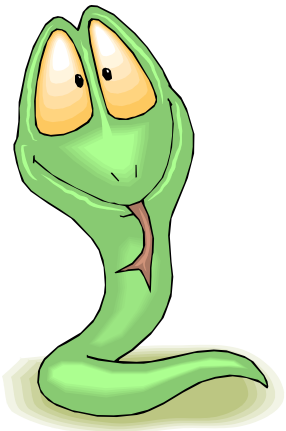


# Intro to Python

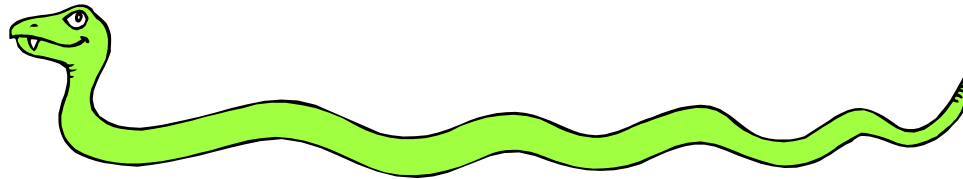
---

- **Dictionaries**
- **Functions**
- **Reference semantics**



---

# Dictionaries



# Dictionaries: A *Mapping* type

---

- Dictionaries store a *mapping* between a set of keys and a set of values.
  - Keys can be any *immutable* type.
  - Values can be any type
  - A single dictionary can store values of different types
- You can define, modify, view, lookup, and delete the key-value pairs in the dictionary.

# Creating and accessing dictionaries

---

```
>>> d = {'user': 'bozo', 'pswd': 1234}
```

```
>>> d['user']
```

```
'bozo'
```

```
>>> d['pswd']
```

```
1234
```

```
>>> d['bozo']
```

```
Traceback (innermost last):
```

```
  File '<interactive input>' line 1, in ?
```

```
KeyError: bozo
```

# Updating Dictionaries

---

```
>>> d = {'user': 'bozo', 'pswd': 1234}

>>> d['user'] = 'clown'
>>> d
{'user': 'clown', 'pswd': 1234}
```

- Keys must be unique.
- Assigning to an existing key replaces its value.

```
>>> d['id'] = 45
>>> d
{'user': 'clown', 'id': 45, 'pswd': 1234}
```

- Dictionaries may be unordered depending on the version of Python used
  - Unless you are absolutely sure of the version of Python will be executing your code, it is perhaps best to avoid depending upon key-storage order...
- (Dictionaries work by *hashing*)

# Removing dictionary entries

---

```
>>> d = {'user': 'bozo', 'p': 1234, 'i': 34}

>>> del d['user']          # Remove one key/value pair.
>>> d
{'p': 1234, 'i': 34}

>>> d.clear()             # Remove all key/value pairs.
>>> d
{}
```

# Useful Accessor Methods

---

```
>>> d = {'user': 'bozo', 'p': 1234, 'i': 34}

>>> d.keys()                # "List" of keys.
dict_keys(['user', 'p', 'i']) # Order: YMMV

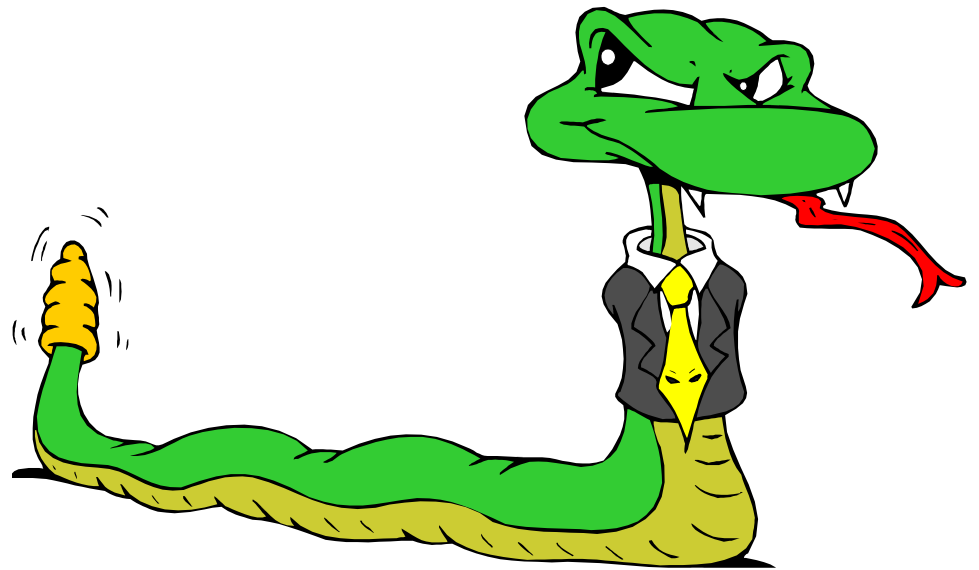
>>> list(d.keys())          # Actual list
['user', 'p', 'i']

>>> d.values()              # List of values.
dict_values(['bozo', 1234, 34])

>>> d.items()               # List of item tuples.
dict_items([('user', 'bozo'), ('p', 1234), ('i', 34)])
```

