# Component-based Software Development

### **Python Programming – An Intro**

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#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

#### Information in this lecture are adapted from

https://www.python.org/

https://www.w3schools.com

&

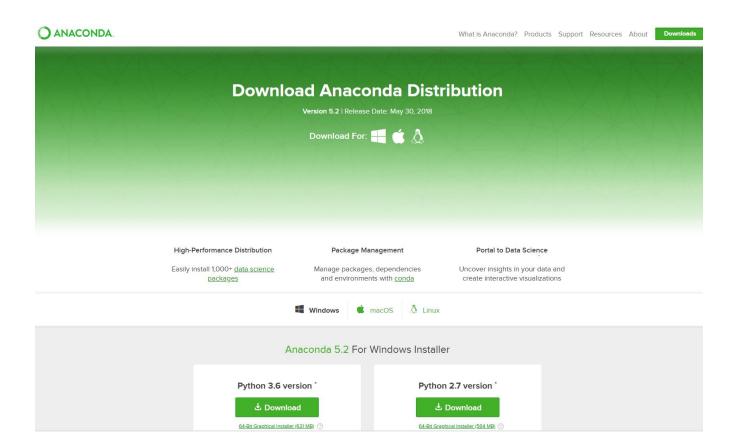
http://google.com

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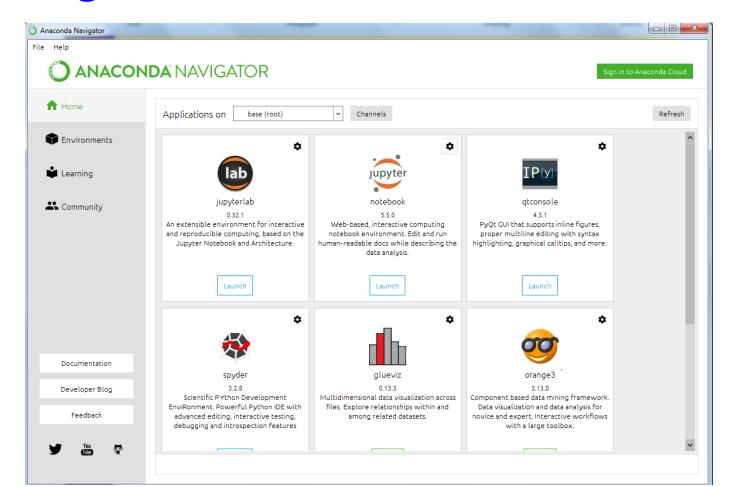
### **Anaconda Installation**

- Using Anaconda distribution
  - <a href="https://www.anaconda.com/download/">https://www.anaconda.com/download/</a>



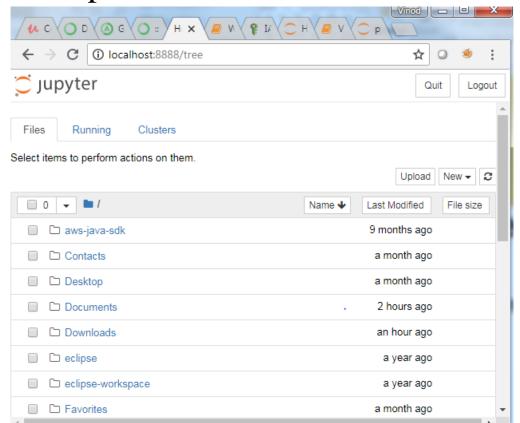
### **Anaconda Navigator**

 Once Anaconda is installed, open Anaconda Navigator from Windows start menu



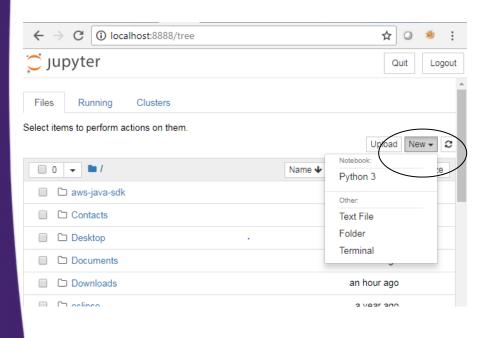
### **Jupyter Notebook Console**

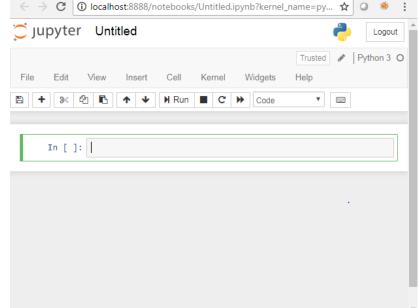
- Open Jupyter Notebook Console by clicking the Jupyter icon in Anaconda Navigator
  - The navigator allows you to navigate your directories/files on your desktop



