

# Chapter 01 - Pythonic Thinking

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## 0.1 Overview

- python programmers prefer to be explicit, to choose simple over complex and to maximize readability

```
[1]: # find the version of python you are using
```

```
import sys
print(sys.version_info)
print(sys.version)
```

```
sys.version_info(major=3, minor=9, micro=2, releaselevel='final', serial=0)
3.9.2 (tags/v3.9.2:1a79785, Feb 19 2021, 13:44:55) [MSC v.1928 64 bit (AMD64)]
```

## 0.2 Item 2: Follow the PEP 8 Style Guide

### 0.2.1 Whitespace

- use spaces instead of tabs for indentation
- use four spaces for each level of syntactically significant indenting
- lines should be 79 chars in length
- continuation of long expressions into additional lines should be indented by four extra spaces from their normal indentation level
- functions and classes should be separated by two blank lines
- methods should be separated by one blank line
- in a dictionary, put no whitespace between each key and colon and put a single space before the corresponding value if it fits on the same line
- for type annotations, ensure that there is no separation between the variable name and the colon and use a space before the type information

### 0.2.2 Naming

- functions, variables and attributes should be in `lowercase_underscore` format
- protected instance attributes should be in `_leading_underscore` format
- private instance attributes should be in `__double_leading_underscore_` format
- module-level constants should be in `ALL_CAPS`
- instance methods in classes should use `self`, which refers to the object, as the name of the first parameter
- class methods should use `cls` which refers to the class, as the name of the first parameter

### 0.2.3 Expressions and Statements

- use in line negation (`if a is not b`) instead of negation of positive expressions (`if not a is b`)
- don't check for empty containers or sequences (like `[]` or `""`) by comparing their length to zero (`if len(somelist) == 0`). Use `if not somelist` and assume that empty values will implicitly evaluate to `False`
- the same thing goes for non-empty containers or sequences (like `[1]` or `'hi'`). The statement `if somelist` is implicitly `True` for non-empty values
- avoid single-line `if` statements, `for` and `while` loops, and `except` compound statements. Spread these over multiple lines for clarity
- if you can't fit an expression on one line, surround it with parentheses and add line breaks and indentation to make it easier to read
- prefer surrounding multiline expressions with parentheses over using the `\` line continuation character

### 0.3 Imports

- always put `import` statements (including `from x import y`) at the top of a file
- always use absolute names for modules when importing them, not relative to the current module's own path. For example, to import the `foo` module from within the `bar` package, you should use `from bar import foo` not just `import foo`
- if you must do relative imports, use the explicit syntax `from . import foo`
- imports should be in a section in the following order: **standard library modules**, **third-party modules**, **your own modules**. Each subsection should have imports in alphabetical order

### 0.4 Item 3: Know the Differences Between `bytes` and `str`

- in python there are two types that represent sequences of character data: `bytes` and `str`
- instances of `bytes` contain raw, unsigned 8-bit values (displayed in ASCII encoding)

```
[2]: a = b'h\x65llo'
      print(list(a))
      print(a)
```

```
[104, 101, 108, 108, 111]
b'hello'
```

- instances of `str` contain Unicode code points that represent textual characters from human language

```
[3]: a = 'a\u0300 props'
      print(list(a))
      print(a)
```

```
['a', ' ', ' ', ' ', 'p', 'r', 'o', 'p', 's']
à props
```

- `str` instances do not have an associated binary encoding
  - call the `bytes()` method to convert the `str`

- `byte` instances do not have an associated text encoding
  - call the `str()` method to convert the bytes
- it is important to do encoding and decoding of unicode data at the furthest boundary of your interface
- the approach is called the **Unicode sandwich**
- the code of your program should use the `str` type containing Unicode data and should not assume anything about character encoding

[5]: *# takes a byte or str instance and always returns str*

```
def to_str(bytes_or_str):
    if isinstance(bytes_or_str, bytes):
        value = bytes_or_str.decode('utf-8')
    else:
        value = bytes_or_str
    return value

print(repr(to_str(b'foo')))
print(repr(to_str('bar')))
```

'foo'  
'bar'

