

Foundations of Data Science for Biologists

Flow control and functions Python

BIO 724D

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Control flow

Control flow in Python

Python provides `if`, `for`, and `while` control flow structures

- The basic syntax is similar to R, although a few additional options are available

- Test conditions are expressed in a similar way to R

- Nesting and mixed nesting of structures is allowed

All three control flow structures can optionally include a `finally` statement (unlike R)

- Executes once if the preceding structure/loop finishes without any `break` or error

- Useful for reporting successful completion or for passing warnings

In addition, Python provides idioms for iterables that avoid explicit loops

- Iterable comprehensions, the most common being list comprehension

- Conditional assignment / ternary conditionals

Special control flow statements

Three special statements can be included in control flow structures

None are necessary (work-arounds exist) but they clarify logic and are more readable

pass: a valid statement that does nothing

Useful as a placeholder for later work (blocks must contain at least one statement)

continue: proceeds directly to the next iteration of a loop or next evaluation in an if structure

Useful if a computationally intensive step doesn't need to execute each iteration

Ignores all subsequent statements in the code block for that iteration *only*

break: completely exits the current loop and proceeds to the next statement

Useful when searching an iterable for a single specific item

Only works with loop structures; ignores *all* subsequent statements and conditions

Only applies to the current loop structure (not to an enclosing loop, if present)

Not to be confused with **return**, which performs the analogous role in a function

If structures

At most one conditional code block executes prior to the `finally` block (if present)

```
if <condition> :           # conditional execution
    <statement(s)>
```

```
if <condition> :           # alternative execution
    <statement(s)>
else :
    <statement(s)>
```

```
if <condition> :           # chained conditionals
    <statement(s)>
elif :                     # an arbitrary number of elifs is allowed
    <statement(s)>
else :
    <statement(s)>
```

If structures with finally

```
if <condition> :                # alternative execution
```

```
    <statement(s)>
```

```
else :
```

```
    <statement(s)>
```

```
finally :                       # always executes
```

```
    <statement(s)>
```

```
if <condition> :                # chained conditionals
```

```
    <statement(s)>
```

```
elif :                          # an arbitrary number of elifs is allowed
```

```
    <statement(s)>
```

```
else :
```

```
    <statement(s)>
```

```
finally :                       # always executes
```

```
    <statement(s)>
```

Multiple conditions

When testing multiple conditions, order matters for two reasons

Logic

- Conditions are evaluated in the order they are encountered

- The first conditional that evaluates to True ends the if / elif part of the structure

- Remember: the code block of *at most* one condition is evaluated

Efficiency

- Conditions are evaluated in the order they are encountered

- Test conditions in the order of expected frequency to minimize execution time

Conditional assignment

Python provides special if / else structure for conditional assignment

Syntax is simpler and (often) easier to read, but reserve for simple conditions

Known as conditional assignment or ternary operator

A normal if / else structure used for assignment looks like this:

```
if <condition> :  
    my_var = <statement>  
else :  
    my_var = <alternative statement>
```

The syntax for a ternary operator:

```
my_var = <statement> if <condition> else <alternative statement>
```

An example to illustrate usage:

```
my_var = b if b > 10 else c    # assign b unless b > 10, in which case assign c
```


For loops

For loops use an iterable to determine the number of times the loop executes

The loop structure automatically updates the loop counter

Nesting for loops is a common way to systematically query a matrix or data frame

```
for <var> in <iterable> :                # simple loop
    <statement(s)>

for <var> in <iterable> : <statement>      # one-line (only for 1 statement)

for <var> in <iterable> :                # loop followed by completion block
    <statement(s)>
finally :                                # always executes
    <statement(s)>
```

Using ranges with for loops

The `range()` function provides a simple way to create custom iterators

The syntax is:

```
for <var> in range(i, j, k) :    # can take 1, 2, or 3 arguments (see below)
    <statement(s)>
```

Examples to illustrate the usage of `range()`:

```
for i in range(6) :                # iterates 6 times, i takes values 0 to 6
for i in range(2, 6) :              # iterates 4 times, i takes values 2 to 5
for i in range(0, 6, 2) :           # iterates 4 times, i takes values 0, 2, 4, 6
```

Arguments are: stop; start, stop; start, stop, step

Comprehensions

Python provides a functional programming idiom to specify for loops

A standard for loop that operates on a list looks like this:

```
fruits = ['banana', 'pineapple', 'plum']  
new_list = []  
for i in fruits :  
    if 'p' in i : new_list.append()
```

A list comprehension that does the same thing looks like this:

```
fruits = ['banana', 'pineapple', 'plum']  
new_list = [i for i in fruits if 'p' in i]
```