# Jupyter Notebook

 Open Jupyter Notebook by selecting the Python3 icon in the dropdown labeled New





### **Useful links**

- Useful links to learn python
  - <a href="https://www.w3schools.com/python/">https://www.w3schools.com/python/</a>
  - <u>http://jupyter.org/try</u>

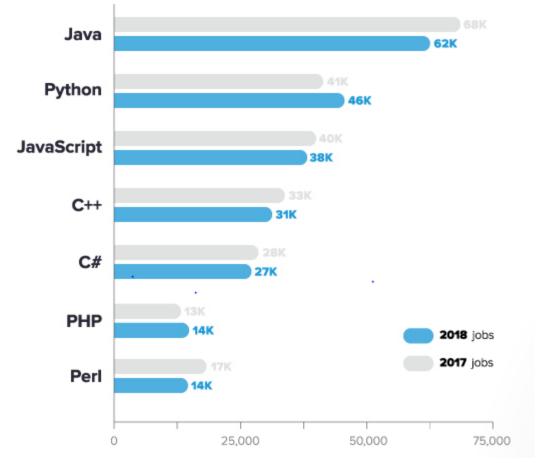
### **Pyathon - Introduction**

- Python is an interpreted, high level, general purpose programming language
  - A dynamically typed language that features automatic memory management, and emphasizes code readability by using significant whitespaces
- A language of choice in data science community
  - Popular libraries: NumPy, Pandas, Matplotlib, scipy
  - Created by <u>Guido van Rossum</u>



# **Python Popularity**

 The 7 Most In-Demand Programming Languages of 2018



#### Sourse:

https://www.codingdojo.com/blog/7-most-indemand-programming-languages-of-2018

# At a glance: Java vs. Pyathon

- No type declarations of variables in Python
  - Python is a dynamically typed language

	Java	Python
Simple arithmetic	<pre>int b = 10; int a = b + 1; a = 20 * 5; a += b; a *= b;</pre>	b = 10 a = b + 1 a = 20 * 5 a += b a *= b
Boolean arithmetic	a > b && c == d a > b    c < d !x true false	a > b and c == d a > b or c < d not x True False
Conditional	<pre>if ( <boolean exp=""> ){  } else if ( <boolean exp=""> ){  } else {  }</boolean></boolean></pre>	<pre>if <boolean exp="">:  elif <boolean exp="">:  else:    </boolean></boolean></pre>
For loop	<pre>for (int i = 0; i &lt; n; i++){      System.out.println(i); }</pre>	for i in range(n): print i
Foreach	<pre>for (int x: arrayA){      System.out.println(x); }</pre>	for x in array_a: print x;

### At a glance: Java vs. Pyathon

#### Notice the use of <u>semicolon</u>:

- Syntax requires : <u>after if, for, while, function def</u>, etc.

#### The use of indentation

Indentation, instead of {}, to specify blocks of code

	Java	Python
While loop	while ( <boolean exp=""> ){ }</boolean>	while <boolean exp="">:</boolean>
Print	<pre>System.out.println("Hello"); System.out.print("Hello");</pre>	print "Hello" print "Hello",
Array	<pre>int[] a = new int[3]; a[0] = 1; a[1] = 2; a[2] = 3;</pre>	a = [1, 2, 3]
Function/Method	<pre>int add(int a, int b){   return a + b; }</pre>	def add(a, b) : return a + b
Try-Catch	<pre>try{  } catch(MyException e){     throw new Exception("Error"); }</pre>	try: except MyException as e: raise Exception("Error")

### **Python Types**

- Python list of built-in data types
  - -None
  - -Booleans
  - -Numbers (i.e., int, float, long, complex)
  - -Strings
  - -Lists, Tuples, Sets
  - -Dictionaries
- Data science libraries add new data types to Python
  - ndarray (NumPy)
  - Series (Pandas) and
  - DataFrame (Pandas)

### **Python Variables**

#### Created when it's assigned a value

- Don't need to be declared of any particular type
- Can even change type after they have been set

#### Python variable names:

- Start with a letter or the underscore character
  - Cannot start with a number
- Only contain alpha-numeric characters and underscores (A-z, 0-9, and \_ )
- Are case-sensitive

# **Python Variables**

Example declaring variables in Python

```
a = 8  # => variable a refers to 8

b = 9  # => variable b refers to 9

c = "Hello World"  # => variable c refers to "Hello String"

b = "Hello There"  # => Reassign different values a variable (even of different types)
```

#### Food for thought!

How to swap the the values held by b and c?

