

CIS 4210/5210:
ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

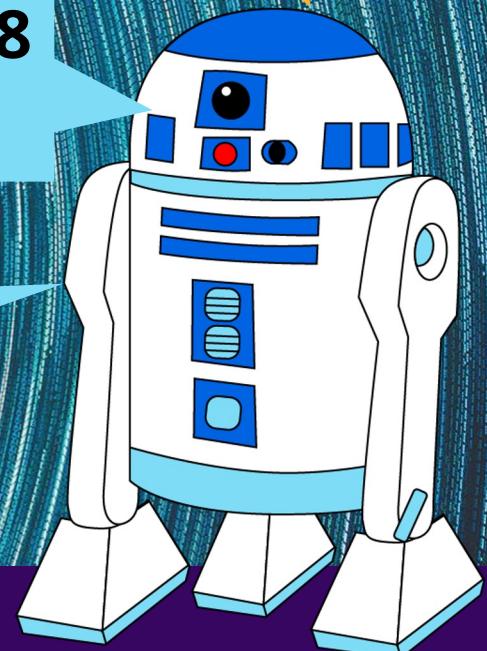
Introduction to Python

Professor Chris Callison-Burch

The final batch of permits will be released on Tuesday Sept 6th. Visit <https://artificial-intelligence-class.org> for waitlist instructions.

The autograder uses Python 3.7, but Python 3.8 or 3.9 should be fine.

pip install masks



Python

- **Developed by Guido van Rossum in 1989**
 - Originally Dutch, in USA since 1995.
 - Benevolent Dictator for Life (now retired)
- **Python inspired by ABC language**
- **Van Rossum submitted a DARPA proposal "Computer Programming for Everybody"**
 - An easy and intuitive language just as powerful as major competitors
 - Open source, so anyone can contribute to its development
 - Code that is as understandable as plain English
 - Suitability for everyday tasks, allowing for short development times
- **Named after the Monty Python comedy group**



Some Positive Features of Python



HUGGING FACE

- **Fast development**
 - Concise, intuitive syntax that is whitespace delimited
 - Garbage collected
- **Portable**
 - Programs run on major platforms without change
- **Various built-in types**
 - lists, dictionaries, sets: useful for AI
- **Large collection of support libraries**
 - NumPy for Matlab like programming
 - Pandas for data analysis
 - Sklearn for machine learning
 - Pytorch and TensorFlow for deep learning



PEP8: Python Style Guide

Introduction

A Foolish Consistency is the Hobgoblin of Little Minds

Code lay-out

- *Indentation*
- *Tabs or Spaces?*
- *Maximum Line Length*
- *Should a line break before or after a binary operator?*
- *Blank Lines*
- *Source File Encoding*
- *Imports*
- *Module level dunder names*

String Quotes

Whitespace in Expressions and Statements

- *Pet Peeves*
- *Other Recommendations*

When to use trailing commas

Comments

- *Block Comments*
- *Inline Comments*
- *Documentation Strings*

Naming Conventions

- *Overriding Principle*

Introduction

This document gives coding conventions for the Python code comprising the standard library in the main Python distribution. Please see the companion informational PEP describing style guidelines for the C code in the C implementation of Python ¹.

This document and [PEP 257](#) (Docstring Conventions) were adapted from Guido's original Python Style Guide essay, with some additions from Barry's style guide ².

This style guide evolves over time as additional conventions are identified and past conventions are rendered obsolete by changes in the language itself.

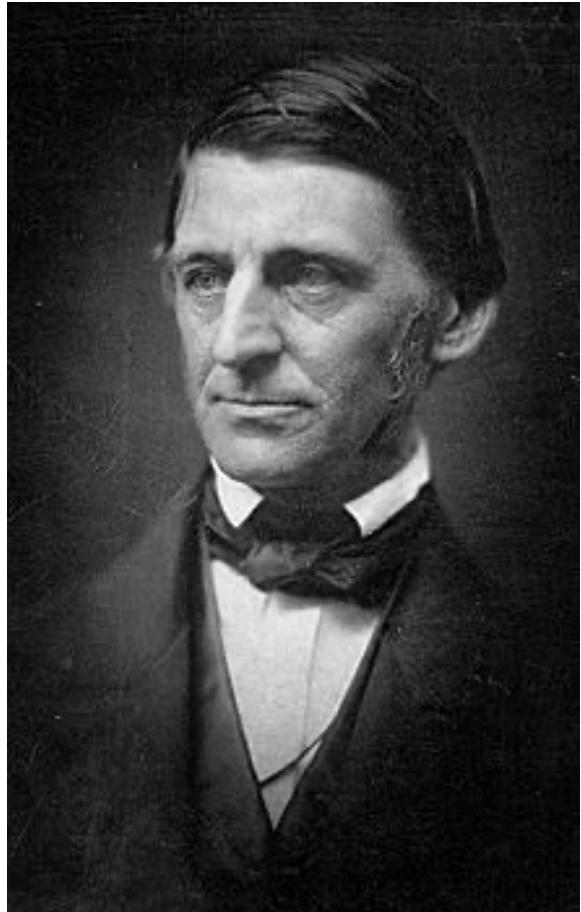
Many projects have their own coding style guidelines. In the event of any conflicts, such project-specific guides take precedence for that project.

A Foolish Consistency is the Hobgoblin of Little Minds

One of Guido's key insights is that code is read much more often than it is written. The guidelines provided here are intended to improve the readability of code and make it consistent across the wide spectrum of Python code. As [PEP 20](#) says, "Readability counts".

A style guide is about consistency. Consistency with this style guide is important.

Ralph Waldo Emerson



"A foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds,
adored by little statesmen and philosophers and divines.
With consistency a great soul has simply nothing to do. He
may as well concern himself with his shadow on the wall.
Speak what you think now in hard words, and tomorrow
speak what tomorrow thinks in hard words again, though it
contradict everything you said today. —'Ah, so you shall be
sure to be misunderstood.'— Is it so bad, then, to be
misunderstood? Pythagoras was misunderstood, and
Socrates, and Jesus, and Luther, and Copernicus, and
Galileo, and Newton, and every pure and wise spirit that
ever took flesh. To be great is to be misunderstood."

