Working with Python

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On this page

## Intro

Python is an interpreted language. Developer does not assign data types to variables at the time of coding, i.e. it automatically gets assigned during execution. Everything in Python is considered as an object (it has an ID, a type, and a value), even functions.

All Python objects and data structures are located in a private heap and the programmer does not have access to it. The Python interpreter takes care of this instead. The allocation of heap space for objects is done by Python’s memory manager. Python also has an inbuilt garbage collector, which recycles all the unused memory and so it can be made available to the heap space.

Modules vs packages vs libraries. A Python module can be simple Python file, i.e. a combination of numerous functions and global variables. A Python package is a collection of different Python modules (like a directory of modules). Python libraries are a collection of Python packages.

Functions in Python are „first class citizens“. This means that they support operations such as being passed as an argument, returned from a function, modified and assigned to a variable. For arguments, we use \* args when we aren’t sure how many arguments are going to be passed, or if we want to pass a stored list or tuple of arguments to a function. Also, \*\* kwargs is used when we don’t know how many keyword arguments will be passed to a function, or it can be used to pass the values of a dictionary as keyword arguments. The identifiers are conventional, you could also use \* bob and \*\* billy. A function produces a „side effect“ if it does anything other than take a value in and return another value/s. For egz., it could be writing to a file, modifying some global variable.. Sometimes you need to have side effects in a program and in these cases you should centralize and indicate where you are incorporating side effect with *global* keyword near the targeted variable.

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| Tip |
| When writing a function, it is recommended to put description in “““ “““, so when you later type: “?“ you get that same description of a function. |

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| Tip |
| For cleaner code, function needs to do only what is described in its name. |

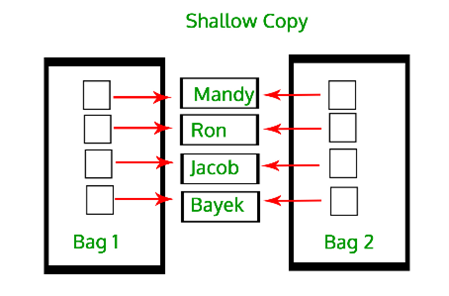
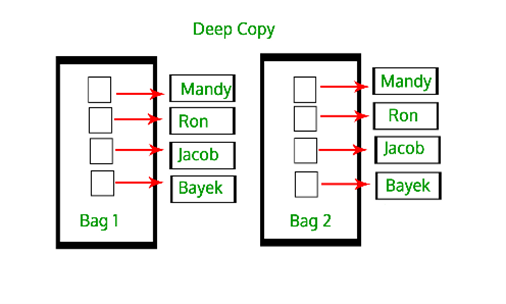
* *locals()* and *globals()* functions write out all local and global variables inside the function they are called.
* **Namespace** is a collection of currently defined symbolic names along with information about the object that each name references. An assignment statement creates a symbolic name that you can use to reference an object. The statement x=‘foo’, creates a symbolic name x that refers to the string object ‘foo’. It is a naming system used to make sure that names are unique to avoid naming conflicts. There are four types of namespaces with differing lifetimes: built-in, global, enclosing, local.
* Little more on the local and enclosing namespaces. The interpreter creates a new namespace whenever a function executes. That namespace is local to the function and remains in existence until the function terminates. When there is function defined inside other function, outer function is called enclosing function, and inner is called enclosed function. So, the namespace created for enclosing function is called enclosing namespace.
* **Built-in types:** integers, floating-point, complex numbers, strings, boolean, built-in functions
* **A literal** represents a fixed value for primitive data types. There are 5 types of literals in Python: string, numeric, boolean, literal collections (list compreh., tuple, dict, set, None).

Iterable, ordered, mutable and hashable (and their opposites) are characteristics for describing Python objects or data types.

* List, tuples, dicts and sets are all **iterable objects**. They are iterable containers which you can get an iterator from. All these objects have iter() method which is used to get an iterator.
* **Ordered vs unordered:** in unordered types you don’t have direct access to elements (sets, frozensets, ..)
* **Frozen set** is immutable type of set. Set is a mutable data type since we can modify it by adding or removing items from it.
* **Imutable and mutable:** id and type of an object never changes, but value can either change or not. Mutables are: lists, arrays, sets and dictionaries. Immutables are: numeric data types (integers, and other built-in numeric data such as booleans, floats, complex numbers, fractions and decimals), strings, bytes, frozen sets and tuples.
* **Hashable** is a feature of Python objects that tells if the object has a hash value or not. Hash value is a numeric value of fixed length that uniquely identifies data. If the object has a hash value then it can be used as a key for dictionary or as an element in a set. An object is hashable if it has a hash value that does not change during its entire lifetime. Almost all immutable objects are hashable, i.e. all built-in types has a hash method. Unhashable are: dict, list and set.

