 'wayne'], [100.
      ⇔0, 80.0, 74.0]],
                    [['captain', 'america'], [8.0,10.0,96.0]],[['deadpool'],[]]]
     def get_stats(class_list):
         new_stats = []
         for elt in class list:
             new_stats.append([elt[0],elt[1], avg(elt[1])])
```

```
return new_stats

def avg(grades):
    try:
        return sum(grades)/len(grades)
    except ZeroDivisionError:
        print('no grades data') # no return for excetion, it actually assigns []
        return 0.0
```

4.2 Assertions

- 1. want to be sure that assumptions on state of computation are as expected
- 2. use an assert statement to raise an AssertionError exception if assumptions not met (functions end immediately if assertion not met)
- 3. an example of good defensive programming (make it easier to locate a source of a bug)
- 4. Keywords: assert not len(grades) == 0, 'no grades data'

```
[]:

### ASSERTIONS (GOOD WAY OF DOING DEFENSIVE PROGRAM)

"""

# Prevent circumstances from leading to unexpected results

# Ensure that execution halts whenever an expected conditions not met

# typically used to check inputs to fucntions procedures, but can be used,

anywhere

# can be used to check outputs of a function to avoid propagating bad values

def avg(grades):

# function ends immediately if assertion not met

assert not len(grades) == 0, 'no grades data'

return sum(grades)/len(grades)

grades = [1.1,3.3]

print(avg(grades))
```

2.2

5 Appendix

• Useful Python Libraries

5.1 Useful Python Libraries