[8]: *# takes a byte or str instance and always returns a bytes*

```
def to_bytes(bytes_or_str):
    if isinstance(bytes_or_str, str):
        value = bytes_or_str.encode('utf-8')
    else:
        value = bytes_or_str
    return value

print(repr(to_bytes(b'foo')))
print(repr(to_bytes('bar')))
```

b'foo'  
b'bar'

**common gotchas:** 1. `bytes` and `str` seem to work the same way but their instances are not compatible with each other

[14]: *# by using + operator, you can add bytes to bytes and str to str*

```
print(b'one' + b'two')
print('one' + 'two')
print('')

# you cant add a byte to a str
# b'one' + 'two'
```

```

# - you can compare `bytes` to `str` by using binary operators
assert b'red' > b'blue'

# comparing bytes to str will result in false
print(b'foo' == 'foo')
print('')

# the % operator works with format strings for each type, respectively
print(b'red %s' % b'blue')
print('red %s' % 'blue')
print('')

# you can also pass a bytes instance to a str format string
# the code invokes the __repr__ method
print('red %s' % b'blue')

```

```

b'onetwo'
onetwo

```

```
False
```

```

b'red blue'
red blue
red b'blue'

```

2. second issue is that operations involving file handles (returned by the `open` built-in function) defaults to requiring Unicode string instead of raw `bytes`

- a problem could be you open a file in write `w` mode and not binary write `wb` mode
- similarly you need to use `rb` and not `r` if expecting bytes
- you want to explicitly pass the `encoding` parameter

## 0.5 Item 4: Prefer Interpolated F-String over C-style format Strings and `str.format`

- the most common is to use `%`, which uses C style formatting
- you can escape the formatting by using a double `%%`

```

[23]: a = 0b10111011
      b = 0xc5f
      print('Binary is %d, hex is %d' % (a, b))

```

```
Binary is 187, hex is 3167
```

- python has the ability to also do formatting with a dictionary instead of a `tuple`
- the `keys` from the dictionary are matched with format specifiers with the corresponding name, such as `%(key)s`
- this approach's problem is that it makes code increase in `verbosity`
- each key must be specified at least twice

```
[24]: key = 'my_var'
      value = 1.234

      new_way = '%(key)-10s = %(value).2f' % {
          'key': key, 'value': value}

      print(new_way)
```

```
my_var      = 1.23
```

### 0.5.1 The format and str.format

- formatting behavior is specified by the `__format__` special method
- you can escape the `str.format` by using double `{{}}`

```
[25]: a = 1234.5678
      formatted = format(a, ',.2f')

      print(formatted)
      b = 'my string'

      formatted = format(b, '^20s')
      print('*', formatted, '*')
      print()

      # you can specify a placeholder
      key = 'my_var'
      value = 1.234

      formatted = '{} = {}'.format(key, value)
      print(formatted)

      # way to think about how this works is that the format specifiers will be
      # passed to the format function along with the vlaue format(value, '.2f')
      formatted = '{:<10} = {:.2f}'.format(key, value)
      print(formatted)
      print("")

      # you can also re-order the formatting
      formatted = '{1} = {0}'.format(key, value)
      print(formatted)
      print("")

      # the same positional index may also be referenced multiple times
      formatted = '{0} loves food. See {0} cook.'.format(name)
      print(formatted)
      print("")
```

```
1,234.57
```

```
*      my string      *
```

```
my_var = 1.234
my_var      = 1.23
```

```
1.234 = my_var
```

- problem with `str.format` is that it is still hard to read

## 0.5.2 Interpolated Format Strings

```
[27]: key = 'my_var'
      value = 1.234
      formatted = f'{key} = {value}'
      print(formatted)
      print("")

      formatted = f'{key!r:<10} = {value:.2f}'
      print(formatted)
```

```
my_var = 1.234
```

```
'my_var'      = 1.23
```

```
[28]: f_string = f'{key:<10} = {value:.2f}'

      c_tuple = '%-10s = %.2f' % (key, value)

      str_args = '{:<10} = {:.2f}'.format(key, value)

      str_kw = '{key:<10} = {value:.2f}'.format(key=key,
                                              value=value)

      c_dict = '%(key)-10s = %(value).2f' % {'key': key,
                                             'value': value}

      assert c_tuple == c_dict == f_string
      assert str_args == str_kw == f_string
```