---

# Functions in Python





# Defining Functions

---

Function definition begins with "def"

Function name and its arguments.

```
def get_final_answer(filename):  
    """Documentation String"""  
    line1  
    line2  
    return total_counter
```

Colon.

The indentation matters...

First line with less

indentation is considered to be  
outside of the function definition.

The keyword 'return' indicates the  
value to be sent back to the caller.

**No header file or declaration of types of function or arguments.**

# Reminder: Python and Types

---

Python determines the data types of *variable bindings* in a program automatically.

*"Dynamic Typing"*

But Python's not casual about types, it enforces the types of *objects*.

*"Strong Typing"*

So, for example, you can't just append an integer to a string. You must first convert the integer to a string itself.

```
x = "the answer is " # Deduces x is bound to a string.
y = 23                # Deduces y is bound to an integer.
print (x + y)         # Python will complain about this.
```

# Calling a Function

---

- The syntax for a function call is:

```
>>> def myfun(x, y):  
        return x * y  
  
>>> myfun(3, 4)  
12
```

- Parameters in Python are “Call by Assignment.”
  - Sometimes acts like “call by reference” and sometimes like “call by value” in C++.
    - Mutable datatypes: Behaves like Call-by-reference.
    - Immutable datatypes: Behaves like Call-by-value.

# Functions without returns

---

- **All functions in Python have a return value**
  - even if no *return* line inside the code.
- **Functions without a *return* actually do return the special value *None*.**
  - *None* is a special constant in the language.
  - *None* is used like *NULL*, *void*, or *nil* in other languages.
  - *None* is also logically equivalent to False.
  - The interpreter doesn't print *None*

# Function overloading? No.

---

- **There is no function overloading in Python.**
  - Unlike C++, a Python function is specified by its name alone
    - The number, order, names, or types of its arguments cannot be used to distinguish between two functions with the same name.
  - Two different functions can't have the same name, even if they have different arguments.
- **But: see *operator overloading* later in the course's treatment of Python**

# Functions are first-class objects in Python

---

- Functions can be used as any other data type
- If something is a first-object, it can be:
  - an argument to a function
  - a return values from a function
  - assigned to a variable
  - a part of a tuple, list, or any other containers

```
>>> def myfun(x):  
        return x*3  
  
>>> def applier(q, x):  
        return q(x)  
  
>>> applier(myfun, 7)  
21
```

# Default Values for Arguments

---

- You can provide default values for a function's arguments
- These arguments are optional when the function is called

```
>>> def myfun(b, c=3, d="hello") :  
        return b + c  
>>> myfun(5, 3, "hello")  
>>> myfun(5, 3)  
>>> myfun(5)
```

Each function call above returns 8.

# The Order of Arguments

---

- You can call a function with some or all of its arguments out of order as long as you specify them (these are called keyword arguments). You can also just use keywords for a final subset of the arguments.

```
>>> def myfun(a, b, c):  
        return a-b  
>>> myfun(2, 1, 43)  
1  
>>> myfun(c=43, b=1, a=2)  
1  
>>> myfun(2, c=43, b=1)  
1
```



# A detour: command-line args

---

```
#!/usr/bin/env python

import sys

def main():
    if len(sys.argv) == 1:
        print ("No arguments")
    else:
        print ("First argument is", sys.argv[1])

if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()
```

We will eventually look at the meaning and forms of the **import** statement. For now, however, you consider it as having roughly the same meaning as in Java.

