



Politecnico
di Torino



Machine Learning for Networking

Introduction to Python

DataBase and Data Mining Group

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1. Python engine and language

- Setup, data types, object oriented programming

2. Numpy library

- Computation with multi-dimensional arrays

3. Pandas library

- Tabular data and data preprocessing

4. Matplotlib library

- Data visualization and graphics



- **Executing Python programs**
 - Python programs
 - Python setup
- **Python language**
 - Python data types
 - Controlling program flow
 - Functions
 - Lambda functions
 - List comprehensions
 - Classes

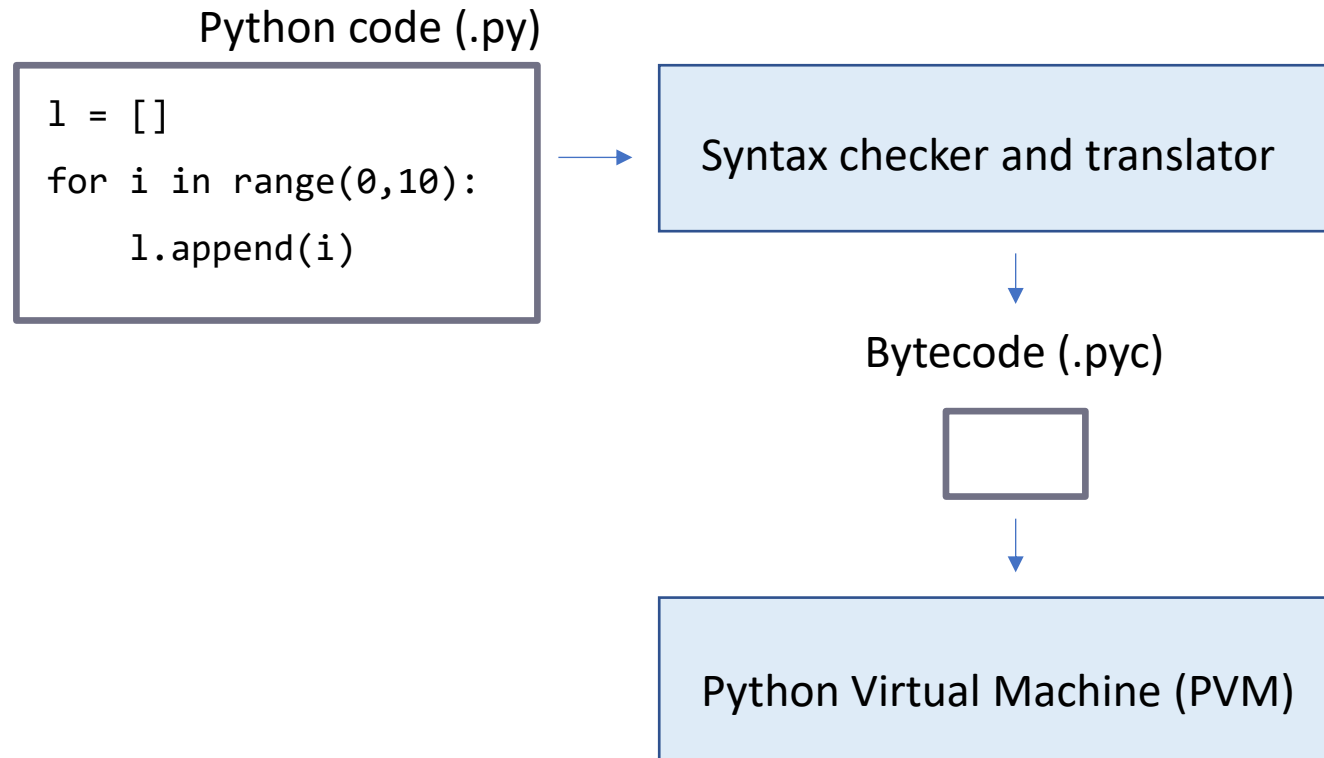


Executing Python programs

- Python is an **interpreted** language
 - Code is not compiled to machine language
 - However the source code is compiled to an intermediate level, called **bytecode**
 - For this reason, to run Python programs, you need an **interpreter** that is able to execute the bytecode



- Sequence of operations executed by the interpreter





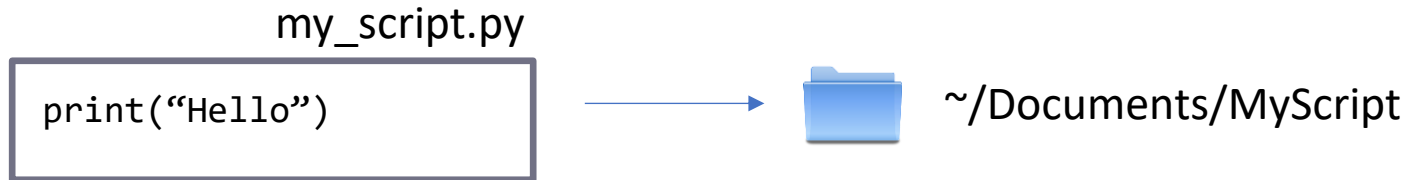
Executing Python programs

- A common Python 3 setup on a **Linux** System
- Typically in the `/usr/bin` folder:
 - “**python3**” executable: run Python programs
 - “**ipython3**” executable: run programs line by line
 - “**jupyter**” executable: run a jupyter notebook
 - “**pip3**” executable: install Python packages
- To find where your python commands live:
 - `$ which <command>`

```
[fgiobergia@localhost $ which python3  
/usr/local/bin/python3  
fgiobergia@localhost $
```



- Executing a Python program



- Type in your terminal:
 - `cd ~/Documents/MyScript`
 - `python3 my_script.py`



Executing Python programs

- Running Python line by line with IPython
- Type in your terminal:
 - `ipython3` (or `ipython`, depending on your installation)

```
IPython: home/andrea
File Modifica Visualizza Cerca Terminale Aiuto

andrea@andrea:~$ ipython3
Python 3.6.7 (default, Oct 22 2018, 11:32:17)
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.

IPython 5.5.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python.
?                -> Introduction and overview of IPython's features.
%quickref        -> Quick reference.
help             -> Python's own help system.
object?         -> Details about 'object', use 'object??' for extra details.

In [1]: mystring = "hello"

In [2]: print(mystring)
hello

In [3]:
```