## 0.6 Item 5: Write Helper Functions Instead of Complex Expressions

- unrelated, but this is a cool expression
  - `red = my_values.get('red',[""])` or `0`
- when you have complex expressions, it's better to add the logic to two variables
- if you are going to repeat code more than once use a helper function

## 0.7 Item 6: Prefer Multiple Assignment Unpacking over Indexing

- python has built-in tuple type that can be used to create immutable, ordered sequences of values
- a tuple is a pair of two values such as keys and values from a dictionary
- once a tuple is created, you cannot modify it

```
[33]: snack_calories = {
        'chips': 140,
        'popcorn': 80,
        'nuts': 190
    }

    items = tuple(snack_calories.items())
    print(items)

(('chips', 140), ('popcorn', 80), ('nuts', 190))
```

```
[34]: # values in a tuple can be accessed though numerical indexes
    item = ('Peanut butter', 'Jelly')
    first = item[0]
    second = item[1]
    print(first, 'and', second)
```

Peanut butter and Jelly

- python also has syntax for **unpacking** which allows for assigning multiple values in a single statement

```
[35]: item = ('Peanut butter', 'Jelly')
    first, second = item # Unpacking
    print(first, 'and', second)
```

Peanut butter and Jelly

- unpacking has less visual noise than accessing the tuple's indexes and often requires fewer lines

```
[38]: # lol you can actually unpack dictionaries

    favorite_snacks = {
        'salty': ('pretzels', 100),
        'sweet': ('cookies', 180),
        'veggie': ('carrots', 20),
    }

    ((type1, (name1, cal1)),
     (type2, (name2, cal2)),
     (type3, (name3, cal3))) = favorite_snacks.items()

    print(f'Favorite {type1} is {name1} with {cal1} calories')
```

```
print(f'Favorite {type2} is {name2} with {cals2} calories')
print(f'Favorite {type3} is {name3} with {cals3} calories')
```

Favorite salty is pretzels with 100 calories  
 Favorite sweet is cookies with 180 calories  
 Favorite veggie is carrots with 20 calories

- unpacking can be used to swap values in place without the need to create temporary variables

```
[39]: def bubble_sort(a):
        for _ in range(len(a)):
            for i in range(1, len(a)):
                if a[i] < a[i-1]:
                    a[i-1], a[i] = a[i], a[i-1] # Swap

names = ['pretzels', 'carrots', 'arugula', 'bacon']
bubble_sort(names)
print(names)
```

['arugula', 'bacon', 'carrots', 'pretzels']

- unpacking can be using with enumerate

```
[40]: snacks = [('bacon', 350), ('donut', 240), ('muffin', 190)]

for rank, (name, calories) in enumerate(snacks, 1):
    print(f'#{rank}: {name} has {calories} calories')
```

#1: bacon has 350 calories  
 #2: donut has 240 calories  
 #3: muffin has 190 calories

## 0.8 Item 7: Perfer enumerate over range

- range is useful for built-in function is useful for loops that iterate over a set of integers
- when you have a data structure to iterate over, like a list of strings, you can loop directly over the sequences

```
[41]: flavor_list = ['vanilla', 'chocolate', 'pecan', 'strawberry']
for flavor in flavor_list:
    print(f'{flavor} is delicious')
```

vanilla is delicious  
 chocolate is delicious  
 pecan is delicious  
 strawberry is delicious

- often you want to iterate over a list and also know the index of the current item in the list
- using range to do this can make thing clunky
- that is why we have enumerate



```
[43]: flavor_list = ['vanilla', 'chocolate', 'pecan', 'strawberry']

for i, flavor in enumerate(flavor_list, 0):
    print(f'{i + 1}: {flavor}')
```

```
1: vanilla
2: chocolate
3: pecan
4: strawberry
```

## 0.9 Item 8: Use Zip to process Iterators in Parallel

- sometimes you may have many lists of related objects such as a list of `names` and their `age`
- the items in the derived list are related to the items in the source list by their indexes
- you could iterate over those lists by using `range` or `enumerate` but that is a lot of noise
- thus we want to use `zip`

```
[47]: names = ['Cecilia', 'Lise', 'Marie']
counts = [len(n) for n in names]

longest_name = None
max_count = 0

for name, count in zip(names, counts):
    if count > max_count:
        longest_name = name
        max_count = count
```

