

# 07\_Namespaces\_References

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Programming Techniques in Computational Linguistics II – FS23

## 1 Lecture 7

### 1.1 Topics

- References
- Namespaces
- Exceptions
- Argument Packing
- `argparse`

### 1.2 Learning Objectives

- You know that binding an existing object to a new variable name does not copy the object.
- You know the (global, local, builtin) python namespaces and how to access them.
- You know how to handle exceptions and how to write custom exceptions.
- You can use the `*` and `**` operators to unpack function arguments.
- You can write command line interfaces (CLIs) using `argparse`.

## 2 References

### 2.1 New Assignment vs. Object Method

#### 2.1.1 New assignment

```
[ ]: l = [1, 2, 3]
      c = l
      l = []
      c
```

#### 2.1.2 Object method

```
[ ]: l = [1, 2, 3]
      c = l
      l.clear()
      c
```

```
[ ]: l = [1, 2, 3]
      c = l
      l[:] = ["a", "b", "c", "d"]
      c
```

`l[:]` calls `__setitem__` on the list

## 2.2 Mutable vs. Immutable Types

### 2.2.1 Immutable: String

```
[ ]: s = "Title Case"
      c = s

      s = s.lower()
      s = s.replace("title", "lower")

      s
```

```
[ ]: c
```

### 2.2.2 Mutable: List

```
[ ]: l = [1, 2, 3]
      c = l

      l.extend([4, 5, 6])
      l[2] = 7

      l
```

```
[ ]: c
```

## 2.3 Equality and Identity

```
[ ]: l = ["one", "two", "three"]
      c = l

      l == c
```

```
[ ]: l is c
```

```
[ ]: l = ["one", "two", "three"]
      c = ["one", "two", "three"]

      l == c
```

```
[ ]: l is c
```

## 2.4 Loop Variables

```
[ ]: l = [ [1, 2, 3], [4, 5], [6] ]

for elem in l:
    elem.append(0)

print(l)
```

```
[ ]: l = [1, 2, 3]

for elem in l:
    elem += 1

print(l)
print(elem)
```

- Loop variable references the individual objects over which we iterate
- Immutable objects cannot be changed/replaced like this.

## 2.5 Classic Mistake

```
[ ]: nested = [[]] * 3
nested
```

```
[ ]: nested[0].append("first list")
nested
```

```
[ ]: # initialize nested list like this instead:
nested = [], [], []
nested[0].append("first list")
nested
```

## 2.6 Learning Goals

- `x = y` does not create a copy
- Multiple variables can point to the same changeable object.
- New assignment of a variable does not change its value but binds the name to a different object.

## 3 Namespaces

Definition from the official Python glossary:

**namespace** The place where a variable is stored. Namespaces are implemented as dictionaries. There are the local, global and built-in namespaces as well as nested namespaces [...].

### 3.1 Variables

- Variables in Python are names
- Every variable belongs to exactly one namespace
- It is possible to have variables with the same name in different namespaces

```
[ ]: open
```

```
[ ]: import os
os.open
```

```
[ ]: import codecs
codecs.open
```

### 3.2 Name Space as a Dictionary

The namespace of an object is a dictionary.

```
[ ]: class Dish:
    'Create a tasty meal.'
    def __init__(self, spam: int, eggs: int):
        self.spam = spam
        self.eggs = eggs
```

```
[ ]: d = Dish(2, 4)
d.__dict__
```

```
[ ]: d.bacon = 3
d.__dict__
```

### 3.3 Immediate name spaces

Three namespaces\* are directly accessible (without period):

- Local names
- Global names
- builtins

When accessing a name, the namespaces are searched in this order.

\* In the case of nested functions, additional namespaces are accessible.

```
[ ]: x = "global namespace"
x
```

```
[ ]: def foo():
    x = "local namespace"
    print(x)
```

```
[ ]: print(x)
      foo()
      print(x)
```

### 3.4 Function Namespace

- The global namespace is accessible (for reading).
- Assignments always happen in the local function namespace!
- Externally, the local function namespace is not accessible.
- Exception: when keywords `global` or `nonlocal` are used.

#### 3.4.1 `global` keyword

```
[ ]: mystring = "global string"

def foo():
    mystring = "scope?"

foo()

print(mystring)
```

`global` can be used to modify variables from a non-global scope.

Accessing global variables from a non-global scope (for reading) is possible even without `global`.

#### 3.4.2 `nonlocal` keyword

```
[ ]: def outer():
      mystring = "local to outer"

      def inner():
          mystring = "local to inner"
          inner()

      print(mystring)

outer()
```

`nonlocal` can be used in nested functions, if the variable should not belong to the scope of the inner function.

### 3.5 Local Namespace, Scope

Code blocks with their own (local) namespace:

- Modules
- Classes
- Functions/methods

The part of the code where a name(-space) is directly accessible is called scope.  
Other blocks have no own namespace / scope (for, while, if, with, try).