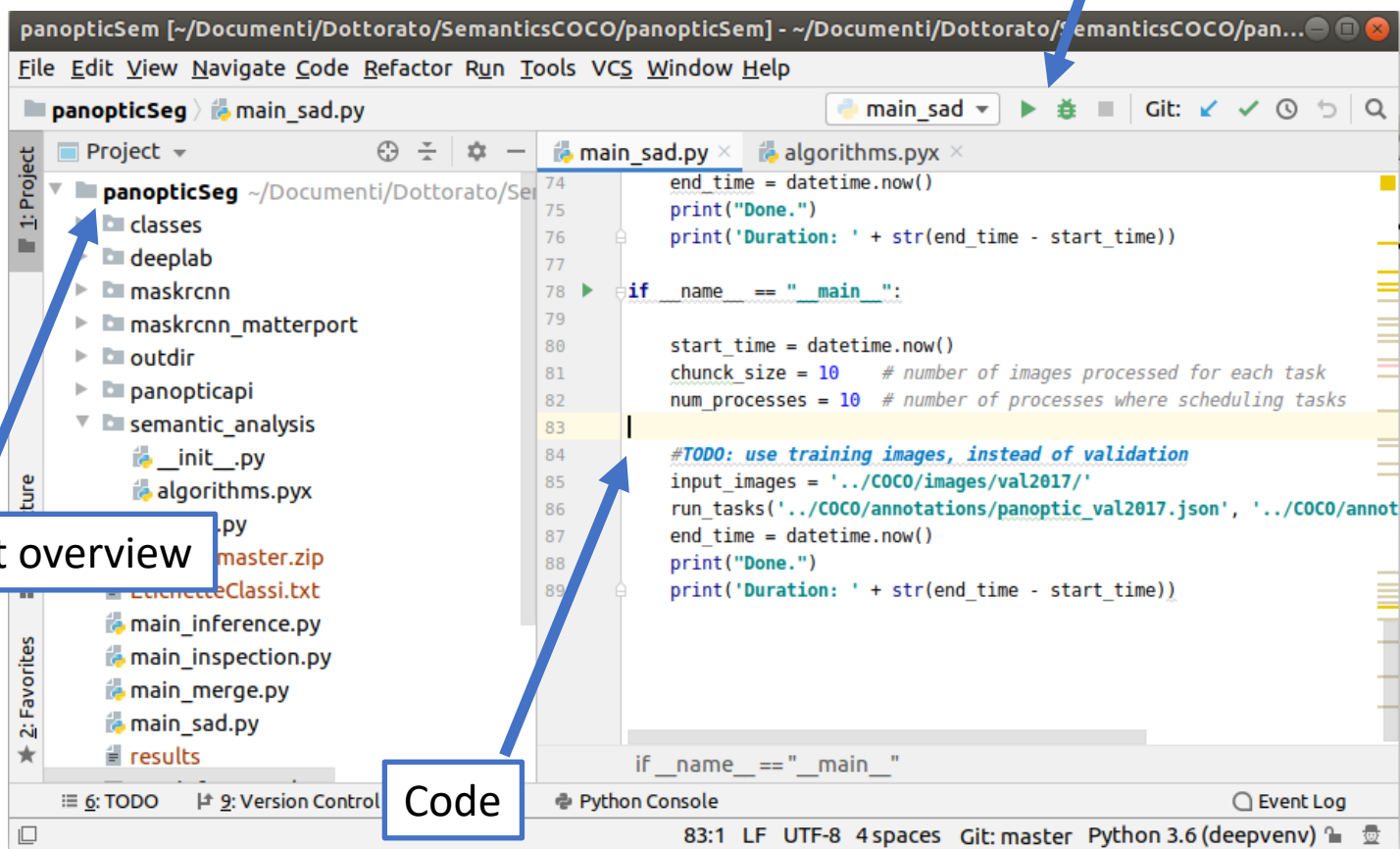

- **Development scenarios**, typically two:
 1. Develop your Python **project** with an **IDE**
 - Example: Visual Studio Code, PyCharm
 - **Debug** and **run** your code inside the IDE
 2. Develop and test a Python **script** with **Jupyter notebook**
 - Inspect **step by step** the results
 - Keep the history of the output of the script



Executing Python programs

■ Scenario 1: PyCharm (IDE)

Run/Debug commands



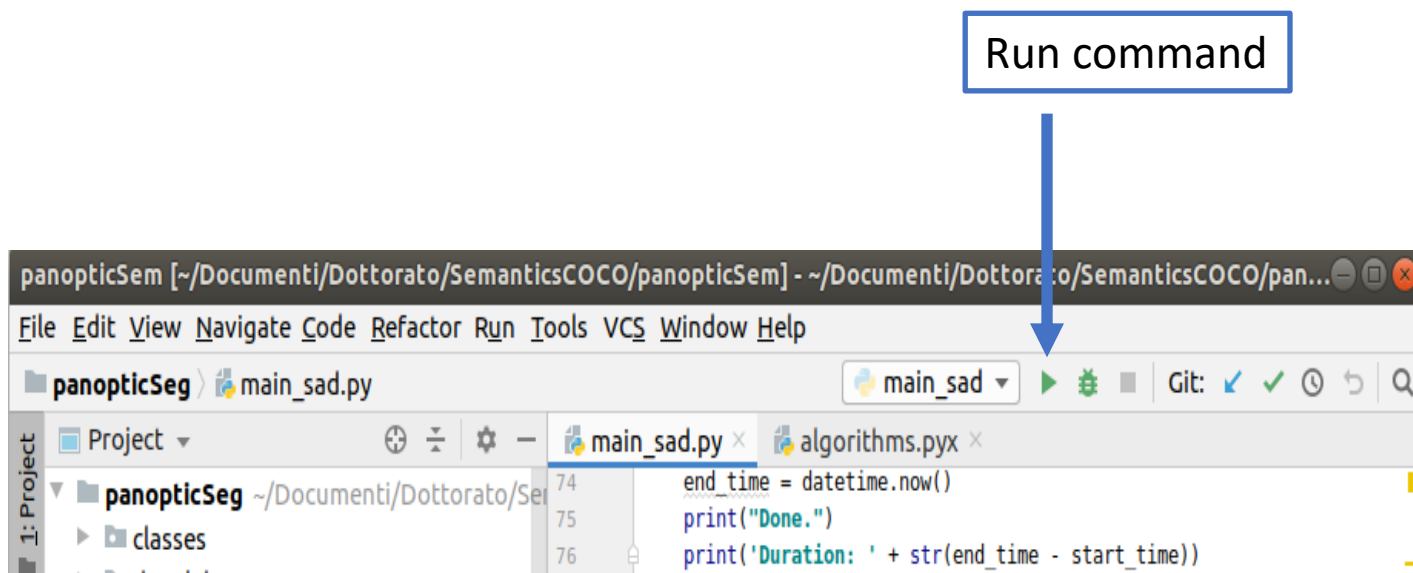
Project overview

Code



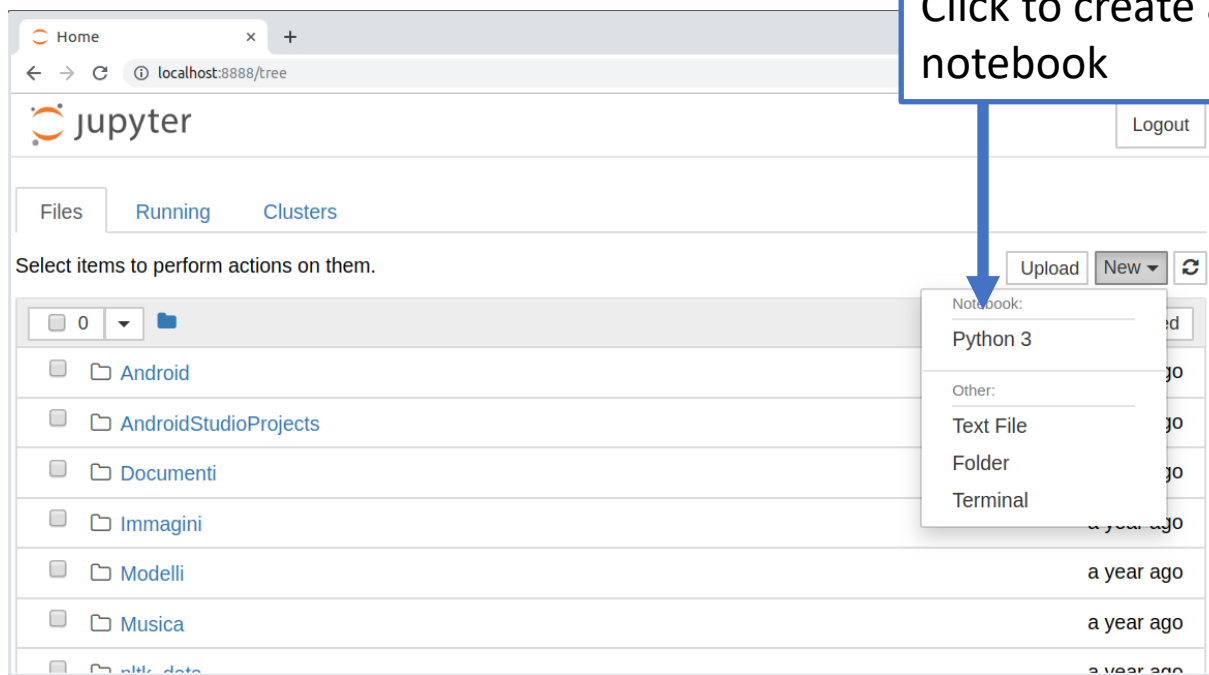
■ Scenario 1: PyCharm (IDE)

