Lecture #14: Mutable Data, Lists, and Dictionaries

Local, Global, and Nonlocal

 By default, an assignment in Python (including = and for . . . in), binds a name in the current environment frame (creating an entry if needed).

```
\item But within any function, one may declare particular variables to
 be {\bit nonlocal} or {\bit global}:
{\Prog\begin{program}
>>> x0, y0 = 0, 0
>>> def f1(x1):
... y1 = 0
\dots def f2(x2):
   nonlocal x1
... global x0
... x0, x1 = 1, 2
... y0, y1 = 1, 2
   print(x0, x1, y0, y1)
   f2(0)
    print(x0, x1, y0, y1)
>>> f1(0)
1, 2, 1, 2
1, 2, 0, 0
>>> print(x0, y0)
```

Last modified: Wed Feb 26 03:35:48 2014

Local, Global, and Nonlocal (II)

- global marks names assigned to in the function as referring to variables in the global scope, not new local variables. These variables need not previously exist, and should not already have been used in the function.
- nonlocal marks names assigned to in function as referring to variables in some enclosing function. These variables must previously exist, and may not be local.
- global is an old feature of Python. nonlocal was introduced in version 3 and immediate predecessors.
- Neither declaration affects variables in nested functions:

```
>>>def f():
... global x
... def g(): x = 3 \# Local x
... g()
... return x
>>> x = 0
>>> f()
```

State

- The term *state* applied to an object or system refers to the current information content of that object or system.
- In the case of functions, this includes values of variables in the environment frames they link to.
- Some objects are immutable, e.g., integers, booleans, floats, strings, and tuples that contain only immutable objects. Their state does not vary over time, and so objects with identical state may be substituted freely.
- Other objects in Python are (at least partially) mutable, and substituting one object for another with identical state may not work as expected if you expect that both objects continue to have the same value.

Immutable Data Structures from Functions

 Back in lecture 10, saw how to build immutable objects from functions. Here's how we might implement pairs:

```
>>> def make_pair(left, right):
    def result(key):
          if key == 0:
               return left
... else:
               return right
... return result
>>> p = make_pair(4, 7)
>>> p(0)
4
>>> p(1)
```

 This is immutable, since left and right are inaccessible outside make_pair and result.

Mutable Data Structures from Functions

- Using nonlocal, we can make mutable data types as well.
- Example: a counter that increments on each call.

```
>>> def make_counter(value):
       """A counter that increments and returns its value on each
    call, starting with VALUE."""
     def result():
           nonlocal value
           value += 1
           return value
   return result
>>> c = make_counter(0)
>>> c()
>>> c()
```

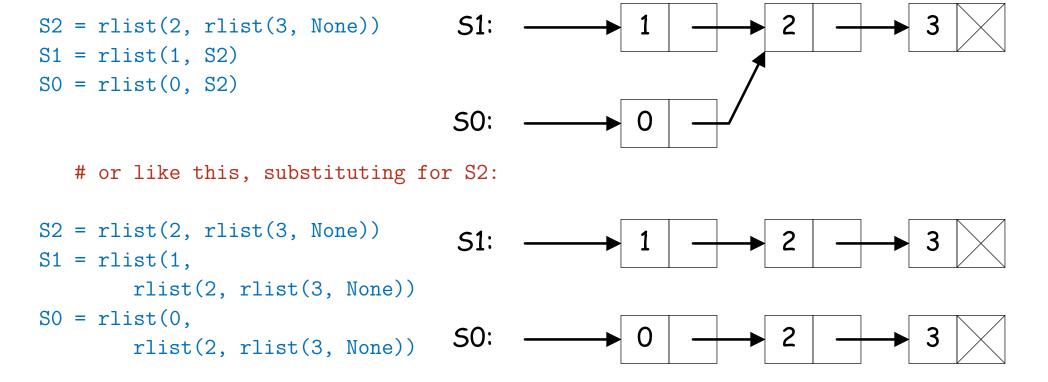
Another Example

• Likewise, we could use the dispatching idea to implement mutable rlists:

```
>>> def mut_rlist(head, rest):
        def result(key, newval=None):
            nonlocal head, rest
            if key == 0: return head
            if key == 1: return rest
            if key == 2: head = newval;
            if key == 3: rest = newval;
        return result
>>> def first(r): return r(0)
>>> def rest(r): return r(1)
>>> def set_first(r, v): return r(2, v)
>>> def set_rest(r, v): return r(3, v)
>>> r = mut_rlist(1, None)
>>> rest(r) # None
>>> set_rest(r, mut_rlist(2, None))
>>> first(r)
1
>>> first(rest(r))
```

Referential Transparency and Immutable Structures

- Immutable values are generally interchangeable: one can "substitute equals for equals."
- The term referential transparency refers to this ability to refer to values by any equivalent expression anywhere.
- For our original (immutable) rlists, we can freely represent the two sequences [1, 2, 3] and [0, 2, 3] like this:



Mutable Structures are not Referentially Transparent

Now consider mutable rlists:

```
>>> S2 = mut_rlist(2, rlist(3, None)) S1:
>>> S1 = mut_rlist(1, S2)
>>> S0 = mut_rlist(0, S2)
>>> set_first(rest(S0), 42)
                                     50:
                                             0
>>> first(rest(S0))
42
>>> first(rest(S1))
42
                                     S1:
S2 = mut_rlist(2, rlist(3, None))
S1 = mut_rlist(1,
        mut_rlist(2, rlist(3, None)) 50:
S0 = mut rlist(0,
                                           So we cannot freely use either way of
        mut_rlist(2, rlist(3, None))
>>> set_first(rest(S0), 42)
                                           creating the lists and expect the same
>>> first(rest(S0))
                                           results.
42
```

>>> first(rest(S1))

Mutable Structures are not Referentially Transparent

Now consider mutable rlists:

```
>>> S2 = mut_rlist(2, rlist(3, None)) S1:
>>> S1 = mut_rlist(1, S2)
>>> S0 = mut_rlist(0, S2)
>>> set_first(rest(S0), 42)
                                     50:
                                             0
>>> first(rest(S0))
42
>>> first(rest(S1))
42
                                      S1:
S2 = mut_rlist(2, rlist(3, None))
S1 = mut_rlist(1,
        mut_rlist(2, rlist(3, None)) 50:
SO = mut rlist(0,
                                           So we cannot freely use either way of
        mut_rlist(2, rlist(3, None))
>>> set_first(rest(S0), 42)
                                           creating the lists and expect the same
>>> first(rest(S0))
                                           results.
42
```

Last modified: Wed Feb 26 03:35:48 2014

>>> first(rest(S1))

Truth: We Don't Usually Build Structures This Way!

- Usually, if we want an object with mutable state, we use one of Python's mutable object types.
- We'll see soon how to create such types.
- But for now, let's look at some standard ones.

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Lists

- Lists are mutable tuples, syntactically distinguished by [...].
- Generally like tuples, but unlike tuples, we can assign to elements:

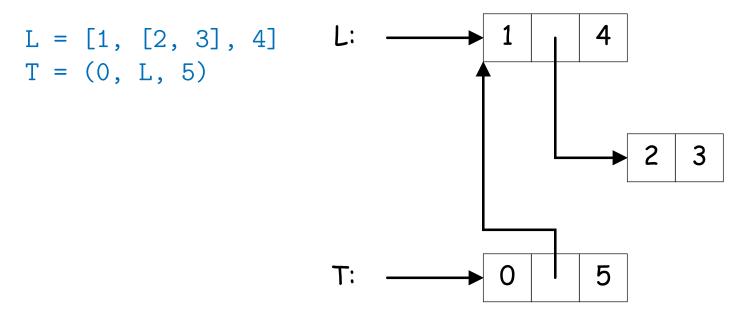
```
>>> x = [1, 2, 3]
>>> x[1] = 0
>>> x
[1, 0, 3]
```

And can also assign to slices:

```
>>> x = [1, 2, 3]
>>> x[1:2] = [6, 7, 8] # Replace 2nd item
>>> x
[1, 6, 7, 8, 3]
>>> x[0:2] = []
               # Remove first 2
>>> x
[7, 8, 3]
```

In Pictures

• Like rlists, Python lists and tuples are referenced entities.



- The values of L and T, as well as those of L[1] and T[1] are references (aka pointers).
- Assignments, parameter passing, function returns, and list or tuple constructors all deal with references.
- Actually, in our interpreter, just about all Python values are references, even integers, but for immutable values, we can usually ignore the fact.

Object Identity Versus Equality

- The == operator is intended to test for equality of content or equivalence of state. Two separate entities (tuples, strings, lists) can therefore be ==.
- Sometimes (BUT NOT OFTEN) we need to see if two expressions in fact denote the same object.
- For this purpose, Python uses the operators is and is not.
- The is operator tests equality of arrows, whereas == tests equality of what's at the ends of the arrows.

```
>>> x == x + 1 - 1 True
                               True
                 >>> (1,) is (1,) >>> "a"*100 is "a"*100
True
>>> x is x + 1 - 1 False
                               False
                >>> () == ()
False
                             >>> "a"*10 is "a"*10
>>> x = 100
               True
                                True
>>> x == x + 1 - 1 >>> () is ()
                 True WHAT'S GOING ON??
True
>>> x is x + 1 - 1
True
```

Object Identity Usually Irrelevant for Immutable Data

- The examples where is and == differ can differ from Python implementation to Python implementation.
- Runtime implementor is free to choose whether two expressions of literals that produce equal (==) values do so by producing identical (is) objects.
- This freedom results from the fact that, once equal, immutable values continue to be indistinguishable under equality, and other operations.
- Again, this is Referential transparency.
- So when we write

>>>
$$x = (2, 3)$$

>>> $L = (1, x)$

it doesn't matter whether we create a new copy of x to put into L, or use the same one.

• ... Unless we use is (which is why we generally don't!).

