

CS 345 Project: *polite*

(Python Objective Lite)



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Features



- No declaration needed to use variables!
- Indentations as delimiters
- First class functions
- Lambda expression
- Recursive data structure
 - **Unrestricted level of members**
`a.level11_member.level12_member.level13_member. ...`
- Variables are dynamically bounded, with exceptions of a few built-in functions and constants.

Data types



- Basic types:
 - *object, integer, float, bool, list, tuple, and string*
 - Constants: **None**, **True**, **False**
- Functions as objects

```
def somefunction(v1, v2):
```

```
...
```

```
a = somefunction
```

```
a(1,2)
```

```
def new_method(self, input):
```

```
...
```

```
obj.process = new_method
```

```
obj.process(data)
```

Code Structure

```
def offset_value(offset):  
    def new_function(input):  
        return offset + input  
    return new_function  
  
def map(L, f):  
    c = 0  
    newl = list()  
    while c < len(l):  
        newl.append(f(L.get(c)))  
        c = c + 1  
    return newl
```

```
ls = [ 1, 2, 3, 4,]  
funobj = offset_value(1)  
print ls  
print map(ls, funobj)
```

- Code structure based on python:
 - Indentation defines block
 - Allows operator overloading
 - Reflection
 - Features mostly subset of python (after all, there were only 4 weeks)
- Key additions:
 - Everything is object!
 - Dynamic method parameter passing
 - Calling non-existing member will not result in error *

✓ Some thing that you can do in polite

```
a = 1.__add__(2)  
def new_method(self, that):  
    ...  
a.my_method= new_method  
a.my_method(1)  
a=object().this.and_that
```

* Due to a different view on how object and member interact with each other, details later.

Typing and Data Binding

- Dynamic data binding, variables are not restricted by type even after assignment.

```
a= [] ; a= 'string value'
```

```
# member can be assigned
```

```
# at any time
```

```
a.b = 13
```

```
# output: string value 13
```

```
print a, a.b
```

- Function parameters are checked at runtime. This only be done at runtime, since variables may be assigned a function object that'd accept the call.

```
def function(u, v):
```

```
...
```

```
# not happening.
```

```
function(3, 4, 5)
```

- Interpreter determines at runtime for functions that demands correct variable type

```
a = 1
```

```
b = ""
```

```
b.__add__ = a.__add__
```

```
# statement will fail runtime type
```

```
# checking, cannot add string and
```

```
# integer together without type
```

```
# conversion.
```

```
c = b + 3
```

- Only static checking performed is to ensure that a variable being used must have already been assigned somewhere

```
c = 3 + b # b is undefined yet.
```

```
b = 10
```

Scope: Static Scope/ Global variables

```
x = 1000
def testglobal():
    # uses 'x' defined above, but cannot
    # assign value to 'x'
    print 'outer1: ', x,
    def inner():
        # tells function to refer to 'x'
        # from top level instead
        global x
        print ' inner1: ', x, ' adding 1'
        x = x + 1 # now allows assignment
    return inner

def testglobal2():
    global x
    print 'outer2: ', x,
    def inner():
        # one way street, can refer to
        # variables in testglobal2, but may
        # not modify them. global goes
        # directly to top level
        print ' inner2: ', x
    x = x + 1 # add one to check inner.
    return inner
```

```
a = testglobal(); a()
b = testglobal2(); b()
x = 1002
testglobal()()
testglobal2()()
a()
b()
```

Result:

global x

outer1: 1000	inner1: 1000	adding 1
outer2: 1001	inner2: 1001	
outer1: 1000	inner1: 1002	adding 1
outer2: 1003	inner2: 1003	
inner1: 1004	adding 1	
inner2: 1001		

Parameters Passing

- Similar to how Java handles value passing, parameters are passed by value, which are references to instances.

```
def function(a):  
    a.s = 1    # adding member  
    a = 3      # reassign value  
  
a = 2  
print a, a.s # Output: 2 None  
  
# this adds member to 'a'  
function(a)  
print a, a.s # Output: 2 1
```

- Method call resolves parameter input dynamically. It will use instance as first argument if function is still missing one argument.

```
def function(v):  
    ...  
def function2():  
    ...  
a.f1 = function  
a.f2 = function2  
a.f1()    # use 'a' as input  
  
a.f1(1)   # may also pass in  
          # directly  
  
a.f2()    # normal call
```

First Class Function / Lambda Expression

```
def add_offset(offset):
    # state at time of function
    # object creation is saved
    def new_adder(input):
        # in this case, 'offset' is now
        # a saved state for new_adder
        return offset + input

    return new_adder

def map(l, f):
    # Passing function as parameter
    c = 0
    newl = list()
    while c < len(l):
        # perform value mapping with
        # function given
        newl.append(f(l.get(c)))
        c=c+1
    return newl
```

```
ls = [ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
funobj1 = add_offset(1)
funobj2 = add_offset(10)
```

```
print 'input=',ls
print map(ls, funobj1)
print map(ls, funobj2)
```

```
# lastly, a lambda expression.
print map(ls, @ x: x * 2 > 6)
```

Result:

```
input= [ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 ]
[ 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 ]
[ 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 ]
[ False, False, False, True, True ]
```


Abstract Syntax Tree

Based on the concept of message sending and selector.