- When you click on the run button, the IDE will automatically call the “**python**” command to execute your script





- **Scenario 2: Jupyter notebook**
 - Type in your terminal
 - jupyter notebook
 - Jupyter will open on your browser



Click to create a new notebook



■ Scenario 2: Jupyter notebook

1. Simple linear regression

Generating a dataset

```
In [26]: # Make dataset
err = np.random.normal(0,1, 100) # gaussian data, mean=0, std=1
x = 10*np.random.rand(100) # 100 data points in [0, 10]
y = (2*x + 2) + err # target is a linear function of the input with some noise
```

In [27]: # Plots
plt.scatter(x, y, s=10, c='grey')
plt.show()

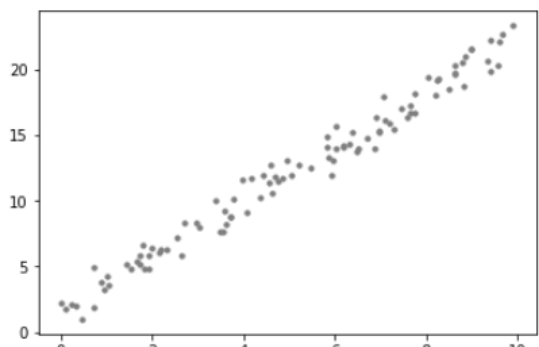


Diagram illustrating the Jupyter notebook interface components:

- Markdown cell (points to the title "1. Simple linear regression")
- Code cell (points to the code blocks for generating data and plotting)
- Result cell (points to the scatter plot output)



- **Scenario 2: Jupyter notebook**
 - Based on **IPython** command
 - Each code **cell** can be executed **separately** by pressing CTRL + ENTER



1. Simple linear regression

Generating a dataset

```
In [26]: # Make dataset
err = np.random.normal(0,1, 100) # gaussian data, mean=0, std=1
x = 10*np.random.rand(100)      # 100 data points in [0, 10]
y = (2*x + 2) + err              # target is a linear function of the i
```

```
In [27]: # Plots
plt.scatter(x, y, s=10, c='grey')
plt.show()
```

Code cell 1

Code cell 2



IDE vs Jupyter notebook

■ IDE

- For more **complex** projects (many files)
- More powerful debug commands
- More powerful code editing tools

■ Jupyter notebook

- For simple scripts and prototypes
- Great **visualization** tool
 - Example: **report** with Python code and text for explanations



■ Installing libraries

- Python language is provided with many useful libraries:
 - Numpy, Pandas, Matplotlib, Scikit-learn, SciPy, ...
- To use any of them you first have to install it with the **pip** command: `pip3 install <package>`
 - `pip3 install numpy`
 - `pip3 install pandas`

```
andrea@andrea
File Modifica Visualizza Cerca Terminale Aiuto
andrea@andrea:~$ pip3 install numpy
```




■ Virtual environments

- The pip command will associate the libraries to your **default Python installation**
- A more powerful way of managing libraries is to use a Python **environment (virtualenv or conda)**
 - Useful when you have **many projects** that use different libraries and **configurations (e.g. versions)**
 - Each projects is associated to a virtual environment



- Python language
 - Clean and concise syntax
 - No semi-colons to end instructions
 - No braces to define if clauses and for loops
 - No need to specify variable types
 - ...

Java

```
List<String> l = new LinkedList<>();  
for (int i=0; i<10; i++) {  
    l.add(i);  
}
```

Python

```
l = []  
for i in range(0,10):  
    l.append(i)
```



- Python is an **object-oriented** language
- Every piece of data in the program is an **Object**
 - Objects have **properties** and **functionalities**
 - Even a simple **integer** number is a Python **object**

Example of an integer object

```
type: int  
id: 140735957856544  
value: 3
```



■ Defining a variable

- **No need** to specify its data type
- **Just assign** a value to a new variable name

```
a = 3
```

a



type: int

id: 140735957856544

value: 3



- In Python
 - **Variable** = **reference** to an object
- When you **assign** an object to a variable it becomes a **reference** to that object

variables (references)

x



integer object

type: int
id: 140735957856544
value: 3



- A single Python object can have **multiple references (alias)**

references

x

y

integer object

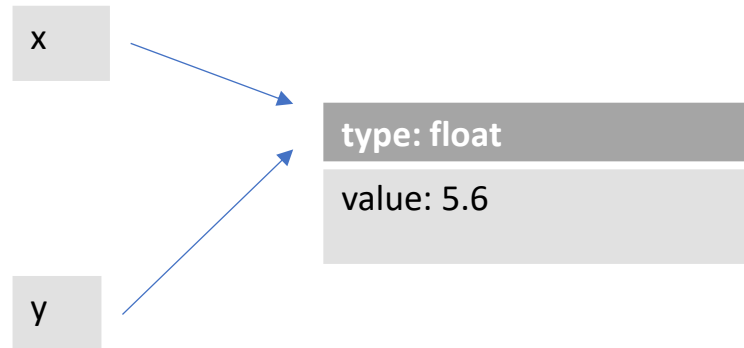
type: int
id: 140735957856544

value: 3



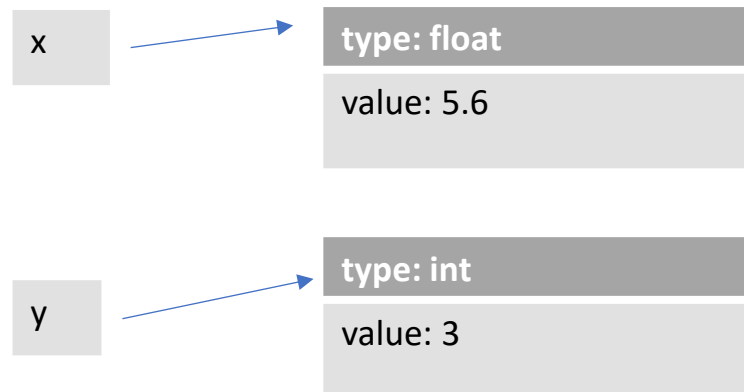
■ Example

```
x = 5.6  
y = x
```



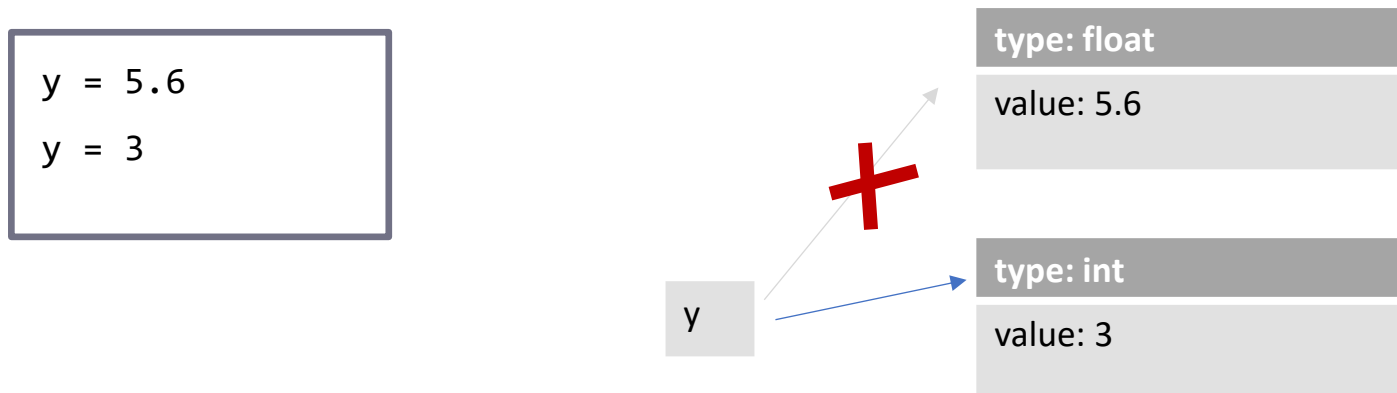
■ If you assign `y` to a new value...

```
y = 3
```