Python REPL Environment



- **REPL**

- Read-Evaluate-Print Loop
- Type “python3” in your terminal
- Convenient for testing

The autograder uses
Python 3.7, but Python 3.8
or 3.9 should be fine.

```
cis521x@eniac:~> python3
Python 3.8.9 (default, Apr 13 2022, 08:48:06)
[Clang 13.1.6 (clang-1316.0.21.2.5)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or license for more information.
>>> print('Hello World!')
Hello World!
>>> 'Hello World!'
'Hello World!'
>>> [2*i for i in range(10)]
[0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18]
>>> exit()
cis521x@eniac:~>
```

Python Scripts

- **Scripts**

- Create a file with your favorite text editor (like Sublime)
- Type “python3 script_name.py” at the terminal to run
- Not REPL, so you need to explicitly print
- **Homework submitted as scripts**

```
cis521x@eniac:~> cat foo.py
import random
def rand_fn():
    """outputs list of 10 random floats between [0.0, 1.0]"""
    return [%.2f % random.random() for i in range(10)]

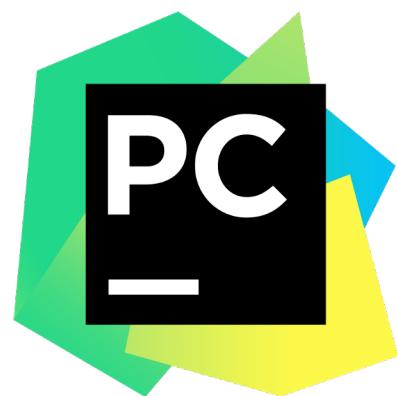
print ('1/2 = ', 1/2)
if __name__ == '__main__':
    rand_fn()
    print(rand_fn())

cis521x@eniac:~> python3 foo.py
1/2 + 0.5
['0.08', '0.10', '0.84', '0.01', '0.00', '0.59', '0.67', '0.88', '0.58', '0.81']
cis521x@eniac:~>
```



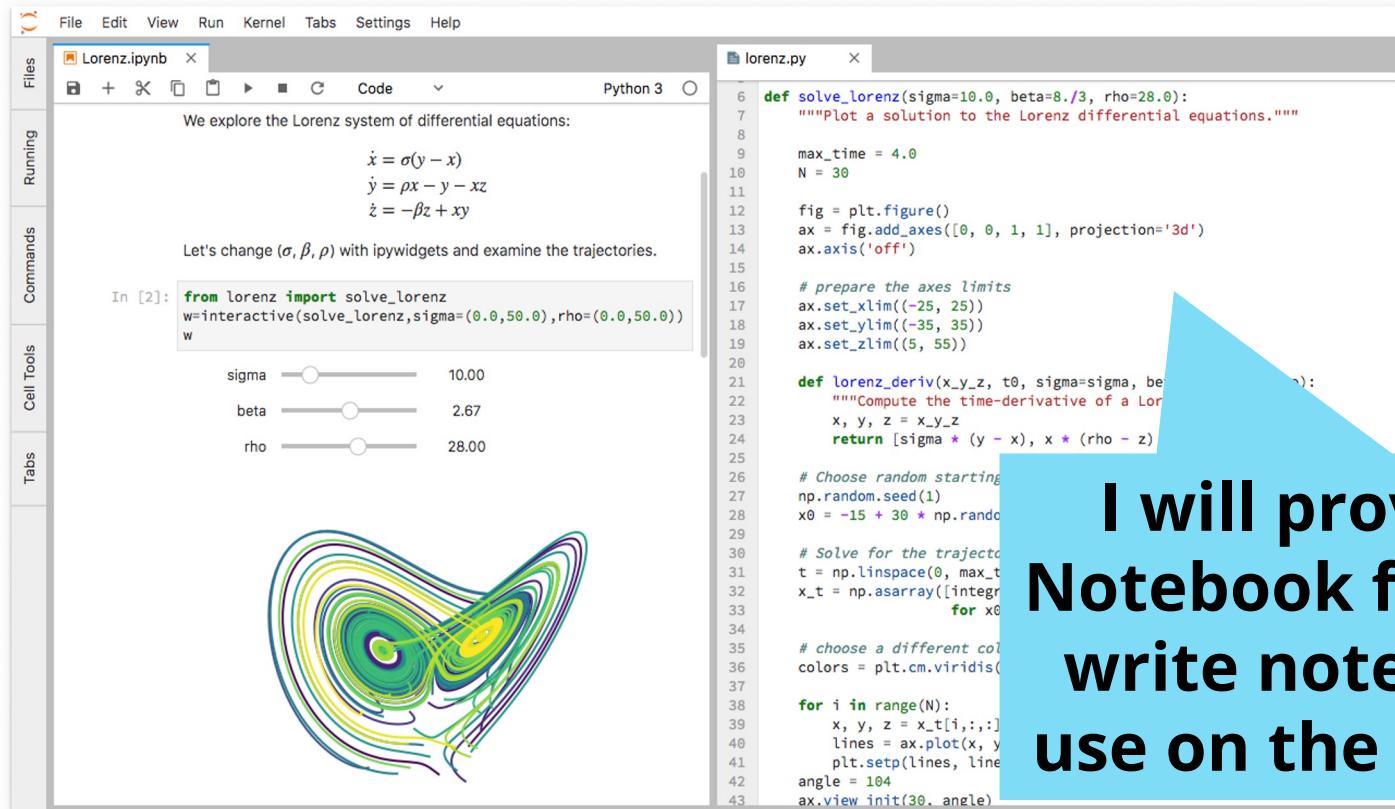
PyCharm IDE

The screenshot displays the PyCharm IDE interface. The top navigation bar shows the project name "djtp_first_steps" and the file "polls/tests.py". The main code editor window contains Python test code for a Django application, specifically for the "polls" app. A search bar at the top of the editor is active, displaying the search term "result". To the right of the editor, a "Database" browser is open, showing the "Django default" database schema with tables like "auth_group", "auth_user", and "django_admin_log". The bottom of the interface features a toolbar with icons for Run, Debug, TODO, Python Console, Terminal, Version Control, and Event Log. A status bar at the very bottom provides build information: "Tests Failed: 4 passed, 3 failed (4 minutes ago)".



Python Notebooks

- Jupyter Notebooks allow you to interactively run Python code in your web browser and share it with others in places like Google Colab
- They are popular for tutorials since you can include inline text and images



The screenshot shows a Jupyter Notebook interface with two cells. The left cell, titled 'Lorenz.ipynb', contains text explaining the Lorenz system and its differential equations:

```
def solve_lorenz(sigma=10.0, beta=8./3, rho=28.0):
    """Plot a solution to the Lorenz differential equations."""

    max_time = 4.0
    N = 30

    fig = plt.figure()
    ax = fig.add_axes([0, 0, 1, 1], projection='3d')
    ax.axis('off')

    # prepare the axes limits
    ax.set_xlim((-25, 25))
    ax.set_ylim((-35, 35))
    ax.set_zlim((5, 55))

    def lorenz_deriv(x_y_z, t0, sigma=sigma, beta=beta, rho=rho):
        """Compute the time-derivative of a Lorenz trajectory's state.
        x, y, z = x_y_z
        return [sigma * (y - x), x * (rho - z) - y, x * y - beta * z]
        """

        # Choose random starting
        np.random.seed(1)
        x0 = -15 + 30 * np.random.rand(3)

        # Solve for the trajectory
        t = np.linspace(0, max_time, N)
        x_t = np.asarray([integrate.odeint(lorenz_deriv, x0, [t0, t]))[1] for x0 in x0])

        # choose a different color
        colors = plt.cm.viridis(t)

        for i in range(N):
            x, y, z = x_t[:, :, i]
            lines = ax.plot(x, y, z, color=colors[i])
            angle = 104
            ax.view_init(30, angle)
```