# Python Variables-More examples

 Example declaring and using variables in Python

```
a = 8
               # => variable a refers to 8
b = 9.5
                     # => variable b refers to 9.5
             # => prints 17.5
print (a+b)
c = "CLoud" # => variable c refers to "Cloud"
d = 9
             # => variable d refers to 9
mylist = [3,5,7,8,9] # => variable mylist refers to a list
str1 = "Hello There" # => variable str1 refers to "Hello There"
str2 = "Hello World" # => variable str1 refers to "Hello World"
print(str1 + ' ' + str2) # => Hello There Hello World // string concatnation
print( c + d) # => TypeError: must be str, not int;
                  # => Combining string with an numeric value (e.g., int) not allowed
print (c + str(d)) # => prints CLoud 9
```

### String in Python: str type

- Sequence of characters in 'single' or "double quotes" – string literals
  - 'Hello' is same as "Hello"
    - In computer science, a literal is a notation to represent a fixed value in source code
    - Python does not have a character data type, a single character is simply a string with a length of 1.
  - Zero-based indexing or slicing to access parts of the string

### str Methods

- Python has a built-in string class "str" with many handy features
- Let mystr refers to a str literal
  - mystr.lower(), mystr.upper()
    - · returns the lowercase or uppercase version of the string
  - mystr.isalpha() / mystr.isdigit()
    - tests if all the string chars are in the various character classes
  - mystr.startswith('other'), mystr.endswith('other')
    - tests if the string starts or ends with the given <u>other</u> string
  - mystr.find('other')
    - searches for the given <u>other</u> string within mystr
    - returns the first index where it begins or -1 if not found

#### str Methods

#### Other handy features

- mystr.replace('old', 'new')
  - returns a string where all occurrences of <u>'old'</u> have been replaced by <u>'new'</u>
- mystr.split('delim')
  - returns a list of substrings separated by the given delimiter
  - mystr.split() (with no arguments) splits on all whitespace chars
- mystr.join(list)
  - opposite of split() joins the elements in the given list together using the mystr as the delimiter
  - e.g. '---'.join(['aaa', 'bbb', 'ccc']) -> aaa---bbb---ccc
- mystr.strip()
  - returns a string with whitespace removed from the start and end

# **String Slicing**

- The "slice" syntax to grab sub-parts of sequences
  - typically strings and lists.
- Syntax: mystr[start:end:step]
  - Elements beginning at start and extending up to but not including end. By default, step=1

    Hello
  - mystr[1:4] is 'ell'
  - mystr[1:] is 'ello'
    - omitting either index defaults to the start or end of the string
  - mystr[:] is 'Hello'
    - omitting both always gives us a copy of the whole thing

### Reverse Index

- The zero-based index numbers
  - Provides easy access to chars near the start of the string
- Python also uses revers index (i.e., negative numbers for index)
  - To give easy access to the chars at the end of the string
  - Negative index numbers count back from the end of the string:

- s[-1] is the last char 'o'
- s[-2] is 'l' the next-to-last char, and so on

# **Strings Immutability**

#### Strings are immutable

 Once assigned a value to a string, it can't be mutated or changed.

#### For example

- mystring = 'hello'
- The following is NOT allowed:
- mystring[0] = 'z' // Error: item assignment not supported by str object

### **Strings Concatenation**

#### Assume

- mystr = 'Hello'
- Concatnation examples:

```
- print( mystr + mystr ) # => HelloHello
```

- print( "Hi " + " John" ) # => Hi John

```
mystr = 'Hello'
print( mystr + mystr) # => HelloHello
print ('Hello ' + 'John') # => Hello John
```

# **String Print formatting**

#### Using .format method

- Python inserts format variables in {} in the order specified

```
name = 'John'
color = 'blue'
print('The favorite color of {} is {}'.format(name, color))
```

The favorite color of John is blue

#### Using f string literal

- Must precede your string with f
- Put variables inside { }

```
print(f"The favorite color of {name} is {color}")
```

The favorite color of John is blue

#### Python supports the following operators

- Arithmetic operators
- Assignment operators
- Comparison operators
- Logical operators
- Identity operators
- Membership operators
- Bitwise operators

#### **Arithmetic Operators**

Operator	Name
+	Addition
-	Subtraction
*	Multiplication
/	Division
%	Modulus
**	Exponentiation
//	Floor division

#### **Comparison Operators**

Operator	Name
==	Equal
!=	Not equal
>	Greater than
<	Less than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<=	Less than or equal to

#### Logical operators

- Used to combine conditional statements
- Python uses English words and, or, not rather than symbols (&&, ||, etc.)