This approach to retrieving command-line arguments is a bit distasteful given we can use the `argparse` module.

However, sometimes you do want the raw arguments/options, and this approach will give them to you in the `sys.argv` array.

# A detour: command-line args

---

```
#!/usr/bin/env python # Don't need to guess bang path for "python"
```

```
import argparse
```

```
def main():
```

```
    parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
```

```
    parser.add_argument('--width', type=int, default=75,  
                        help='length of line')
```

```
    parser.add_argument('--indent', type=int, default=0,  
                        help='number of blank characters to use at start of line')
```

```
    parser.add_argument('--number', type=int, default=10,  
                        help="add line numbering")
```

```
    parser.add_argument('filename', nargs='?', help='file to be processed')
```

```
    args = parser.parse_args()
```

```
    print ('width: {}; indent: {}; number: {}'.format( args.width,  
                                                       args.indent, args.number))
```

```
    if args.filename:
```

```
        print ('filename: ', args.filename)
```

```
    else:
```

```
        print ('no filename specified')
```

```
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    main()
```

# Another detour: "main" function

---

```
#!/usr/bin/env python # Must be where Python is located...
```

```
def main():  
    print ("Here we are in main. About to visit caveOfCaerbannog.")  
    caveOfCaerbannog()  
    print()  
    print ("Now we're back in main. About to call camelot().")  
    camelot()  
    print()  
    print ("I feel happy! I feel hap...")
```

```
def caveOfCaerbannog():  
    print ("We are visiting the dreadful Cave of Caerbannog.")  
    print ("Heck, there are cute rabbits here like at UVic.")  
    print ("Come here little raaaaa... AUGH!")
```

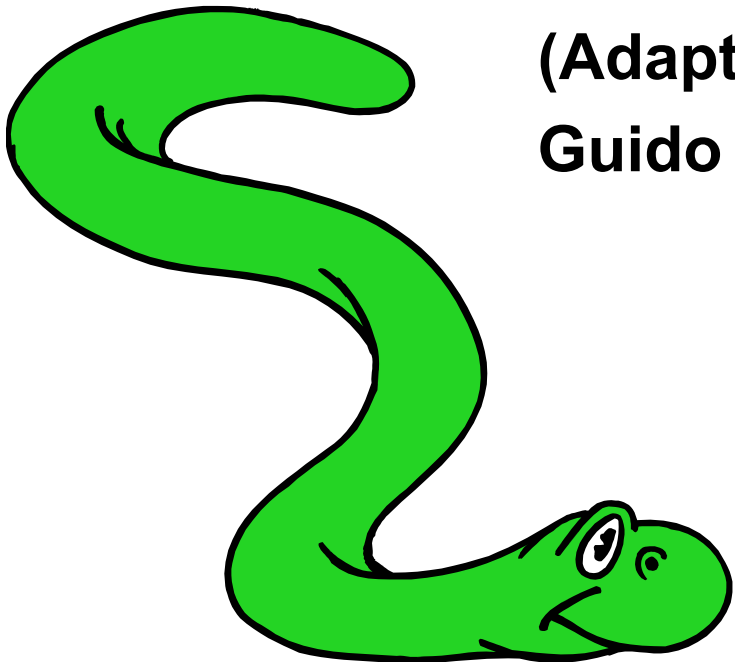
```
def camelot():  
    print ("Here we are in Camelot.")  
    print ("Let's leave. It is a silly place.")
```

```
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    main()
```

---

# Understanding Reference Semantics in Python

(Adapted from several slides by  
Guido van Rossum)