The right cell, titled 'lorenz.py', contains the corresponding Python code for generating the Lorenz attractor plot:

```
def solve_lorenz(sigma=10.0, beta=8./3, rho=28.0):
    """Plot a solution to the Lorenz differential equations."""

    max_time = 4.0
    N = 30

    fig = plt.figure()
    ax = fig.add_axes([0, 0, 1, 1], projection='3d')
    ax.axis('off')

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    ax.set_xlim((-25, 25))
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    def lorenz_deriv(x_y_z, t0, sigma=sigma, beta=beta, rho=rho):
        """Compute the time-derivative of a Lorenz trajectory's state.
        x, y, z = x_y_z
        return [sigma * (y - x), x * (rho - z) - y, x * y - beta * z]
        """

        # Choose random starting
        np.random.seed(1)
        x0 = -15 + 30 * np.random.rand(3)

        # Solve for the trajectory
        t = np.linspace(0, max_time, N)
        x_t = np.asarray([integrate.odeint(lorenz_deriv, x0, [t0, t]))[1] for x0 in x0])

        # choose a different color
        colors = plt.cm.viridis(t)

        for i in range(N):
            x, y, z = x_t[:, :, i]
            lines = ax.plot(x, y, z, color=colors[i])
            angle = 104
            ax.view_init(30, angle)
```



I will provide a Python Notebook for you to use to write notes that you can use on the midterm exam.

Simple Programs in Java and Python

Java

```
class HelloWorld {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        System.out.println("Hello, World!");  
    }  
}
```

Must be saved in a file named
HelloWorld.java

Python

```
print("Hello World!")
```

Structure of Python File

- **Whitespace is meaningful in Python**
- **Use a newline to end a line of code.**
 - Use \ when must go to next line prematurely.
- **Block structure is indicated by indentation**
 - The first line with less indentation is outside of the block.
 - The first line with more indentation starts a nested block.
 - Often a colon appears at the end of the line of a start of a new block. (E.g. for function and class definitions.)

Conditionals in Java and Python

Java

```
class HelloWorld {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        boolean isPandemicOver = true;  
        System.out.println("Hello, World!");  
        if (isPandemicOver) {  
            System.out.println("Lovely to see  
you!");  
        } else {  
            System.out.println("I miss you!");  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Java delineates code blocks with curly brackets.

Python

```
pandemic_is_over = True  
if pandemic_is_over:  
    print("Hello World! Lovely to see you again!")  
else:  
    print("Hello World! I miss you!")  
pandemic_is_over = False
```

Java delineates a code blocks with a colon and indentation.

Objects and Types

- **All data treated as objects**
 - An object is deleted (by garbage collection) once unreachable.
- **Strong Typing**
 - Every object has a fixed type, interpreter doesn't allow things incompatible with that type (eg. "foo" + 2)
 - `type(object)`
 - `isinstance(object, type)`
- **Examples of Types:**
 - `int, float`
 - `str, tuple, dict, list`
 - `bool: True, False`
 - `None, generator, function`

Static vs Dynamic Typing

- Java: ***static typing***
 - Variables can only refer to objects of a declared type
`int x = 2`
`String y = "foo"`
 - Methods use type signatures to enforce contracts
`public static void main(String[] args)`
- Python: ***dynamic typing***
 - Variables come into existence when first assigned.
`>>> x = "foo"`
`>>> x = 2`
 - `type(var)` automatically determined
 - If assigned again, `type(var)` is updated
 - *Functions have no type signatures*
 - Drawback: type errors are only caught at runtime

Math Basics

- **Literals**
 - Integers: 1, 2
 - Floats: 1.0, 2e9
 - Boolean: True, False
- **Operations**
 - Arithmetic: + - * /
 - Power: **
 - Modulo: %
 - Comparison: , <=, >=, ==, !=
 - Logic: (and, or, not) *not symbols*
- **Assignment Operators**
 - += *= /= &= ...
 - No ++ or --

Strings

- **Creation**
 - Can use either single or double quotes
 - Triple quote for multiline string and docstring
- **Concatenating strings**
 - By separating string literals with whitespace
 - Special use of '+'
- **Prefixing with r means raw.**
 - No need to escape special characters: `r'\n'`
- **String formatting**
 - Special use of '%' (as in printf in C)
 - `print("%s can speak %d languages" % ("C3PO", 6000000))`
- **Immutable**

References and Mutability

```
>>> x = 'foo' 
>>> y = x
>>> x = x.strip() # new obj
>>> x
'foo'
>>> y
'foo'
```

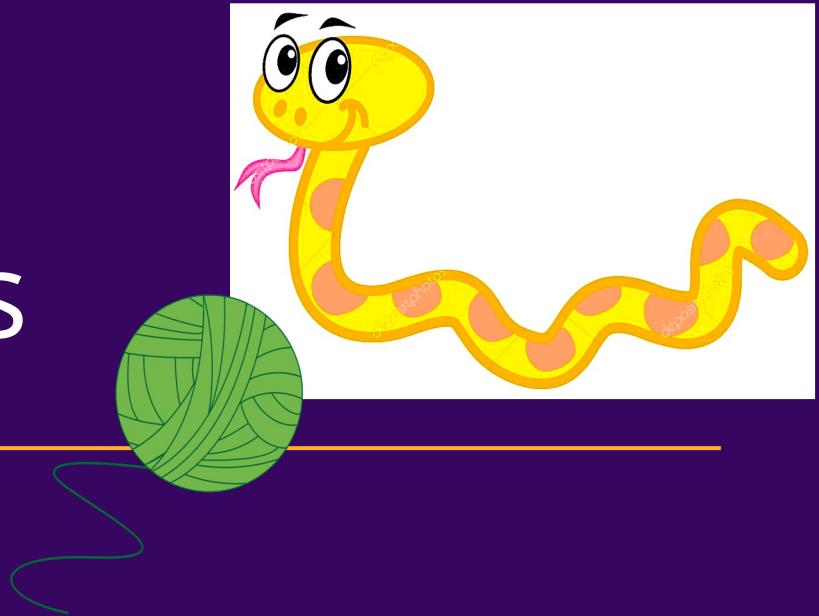
- strings are immutable
- `==` checks whether variables point to objects of the same value
- `is` checks whether variables point to the same object

```
>>> x = [1, 2, 3, 4]
>>> y = x
>>> x.append(5) #same obj
>>> y
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

- ```
>>> x
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```
- lists are mutable
  - use `y = x[:]` to get a (shallow) copy of any sequence, ie. a new object of the same value

# Sequence Types: Tuples, Lists and Strings

---



# Sequence Types

- **Tuple**
  - A simple *immutable* ordered sequence of items
  - *Immutable*: a tuple cannot be modified once created
  - Items can be of mixed types, including collection types
- **Strings**
  - *Immutable*
  - Regular strings are Unicode and use 2-byte characters (Regular strings in Python 2 use 8-bit characters)
- **List**
  - *Mutable* ordered sequence of items of mixed types

# Sequence Types

- The three sequence types share much of the same syntax and functionality.