Operator	Description	Example
and	Returns True if both statements are true	x < 5 and $x < 10$
or	Returns True if one of the statements is true	x < 5 or x < 4
not	Reverse the result, returns False if the result is true	not(x < 5  and  x < 10)

#### Membership operators

- Used to test if a sequence is present in an object

Operator	Description	Example
in	Returns True if a sequence with the specified value is present in the object	x in y
not in	Returns True if a sequence with the specified value is not present in the object	x not in y

# Collections – container types

- Python includes several built-in container types
  - list
  - tuple
  - set
  - dict Dictionaries

- Lists are ordered sequences with commaseparated values (items) between square brackets
- The Python equivalent of an array, but is resizable and may contain elements of different types
- Lists are mutable

Square brackets delimit lists

easy\_as = 
$$[\widehat{1,2,3}]$$

- The most important list method is append(), which adds a new element to the end of a list.
   For example:
  - animal\_types = ['bird', 'giraffe', 'monkey']
  - animal\_types.append('turkey')
- After evaluating both lines, animal\_types contains four elements: ['bird', 'giraffe', 'monkey', 'turkey'].
- Another important list method is .pop() which removes an element from a list.

### **Common List Methods**

List Method	Description	
list.append(elem)	Adds a single element to the end of the list.	
list.insert(index, Inserts the element at the given index,		
elem)	shifting elements to the right.	
list.index(elem)	Searches for the given element from the	
	start of the list and returns its index.	
list.remove(elem)	Searches for the first instance of the given	
	element and removes it	
list.sort()	Sorts the list in place (does not return it).	
list.reverse()	Reverses the list in place (does not return it)	
list.pop(index)	Removes and returns the element at the	
	given index.	

### **Common List Methods**

#### List Methods, Continued

- Unlike string methods, the list methods alter the original list.
  - The methods of most containers (excluding strings and tuples) alter the same object for efficiency's sake.
  - On the other hand, primitive data types— Booleans, numbers, strings — are immutable
    - An immutable object never changes its value.
    - Instead, the interpreter creates a new object and directs the name to it.
    - For example, evaluating 312 + 457 actually creates a new int object, 769.

#### List Examples

```
# Create a new list
empty = []
letters = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
numbers = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}
# Lists can contain elements of different types
mixed = [4, 5, "seconds"]
# Append elements to the end of a list
numbers.append(7) # numbers == [2, 3, 5, 7]
numbers.append(11) # numbers == [2, 3, 5, 7, 11]
```

#### More List Examples

```
# Access elements at a particular index
numbers[0] # => 2
numbers[-1] # => 11
# You can also slice lists - the same rules apply
letters[:3] # => ['a', 'b', 'c']
numbers[1:-1] \# \Rightarrow [3, 5, 7]
# Lists really can contain anything - even other lists!
x = [letters, numbers]
x \# =  [['a', 'b', 'c', 'd'], [2, 3, 5, 7, 11]]
x[0] # => ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
x[0][1] # => 'b'
x[1][2:] # => [5, 7, 11]
```

- Nested List a list that contains other list(s)
  - For example,

```
list1 = [0,1,2]
list2 = [3,4,5]
list3 = [6,7,8]
mega_list = [list1, list2, list3]
print(mega_list) # => [[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5], [6, 7, 8]]
```

```
len(mega_list) # => 3
mega_list[2] # => [6, 7, 8]
mega_list[2][2] # => 8
```

### Lists

#### Lists are ordered.

 Their elements have a particular order that will never change.

#### Lists are heterogeneous.

 Different data types can be stored for each element in the list. For example, ['cat', 10, 0.4].

#### Lists are mutable.

 When you alter a list, you don't create a new object — the original object is just modified.

#### Typically, the name of a list should be plural.

- For example, cars, animal\_names, and cities.
- This immediately indicates that the name refers to a container.