While loops

While loops repeatedly execute a code block until a condition evaluates to **False**

Will not execute even once if the condition evaluates to **False** on first iteration

Brings the risk of infinite looping if the condition never evaluates to **False**

Ensuring termination may require declaring relevant condition variable(s) in advance

Not generally recommended: only use if no other options work well

```
while <condition> :                # simple loop
    <statement(s)>

while <condition> :                # loop followed by completion block
    <statement(s)>
finally :
    <statement(s)>                # always executes
```

Ending while loops

Best practice with while loops: include a mechanism to guarantee exiting the loop

Strategy: set up conditions that *inevitably* trigger a `break` statement

Many approaches can be used; 2 examples are shown below

```
i = 0                                # using a loop counter
while <condition> :
    <statement(s)>
    i += 1
    if i > 1000 : break                # exit if 1000 loops

while <condition> :                    # using user action
    <statement(s)>
    a = input('press any key to proceed')
    if a : break                       # user can interrupt at will
```

Functions

The basics

What does a function do?

- Takes input and produces an output

- Can be treated as a “black box” from a logic perspective

 - All the programmer cares about is input and output

 - Specifics of how the transformation works is not important

 - Contributes to abstraction

Types of functions available in Python

- Built-in: available without import or declaration

- Standard: must first load the module or function; huge variety of useful functions

- User-defined: must first declare

- Anonymous: single-use, single-line; also known as lambda functions

Arguments

Technically

Parameters are stated in the function declaration

Arguments are passed to the parameters during run-time

Python is flexible, such that functions may take:

0, 1, or multiple arguments (no upper bound)

A fixed or arbitrary number of arguments

Required arguments, optional arguments, or both

Any object as an argument, including other functions

Return values

By default, every function returns the value `None`

This behavior can be altered using a `return` statement

0, 1, or multiple values can be returned (no upper bound)

Best practice is to place `return` statements at the end of the code block

Multiple `return` statements can be included when using if / else structures

Functions can return values or named data objects

Defining a function

Creating a function

Use the `def` keyword

Use colon and indenting rather than curly braces to define the code block

```
# create a function to test whether 7 is a factor
def is_div_by_7(input_value) :
    if input_value % 7 == 0 : return True
    else: return False
# call the function
result_1 = is_div_by_7(3)
result_2 = is_div_by_7(42)
print(result_1, result_2)                                # returns False True
```

Defining a function, continued

Functions must contain at least statement in the code block

Use `pass` as a place-holder to fill the code block (does nothing during execution)

Use `return` statements to control what the function returns

If there is no `return` statement, the function returns the value `None`

Using `return` by itself also returns the value `None` (useful in if/else structures)

Using `return` followed by value(s) returns the value(s)

Use a **docstring** to provide a short description of the function and its use

Place in triple quotes on the line immediately following the function declaration

```
"""Takes a DNA string as input and returns codons as a list"""
```

Defining arguments for functions

Optional arguments are indicated with `=` followed by the default value

```
def function_name(arg1 = 0, arg2 = True) :  
    <statement(s)>
```

Optional arguments must follow all required arguments

The ability to pass an arbitrary number of arguments is indicated with `*args`

```
def function_name(*args) :  
    <statement(s)>
```

Represented internally as a tuple; access as `args` within the function

The ability to pass an arbitrary number of keyword arguments is indicated with `**kwargs`

```
def function_name(**kwargs) :  
    <statement(s)>
```

Represented internally as a dictionary; access as `kwargs` within the function

Passing arguments to functions

Separate multiple arguments with commas

Required arguments

- Pass these values first and in the defined order

- Anything else will throw an error

*args and **kwargs arguments

- Pass these values after any required arguments

Optional arguments

- Pass these last; order is not important

- Omit unless changing the default value (including with the default value is innocuous)

- Include the argument and value (e.g., `reverse = True`)

Scope

Global variables can be updated within a function

However, this will not alter the value of the global variable *outside* the function

Any variable defined within a function is assumed to be local to that function

To define a global variable within a function, use the `global` keyword (not recommended)

```
def my_func() :  
    global my_var      # first, declare the variable as global  
    my_var = 'spam'    # then, assign a value
```

To return all variables and values within a function, call `locals()` or `globals()`

```
def my_func() :  
    locals()           # returns a dictionary of local variables and values  
    globals()          # returns a dictionary of global variables and values
```

Evaluation

Functions are not evaluated when defined

Only evaluated when called by other code at runtime (known as lazy evaluation)

Default argument values are evaluated once, left to right, when the function is executed

Can cause unexpected behavior if a default value is altered within the function

Keep both points in mind when debugging code!