Object Identity Is Important in Lists

```
>>> x = [1, 2]

>>> y = [0, x]

>>> x[0] = 5

>>> y

[0, [5, 2]]

>>> x = []

>>> y
```

Object Identity Is Important in Lists

```
>>> x = [1, 2]
>>> y = [0, x]
>>> x[0] = 5
>>> y
[0, [5, 2]]
>>> x = []
>>> y
[0, [5, 2]] # Why doesn't y change?
```

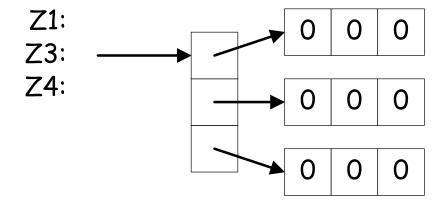
Puzzle

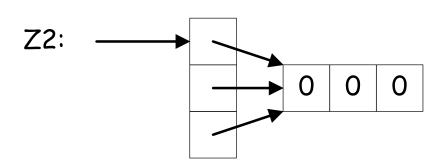
- Can make 2D lists, just as with tuples.
- What's the difference between the following ways to create an all-0 3x3 array?

```
Z1 = [[0, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0]]
Z2 = [[0, 0, 0]] * 3
     # (For list expression E, E * 3 is computed by L + L + L,
     # where L is the value of E.)
Z3 = [[0, 0, 0] \text{ for r in range}(3)]
Z4 = [0 \text{ for c in range}(3)] \text{ for r in range}(3)]
```

Puzzle

- Can make 2D lists, just as with tuples.
- What's the difference between the following ways to create an all-0 3x3 array?





Dictionaries

• Dictionaries (type dict) are mutable mappings from one set of values (called *keys*) to another.

• Constructors:

```
>>> {} # A new, empty dictionary
>>> { 'brian' : 29, 'erik': 27, 'zack': 18, 'dana': 25 }
{'brian': 29, 'erik': 27, 'dana': 25, 'zack': 18}
>>> L = ('aardvark', 'axolotl', 'gnu', 'hartebeest', 'wombat')
>>> successors = { L[i-1] : L[i] for i in range(1, len(L)) }
>>> successors
{'aardvark': 'axolotl', 'hartebeest': 'wombat',
 'axolotl': 'gnu', 'gnu': 'hartebeest'}
```

• Queries:

```
>>> len(successors)
4
>>> 'gnu' in successors
True
>>> 'wombat' in successors
False
```

Dictionary Selection and Mutation

Selection and Mutation

```
>>> ages = { 'brian' : 29, 'erik': 27, 'zack': 18, 'dana': 25 }
>>> ages['erik']
27
>>> 'erik' in ages
True
>>> 'paul' in ages
False
>>> ages['paul']
...
KeyError: 'paul'
>>> ages.get('paul', "?")
'?'
```

Mutation:

```
>>> ages['erik'] += 1; ages['john'] = 56
ages
{'brian': 29, 'john': 56, 'erik': 28, 'dana': 25, 'zack': 18}
```

Dictionary Keys

- Unlike sequences, ordering is not defined.
- Keys must typically have immutable types that contain only immutable data [can you guess why?] that have a _hash_ method. Take CS61B to find out what's going on here.
- When converted into a sequence, get the sequence of keys:

```
>>> ages = { 'brian' : 29, 'erik': 27, 'zack': 18, 'dana': 25 }
>>> list(ages)
['brian', 'erik', 'dana', 'zack'] # One possible order
>>> for name in ages: print(ages[name], end=",")
29, 27, 25, 18,
```

A Dictionary Problem

A Dictionary Problem

Using Only Keys

Suppose that all we need are the keys (values are irrelevant):

```
def is_duplicate(L):
    """True iff L contains a duplicated item."""
    items = {}
    for x in L:
        if x in items: return True
        items[x] = True  # Or any value
    return False
def common_keys(D0, D1):
    """Return dictionary containing the keys in both DO and D1."""
    result = {}
    for x in DO:
         if x in D1: result[x] = True
    return result
```

• These dictionaries function as *sets* of values.

Sets

- Python supplies a specialized set data type for slightly better syntax (and perhaps speed) than dictionaries for set-like operations.
- Operations

Set operation	Python Syntax	Modification
{}	set()	
$\{1, 2, 3\}$	{ 1, 2, 3 }, set([1,2,3])	
$\{x \in L P(x)\}$	$\{ x \text{ for } x \text{ in } L \text{ if } P(x) \}$	
$A \cup B$	A B	A = B
$A \cap B$	A & B	A &= B
$A \setminus B$	A - B	A -= B
$A \cup \{x\}$	$A \mid \{x\}$	A.add(x)
$A \setminus \{x\}$	$A - \{x\}$	A.discard(x)
$x \in A$	x in A	
$A \subseteq B$	A <= B	

Reworked Examples with Sets

```
def is_duplicate(L):
    """True iff L contains a duplicated item."""
    items = set()
    for x in L:
        if x in items: return True
        items.add(x)
    return False
def common_keys(D0, D1):cmnt
    """Return set containing the keys in both DO and D1."""
    return set(D0) & set(D1)
```

 As shown in the last example, anything that can iterated over can be used to create a set.