## 4 Exception Handling

### 4.1 Typical Use Cases

#### 4.1.1 Logical Structure

Standard case and exception

```
[ ]: import os

os.mkdir("Lecture Notes")
```

#### 4.1.2 Control Structure

Breaking out of an infinite loop

```
try:
    server.serve_forever()
except KeyboardInterrupt:
    clean_up()
    sys.exit(0)
```

#### 4.1.3 Back-Off

Cascade of trial and error

```
try:
    text = data.decode('utf8')
except UnicodeDecodeError:
    try:
        text = data.decode('cp1252')
    except UnicodeDecodeError:
        text = data.decode('latin1')
```

## 4.2 Syntax

### 4.2.1 Form

```
try:
    [...]
except Exception_1:
    [...]
:
except Exception_n:
    [...]
else:
```

```
[...]
finally:
    [...]
```

#### 4.2.2 Execution

- try block works:
  - else block
  - finally block
- try block fails with a planned Exception:
  - first matching except block is executed (only one!)
  - finally block
- try block fails with an unplanned Exception:
  - finally block
  - Exception is passed on

#### 4.2.3 Elements

- except block
  - handles exceptions
- else block
  - **NO** exception in try block
  - without protection from new exceptions
- finally block
  - executed in all cases
  - ideal for “cleaning up”

### 4.3 Exception Hierarchy

```
[ ]: try:
    inp = input('Length>> ').split()
    length = float(inp[0])
    unit = inp[-1].encode('ascii')
except ValueError:
    print('invalid number')
except UnicodeEncodeError:
    print('only ASCII characters allowed')
```

```
Length>> two mm
invalid number
```

```
Length>> 34 m
invalid number
```

Why?

```
[ ]: UnicodeEncodeError.mro()
```

→ UnicodeEncodeError is a ValueError!

- Exceptions are organised as a class hierarchy
- Exceptions are also caught by their parent class
- Order of except statements is relevant: More specific cases first

```
[ ]: try:
    inp = input('Length>> ').split()
    length = float(inp[0])
    unit = inp[-1].encode('ascii')
except UnicodeEncodeError:
    print('only ASCII characters allowed')
except ValueError:
    print('invalid number')
```

## 4.4 Inspection of an Exception

Caught exceptions can be bound to a variable with `as`

Access to its arguments is granted with `.args` ( $\rightarrow$  Tuple)

```
[ ]: d = dict(tokens=20, types=12)
try:
    print(d["lines"])
except KeyError as e:
    # dict raises a key error if key does not exist.
    print(e.args)
    print(f"unknown key: {e.args[0]}")
```

Some exceptions have more information:

```
[ ]: try:
    'Računalnik'.encode('ascii')
except UnicodeEncodeError as e:
    print(e.args)
```

## 4.5 Passing Exceptions On

### 4.5.1 Create an exception

```
[ ]: token = 123

if not isinstance(token, str):
    raise TypeError('expected str, got {}'.format(type(token)))
```

### 4.5.2 Changing the error type

```
[ ]: def average(seq):
    try:
        return sum(seq) / len(seq)
    except ZeroDivisionError:
```



```
raise ValueError('sequence must not be empty')
```

```
[ ]: average([])
```

#### 4.5.3 Defining your own exception classes

- Use built-in classes where they make sense (e.g. `ValueError`, `TypeError`, `KeyError`)
- If needed, write own exceptions

```
class InvalidFormatError(Exception):  
    '''Input data does not conform to the CoNLL format.'''
```

Important: Exceptions should always inherit from `Exception` (or one of its subclass)!

- Exceptions with arguments:

```
[ ]: class InvalidFormatError(Exception):  
    '''Input data does not conform to the CoNLL format.'''  
  
    def foo(fields):  
        if len(fields) < 3:  
            msg = f'too few columns: expected 3, got {len(fields)}'  
            raise InvalidFormatError(msg)
```

```
[ ]: foo(['col1', 'col2'])
```

#### 4.6 Bad Habits

```
try:  
    [many  
    lines  
    of  
    code]  
except:  
    ...
```

try blocks should be short

```
try:  
    # do something  
except:  
    pass
```

except without a type catches everything (including e.g. `KeyboardInterrupt`)

```
try:  
    # do something  
except Exception as e:  
    print(e)
```

Handle errors or pass them on with `raise`, but do not just continue

### 4.6.1 Klicker Quiz

<https://pwa.klicker.uzh.ch/join/lfische>

## 5 Argument Packing

### 5.1 Variable number of arguments

```
[ ]: max('123')
```

```
[ ]: max('123', '456')
```

How can we write such a function?

```
[ ]: from typing import Iterable, Any
def find_largest(sequence: Iterable) -> Any:
    "find the largest element in a sequence"
    largest = sequence[0]
    for element in sequence[1:]:
        if element > largest:
            largest = element
    return largest
```

```
[ ]: def custom_max(*args):
    # store all arguments as a tuple in variable args
    if len(args) == 0:
        raise TypeError("max expects at least one argument")
    if len(args) == 1:
        return find_largest(args[0])
    else:
        return find_largest(args)
```

```
[ ]: custom_max()
```