### Literals

- In general, a literal is a text representation of a particular data type.
  - For example, 'I live in a city.' is a string literal.
  - However, I live in a city does not represent a string

# **Tuples**

 A tuple is an ordered collection of Python objects separated by commas inside a pair of parenthesis

```
mytuple = ('apple', 'orange', 'mango')
print(mytuple[1]) # => orange
print(mytuple[2]) # => mango
```

# **Tuples**

- Tuples are similar to lists in that they are containers of objects.
- However, there are two main differences
  - They are defined using parentheses instead of brackets.
  - They are immutable you cannot alter a particular tuple object once it is created.
  - So, most methods such as append() and pop() do not exist.
- You can define a new tuple like:

```
month = (1, 'January', 31) # (month number, month name, num days)
```

# **Tuples**

- A tuple is similar to a List in terms of indexing, slicing, nested objects, but a tuple is immutable
  - Once elements are assigned inside a tuple, it cannot be reassigned

```
t = (2, 50, 70, 8, 23.3, 'John', 50, (1,2,3), 61.9)
print(t[:4]) # slicing => (2, 50, 70, 8)
print(t[-1]) # last element => 61.9
print(t[5]) # 'John'
t[5] = 'Jane' #Error: item reassignment not supported
```

# Lists vs. Tuples

- Use lists when you intend to mutate (change) the elements within it
- Use tuples when you do not intend to mutate the elements within it
- Elements within both lists and tuples retain their order

# Lists vs. Tuples

- Why use a tuple instead of a list?
  - Tuples are generally used as containers of protected constants - for example, the acceleration due to gravity, or a connection URL to a server.
  - Because they are immutable, they can't accidentally be overwritten.
- Because tuples have fixed sizes (determined when they are assigned their initial values), they are more memory efficient than a list,
  - which needs additional memory allocated to it.
- If you aren't going to be adding elements to your object, a tuple may be a better choice.

#### Sets

- A set is an unordered collection of unique elements
  - In Python sets are written with curly brackets.

```
s = {'apple', 'orange', 'banana', 'cherry', 100, 20, 50}
```

 Can create a set from a list by passing the list to set()

```
mylist = [2, 5, 6, 4, 4, 200, 2, 1, 100, 100]

print(mylist) # => [2, 5, 6, 4, 4, 200, 2, 1, 100, 100]

myset = set(mylist)
print(myset) # => {1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 100, 200}
```

#### Sets

- Can use the set() constructor to make a set
  - add() method to add an item
  - remove() method to remove an item from the set
  - len() function returns the size of the set
- The set list is unordered, so the items can appear in a random order

```
s = set()
s.add(10)
s.add(20)
s.add(20)
s.add(30)
s.add(5)

print(s) # => {10, 20, 5, 30}
thisset = set(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
print(len(thisset)) # => 3

thisset = set(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
print(len(thisset)) # => 3

thisset = set(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
print(s) # => 3

thisset = set(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
print(len(thisset)) # => 3

thisset = set(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
print(s) # => 3

thisset = set(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
print(len(thisset)) # => 3

thisset = set(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
print(s) # => {10, 20, 5, 30}
```

### Sets

#### Food for thought!

- What would be the result of evaluating the following code? 7, 10, 12, or 14?

 $len({3, 2, 9, 5, 3, 6, 2}) + len({3, 2, 9, 5, 3, 6, 2})$ 

- A dictionary represents or stores (key, value) pairs
  - similar to a Map or HashMap in Java
- An unordered collection of mapping, which is changeable
  - Written with curly brackets, and have keys and values
     Value

- As with sets, a dictionary is defined using curly braces.
  - However, each element of a dictionary consists of a key, followed by a colon, followed by a value.

#### For example:

```
book_authors = {'Moby Dick': 'Herman Melville', 'The Lorax': 'Dr. Seuss', 'The
Hobbit': 'J.R.R. Tolkien'}
```

Notice this is a container of key-value pairs.

So, len(book\_authors) is 3, as there are three key-value pairs.

- Two useful dictionary methods are:
  - -Keys(), e.g. book\_authors.keys()
  - -Values(), e.g., book\_authors.values()

# **Dictionary Methods**

Method	Description
clear()	Removes all the elements from the dictionary
copy()	Returns a copy of the dictionary
fromkeys()	Returns a dictionary with the specified keys and values
get()	Returns the value of the specified key
items()	Returns a list containing the a tuple for each key value pair
keys()	Returns a list containing the dictionary's keys
pop()	Removes the element with the specified key
popitem()	Removes the last key-value pair
setdefault()	Returns the value of the specified key. If the key does not exist: insert the key, with the specified value
update()	Updates the dictionary with the specified key-value pairs
values()	Returns a list of all the values in the dictionary

Creating and accessing dictionaries

```
d = {'username': 'Jane', 'password': 'pass123', 'id': 101}
print(d['username']) # => Jane
print(d['password']) # => pass123
```

#### Updating dictionaries

- Keys must be unique
- Assigning to an existing key replaces its value
- Dictionaries are unordered
  - New entry might appear anywhere in the output

```
d['password'] = 'passXYZ'

print(d)  # => {'username': 'Jane', 'password': 'passXYZ', 'id': 101}

d['department'] = 'CS'

print(d) # => {'username': 'Jane', 'password': 'passXYZ', 'id': 101, 'department': 'CS'}
```