```
>>> tu = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def') # tuple
```

```
>>> li = ['abc', 34, 4.34, 23] # list
```

```
>>> st = "Hello World"; st = 'Hello World' # strings
```

```
>>> tu[1] # Accessing second item in the tuple.
```

'abc'

```
>>> tu[-3] #negative lookup from right, from -1
```

4.56

# Slicing: Return Copy of a Subsequence

```
>>> t = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')
```

```
>>> t[1:4] #slicing ends before last index
('abc', 4.56, (2,3))
```

```
>>> t[1:-1] #using negative index
('abc', 4.56, (2,3))
```

```
>>> t[1:-1:2] # selection of every nth item.
('abc', (2,3))
```

```
>>> t[:2] # copy from beginning of sequence
(23, 'abc')
```

```
>>> t[2:] # copy to the very end of the sequence
(4.56, (2,3), 'def')
```

# Operations on Lists

```
>>> li = [1, 11, 3, 4, 5]
>>> li.append('a') # Note the method syntax
>>> li
[1, 11, 3, 4, 5, 'a']
>>> li.insert(2, 'i')
>>> li
[1, 11, 'i', 3, 4, 5, 'a']
>>> li = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'b']
>>> li.index('b') # index of first occurrence
1
>>> li.count('b') # number of occurrences
2
>>> li.remove('b') # remove first occurrence
>>> li
['a', 'c', 'b']
```

# Operations on Lists 2

```
>>> li = [5, 2, 6, 8]
>>> li.reverse() # reverse the list *in place* (modify)
>>> li
[8, 6, 2, 5]
```

```
>>> li.sort() # sort the list *in place*
>>> li
[2, 5, 6, 8]
```

```
>>> li.sort(some_function)
sort in place using user-defined comparison
```

```
>>> sorted(li) #return a *copy* sorted
```

# Operations on Strings

```
>>> s = "Pretend this sentence makes sense."
>>> words = s.split(" ")
>>> words
['Pretend', 'this', 'sentence', 'makes', 'sense.'][
>>> "_" .join(words) #join method of obj "_"
'Pretend_this_sentence_makes_sense.'
```

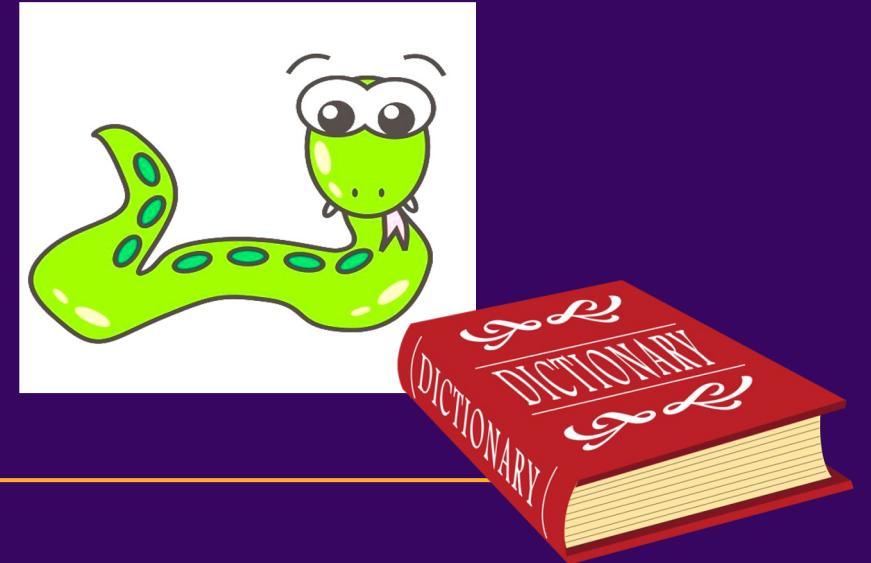
```
>>> s = 'dog'
>>> s.capitalize()
'Dog'
>>> s.upper()
'DOG'
>>> ' hi -- ' .strip(' -')
'hi'
```

<https://docs.python.org/3.7/library/string.html>

# Dictionaries:

A *mapping* collection type

---



# Dict: Create, Access, Update

- Dictionaries are unordered & work by hashing, so keys must be immutable
- Constant average time add, lookup, update

```
>>> d = { 'user' : 'R2D2' , 'pswd' : 1234}
```

```
>>> d['user']
```

'R2D2'

```
>>> d['R2D2']
```

**Traceback (most recent call last):**

**File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>**

**KeyError: 'R2D2'**

```
>>> d['pswd'] = 'thx1138' # Assigning to an existing key replaces
its value.
```

```
>>> d
```

{'user': 'R2D2', 'pswd': 'thx1138'}

# Dict: Useful Methods

```
>>> d = { 'user': 'R2D2', 'p':1234, 'i':34}
>>> d.keys() # List of current keys
dict_keys(['user', 'p', 'i'])
```

```
>>> d.values() # List of current values.
dict_values(['R2D2', 1234, 34])
```

```
>>> d.items() # List of item tuples.
dict_items([('user', 'R2D2'), ('p', 1234), ('i', 34)])
```

# Default Dictionaries and Counters

- `defaultdict` automatically initializes nonexistent dictionary values

```
from collections import defaultdict
d = defaultdict(str)
d['a']
"""

from collections import Counter
d = Counter()
d['a']
0
d['dog'] += 10
d['dog']
10
```

# Functions

---

$f(x)$



# Defining Functions

Function definition begins with **def**.

```
def get_final_answer(filename):
 """Documentation String"""
 line1
 line2
 return total_counter
```

Function name and its arguments.

The first line with less  
indentation is outside of the  
function definition.

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

**No declaration of types of arguments or result.**

# Multiple Return Values

- In Java, the only way to have a function return multiple values is using an Object that you design for the purpose.
- Python allows you to return multiple values like this:

```
def describe_data(data):
 mean = ...
 median = ...
 mode = ...
 return mean, median, mode
```

- The return type is a **tuple**

# No Function Overloading

- Java differentiates methods by their signature, which includes the method name and the types of its argument.
  - Java class classes can have multiple methods with the same name
    - add(int, int)
    - add(int, int, int)
    - add(float, float)
- Python doesn't allow function overloading like Java does
  - Unlike Java, a Python function is specified by its name alone
  - Two different functions can't have the same name, even if they have different numbers, order, or names of arguments
- But **operator** overloading (overloading +, ==, -, etc.) is possible using special methods on when you implement a class

# Default Values for Arguments

- You can provide default values for a function's arguments
- These arguments are optional when the function is called

```
>>> def myfun(b, c=3, d="hello"):
 return b + c
```

```
>>> myfun(5, 3, "bob")
```

```
8
```

```
>>> myfun(5, 3)
```

```
8
```

```
>>> myfun(5)
```

```
8
```

- Non-default argument should always precede default arguments; otherwise, it reports **SyntaxError**

# Keyword Arguments

- Functions can be called with arguments out of order
- These arguments are specified in the call
- Keyword arguments can be used after all other arguments.

```
>>> def myfun(a, b, c):
 return a - b
```

```
>>> myfun(2, 1, 43) # 1
>>> myfun(c=43, b=1, a=2) # 1
>>> myfun(2, c=43, b=1) # 1
>>> myfun(a=2, b=3, 5)
File "<stdin>", line 1
```

SyntaxError: positional argument follows keyword argument

# \*args



- Suppose you want to accept a variable number of **non-keyword** arguments to your function.