- From the previous example we learn that:
 - Basic data types, such as integer and float variables are **immutable**:
 - Assigning a new number will not change the value inside the object by rather create a new one





- Verify this reasoning with `id()`
 - **`id(my_variable)`** returns the **identifier** of the object that the variable is referencing

my_variable



type: int

id: 140735957856544

value: 3



■ Jupyter example

- Type in your code



```
In [1]: x = 1  
        y = x  
        print(id(x))  
        print(id(y))
```

- Press CTRL+ENTER to run and obtain a result

```
Out[1]: 140735957856544  
        140735957856544
```



- **Basic data types**
 - *int, float, bool, str*
 - *None*
 - All of these objects are **immutable**
- **Composite data types**
 - *tuple* (**immutable** list of objects)
 - *list, set, dict* (**mutable** collections of objects)



■ int, float

- No theoretical size limit
 - Effectively limited by memory available
- Available operations
 - `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `//` (integer division), `%` remainder, `**` (exponentiation)
 - Example

In [1]:

```
x = 9
y = 5
r1 = x // y      # r1 = 1
r2 = x % y       # r2 = 4
r3 = x / y       # r3 = 1.8
r4 = x ** 2      # r4 = 81
```

- Note that dividing 2 **integers** yields a **float**



■ **bool**

- Can assume the values True, False
- Boolean operators: **and, or, not**
 - Example

```
In [1]: is_sunny = True
        is_hot = False
        is_rainy = not is_sunny                # is_rainy = False
        bad_weather = not (is_sunny or is_hot) # bad_weather = False

        temperature1 = 30
        temperature2 = 35
        raising = temperature2 > temperature1  # raising = True
```



■ string



```
In [1]: string1 = "Python's nice"           # with double quotes
        string2 = 'He said "yes"'         # with single quotes
        print(string1)
        print(string2)
```

```
Out[1]: Python's nice
        He said "yes"
```

- Definition with single or double quotes is equivalent



■ Conversion between types

■ Example



```
In [1]: x = 9.8
        y = 4
        r1 = int(x)           # r1 = 9
        r2 = float(y)        # r2 = 4.0
        r3 = str(x)          # r3 = '9.8'
        r4 = float("6.7")    # r4 = 6.7
        r5 = bool("True")    # r5 = True
        r6 = bool(0)         # r6 = False
```

- Only `0`, `""`, `[]`, `{}`, `set()`, `()` convert to `False` through `bool()`



■ Working with strings



- **len:** get string length
- **strip:** remove leading and trailing spaces (tabs or newlines)
- **upper/lower:** convert uppercase/lowercase

In [1]:

```
s1 = ' My string '  
length = len(s1)           # length = 11  
s2 = s1.strip()            # s2 = 'My string'  
s3 = s1.upper()            # s3 = ' MY STRING '  
s4 = s1.lower()            # s4 = ' my string '
```




■ Sub-strings

■ `str[start:stop]`

- The start index is **included**, while stop index is **excluded**
- Index of characters starts **from 0**
- We can optionally specify a step `str[start:stop:step]` (*)

■ Shortcuts

- **Omit start** if you want to start from the beginning
- **Omit stop** if you want to go until the end of the string

```
In [1]: s1 = "Hello"
        charact = s1[0]           # charact = 'H'
        s2 = s1[0:3]             # s2 = 'Hel'
        s3 = s1[1:]              # s3 = 'ello'
        s4 = s1[:3]              # s4 = 'Hell'
        s5 = s1[:]               # s4 = 'Hello'
```



■ Sub-strings

■ Negative indices:

- count characters **from the end**
- **-1 = last character**

In [1]:

```
s1 = "MyFile.txt"

s2 = s1[:-1]           # s2 = 'MyFile.tx'
s3 = s1[:-2]           # s3 = 'MyFile.t'
s4 = s1[-3:]           # s4 = 'txt'
```



■ Strings: concatenation

- Use the + operator



In [1]:

```
string1 = 'Value of '  
sensor_id = 'sensor 1.'  
print(string1 + sensor_id)           # concatenation  
val = 0.75  
print('Value: ' + str(val))         # float to str
```

Out[1]:

```
Value of sensor 1.  
Value: 0.75
```



- **Strings are immutable**



In [1]:

```
str1 = "example"  
str1[0] = "E" # will cause an error
```

- **Use instead:**

In [1]:

```
str1 = "example"  
str1 = 'E' + str1[1:]
```



■ Formatted string literals (or f-strings)

- Introduced in Python 3.6
- Useful pattern to build a string from one or more variables
- E.g. suppose you want to build the string:

My float is 17.5 and my int is 5

var1 var2

- Syntax:
 - `f"My float is {var1} and my int is {var2}"`



■ Formatting strings (older versions)

■ Syntax:

■ "My float is %f and my int is %d" % (17.5, 5)

float placeholder

int placeholder

values to be replaced

My float is

17.5

and my int is

5

■ "My float is {0} and my int is {1}".format(17.5, 5)

index of variable that
will replace the braces



■ Example (\geq Python 3.6)

In [1]:

```
city = 'London'
temp = 19.23456
str1 = f"Temperature in {city} is {temp} degrees."
str2 = f"Temperature with 2 decimals: {temp:.2f}"
str3 = f"Temperature + 10: {temp+10}"
print(str1)
print(str2)
print(str3)
```

Out[1]:

```
Temperature in London is 19.23456 degrees.
Temperature with 2 decimals: 19.23
Temperature + 10: 29.23456
```



■ Strings

■ Other methods:

- `str1.capitalize()`
 - Converts the first character to upper case(element)
- `str1.find("a")` or `str1.index("a")`
 - Return the index of the given string
- `str1.count("a")`:
 - Count the number of times a given string is found
- `str1.split("a")`:
 - Returns a list of sub-strings separated by the given string
- `str1.replace("Mike", "Bob")`
 - Returns a new string where all "Mike" substrings are replaced by "Bob"



■ None type

- Specifies that a reference does not contain data

In [1]:

```
my_var = None

if my_var is None:
    my_var = 10
```

- Useful to:
 - Represent "missing data" in a list or a table
 - Initialize an empty variable that will be assigned later on
 - (e.g. when computing min/max)



■ Tuple

- **Immutable** sequence of variables
- Definition:

```
In [1]: t1 = ('Turin', 'Italy')      # City and State
        t2 = 'Paris', 'France'     # optional parentheses

        t3 = ('Rome', 2, 25.6)     # can contain different types
        t4 = ('London',)           # tuple with single element
```



- **Tuple unpacking**
 - **Assigning a tuple to a set of variables**



In [1]:

```
city_data = ('Turin', 'Italy', 12)
city, state, temperature = city_data

print(city)          # Turin
print(state)         # Italy
print(temperature)   # 12
```