# Understanding Reference Semantics

---

- **Assignment manipulates references**

`x = y` **does not make a copy** of the object `y` references

`x = y` makes `x` **reference** the object `y` references

- **Very useful; but beware!**

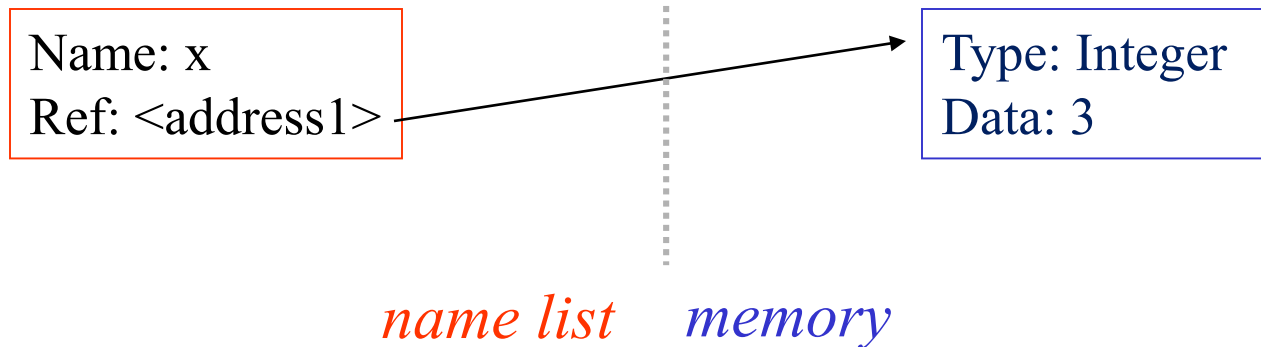
- **Example:**

```
>>> a = [1, 2, 3]  # a now references the list [1, 2, 3]
>>> b = a          # b now references what a references
>>> a.append(4)     # this changes the list a references
>>> print(b)        # if we print what b references,
[1, 2, 3, 4]         # SURPRISE! It has changed...
```

**Why??**

# Understanding Reference Semantics II

- There is a lot going on when we type:  
`x = 3`
- First, an integer **3** is created and stored in memory
- A name **x** is created
- A **reference** to the memory location storing the **3** is then assigned to the name **x**
- So: When we say that the value of **x** is **3**
- we mean that **x** now refers to the integer **3**



# Understanding Reference Semantics III

---

- The data 3 we created is of type integer. In Python, the datatypes integer, float, and string (and tuple) are "immutable."
- This does not mean we cannot change the value of x, i.e. *change what x refers to ...*
- For example, we could increment x:

```
>>> x = 3
>>> x = x + 1
>>> print (x)
4
```

# Understanding Reference Semantics IV

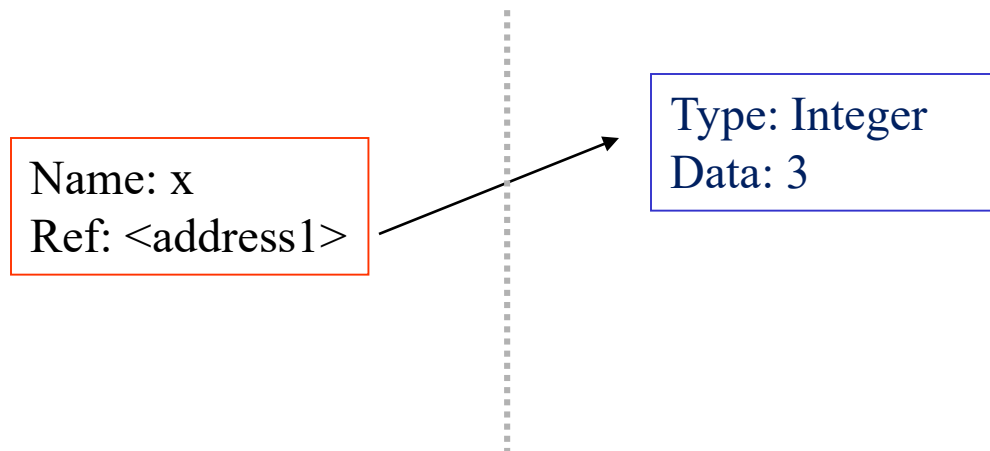
---

- If we increment  $x$ , then what's really happening is:

1. *The reference of name  $x$  is looked up.*

`>>> x = x + 1`

2. *The value at that reference is retrieved.*

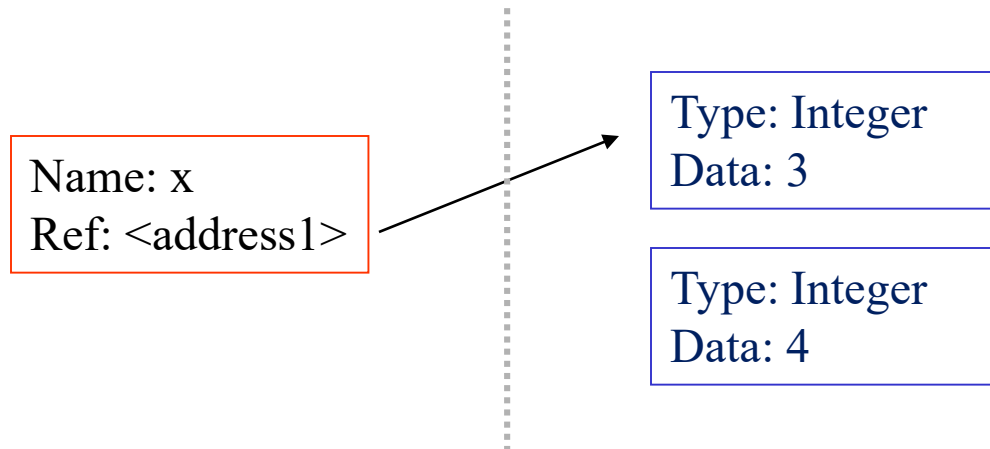




# Understanding Reference Semantics IV

- If we increment  $x$ , then what's really happening is:

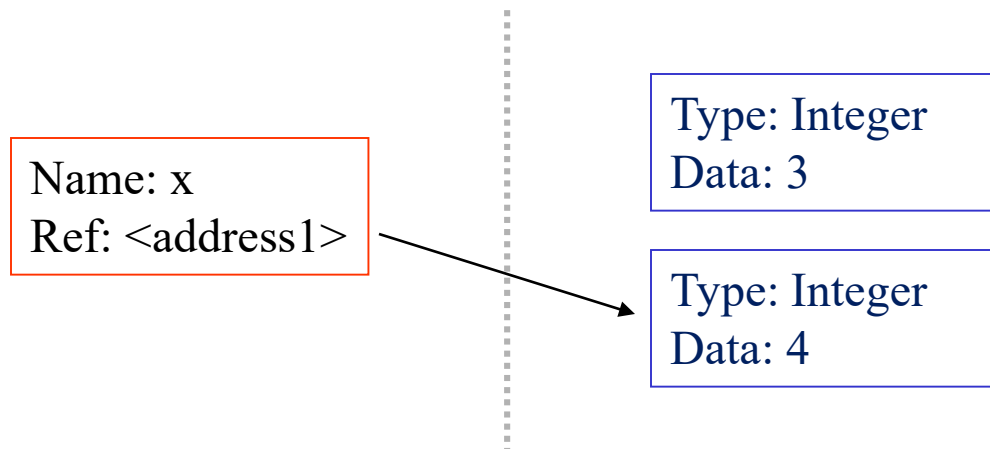
1. The reference of name  $x$  is looked up.  $\ggg x = x + 1$
2. The value at that reference is retrieved.
3. *The  $3+1$  calculation occurs, producing a new data element **4** which is assigned to a fresh memory location with a new reference.*



# Understanding Reference Semantics IV

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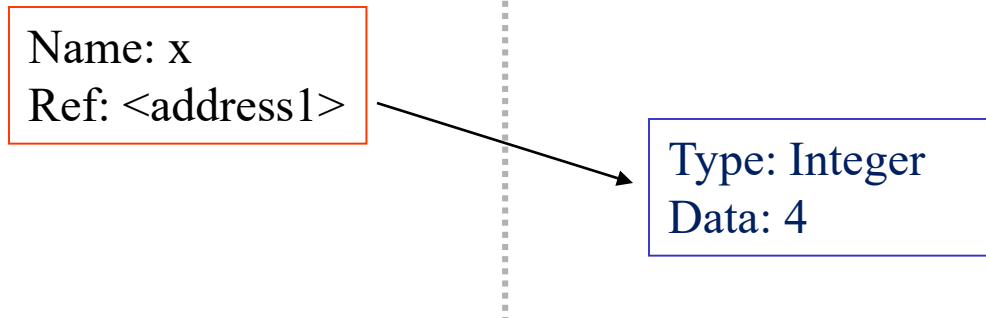
1. The reference of name  $x$  is looked up. `>>> x = x + 1`
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3. The  $3+1$  calculation occurs, producing a new data element  $4$  which is assigned to a fresh memory location with a new reference.
4. *The name  $x$  is changed to point to this new reference.*