```
def print_everything(*args):
 """args is a tuple of arguments passed to the fn"""
 print(args)

print_everything('a', 'b', 'c')
('a', 'b', 'c')

lst = ['a', 'b', 'c']
print_everything(*lst)
('a', 'b', 'c')
```

# \*\*kwargs



- Suppose you want to accept a variable number of **keyword** arguments to your function.

```
def print_keyword_args(**kwargs):
 # kwargs is a dict of the keyword args passed to the fn
 print(kwargs)

print_keyword_args(first_name="John", last_name="Doe")
{'first_name': 'John', 'last_name': 'Doe'}

my_dict = {'first_name': 'Wei', 'last_name': 'Xu'}
print_keyword_args(**my_dict)
{'first_name': 'Wei', 'last_name': 'Xu'}
```

# \*args and \*\*kwargs

```
def myfun(positional, *args, **kwargs):
 print(positional)
 if args:
 print(args)
 if kwargs:
 print(kwargs)
```

```
myfun("hello", 1, 2, 3, a="hi", b="bye", c="ciao")
```

```
hello
```

```
(1, 2, 3)
```

```
{'a': 'hi', 'b': 'bye', 'c': 'ciao'}
```

```
myfun("hi", "the", "best", "food", "is", "tacos", shell="soft", meat="beef")
```

```
hi
```

```
('the', 'best', 'food', 'is', 'tacos')
```

```
{'shell': 'soft', 'meat': 'beef'}
```

# Python uses dynamic scope

- Function sees the most current value of variables

```
i = 10
def add(x):
 return x + i
add(5)
15
```

```
i = 20
add(5)
25
```

# Default Arguments & Memoization

- *Default parameter values are evaluated only when the def statement they belong to is first executed.*
- The function uses the same default object each call

```
def fib(n, fibs={}):
 if n in fibs:
 print('n = %d exists' % n)
 return fibs[n]
 if n <= 1:
 fibs[n] = n # Changes fibs!!
 else:
 fibs[n] = fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
 return fibs[n]
```

```
fib(3)
n = 1 exists
2
```

# Functions are “first-class” objects

- First class object
  - An entity that can be dynamically created, destroyed, passed to a function, returned as a value, and have all the rights as other variables in the programming language have
- Functions are “first-class citizens”
  - Pass functions as arguments to other functions
  - Return functions as the values from other functions
  - Assign functions to variables or store them in data structures
- Higher order functions: take functions as input

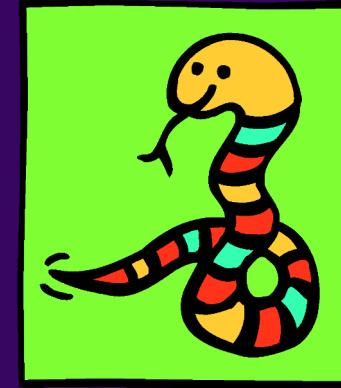
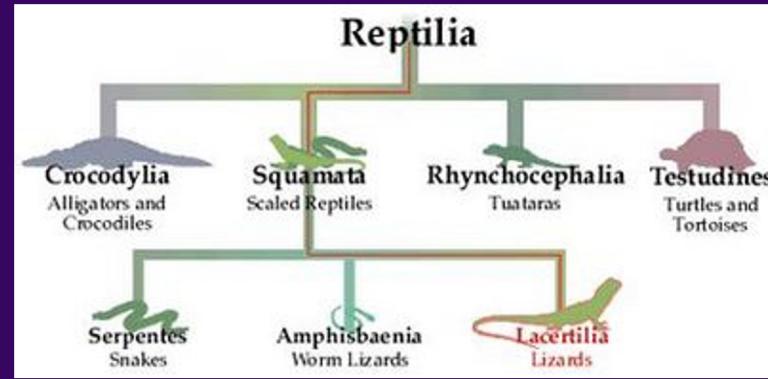
```
def compose(f, g, x):
 return f(g(x))
```

```
compose(str, sum, [1, 2, 3])
```

'6'

# Classes and Inheritance

---



# Creating a class

```
class Student:
 univ = "upenn" # class attribute
 def __init__(self, name, dept):
 self.student_name = name
 self.student_dept = dept
 def print_details(self):
 print("Name: " + self.student_name)
 print("Dept: " + self.student_dept)
```

Called when an object  
is instantiated

Every method begins  
with the variable **self**

Another member  
method

Creating an instance,  
note no **self**

```
student1 = Student("julie","cis")
```

```
student1.print_details()
```

```
Student.print_details(student1)
```

Calling methods of an  
object

# Subclasses

- A class can *extend* the definition of another class
  - Allows use (or extension) of methods and attributes already defined in the previous one.
  - New class: *subclass*. Original: *parent*, *ancestor* or *superclass*
- To define a subclass, put the name of the superclass in parentheses after the subclass's name on the first line of the definition.

```
class AI_Student(Student):
 fav_class = "CIS 5210"
```

- Python has no 'extends' keyword like Java.
- Multiple inheritance is supported.

# Constructors: `__init__`

- Very similar to Java
- Commonly, the ancestor's `__init__` method is executed in addition to new commands
- *Must be done explicitly*
- You'll often see something like this in the `__init__` method of subclasses:  
`parentClass.__init__(self, x, y)`

where `parentClass` is the name of the parent's class

```
class AI_Student(Student):
 def __init__(self, name, dept):
 Student.__init__(self, name, dept)
```

# Redefining Methods

- Very similar to over-riding methods in Java
- To *redefine a method* of the parent class, include a new definition using the same name in the subclass.
  - The old code in the parent class won't get executed.
- To execute the method in the parent class *in addition to* new code for some method, explicitly call the parent's version of the method.

`parentClass.methodName(self, a, b, c)`

- **The only time you ever explicitly pass self as an argument is when calling a method of an ancestor.**

So use `myOwnSubClass.methodName(a,b,c)`

# Multiple Inheritance can be tricky

```
class A(object):
 def foo(self):
 print('Foo!')
class B(object):
 def foo(self):
 print('Foo?')
 def bar(self):
 print('Bar!')
class C(A, B):
 def foobar(self):
 super().foo() # Foo!
 super().bar() # Bar!
```

# Magic Methods and Duck Typing

---



# Magic Methods

```
class Student:
 def __init__(self, full_name, age):
 self.full_name = full_name
 self.age = age
 def __str__():
 return "I'm named "+ self.full_name + " - age: " +str(self.age)

s = Student("Wei Xu", 23)
print(s)
I'm named Wei Xu - age: 23
```

# Other “Magic” Methods

- *Magic Methods* allow user-defined classes to behave like built in types
- You can implement operator overloading with magic methods
  - operators trigger a magic method, defined in a class

`__init__`: The constructor for the class.

`__len__`: Define how `len( obj )` works.

`__copy__`: Define how to copy a class.

`__cmp__`: Define how `==` works for class.

`__add__`: Define how `+` works for class

`__neg__`: Define how unary negation works for class

- Other built-in methods allow you to give a class the ability to use [ ] notation like an array or ( ) notation like a function call.

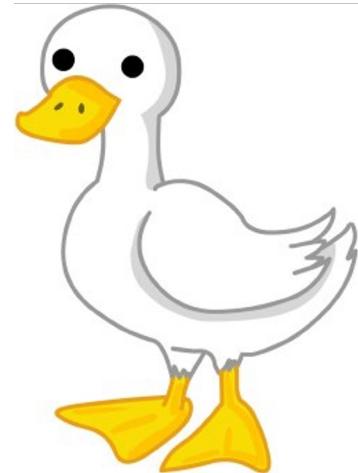
# Python's main method is `_main_`

- In addition to magic methods, Python also has special variables.
- One is `_name_` that is used with Python scripts.
- `_name_` is a built-in variable which evaluates to the name of the current module (for instance, the name of the Python script).
- The interpreter sets the `_name_` variable to have a value "`_main_`" for the source file that is being executed on the command line.
- Python doesn't have a built-in main method, so there is no `def main()`.
- Instead, it uses this syntax to define a main method:

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
 # code block to be executed
```