- **Swapping** elements with tuples
 - This is an interesting case of unpacking



In [1]:

```
a = 1
b = 2
a, b = b, a
print(a)
print(b)
```

Out[1]:

```
2
1
```



■ Tuple

- Tuples can be **concatenated**
- A new tuple is generated upon concatenation

In [1]:

```
city = 'Turin', 'Italy'  
temperatures = 6, 15  
city_data = city + temperatures  
print(city_data)
```

Out[1]:

```
('Turin', 'Italy', 6, 15)
```



■ Tuple

- Accessing elements of a tuple
 - `t[start:stop]`
 - We can optionally specify a step `str[start:stop:step]` (*)

In [1]:

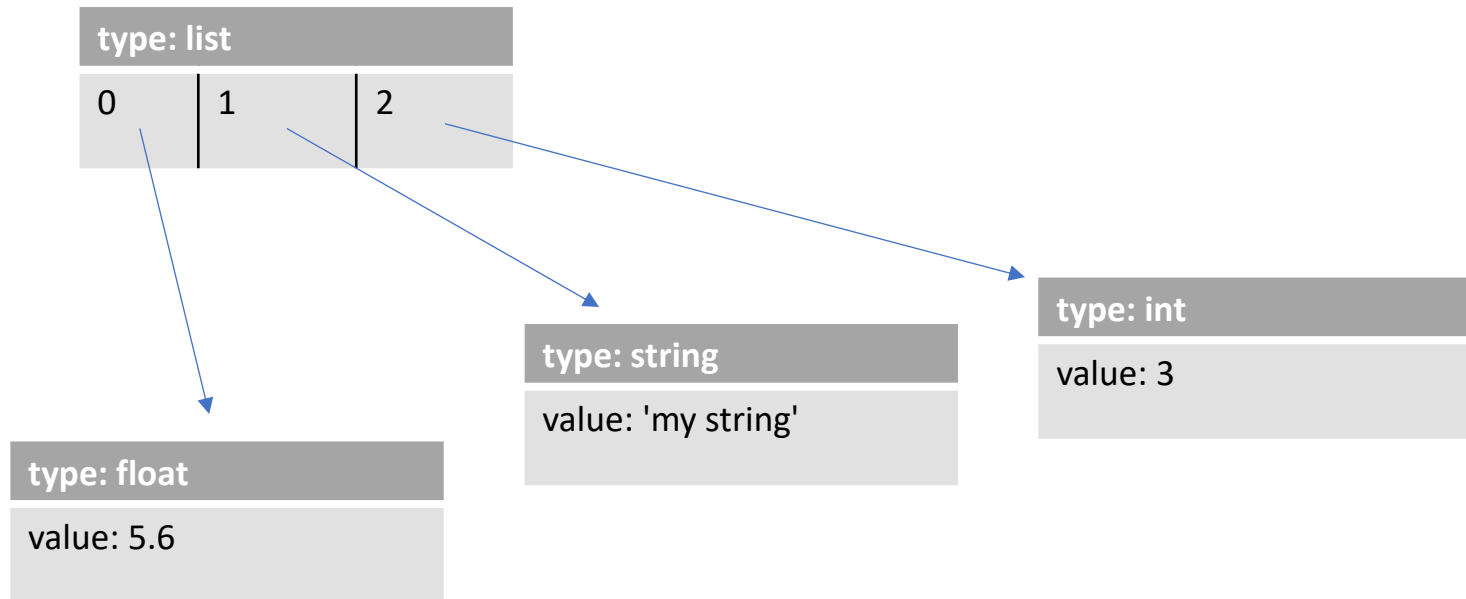
```
t1 = ('a', 'b', 'c', 'd')

val1 = t1[0]           # val1 = 'a'
t2 = t1[1:]            # t2 = ('b', 'c', 'd')
t3 = t1[:-1]           # t3 = ('a', 'b', 'c')

t1[0] = 2              # will cause an error
                       # (a tuple is immutable)
```



- **List**
 - **Mutable** sequence of heterogeneous elements
 - Each element is a **reference** to a Python object





■ List

■ Definition



```
In [1]:  l1 = []                                # empty list
         l2 = [1, 'str', 5.6, None]             # can contain different types

         a, b, c, d = l2                        # can be assigned to variables
                                                # a=1, b='str', c=5.6, d=None
```




List

■ Adding elements and **concatenating** lists



```
In [1]:  l1 = [2, 4, 6]
         l2 = [10, 12]
         l1.append(8)           # append an element to l1
         l3 = l1 + l2           # concatenate 2 lists
         print(l1)
         print(l3)
```

```
Out[1]:  [2, 4, 6, 8]
         [2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12]
```



■ List

■ Other methods:

- `list1.insert(index, element):`
 - Insert element at position
- `list1.pop(index):`
 - Remove element by position
- `list.index(element):`
 - Returns position of *first* occurrence of element
- `list.count(element):`
 - Number of occurrences of element
- `list1.extend(list2):`
 - Extend list1 with another list list2



■ List

■ Accessing elements:

- Same syntax as tuples, but this time assignment is allowed

```
In [1]: l1 = [0, 2, 4, 6]
        val1 = l1[0]           # val1 = 0
        a, b = l1[1:-1]        # a=2, b=4
        l1[0] = 'a'
        print(l1)
```

```
Out[1]: ['a', 2, 4, 6]
```



List

Accessing elements

- Can also specify a **step**: [start:stop:step]
 - step = 2** skips 1 element
 - step = -1** reads the list in reverse order
 - step = -2** reverse order, skip 1 element

```
In [1]: l1 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
        l2 = l1[::2]           # l2 = [0, 2, 4]
        l3 = l1[::-1]         # l3 = [4, 3, 2, 1, 0]
        l4 = l1[::-2]         # l4 = [4, 2, 0]
```



■ List

■ Assigning multiple elements

```
In [1]: l1 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
        l1[1:4] = ['a', 'b', 'c']    # l1 = [0, 'a', 'b', 'c', 4]
```

■ Removing multiple elements

```
In [1]: l1 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
        del l1[1:-1]                # l1 = [0, 4]
```



■ “in” operator

- **Check** if element belongs to a list

```
In [1]: l1 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
        myval = 2
        myval in l1 # True, since 2 is in l1
```

- **Iterate** over list elements

```
In [1]: l1 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
        for el in l1:
            print(el)
```



■ List

■ Sum, min, max of elements

```
In [1]: l1 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
        min_val = min(l1)           # min_val = 0
        max_val = max(l1)           # max_val = 4
        sum_val = sum(l1)           # sum_val = 10
```

■ Sort list elements

```
In [1]: l1 = [3, 2, 5, 7]
        l2 = sorted(l1)             # l2 = [2, 3, 5, 7]
```



- **Set**
 - **Unordered** collection of **unique** elements
 - Definition:

```
In [1]: s0 = set()                # empty set
        s1 = {1, 2, 3}
        s2 = {3, 3, 'b', 'b'}    # s2 = {3, 'b'}
        s3 = set([3, 3, 1, 2])   # from list: s3 = {1,2,3}
```




■ Set

■ Operators between two sets

- $|$ (union), $&$ (intersection), $-$ (difference)
- $<$, $<=$ ((proper) subset), $>$, $>=$ ((proper) superset)

```
In [1]: s1 = {1, 2, 3}
        s2 = {3, 'b'}
        union = s1 | s2           # {1, 2, 3, 'b'}
        intersection = s1 & s2    # {3}
        difference = s1 - s2     # {1, 2}

        {1,2} <= s1               # True
        {1,2,3} < s1             # False (not a proper subset)
        {1,2,3} <= s1            # True (same set)
```