- `zip` wraps two or more iterators with a lazy generator
- the `zip` generator yields tuples containing the next value for each iterator
- these tuples can be unpacked directly within a `for` statement
- `zip` consumes the iterators it wraps one item at a time. which means it can be used with infinitely long inputs without risk of a program using too much memory and crashing
- warning with `zip` is that if you have lists with different sizes, `zip` will ignore some items if it does not have a pair
- if you don't expect lists of same behavior to be passed, consider using `zip_longest` from the `itertools` module

## 0.10 Item 9: Avoid `else` Blocks After `for` and `while` Loops

```
[48]: for i in range(3):
        print('Loop', i)
    else:
        print('Else block!')
```

```
Loop 0
Loop 1
```

Loop 2  
Else block!

## 0.11 Item 10: Prevent Repetition with Assignment Expressions

- an assignment expression or a **walrus operator** is a new syntax introduced to solve a long-standing problem with the language that can cause code duplication
- the assignment is `a := b`
- walrus operator is useful because they enable you to assign variables in places where assignment statements are disallowed such as in the conditional expression of an if statement
- in the example below, we only use `count` once, but we need to define it above

```
[51]: fresh_fruit = {  
    'apple': 10,  
    'banana': 8,  
    'lemon': 5,  
}  
  
def make_lemonade(count):  
    pass  
  
def out_of_stock():  
    pass  
count = fresh_fruit.get('lemon', 0)  
if count:  
    make_lemonade(count)  
else:  
    out_of_stock()
```

- the pattern of fetching a value, checking to see if its non-zero, and then using it is extremely common

```
[55]: if (count := fresh_fruit.get('lemon', 0)) >= 4:  
    make_lemonade(count)  
else:  
    out_of_stock()
```

- Another common variation of this repetitive pattern occurs when I need to assign a variable in the enclosing scope depending on some condition, and then reference that variable shortly afterward in a function call

```
[56]: def slice_bananas(count):  
    pass  
  
class OutOfBananas(Exception):  
    pass  
  
def make_smoothies(count):
```

```

    pass

pieces = 0
count = fresh_fruit.get('banana', 0)
if count >= 2:
    pieces = slice_bananas(count)

try:
    smoothies = make_smoothies(pieces)
except OutOfBananas:
    out_of_stock()

```

- the walrus operator can again be used to shorten this example by one line of code
- this small change removes any emphasis on the count variable

```

[58]: pieces = 0
if (count := fresh_fruit.get('banana', 0)) >= 2:
    pieces = slice_bananas(count)

try:
    smoothies = make_smoothies(pieces)
except OutOfBananas:
    out_of_stock()

```

- walrus operator also helps us with multiple ugly statements

```

[60]: if (count := fresh_fruit.get('banana', 0)) >= 2:
        pieces = slice_bananas(count)
        to_enjoy = make_smoothies(pieces)
    elif (count := fresh_fruit.get('apple', 0)) >= 4:
        to_enjoy = make_cider(count)
    elif count := fresh_fruit.get('lemon', 0):
        to_enjoy = make_lemonade(count)
    else:
        to_enjoy = 'Nothing'

```

- python also does not have a do/while loop
- the code below is repetitive because it requires two separate `fresh_fruit = pick_fruit()` calls
- one before the loop to set initial conditions and another at the end of the loop to replenish the list of delivered fruits

```

[62]: def pick_fruit():
        pass

def make_juice(fruit, count):
    pass

bottles = []
fresh_fruit = pick_fruit()

```

```
while fresh_fruit:
    for fruit, count in fresh_fruit.items():
        batch = make_juice(fruit, count)
        bottles.extend(batch)
    fresh_fruit = pick_fruit()
```

- the walrus operator improves the code above

```
[63]: bottles = []
while fresh_fruit := pick_fruit():
    for fruit, count in fresh_fruit.items():
        batch = make_juice(fruit, count)
        bottles.extend(batch)
```

**Overview of Walrus:** - basically if you just need to initialize a variable before using it in an if statement, use walrus - if you want to emulate the **switch/case** or **do/while** use the walrus