# Duck Typing

- We can call the Python function `len()` on any class that implements `__len__`. We don't need to implement a specific interface like we would need to do in Java.
- *Duck typing* establishes suitability of an object by determining presence of methods
  - Does it swim like a duck and quack like a duck? It's a duck
  - Not to be confused with 'rubber duck debugging'



# Duck Typing

```
class Duck:
 def fly(self):
 print("Duck flying")

class Airplane:
 def fly(self):
 print("Airplane flying")

class Whale:
 def swim(self):
 print("Whale swimming")

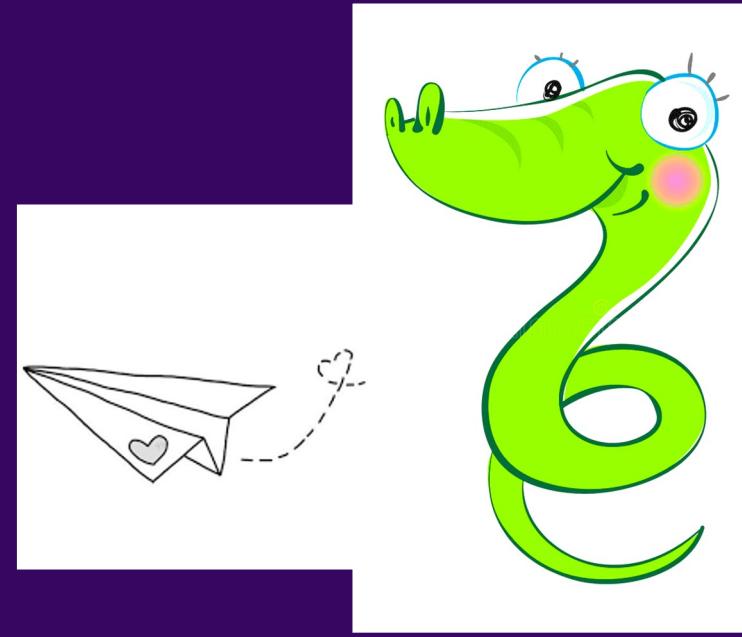
def lift_off(entity)
 entity.fly()
```

```
duck = Duck()
plane = Airplane()
whale = Whale()

lift_off(duck)
Duck flying
lift_off(plane)
Airplane flying
lift_off(whale)
AttributeError: 'Whale' object
has no attribute 'fly'
```

# For Loops

---



# For Loops

- **for <item> in <collection>:**  
    **<statements>**
- If you've got an existing list, this iterates each item in it.
- You can generate a list with **Range**:
  - `list(range(5))` returns [0,1,2,3,4]
  - So we can say:  
`for x in range(5):`  
    `print(x)`
- **<item> can be more complex than a single variable name.**
  - `for (x, y) in [('a',1), ('b',2), ('c',3), ('d',4)]:`
  - `print(x)`

[ [expression](#) for [name](#) in [list](#) ]

# List Comprehensions replace loops!

```
nums = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
I want 'n*n' for each 'n' in nums
squares = []
for n in nums:
 squares.append(x*x)
print(squares)
```

```
squares = [x*x for x in nums]
print(squares)
```

[ [expression](#) for [name](#) in [list](#) ]

# List Comprehensions replace loops!

```
li = [3, 6, 2, 7]
[elem * 2 for elem in li]
[6, 12, 4, 14]
```

```
li = [('a', 1), ('b', 2), ('c', 7)]
[n * 3 for (x, n) in li]
[3, 6, 21]
```

# Filtered List Comprehensions

```
li = [3, 6, 2, 7, 1, 9]
[elem * 2 for elem in li if elem > 4]
[12, 14, 18]
```

- Only 6, 7, and 9 satisfy the filter condition.
- So, only 12, 14, and 18 are produced.

# Dictionary, Set Comprehensions

```
lst1 = [('a', 1), ('b', 2), ('c', 'hi')]
```

```
lst2 = ['x', 'a', 6]
```

```
d = { k: v for k,v in lst1 }
```

```
s = { x for x in lst2 }
```

```
d = dict() # translation
```

```
for k, v in lst1:
```

```
 d[k] = vs = set() # translation
```

```
for x in lst:
```

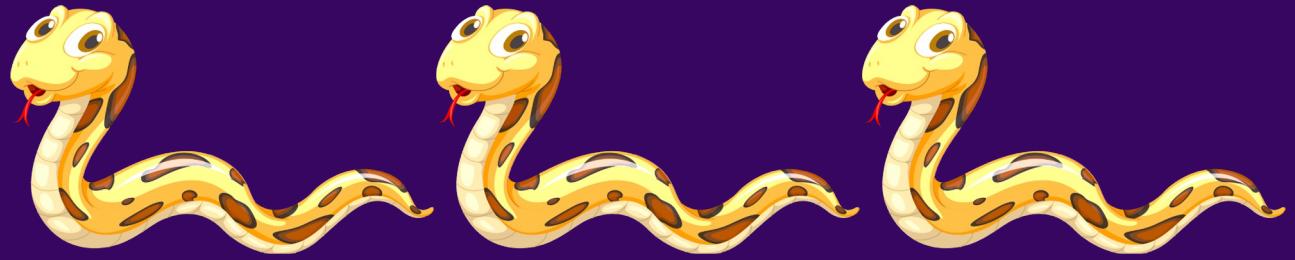
```
 s.add(x)
```

```
Both value of d: {'a': 1, 'b': 2, 'c': 'hi'}
```

```
Both value of d: {'x', 'a', 6}
```

# Iterators

---



# Iterator Objects

- Iterable objects can be used in a `for` loop because they have an `__iter__` magic method, which converts them to iterator objects:

```
>>> k = [1, 2, 3]
```

```
>>> k.__iter__()
<list_iterator object at 0x104f8ca50>
```

```
>>> iter(k)
<list_iterator object at 0x104f8ca10>
```

# Iterators

- Iterators are objects with a `__next__()` method:

```
>>> i = iter(k)
>>> next(i)
1
>>> i.__next__()
2
>>> i.next()
3
>>> i.next()
```

Traceback (most recent call last):

File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>

`StopIteration`

- Python iterators do not have a `hasnext()` method!
- Just catch the `StopIteration` exception