- **Set**
 - **Add/remove elements**

In [1]:

```
s1 = {1,2,3}
s1.add('4')           # s1 = {1, 2, 3, '4'}
s1.remove(3)          # s1 = {1, 2, '4'}
```



■ “in” operator

- **Check** whether element belongs to a set

```
In [1]: s1 = set([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
        myval = 2
        myval in s1 # True, since 2 is in s1
```

- **Iterate** over set elements

```
In [1]: s1 = set([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
        for el in s1:
            print(el)
```



■ “in” operator

- **Check** whether element belongs to a set

```
In [1]: s1 = set([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
        myval = 2
        myval in s1 # True, since 2 is in s1
```

- **Iterate** over set elements

```
In [1]: s1 = set([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
        for el in s1:
            print(el)
```

Note

Sets are unordered – the order during iterations is not well-defined

```
In [1]: {1,2,3} == {3,2,1}
Out[1]: True

In [2]: for i in {1,2,3}:
        ...:     print(i)
        ...:
1
2
3

In [3]: for i in {3,2,1}:
        ...:     print(i)
        ...:
1
2
3
```



■ Set example: removing list duplicates

```
In [1]: input_list = [1, 5, 5, 4, 2, 8, 3, 3]
        out_list = list(set(input_list))

        print(out_list)
```

■ **Note:** order of original elements is not preserved

```
Out [1]: [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8]
```



■ Dictionary

- Collection of key-value pairs
- Allows fast **access** of elements **by key**
 - Keys are **unique**

■ Definition:

```
In [1]: d1 = {'Name' : 'John', 'Age' : 25}
        d0 = {}                                # empty dictionary
```



■ Dictionary keys

- Must be **hashable** types
 - E.g. int, float, string, bool, **tuple**
 - Note: lists and dictionaries are not hashable
 - Hashable types are hashed with the `hash()` function
- Example: itemsets and their support

```
In [1]: d1 = {('a', 'b') : 120, ('c', 'd', 'e') : 1000}
```

- Note: the same applies for elements of sets!

■ Dictionary values

- Any Python object is allowed



■ Dictionary

■ Access by key:

```
In [1]: images = {10 : 'plane.png', 25 : 'flower.png'}
img10 = images[10]           # img10 = 'plane.png'
img8 = images[8]             # Get an error if key does not exist
img8 = images.get(8)         # .get() returns None if the key does not exist
img8 = images.get(8, 'notfound.png') # we can optionally specify a default value
```

■ Reading **keys** and **values**:

- Note: `keys()` and `values()` return **views on original data**

```
In [2]: occurrences = {'Car' : 33, 'Truck' : 55}
keys = list(occurrences.keys())    # keys = ['Car', 'Truck']
values = list(occurrences.values()) # values = [33, 55]
```




■ Dictionary

■ Adding/updating values:

```
In [1]: occur = {'Car' : 33, 'Truck' : 55}
        occur ['Car'] = 56           # Update existing value
        occur ['Road'] = 3          # Add a new key
```

■ Deleting a key:

```
In [2]: occur = {'Car' : 33, 'Truck' : 55}
        del d2['Truck']              # occur = {'Car':33}
```



■ Dictionary

- **Check** whether a key exists:



```
In [1]: occur = {'Car' : 33, 'Truck' : 55}
        'Truck' in occur # True since "Truck" is in occur
```



■ Dictionary

■ Iterating keys and values

- Note: Previous Python versions had no order guarantee
- However, Python 3.7+ officially preserves insertion order (*)

■ E.g. get the cumulative price of items in a market basket

In [1]:

```
basket = {'Cola' : 0.99, 'Apples' : 1.5, 'Salt' : 0.4}
price = 0
for k, v in basket.items():
    price += v
    print(f"{k}: {price}")
```

Out [1]:

```
Cola: 0.99
Apples: 2.49
Salt: 2.89
```



■ Default dictionary

- Access by key with **default value**:

```
In [1]: from collections import defaultdict

        experience = defaultdict(lambda: 1)
        experience['Mario']=3
        experience['Elena']+=1           # Even if key 'Elena' not defined
```

- Instead of writing:

```
In [2]: if 'Elena' in experience:
        experience['Elena']+=1
        else:
            experience['Elena']=2
```



tuple vs list vs set vs dict

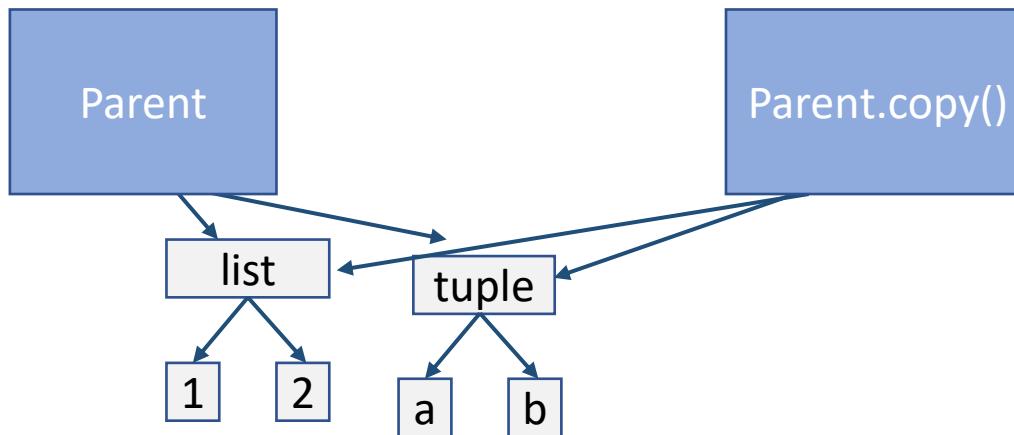
	tuple	list	set	dict
Mutable	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ordered	Yes	Yes	No*	No*
Unique values	No	No	Yes	Yes (keys)
Limitations on values	No	No	Must be hashable	Keys must be hashable
Search cost	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	$O(1)$

* Implementation dependent – Since Python 3.7 dicts are ordered based on insertion order



■ Shallow vs deep copy

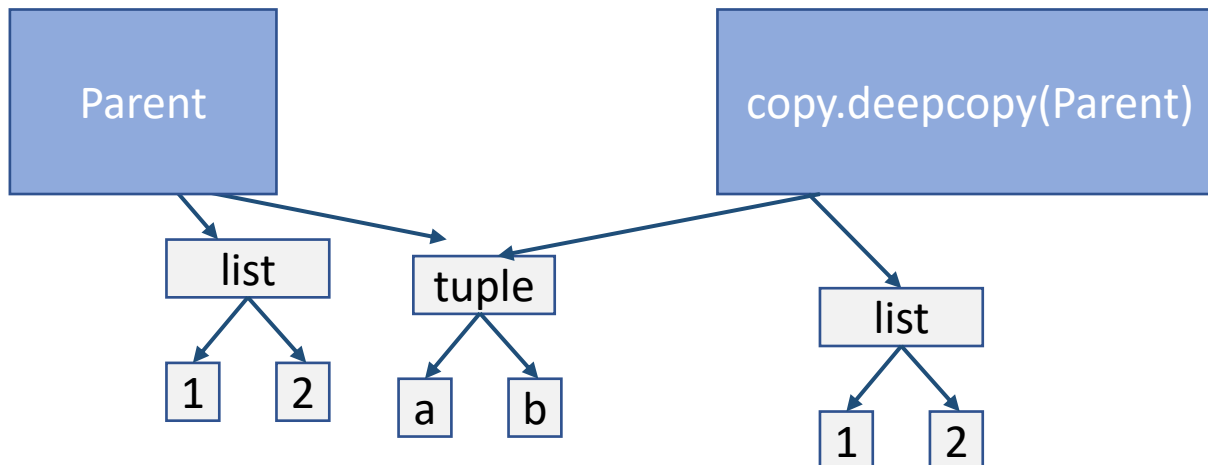
- Shallow: copies the **parent** object, shares references to children





■ Shallow vs deep copy

- Deep: recursively copies all children nodes of parent object



Immutable objects
are not copied!