### 5.2 Positional and Keyword Arguments

#### 5.2.1 Positional

$*args \rightarrow \text{tuple}$

```
[ ]: def func(*args):
    print(args)

func(1, 2, 3)
```

Unpack any iterable with `*` into function arguments:

```
[ ]: params = "Hello"
func(*params)
```

### 5.2.2 Keyword arguments

`**kwargs` → dict

```
[ ]: def func(**kwargs):  
      print(kwargs)  
  
      func(a=1, b='B')
```

Unpack dictionaries with `**` into function arguments:

```
[ ]: d = dict(city="Zürich", postal_code=8050)  
      func(**d)
```

### 5.2.3 Mixed Arguments

```
[ ]: def func(a, b, *args, x=3, y=5, **kwargs):  
      print(f'a: {a}, b: {b}, args: {args}, x: {x}, y: {y}, kwargs: {kwargs}')
```

```
[ ]: func(0, 1, 2, 3)
```

```
[ ]: func(0, x=1, b=2)
```

```
[ ]: func(0, x=1, y=2)
```

```
[ ]: func(0, x=1, a=2)
```

```
[ ]: params = {'a': 0, 'b': 1, 'c': 2}  
      func(**params)
```

Alternative order:

```
[ ]: def func(a, b, x=3, y=5, *args, **kwargs):  
      print(f'a: {a}, b: {b}, args: {args}, x: {x}, y: {y}, kwargs: {kwargs}')
```

```
[ ]: func(0, 1, 2, c=3, y=7)
```

### 5.2.4 Exercise: Practice Function Calls With Argument Packing

```
def func(a, b, x=3, y=5, *args, **kwargs):  
    ...
```

Try these function calls. Do they work?

```
params = [0, 1]  
func(*params)
```

```
params = (3, 2)  
func(*params, y=1, b=2)
```

```
params = {'a': 0, 'b': 3, 'c': 2}  
func(*params, y=1)
```

```
[ ]: params = [0, 1]
func(*params)
```

```
[ ]: params = (3, 2)
func(*params, y=1, b=2)
```

```
[ ]: params = {'a': 0, 'b': 3, 'c': 2}
func(**params, y=1)
```

## 6 argparse

### 6.1 Motivation

A command line interface (CLI) provides a way for a user to interact with a program running in a text-based shell interpreter.

```
import sys
if __name__ == "__main__":
    for i, arg in enumerate(sys.argv):
        print(f"Argument {i}: {arg}")
```

---

```
$ python main.py arg1 arg2 arg3 arg4
```

With `sys`, you need to remember how many / what arguments your program takes and which argument should be provided at what position.

#### 6.1.1 The Module `argparse` ...

- automatically generates help messages
- provides detailed information about what each argument should be
- greatly increases user experience

Important calls:

```
parser = ArgumentParser() # Creates a parser object
```

```
parser.add_argument() # Defines how an argument should be parsed
```

```
parser.parse_args() # Parses arguments from command line with correct type
```

### 6.2 argparse Arguments

#### 6.2.1 Optional Arguments

```
parser.add_argument('-n', '--number', type=int, help="a number")
```

#### 6.2.2 Required Arguments

```
parser.add_argument('-n', '--number', type=int, help="a number", required=True)
```

### 6.2.3 Positional Arguments

```
parser.add_argument('n1', type=int, help="first number")
parser.add_argument('n2', type=int, help="second number")
```

### 6.2.4 Choice Arguments

```
parser.add_argument('n', type=int, choices=[0, 1, 2], help="either 0, 1 or 2")
```

### 6.2.5 Default Arguments

```
parser.add_argument('-n', '--number', type=int, default=0, help="a number")
```

### 6.2.6 Append Action

```
# Appends all values with '-n' to a list
parser.add_argument('-n', type=int, action='append', help="a list of numbers")
```

---

```
$ python test.py -n 1 -n 2 -n 3
```

### 6.2.7 Multiple Arguments

```
# Similar behaviour as append action, given as -n1 1 2 3
parser.add_argument('n1', type=int, nargs='3', help="a list of three numbers")
parser.add_argument('n2', type=int, nargs='+', help="a list of 1 ... n numbers")
parser.add_argument('n3', type=int, nargs='*', help="a list of 0 ... n numbers")
```

---

```
$ python test.py -n1 1 2 3 -n2 4 5 6 7 8
```

## 6.3 argparse Demo

### 6.4 Take-home messages

- Binding an existing object to a new variable name does not copy the object.
- Python namespaces (global, local, builtin) store variables and objects.
- `try/except` blocks are used to handle exceptions, and `raise` is used to throw exceptions.
- The `*` and `**` operators are used to (un)pack function arguments.
- Use `argparse` to write command line interfaces (CLIs).