Some differences betwen:

1. Tuples and lists:
   1. Tuples are immutable, lists aren’t
   2. Tuples are faster and they consume less memory
   3. Tuples don’t consist of any built-in functions
2. Lists and arrays:
   1. Unlike lists, arrays can only hold a single datatype
   2. Both of them have the same way of storing data
   3. Lists are recommended to use for shorter sequence
   4. For printing, lists can be printed entirely, but arrays need to loop to be defined to print or access the components
3. Lists and numpy arrays:
   1. Lists support insertion, deletion, appending and concatenation, but don’t support vectorized operations like numpy arrays
   2. List comprehensions make them easy to construct
   3. Numpy arrays are faster
   4. The fact that lists can contain objects of different types mean that Python must store type information for every element

* **Shallow vs deep copy**. In Python, assignment statements do not copy objects, they create bindings between a target and an object. When we use the = operator, it only cretes a new variable that shares the reference of the original object. So, if you edit the new list, changes will be reflected on the original list.
* In order to create „real copies“ or „clones“ of these objects, we can use the copy module. A shallow copy creates a new compound object (object that contain other objects, like lists or class instances) and elements in the new object are referenced to the original elements. Changes made in any member of the class will also affect the original copy of it. But, since it creates a new object, changes like adding or removing items won’t affect the original list, i.e. new list has its own pointer, but its elements don’t. In the case of deep copy, a copy of the object is copied into another object. It means that any changes made to a copy of the object do not reflect in the original object. Copy() returns a shallow copy of the list (list[:] also works), and deepcopy() returns the deep copy.
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* **Lambda=annonymous function.** It is similar to the inline function in c programming. It returns a function object and can also be used in the place of a variable.
* **Ternary operator** is one-line version of the if-else statement to test a condition
* **pass statement** is used as a placeholder for future code.
* **assert statement** allows you to test if certain assumptions remain true while you are developing your code. Assertions are a convenient tool for documenting, debugging and testing code during development. With assertions, you can set checks to make sure that invariants within your code stay invariant. By doing so, you can check assumptions like preconditions and postconditions.
* **Pickle module** accepts any Python object and converts it into a string representation and dumps it into a file by using dump function. This process is called pickling. While the process of retrieving original Python objects from the stored string representation is called unpickling.

### Handling exceptions

* **Exception vs error:** errors cannot be handled, while exceptions can be catched at the run time. The error indicates a problem that mainly occurs due to the lack of system resources while Exceptions are the problems which can occur at runtime and compile time. It mainly occurs in the code written by the developers. An error can be a syntax error, while there can be many types of exceptions that could occur during the execution. An error might indicate critical problems that a reasonable application should not try to catch, while an exception might indicate conditions that an application should try to cacth.

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| Note |
| Python uses float because with binary representation we can’t represent decimal numbers. Every number is actually some approximation of some other number, and difference between representation and real value is called round-off error. |

* **Try-except-else:** the try block lets you test a block of code for errors. The except block gets executed when the error occurs. The else block lets you execute code when there is no error.
* **Try-except-finally:** finally statement is opposite of „else“. It always executes after try and except blocks. It is used to do the clean up activities of objects/variables.

### Object oriented programming

4 basic building elements of OOP:

1. **Inheritance** provides code reusability. We have single, multi-level, multiple (more than one base class) and hierarchical (when more than one derived class are created from a single base)

# egz. of inheritance and use of super() function  
  
class Class():  
 def \_\_init\_\_(self, x):  
 print(x)  
  
class SubClass(Class):  
 def \_\_init\_\_(self, x, y):  
 self.y = y  
 super().\_\_init\_\_(x)

1. **Polymorphism** means the ability to take multiple forms. So if the parent class has a method named ABC then the child class also can have a method with the same name ABC having its own parameters and variables.
2. **Encapsulation** is a process of wrapping data and functions that perform actions on the data into a single entity. A single unit is referred to as a class. To access the values, the class usually provides publicly accessible methods (setters and getters). Technique that hides implementation details.
3. **Abstraction** is used to hide something too, but in a higher degree (class, interface). Clients who use an abstract class do not care about what it was, they just need to know what it can do.