■ Shallow copies of Python objects

```
In [1]: temperatures = {'Turin':[10,12,10], 'Milan':[15,16,16]}
temp2 = temperatures.copy()
temp2['Turin'].append(13)           # Edit child node
temp2['Rome'] = [10, 11, 10]       # Edit parent node
print(temperatures)
print(temp2)
```

```
In [2]: {'Turin': [10, 12, 10, 13], 'Milan': [16, 15]}
{'Turin': [10, 12, 10, 13], 'Milan': [16, 15], 'Rome': [10, 11, 10]}
```




■ Deep copy of Python objects

```
In [1]: import copy
temperatures = {'Turin':[10,12,10], 'Milan':[15,16,16]}
temp2 = copy.deepcopy(temperatures)
temp2['Turin'].append(13)           # Edit child node
temp2['Rome'] = [10, 11, 10]       # Edit parent node
print(temperatures)
print(temp2)
```

```
In [2]: {'Turin': [10, 12, 10], 'Milan': [15,16,16]}
{'Turin': [10, 12, 10, 13], 'Milan': [15,16,16], 'Rome': [10, 11, 10]}
```



■ if/elif/else

- Conditions expressed with $>$, $<$, $>=$, $<=$, $==$, $!=$
 - Can include boolean operators (and, not, or)

In [1]:

```
if sensor_on and temperature == 10:
    print("Temperature is 10")
elif sensor_on and 10 < temperature < 20:
    in_range = True
    print("Temperature is between 10 and 20")
else:
    print("Temperature is out of range or sensor is off.")
```

indentation is
mandatory



■ While loop

- Iterate while the specified condition is True

In [1]:

```
counter = 0
while counter < 5:
    print (f"The value of counter is {counter}")
    counter += 2    # increment counter of 2
```

Out [1]:

```
The value of counter is 0
The value of counter is 2
The value of counter is 4
```



- **Iterating** for a fixed number of times
 - Use: `range(start, stop)`

In [1]:

```
for i in range(5, 8):  
    txt = f"The value of i is {i}"  
    print(txt)
```

Out [1]:

```
The value of i is 5  
The value of i is 6  
The value of i is 7
```



■ Enumerating list objects

- Use: `enumerate(my_list)`

In [1]:

```
my_list = ['a', 'b', 'c']  
for i, element in enumerate(my_list):  
    print(f"The value of my_list[{i}] is {element}")
```

Out [1]:

```
The value of my_list[0] is a  
The value of my_list[1] is b  
The value of my_list[2] is c
```



■ Iterating on multiple lists

- Use: `zip(list1, list2, ...)`

In [1]:

```
my_list1 = ['a', 'b', 'c']  
my_list2 = ['A', 'B', 'C']  
for el1, el2 in zip(my_list1, my_list2):  
    print(f"E11: {el1}, el2: {el2}")
```

Out [1]:

```
E11: a, el2: A  
E11: b, el2: B  
E11: c, el2: C
```



■ Break/continue

- Alter the flow of a **for** or a **while** loop
- Example

my_file.txt

```
car  
skip  
truck  
end  
van
```

```
with open("./data/my_file.txt") as f:  
    for line in f:                # read file line by line  
        if line=='skip':  
            continue             # go to next iteration  
        elif line=='end':  
            break                 # interrupt loop  
        print(line)
```

Out [1]:

```
car  
truck
```



- **Essential** to organize code and avoid repetitions

In [1]:

function name

return value

invocation

```
def euclidean_distance(x, y):  
    dist = 0  
    for x_el, y_el in zip(x, y):  
        dist += (x_el-y_el)**2  
    return math.sqrt(dist) # alternatively, dist**0.5  
  
print(f"{euclidean_distance([1,2,3], [2,4,5]):.2f}")  
print(f"{euclidean_distance([0,2,4], [0,1,6]):.2f}")
```

parameters

Out [1]:

```
3.00  
2.24
```




■ Variable scope

- Rules to specify the **visibility** of variables
- **Local scope**
 - Variables defined inside the function

In [1]:

```
def my_func(x, y):  
    z = 5  ← not accessible from outside  
    return x + y + z  
  
print(my_func(2, 4))  
print(z)  ← error: z undefined
```



■ Variable scope

■ Global scope

- Variables defined outside the function

In [1]:

```
def my_func(x, y):  
    return x + y + z  
  
z = 5  
my_func(2, 4)
```

← z can be read inside the function

Out [1]:

11



- **Variable scope**
 - **Global scope vs local scope**

In [1]:

```
def my_func(x, y):  
    z = 2      ← define z in local scope  
    return x + y + z ← use z from local scope  
  
z = 5      ← define z in global scope  
print (my_func(2, 4))  
print (z)    ← z in global scope is not modified
```

Out [1]:

```
8  
5
```



■ Variable scope

- Force the usage of variables in the global scope

In [1]:

```
def my_func(x, y):  
    global z          ← now z refers to global scope  
    z = 2             ← this assignment is performed to z  
                      in the global scope  
    return x + y + z  
  
z = 5  
print (my_func(2, 4))  
print (z)
```

Out [1]:

```
8  
2
```



■ Variable scope

- Force the usage of variables in the global scope

In [1]:

```
def my_func(x, y):  
    global z          ← now z ref  
    z = 2             ← this assign  
    return x + y + z  in the glo  
  
z = 5  
print (my_func(2, 4))  
print (z)
```

Note

Avoid mixing global-local variables if possible. Pass all variables needed as arguments!

Out [1]:

```
8  
2
```



- Functions can **return tuples**

In [1]:

```
def add_sub(x, y):  
    return x+y, x-y  
  
summ, diff = add_sub(5, 3)  
print(f"Sum is {summ}, difference is {diff}.")
```

Out [1]:

```
Sum is 8, difference is 2.
```



■ Parameters with **default value**



In [1]:

```
def func(a, b, c='defC', d='defD'):
    print(f"{a}, {b}, {c}, {d}")

func(1, 2)                # use default for c, d
func(1, 2, 'a')           # use default for d, not for c
func(1, 2, d='b')         # passing keyword argument
func(b=2, a=1, d='b')     # keyword order does not matter
func(1, c='a')            # Error: b not specified
```

Out [1]:

```
1, 2, defC, defD
1, 2, a, defD
1, 2, defC, b
1, 2, defC, b
```



- Functions that can be defined **inline** and **without a name**
- Example of lambda function definition:

input parameter(s) return value

```
In [1]: squared = lambda x: x**2  
        print(squared(5))
```

Out [1]: 25



- **These patterns are useful shortcuts...**

- Example: **filter** negative numbers from a list:

```
In [1]: numbers = [1, -8, 5, -2, 5]
        negative = []
        for x in numbers:
            if x < 0:
                negative.append(x)
```

- This code can be completely rewritten with lambda functions...