# Understanding Reference Semantics IV

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2. The value at that reference is retrieved.
3. The  $3+1$  calculation occurs, producing a new data element  $4$  which is assigned to a fresh memory location with a new reference.
4. The name  $x$  is changed to point to this new reference.
5. *The old data  $3$  is garbage: collected if no name still refers to it.*



# Assignment (part 1)

---

- So, for simple built-in datatypes (integers, floats, strings), assignment behaves as you would expect:

```
>>> x = 3          # Creates 3, name x refers to 3
>>> y = x          # Creates name y, refers to 3.
>>> y = 4          # Creates ref for 4. Changes y.
>>> print(x)       # No effect on x, still ref 3.
3
```

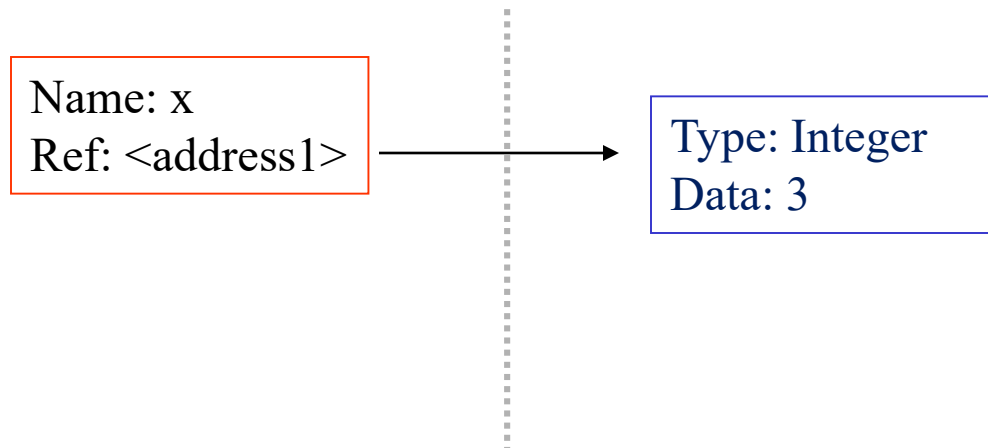
.....