#### Removing dictionary entries:

- d.pop('key') removes the corresponding entry from the dictionary d
- d.clear() removes all elements from the dictionary d

```
d['dept'] = 'CS'
print(d) # => {'username': 'Jane', 'password': 'passXYZ', 'id': 101, 'department': 'CS', 'dept': 'CS'}
d.pop("department")
print(d) # => {'username': 'Jane', 'password': 'passXYZ', 'id': 101, 'dept': 'CS'}
d.clear()
print(d) # => {}
```

- Access methods: keys(), values(), items()
  - List of current kevs

```
d = {'username':'Jane', 'password': 'pass123', 'id':101}
```

```
d.keys() # => ['username', 'password', 'id']
```

List of current values

```
d.values() # => ['Jane', 'pass123', 101]
```

List of item tuples

```
d.items() # => [('username', 'Jane'), ('password', 'pass123'), ('id', 101)]
```

Values in a dictionary can be a list as well

```
people = {'John':[1,2,3], 'Kelly':[10,20,30]}
print(people['John']) # => [1, 2, 3]
print(people['Kelly']) # => [10, 20, 30]
```

Nested dictionary

```
people = {'John':{'salary':100, 'age':22}, 'Jane':{'salary':150, 'age': 30}}
print(people['Jane']) # => {'salary': 150, 'age': 30}
print(people['Jane']['age']) # => 30
```

#### **Booleans**

#### Boolean variable can be either True or False

- Notice the uppercase T and F in True/False
- Lowercase true and false are not correct!

```
x = True
y = False
print(f"A boolean variable can be either {x} or {y}")
# => A boolean variable can be either True or False
7 = true
print(f"Not allowed to assign lowercase true to {z}")
#Error: A boolean variable can be either True or False
```

# **Boolean Expressions**

- Comparison Operators
  - Comparison operators are used to compare two values

Operator	Name	Example
==	Equal	x == y
!=	Not equal	x != y
>	Greater than .	x > y
<	Less than	x < y
>=	Greater than or equal to	x >= y
<=	Less than or equal to	x <= y

# **Boolean Expressions**

#### Logical Operators

 Logical operators are used to combine conditional statements

Operator	Description	Example
and	Returns True if both statements are true	x < 5 and $x < 10$
or	Returns True if one of the statements is true	x < 5 or x < 4
not	Reverse the result, returns False if the result is true	not(x < 5  and  x < 10)

- Allows to execute certain code only when a particular condition is true
  - if statements
  - while loop
  - for loop
- Control flow syntax uses
  - colon (:) and
  - indentation

#### If statements

```
if x == 3:
    print "X equals 3."
elif x == 2:
    print "X equals 2."
else:
    print "X equals something else."
print "This is outside the 'if'."
```

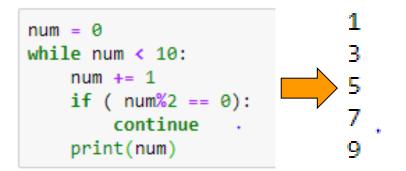
#### Note:

- Use of indentation for blocks
- Colon (:) after Boolean expressions

 While loop - executes a block of code as long as a condition is true

```
num = 1
while (num < 5 ):
    print(num)
    num = num + 1</pre>
2
3
4
```

#### With continue



#### With break

```
num = 1
while num < 10:
    print(num)
    if num == 5:
        break
    num += 1
```

- For loop is used for iterating over a collection
  - The **collection** could be a list, tuple, dictionary, or string
  - Executes statement(s), once for each item in a collection

```
#If the collection is a list or tuple,
#then loop through each item
for <item> in <collection>:
    <statements>
#If the collection is string, then loop through each char
for myChar in "Hello World":
    print(myChar)
#You loop through keys of a dictionary
for key in my_dictionary:
    print(key)
```

For loop – with list

```
mylist = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] 1
4

for num in mylist:
    print (num**2) # 16
25
```

For loop – with string

For loop – with dictionary

```
mydictionary = {'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3}

for key in mydictionary:
    print(key)

for key in mydictionary:
    print(key + " = " + str(mydictionary[key]))

one
two.
three

one = 1
two = .2
three = 3
```

# **Comprehension in Python**

- Comprehension is used to <u>create a new</u> <u>built-in data structure</u> like a list, a dictionary or a set <u>from an existing data structure</u>
  - generally to transform one type of data into another
- Python has three types of comprehension
  - List comprehension
  - Set comprehension
  - Dictionary comprehension

# **Comprehension in Python**

- Comprehension usually involves the following steps:
  - Begin with a new empty data structure to create, for example, a list, set or a dictionary
  - Loop through an existing data structure and process each item in the iterator
  - Populate the new data structure with the processed data

# **List Comprehension**

#### Syntax

```
new_list = [expression for each_item in existing_data_structure]
```

- The outer [] brackets indicates the creation of a new list for each item in the iterator.
- The expression can be any valid python expression resulting into a value to include in the newly created iterator.