■ Filter and map patterns

- Both apply a function element-wise to the elements of a list (iterable)
- **Filter** the elements of a list based on a condition
- **Map** each element of a list with a new value

In [1]:

```
numbers = [1, -8, 5, -2, 5]
negative = list(filter(lambda x: x<0, numbers))
squared = list(map(lambda x: x**2, negative))
print(negative)
print(squared)
```

Out [1]:

```
[-8, -2]
[64, 4]
```



■ Lambda functions and conditions

■ Example **conditional mapping**:

In [1]:

```
numbers = [1, 1, 2, -2, 1]
sign = list(map(lambda x: '+' if x>0 else '-', numbers))
print(sign)
```

Out [1]:

```
['+', '+', '+', '-', '+']
```



■ Sort/min/max by key

```
In [1]: records = [{'name': 'v1', 'val': 5}, {'name': 'v2', 'val': 1},  
                  {'name': 'v3', 'val': 6}]  
min_val = min(records, key=lambda r: r['val'])  
sorted_records = sorted(records, key=lambda r: r['val'])  
  
print(f"Min: {min_val}")  
print(f"Sorted: {sorted_records}")
```

```
Out [1]: Min: {'name': 'v2', 'val': 1}  
Sorted: [{'name': 'v2', 'val': 1}, {'name': 'v1', 'val': 5},  
         {'name': 'v3', 'val': 6}]
```



List comprehensions

- Allow creating **lists** from other **iterables**
 - Useful for implementing the **map pattern**
 - Syntax:

In [1]:

```
res_list = [f(el) for el in iterable]
```

iterate all the
elements

e.g. list or tuple

transform **el** to
another value



List comprehensions

- Example: convert to uppercase dictionary keys
 - (**map** pattern)

In [1]:

```
dct = {'a':10, 'b':20, 'c':30}

my_list = [s.upper() for s in dct.keys()]
print(my_list)
```

Out [1]:

```
['A', 'B', 'C']
```



List comprehensions

- Allow specifying **conditions** on elements
 - Example: **square positive** numbers in a list
 - **Filter** + **map** patterns

In [1]:

```
my_list1 = [-1, 4, -2, 6, 3]

my_list2 = [el**2 for el in my_list1 if el>0]
print(my_list2)
```

Out [1]:

```
[16, 36, 9]
```



- Example: euclidean distance

```
def euclidean_distance(x, y):  
    dist = 0  
    for x_el, y_el in zip(x, y):  
        dist += (x_el-y_el)**2  
    return math.sqrt(dist)
```



```
def euclidean_distance(x, y):  
    dist = sum([(x_el-y_el)**2 for x_el, y_el in zip(x, y)])  
    return math.sqrt(dist)
```




■ Dictionary comprehensions

- Similarly to lists, allow building dictionaries

```
In [1]: keys = ['a', 'b', 'c']  
        values = [-1, 4, -2]  
  
        my_dict = {k:v for k, v in zip(keys, values)}  
        print(my_dict)
```

```
Out [1]: {'a': -1, 'b': 4, 'c': -2}
```

■ Set comprehensions

```
[In [1]: { v ** 2 for v in [ 4, 3, 2, -2, 1 ] }  
Out[1]: {1, 4, 9, 16}]
```



List comprehensions

- List comprehensions and lambda functions can shorten your code, but ...
 - Pay attention to **readability!!**
 - **Comments** are welcome!!



- A class is a model that specifies a collection of
 - attributes (= variables)
 - methods (that interact with attributes)
 - a constructor (a special method called to initialize an object)
- An object is an **instance** of a specific class
- Example:
 - class: Triangle (all the triangles have 3 edges)
 - object: a specific instance of Triangle



- Simple class example:

In [1]:

```
class Triangle:  ← class name
    num_edges = 3 ← attribute definition

triangle1 = Triangle() ← class instantiation
print(triangle1.num_edges) ← access to attribute
```

Out [1]:

3

- In this example all the object instances of Triangle have the same attribute value for num_edges: 3



■ Constructor and initialization:

In [1]:

self is a
reference to
the current
object

```
class Triangle:
```

```
    num_edges = 3
```

```
    def __init__(self, a, b, c):
```

```
        self.a = a
```

```
        self.b = b
```

```
        self.c = c
```

```
triangle1 = Triangle(2, 4, 3)
```

```
triangle2 = Triangle(2, 5, 2)
```

self is always the
first parameter

constructor
parameters

initialize attributes

invoke constructor
and instantiate a
new Triangle



- Methods
 - Equivalent to Python functions, but defined inside a class
 - The first argument is always **self** (reference to current object)
 - **self** allows accessing the object attributes
 - Example:

```
class MyClass:  
    def my_method(self, param1, param2):  
        ...  
        self.attr1 = param1  
        ...
```



■ Example with methods

In [1]:

```
class Triangle:
    def __init__(self, a, b, c):
        self.a, self.b, self.c = a, b, c
    def get_perimeter(self): ← method
        return self.a + self.b + self.c

triangle1 = Triangle(2,4,3)
triangle1.get_perimeter() ← method invocation
                           (self is passed to the
                           method automatically)
```

use **self** for
referring to
attributes

Out [1]:

9



- **Private** attributes
 - Methods or attributes that are **available only inside the object**
 - They are **not accessible** from outside
 - Necessary when you need to define elements that are useful for the class object but must not be seen/modified from outside



■ Private attributes

In [1]:

```
class Triangle:
    def __init__(self, a, b, c):
        self.a, self.b, self.c = a, b, c
    def __perimeter = a + b + c
    def get_perimeter(self):
        return self.__perimeter

triangle1 = Triangle(2,4,3)
print(triangle1.get_perimeter())
print(triangle1.__perimeter) ← Error! Cannot access
                             private attributes
```

2 leading
underscores
make variables
private

Out [1]:

9



- Use `open(filename, 'w'/'r')` to **read/write** a file

```
f = open("my_file.txt", "r")  
...  
f.close()
```

Watch out the strategy!
"r" - reading
"w" - writing
"a" - append

- We always need to remember `f.close()`. Unless...
- Use `with` statement!

```
with open("my_file.txt", "r") as f:  
    ...
```

- It avoids remembering to close the file
- Even in case of errors it guarantees a correct closure



- How to **read**?

```
with open("my_file.txt", "r") as f:
    lines = f.readlines()
    for line in f:
        print(line)
```

`readlines()` read all
the lines in once

Same as reading one line
at a time

```
line = True
while(line):
    line = f.readline()
```

- What if the file is too big?

- Chunk it!

```
with open("my_file.txt", "r") as f:
    for chunk in f.read(5):
        print(chunk)
```

`read(n)` reads `n`
characters at a time
(default `n=1`)



- How to **write**?

```
with open("my_file.txt", "w") as f:
    f.write("Ops I deleted everything!")
```

When you open a file with "w" you cancel all the existing content

- Example: make a copy of a file

```
with open("my_file.txt", "r") as f1:
    with open("my_file_copy.txt", "w") as f2:
        for line in f1:
            f2.write(line)
```



Exception handling

- To track errors during program execution

In [1]:

```
try:
    res = my_dict['key1']
    res += 1
except:
    print("Exception during execution")
```

In [2]:

```
try:
    res = a/b
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("Denominator cannot be 0.")
```

can specify
exception type →



- The **finally** block is executed in any case after try and except
 - It typically contains cleanup operations
 - Example: reading a file

In [1]:

```
try:
    f = open('./my_txt','r')      # open a file
    ...                          # work with file
except:
    print("Exception while reading file")
finally:
    f.close()
```



Exception handling

- The try/except/finally program in the previous slide can also be written as follows:

In [1]:

```
try:
    with open('./my_txt', 'r') as f:
        for line in f:
            ... # do something with line
except:
    print("Exception while reading file")
```

- If there is an **exception** while reading the file, the with statement ends
- In any case, when the with statement ends the file is automatically closed (similarly to the finally statement)



Home exercises

- (1.0 Setup an environment)
- 1.1 Python Examples.ipynb
- 1.2 Python Tuples and Lists.ipynb
- 1.3 Python Dictionaries and Sets.ipynb
- 1.4 Python Lambda functions, Functions and Classes.ipynb
- 1.5 Python Files and Exceptions.ipynb