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3
```

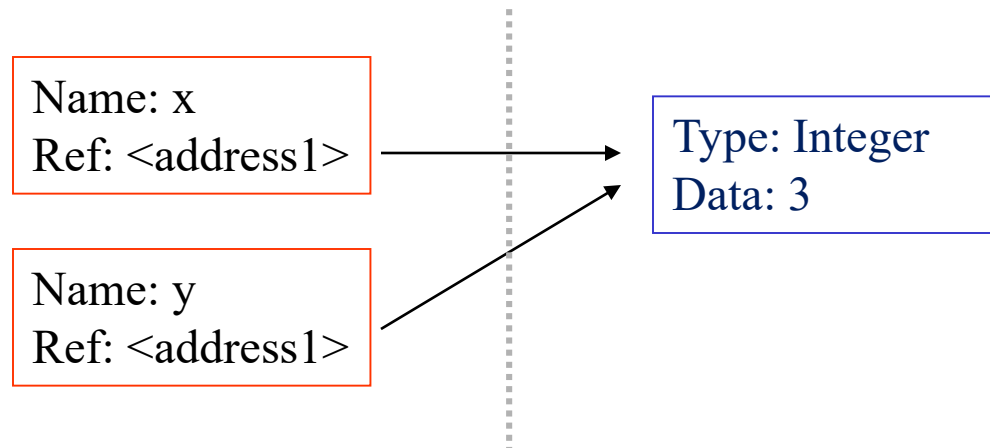


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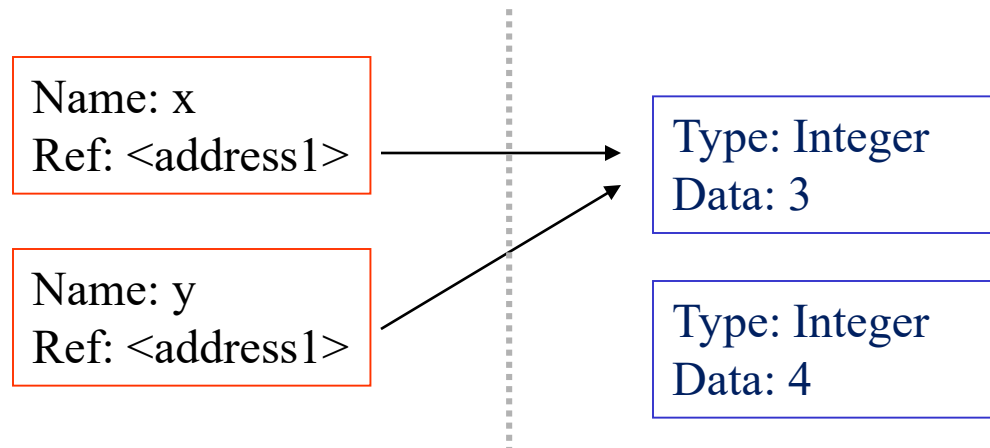


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```

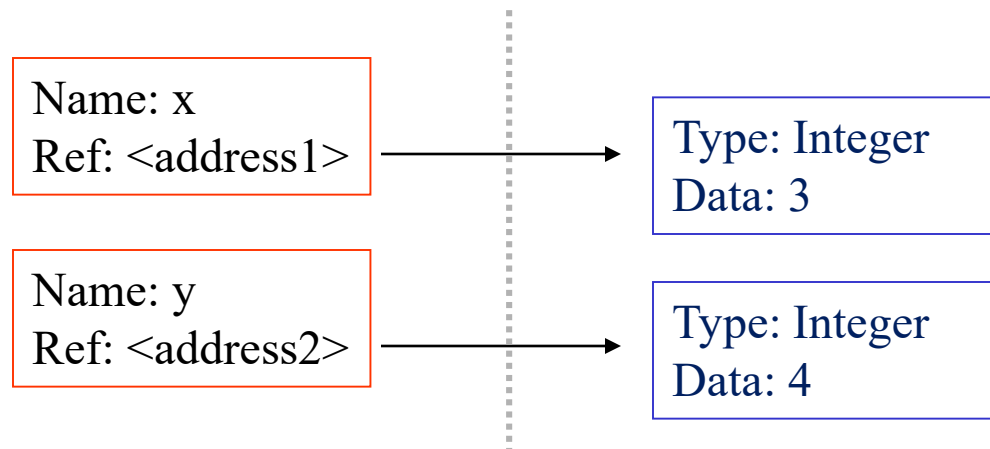


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>>> print(x)       # No effect on x, still ref 3.
3
```