# List Comprehension An example to compute square numbers

- Syntax new\_list = [expression for each\_item in existing\_data\_structure]
- Without list comprehension

```
nums = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
squares = []
for x in nums:
    squares.append(x ** 2)
print squares
```

[0, 1, 4, 9, 16]

#### Using list comprehension

Same effect with simpler code

```
nums = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
squares = [x ** 2 for x in nums]
print squares
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16]
```

List comprehensions can also contain conditions:

```
nums = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
even_squares = [x ** 2 for x in nums if x % 2 == 0]
print even_squares
[0, 4, 16]
```

# **Set Comprehension**

- Creating a set from an existing data structure
- Similar to list comprehension, but you substitute [] with {} in set comprehension.
- The opening and closing curly braces '{}'
  means to start with an empty set and create
  it from an existing data structure.
- Syntax

```
{ expression for each_item in existing_data_structure }
```

# **Set Comprehension**

#### Syntax

```
{ expression for each_item in existing_data_structure }
```

#### Example

```
# Get a set of even numbers from a list using set comprehension
numbers = [1, 24, 35, 12, 67, 2, 24, 81, 2, 45, 89, 12]
even_numbers = {each_number for each_number in numbers if each_number%2 == 0}
print(even_numbers)

{24, 2, 12}

from math import sqrt
print ({int(sqrt(x)) for x in range(10)})

{0, 1, 2, 3}
```

# **Dictionary Comprehension**

- Used for creating a new dictionary from an existing data structure
  - The existing data structure doesn't need to be a dictionary
  - It can as well be a list or a set or a tuple.
- Similar to list comprehensions, but allows to easily construct dictionaries
- Syntax

```
{ key:value for key,value in existing_data_structure }
```

# Dictionary Comprehension – Examples

Creating a dictionary from a list

```
nums = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]
even_num_to_square = {x: x ** 2 for x in nums if x % 2 == 0}
print even_num_to_square

{0: 0, 2: 4, 4: 16}
```

Creating dictionary from another dictionary

```
students = {"dennis": 23, "david": 21, "mary": 9, "daniel": 25, "darius": 17, "jim": 10}
students_with_upper_case_names = {key.upper(): value for key, value in students.items()}
print(students_with_upper_case_names)
{'DENNIS': 23, 'DAVID': 21, 'MARY': 9, 'DANIEL': 25, 'DARIUS': 17, 'JIM': 10}
```

# **Functions in Python**

- A function defines block of code
  - Executes when the function is called
  - Promotes reusability of the code
    - Can be executed/called many times
  - Can have parameters to pass data into a function
    - Parameters have no explicit types
    - Can have default values for parameters
  - Can return data as a result using the return key word
  - Names of Python functions, by convention,
     uses <u>lowercase</u> letters and <u>underscores</u>

# **Functions in Python**

- Functions can be used just like any other data.
- They can be
  - Arguments to function
  - Return values of functions
  - Assigned to variables
  - Parts of tuples, lists, etc.

### Syntax of a Python function

A function is defined using a key word def

First line with less indentation is considered to be outside of the function definition.

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

No declaration of types of arguments or result

#### **Python Functions**

A function can have parameters and a return value

```
def sum(num1, num2):
    return num1+num2
num1 = 5
num2 = 6
total = sum(num1, num2)
print(f"Sum of {num1} and {num2} is {total}")
# => Sum of 5 and 6 is 11
```

#### **Python Functions**

- Can have default value for the parameters
  - When a function is called without passing the argument,
     it uses default value

```
def say_hello(name = 'John'):
    print("Hello " + name)

say_hello() # => Hello John

say_hello("Paul") # => Hello Paul
```

#### **Python Functions**

#### Functions are first-class objects in Python

- Functions can be used just like any other data
- They can be
  - Arguments to function
  - Return values of functions
  - Assigned to variables
  - Parts of tuples, lists, etc

```
def square(x):
    return x**2

def compute(square, x):
    return square(x)

compute(square, 10) # => returns 100
```

#### **Built-in Python Functions**

#### Useful built-in functions

- min()
- max()
- enumerate()
- join() method of string
- isinstance(object, classinfo)
  - checks if the object (first argument) is an instance or subclass of classinfo class (second argument).
- type(object) -- returns type of the given object