# Iterators: The truth about for... in...

- `for <item> in <iterable>:`  
    `<statements>`
- **First line is just syntactic sugar for:**
  - 1. Initialize: Call `<iterable>.__iter__()` to create an *iterator*
- Each iteration:
  - 2. Call `iterator.__next__()` and bind `<item>`
  - 2a. Catch `StopIteration` exceptions
- **To be iterable: has `__iter__` method**
  - which returns an iterator obj
- **To be iterator: has `__next__` method**
  - which throws `StopIteration` when done

# An Iterator Class

```
class Reverse:
 "Iterator for looping over a sequence backwards"
 def __init__(self, data):
 self.data = data
 self.index = len(data)
 def __next__(self):
 if self.index == 0:
 raise StopIteration
 self.index = self.index - 1
 return self.data[self.index]
 def __iter__(self):
 return self
for char in Reverse('spam'):
 print(char)
```

m  
a  
p  
s

# Iterators use memory efficiently

Eg: File Objects

```
>>> for line in open("script.py"): # returns iterator
... print(line.upper())
...
```

IMPORT SYS

PRINT(SYS.PATH)

X = 2

PRINT(2 \*\* 3)

instead of

```
>>> for line in open("script.py").readlines(): #returns list
```

```
... print(line.upper())
```

```
...
```

# Generators

---



# Generators: using `yield`

- Generators are iterators (with `__next__` method)
- Creating Generators: `yield`
  - Functions that contain the `yield` keyword **automatically** return a generator when called

```
>>> def f(n):
... yield n
... yield n+1

...
>>>
>>> type(f)
<class 'function'>
>>> type(f(5))
<class 'generator'>
>>> [i for i in f(6)]
[6, 7]
```

# Generators: What does `yield` do?

- Each time we call the `__next__` method of the generator, the method runs until it encounters a `yield` statement, and then it stops and returns the value that was yielded. Next time, it resumes where it left off.

```
>>> gen = f(5) # no need to say f(5).__iter__()
```

```
>>> gen
```

```
<generator object f at 0x1008cc9b0>
```

```
>>> gen.__next__()
```

```
5
```

```
>>> next(gen)
```

```
6
```

```
>>> gen.__next__()
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

```
 File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
```

```
StopIteration
```

# Generators

- Benefits of using generators
  - Less code than writing a standard iterator
  - Maintains local state automatically
  - Values are computed one at a time, as they're needed
  - Avoids storing the entire sequence in memory
  - Good for aggregating (summing, counting) items. One pass.
  - Crucial for infinite sequences
  - Bad if you need to inspect the individual values

# Using generators: merging sequences

- Problem: merge two sorted lists, using the output as a stream (i.e. not storing it).

```
def merge(l, r):
 llen = len(l)
 rlen = len(r)
 i = 0
 j = 0
 while i < llen or j < rlen:
 if j == rlen or (i < llen and l[i] < r[j]):
 yield l[i]
 i += 1
 else:
 yield r[j]
 j += 1
```

# Using generators

```
g = merge([2,4], [1, 3, 5]) #g is an iterator
while True:
 print(g.__next__())
```

```
1
2
3
4
5
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
 File "<stdin>", line 2, in <module>
StopIteration
```

```
[x for x in merge([1,3,5],[2,4])]
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

# Generators and exceptions

```
g = merge([2,4], [1, 3, 5])
```

```
while True:
```

```
 try:
```

```
 print(g.__next__())
```

```
 except StopIteration:
```

```
 print('Done')
```

```
 break
```

```
1
```

```
2
```

```
3
```

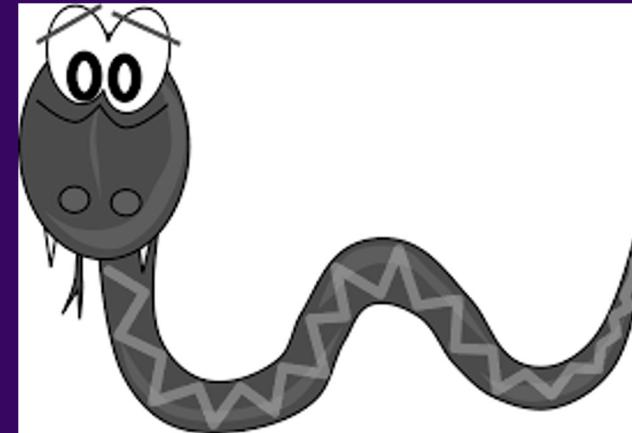
```
4
```

```
5
```

```
Done
```

# Imports

---



# Import Modules and Files

```
import math
math.sqrt(9)
3.0
```

```
from math import sqrt
sqrt(9)
```

```
Not as good to do this:
from math import *
sqrt(9) # unclear where function defined

create alias or nickname
import numpy as np
```

# Import Modules and Files

**Hint:** Super useful for search algorithms

```
import queue as Q
q = Q.PriorityQueue()
q.put(10)
q.put(1)
q.put(5)
while not q.empty():
 print(q.get())
1
5
10
```

```
import queue as Q
q = Q.PriorityQueue()
q.put((10, "Prepare to die."))
q.put((1, "Hello,"))
q.put((5, "Diego Montoya."))
q.put((2, "My name is"))
while not q.empty():
 print(q.get()[1])
Hello,
My name is
Diego Montoya.
Prepare to die.
```

# Import Modules and Files

```
homework1.py

def concatenate(seqs):
 return [seq for seq in seqs] # This is wrong
```

```
run python interactive interpreter (REPL) in directory of homework1.py
```

```
>>> import homework1
>>> assert homework1.concatenate([[1, 2], [3, 4]]) == \
 [1, 2, 3, 4]
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
 File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
```

```
AssertionError
```

```
>>> import importlib #after fixing homework1
>>> importlib.reload(homework1)
```

Tip: **importlib** is useful  
for reloading code from  
a file.

# Import and pip

- **pip** is the the Package Installer for Python
- It allows you to install a huge range of external libraries that have been packaged up and that are listed in the Python Package Index
- You run it from the command line:
  - `pip install package_name`
- In Google Colab, you can run command line arguments in the Python notebook by prefacing the commands with !:
  - `!pip install nltk`

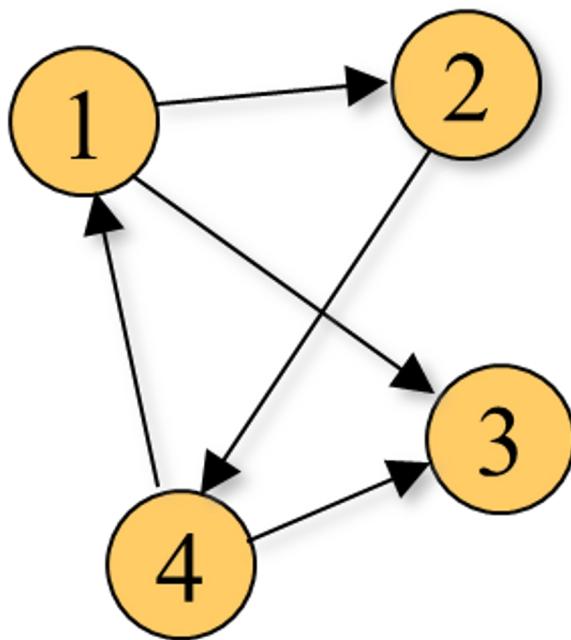
Tip: if you get a  
**ModuleNotFoundError**, try  
running **pip install module**