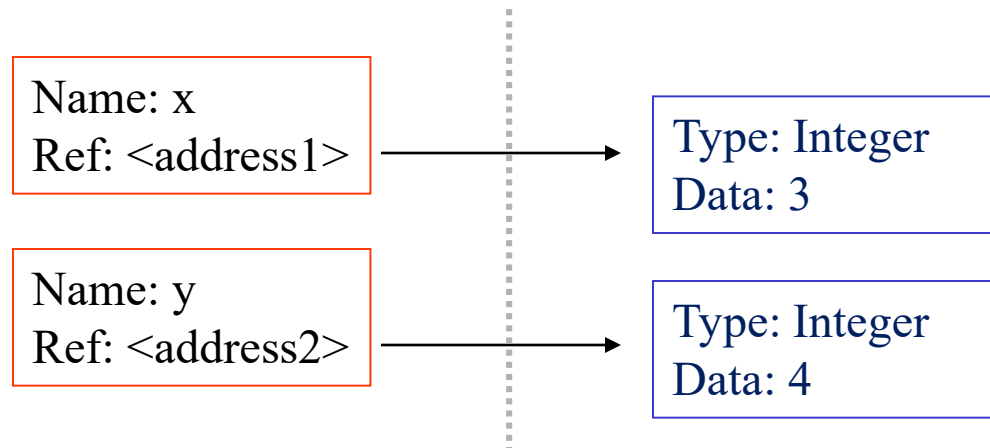


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>>> y = 4          # Creates ref for 4. Changes y.
→>>> print(x)      # No effect on x, still ref 3.
3
```



# Assignment (part 2)

---

- For some other data types (lists, dictionaries, user-defined types), assignment works differently.
  - These datatypes are “mutable.”
  - When we change these data, we do it *in place*.
  - We don't copy them into a new memory address each time.
  - If we type `y=x` and then modify `y`, both `x` and `y` are changed.

*immutable*

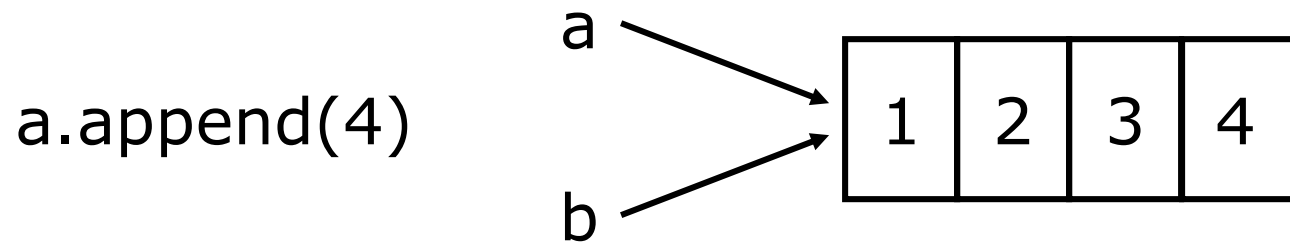
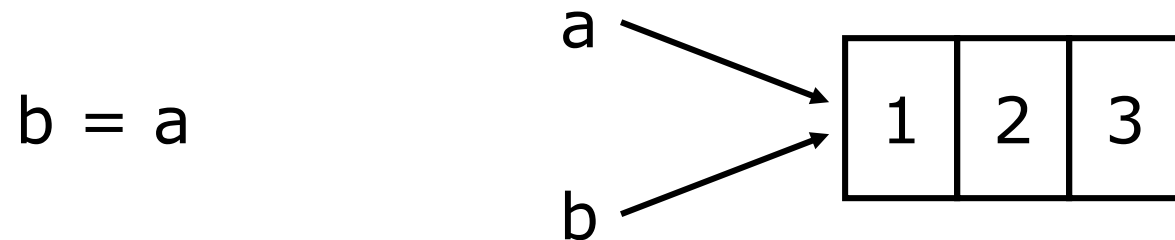
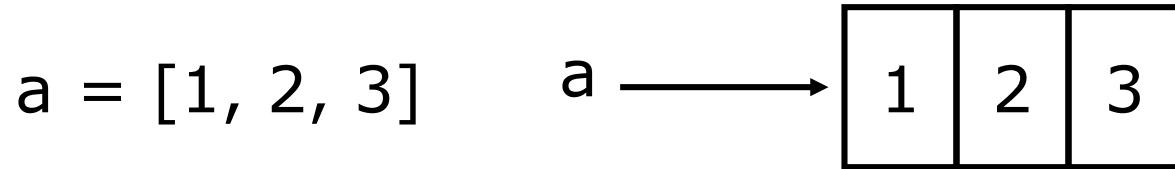
```
>>> x = 3
>>> y = x
>>> y = 4
>>> print x
3
```

*mutable*

```
x = some mutable object
y = x
make a change to y
look at x
x will be changed as well
```

# Why? Changing a Shared List

---



# Our surprising example surprising no more...

---

- So now, here's our code:

```
>>> a = [1, 2, 3] # a now references the list [1, 2, 3]
>>> b = a        # b now references what a references
>>> a.append(4)   # this changes the list a references
>>> print (b)     # if we print what b references,
[1, 2, 3, 4]      # SURPRISE! It has changed...
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