#### **Built-in Python Functions**

- Enumerate() takes a collection (e.g., a tuple) and returns it as an enumerate object
  - Adds a counter as the key of the enumerate object
- Syntax: enumerate(iterable, start), where
  - *iterable* is an iterable object
  - *start* is the start number of the enumerate object.
    - Default 0

print(list(x))

```
fruit = ('apple', 'banana', 'mango')
enumerated_fruit = enumerate(fruit)
print (list(enumerated_fruit)) # => [(0, 'apple'), (1, 'banana'), (2, 'mango')]

greetings = ['Hello', 'Hi', 'Hey']
x = enumerate(greetings)
```

# => [(0, 'Hello'), (1, 'Hi'), (2, 'Hey')]

#### **Scopes in Python**

#### LEGB Scoping Rule

- LEGB stands for Local, enclosing, global, and Built-in
- Python searches a variable in this order

#### Class – a blueprint or template to define objects

- A class definition groups:
  - data (e.g., attributes or member variables) and
  - methods associated with the data
- self keyword is used to assign attributes to class objects inside the class, with self. prefix
  - E.g., self.variable2, self.variable2
    - (equivalent to instance variables in Java class)
- First parameter of any class method is self, referring to this class object
- Use . operator on objects to call object attributes or methods
  - E.g., object.variable1, object.variable2

- Example: A Shape class with an attribute called 'name' and a method 'draw()
  - \_\_init\_\_() method is like a constructor in Java
    - used to initialize objects when an object is created

```
import math

class Shape():
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

Like
instance
variables
in Java

import math

class Shape():
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    print("Shape created")

def draw(self):
    print(f'Drawing********** {self.name}')
```

```
shape = Shape("Shape1")
shape.draw()
shape.draw()
shape = Shape("Shape1")
Shape created
Drawing******** Shape1
```

#### Rectangle class that inherits Shape

Includes additional attributes and methods

```
class Rectangle(Shape):
   #No overloading allowed
   def init (self, name, length, width):
                                                                     Like a
       Shape.__init__(self, name)
       self.length = length
                                                                     Constructor
       self.width = width
                                                                     in Java
       print(f"{self.name} created")
   def area(self):
       return self.length * self.width
   def perimeter(self):
        return 2.0*(self.length + self.width)
   #String representation of Rectangle object
   def repr (self):
       return f"Rectangle: length = {self.length}, width = {self.width}"
```



```
Shape created
Small rectangle created
Drawing******** Small rectangle
None
Area :48
Perimeter : 28.0
Rectangle: length = 8, width = 6
```

- Circle class that inherits Shape
  - repr\_() defines string representation of the class object
    - Used to print class objects by print() method
    - Similar to toString() method in Java

```
class Circle(Shape):
    def __init__(self, name, radius):
        Shape.__init__(self, name)
        self.radius = radius
        print(f'{self.name} created')

def area(self):
        return math.pi*(self.radius **2)

def perimeter(self):
        return 2.0*math.pi*self.radius

#String representation of Circle object
def __repr__(self):
        return f"Circle: radius = {self.radius}"
```

```
c = Circle('Small Circle', 7)
c.draw()
print('Circle area: ' + str(c.area()))
print('Circle perimeter ' + str(c.perimeter()))
print(c)
```



```
Shape created
Small Circle created
Drawing********* Small Circle
Circle area: 153.93804002589985
Circle perimeter 43.982297150257104
Circle: radius = 7
```

#### **Modules and Packages**

- A module is a single file (or files) that are imported under one import and used. e.g.
  - import my\_module
- A package is a collection of modules in directories that give a package hierarchy
  - from my\_package.timing.danger.internets import function\_of\_love

#### **Modules and Packages**

- In Python, you can't use an undefined name without defining or importing it first.
  - For example, you can't call the math module's sin function without importing it.
- Imports typically go at the very top of your script or Jupyter Notebook.
  - If you see an unfamiliar name that isn't built in, then it's nearly always the result of an import at the top of the file.

### **Modules and Packages**

- Three typical ways to import in Python whatever comes after the keyword import is the name that will be defined in your
  - code.
    - import math This imports everything in the math module under the name math
      - To access any math functions, you would call them using the method notation (e.g., math.sin(0)).
    - from math import sin This imports only the sin function from the math module.
      - To use the sin function, simply call sin(0)
    - from math import \* This imports every function in the math module as its own name.
      - This is considered bad practice, because it's unclear which names have been added by just looking at the import statement.