3 + 4 actually performs the following:

```
send(3, '__add__')(3, 4)
```

This is the cause why member access `a.b.c` would not cause error. `a.b` evaluates to:

```
send(a, 'b')
```

and would return `None`.

More interesting application (not quite implemented):

```
a_database.(a_query)
```

would send a query to database. Message could be anything!

```
+Statements:
| PRINT:  (\n)
| PRINT:  (\n)
|   LITERAL: string(>>> Syntax tree)
| ASSIGN: a
|   LITERAL: integer(10)
| ASSIGN: b
|   LITERAL: integer(12)
| ASSIGN: c
|   LITERAL: integer(13)
| ASSIGN: d
|   CALL:
|     +functionObj:
|       CALL:
|         +functionObj:
|           | IDENTIFIER: send
|         +paramList:
|           | CALL:
|             +functionObj:
|               CALL:
|                 +functionObj:
|                   | IDENTIFIER: send
|                 +paramList:
|                   | IDENTIFIER: a
|                   | LITERAL: string(__add__)
|                 +paramList:
|                   | IDENTIFIER: b
|                   | LITERAL: string(__add__)
|             +paramList:
|               | IDENTIFIER: c
```

code that the tree
represents!

```
print
print '>>> Syntax tree'
a = 10
b = 12
c = 13
d = a + b + c
```

Operator Overloading, Reflection, and Runtime Type Conversion

```
a = object()  
# checking type of 'a' and its members  
print type(a), dir(a)
```

Result:

```
type:object [ __and__, __eq__, __getattr__, __ne__, __nonzero__, __not__, __or__, __setattr__, __str__ ]
```

```
# adding a new member  
a.new_member=10  
print dir(a)
```

Result:

new member is added and reflected in runtime.

```
[ __and__, __eq__, __getattr__, __ne__, __nonzero__, __not__, __or__, __setattr__, __str__, new_member ]
```

```
def myInt(a):  
    newInt= int(a)  
    def new_add(v1, v2):  
        # add is now a string concatenation  
        result = str(v1) + ' + ' + str(v2)  
        result.__add__ = new_add  
        return result  
    newInt.__add__=new_add  
    return newInt
```

```
a = myInt(1); b = 2; c = 3; d = 4; e =5.5  
print a + b + c * d + e  
# BIT which retrieves default member  
a.__add__=super(a, '__add__')  
# result is a float due to 'e'  
print a + b + c * d + e
```

Result:

```
1 + 2 + 12 + 5.5  
20.5
```

Continuation, Simulating Generator with object



```
def fibonacci(upper_bound):  
    ar = list()                # Using list to calculate fibonacci series  
    ar.counter=0  
    def next(self):            # simulating generator call  
        if upper_bound == self.counter :  
            return False  
        if self.counter < 2:  
            self.append(1)  
        else:  
            self.append(self.get(-1) + self.get(-2))  
        self.yield = self.get(-1) # yield for the value.  
        self.counter = self.counter + 1  
        return True  
  
    ar.has_next = next  
    return ar
```

While not as elegant as yield statement, Python generator under the
cover behaves similar to an iterator, using exception to signal
for termination.

```
fibgen = fibonacci(5)  
while fibgen.has_next():  
    print fibgen.yield,  
print  
print fibgen
```

Each call to `has_next`
yields another fibonacci
number!

1 1 2 3 5 8

[1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8]

Simple Parser Class!

```
def SimpleParser(): # fundef as class def
    obj = object()
    # how about an inner class?
    def Node(value):
        # basically, method definitions
        def print_value(self): print self,
        def in_order(self): ...
        def pre_order(self): ...
        def post_order(self): ...

        # and saving them as actual members
        value.print_value = print_value
        value.in_order = in_order
        value.pre_order = pre_order
        value.post_order = post_order
        return value

    def process_input(self, input):
        ...
    obj.process_input = process_input
    return obj
```

```
input = '3 + 4 + 5 * 6 + 7'
parser = SimpleParser()
print 'input = "' + input + '"'
parser.process_input(input)
parser.head.in_order(); print
parser.head.pre_order(); print
parser.head.post_order(); print
```

- A simple parser that parses arithmetic expression with only numbers, '+', and '*' operators into a binary tree.

- Output

```
input = "3 + 4 + 5 * 6 + 7"
3 + 4 + 5 * 6 + 7
+ + + 3 4 * 5 6 7
3 4 + 5 6 * + 7 +
```

- Perhaps inheritance?

```
def ComplexParser():
    obj = SimpleParser()
    ...
```