# A worked example

---

# A directed graph class

```
d = DiGraph([(1,2),(1,3),(2,4),(4,3),(4,1)])
```



Create a digraph using tuples to represent directed edges between two nodes in the graph

# The DiGraph constructor

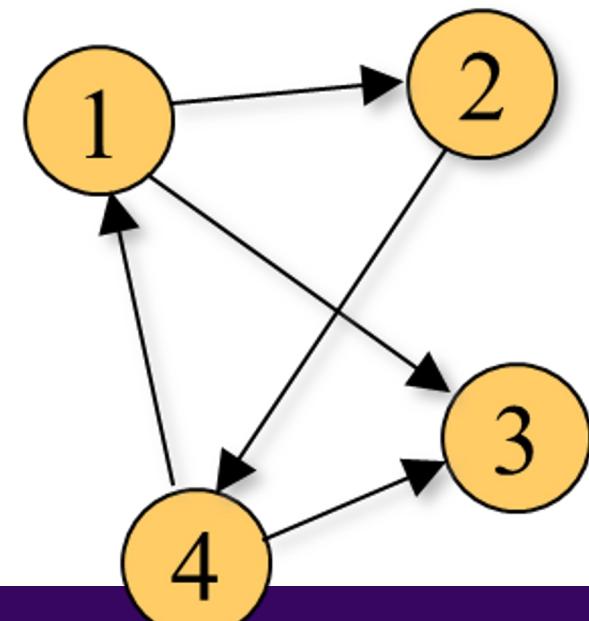
```
class DiGraph:
 def __init__(self, edges):
 self.adj = {}
 for u, v in edges:
 if u not in self.adj:
 self.adj[u] = [v]
 else:
 self.adj[u].append(v)

d = DiGraph([(1,2),(1,3),(2,4),(4,3),(4,1)])
print(d.adj)
{1: [2, 3], 2: [4], 4: [3, 1]}
```

Define a class

Dictionary stores nodes as keys, value are a list of its connections

Iterate over a list



# String magic method

```
class DiGraph:
 def __str__(self):
 return '\n'.join(['%s -> %s' % (u,v) \
 for u in self.adj \
 for v in self.adj[u]]))
```

Define the magic method

List Comprehension

```
d = DiGraph([(1,2),(1,3),(2,4),(4,3),(4,1)])
```

```
print(d)
```

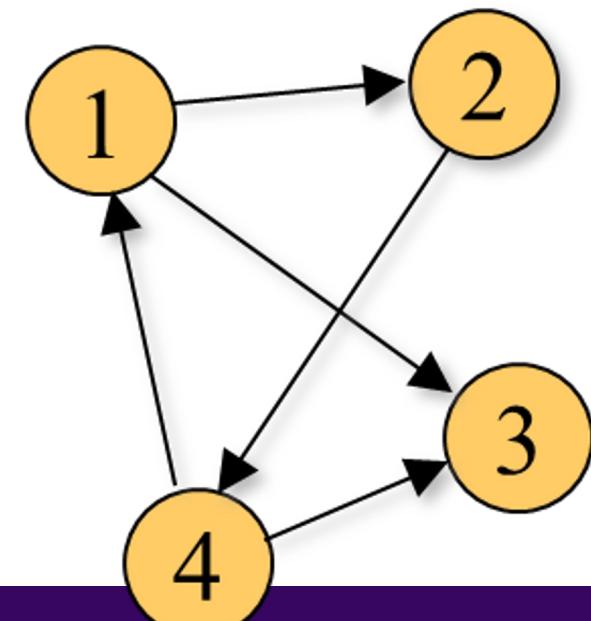
```
1 -> 2
```

```
1 -> 3
```

```
2 -> 4
```

```
4 -> 3
```

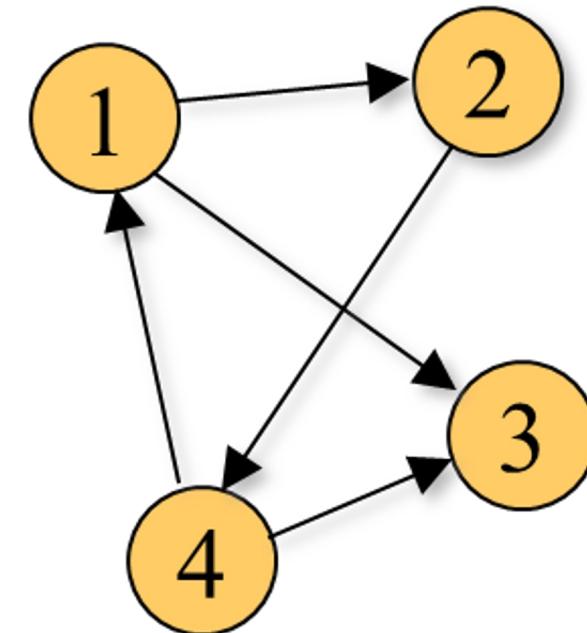
```
4 -> 1
```



# Searching a directed graph

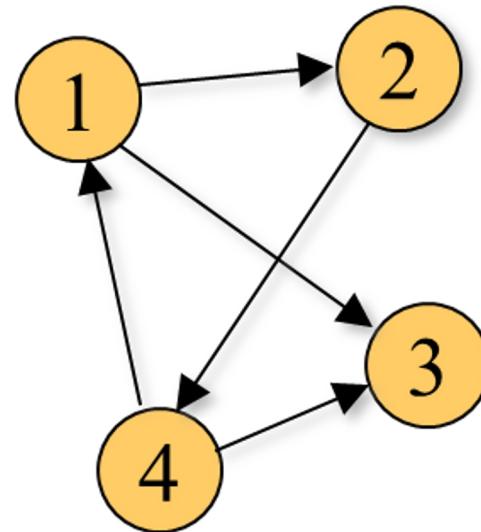
Write a **search** function that takes in a starting node and explores all of nodes that can be reached from that node via directed edges.

- Follow each arc from tail to head
- Don't expand any node more than once
- Return an iterator over nodes that can be reached
- Use a generator in case the graph is large



# The search function

```
class DiGraph:
 def search(self, u, visited):
 # If we haven't visited this node...
 if u not in visited:
 yield u # yield it
 visited.add(u) # and remember we've visited it now.
 # Then, if there are any adjacent nodes...
 if u in self.adj:
 for v in self.adj[u]: # for each adjacent node...
 # search for all nodes reachable from *it*...
 for w in self.search(v, visited):
 # and yield each one.
 yield w
```



Use a generator

# Searching a directed graph

```
d = DiGraph([(1,2),(1,3),(2,4),(4,3),(4,1)])
```

```
[v for v in d.search(1, set())]
```

```
[1, 2, 4, 3]
```

```
[v for v in d.search(4, set())]
```

```
[4, 3, 1, 2]
```

```
[v for v in d.search(2, set())]
```

```
[2, 4, 3, 1]
```

```
[v for v in d.search(3, set())]
```

```
[3]
```