Other notes

* **init** is a method that is automatically called to allocate memory when a new object (i.e. instance of a class) is created. It acts as a constructor which gets executed when a new object is instantiated and allows the class to classify its attributes.
* **self** is an object of a class. The self variable in the init method refers to the newly created object, while in other methods it refers to the object whose method was called. It is used to refer to the object properties of a class.
* **object()** returns featureless object that is a base for all classes :::{.callout-note} As Python has no concept of private variables, leading underscores are used to indicate variables that must not be accessed from outside the class. :::
* **Named Tuple** can be a great alternative to construct a class. It is an extension of the Python built-in tuple data type, which is structure for grouping objects with different types. When you access an attribute of the built-in tuple, you need to know its index. Named Tuple allows us to give names to the elements, so we can access the attributes by both attribute name and its index. It is good practice to use classes constructed like this when we have a function that takes more than 3 arguments, which is too much. Then it is better to pack most of the arguments into a class.

from typing import NamedTuple  
  
class Transaction(NamedTuple):  
 sender: str  
 receiver: str  
 date: str

* **Class attributes** belong to every instance of some class. They are defined outside of **init** function. So they are different from instance attributes.
* **Decorator** is a design pattern that allows a user to add new functionality to an existing object without modifying its structure. They are usually called before the definition of a function you want to decorate. Decorator takes in a function and returns it by adding some functionality. A few good examples for using decorators are when you want to add logging, test performance, perform caching, verify permissions…

def make\_pretty(func):  
 def inner():  
 print("I got decorated")  
 func()  
return inner  
  
@make\_pretty  
def ordinary():  
 print("I am ordinary")  
  
ordinary()

* **Generator** is a function that returns an iterator that produces a sequence of values when iterated over. Instead of return statement we use the „yield“ statement. The yield keyword is used to produce a value from the generator and pause the generator function’s execution until the next value is requested. When the generator function is called, it returns a generator object that can be iterated over to produce the values. They are more memory-efficient than storing an entire sequence in memory (for egz. Iterators).

def my\_generator(n):  
 value = 0  
 while value < n:  
 yield value  
 value += 1

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| Tip |
| Concise way for writing a generator is generator expression that looks like a list comprehension. |

### Useful functions

* map(): works as an iterator to return a result after applying a function to every item of an iterable. It is used when you want to apply a single transformation function to all the iterable elements.

numbers = (1,2,3,4)  
squared\_numbers = map(lambda n: n\*\*2, numbers)  
  
# list(squared\_numbers) = [1, 4, 9, 16]

* filter(): is a function that extracts elements from an iterable for which a function returns True. It takes a function and some iterable (set, list, tuple,..) and returns a filter object.

def check\_even(number):  
 if number % 2 == 0:  
 return True   
  
 return False  
  
numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]  
even\_numbers = filter(check\_even, numbers)  
  
# list(even\_numbers) = [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]

* reduce(): does not return a new list based on the function and iterable we’ve passed. Instead, it returns a single value. It can be found in functools module.

from functools import reduce  
  
a = [1, 2, 3, 4]  
result = reduce(lambda x,y: x\*y, a)  
  
# result = 24

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| Tip |
| For map(), filter() and reduce() functions it is more convenient, if possible, to use lambda functions as argument. |

* zip(): creates an iterator that will aggregate elements from two or more iterables

list1 = ["a", "b", "c"]  
list2 = [1, 2, 3]  
dict\_result = {key: val for key, val in zip(list1, list2)}  
  
# dict\_result = {'a': 1, 'b': 2, 'c': 3}

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| Tip |
| Instead of bunch of print statements use logging module. |

* partial(): this function allows us to fix a certain number of arguments of a function and generate a new function.

from functools import partial  
  
def f(a, b, c, x):  
 return 1000\*a + 100\*b + 10\*c + x  
  
g = partial(f, 3, 1, 4)  
  
# g(1) = 3141

* argsort(): returns the indices of array elements that would sort an array
* *del* method can be used for erasing variable from memory, or just one variable from a list (instead of *remove()*)
* arange(): returns list of numbers in a given range
* random.shuffle(): randomise the elements
* random.choice(): returns random element
* list.pop(index): deletes and returns the element from a list with specified index
* list.remove(index): deletes the element from a list with specified index
* isinstance(): checks data type
* any(): returns True if any item in an iterable is true, otherwise False
* all(): returns True if all items in an iterable are true, otherwise False
* np.hstack(): stack arrays in sequence horizontally
* np.vstack(): stack arrays in sequence vertically

Working with files: \* “with open(„some.txt“) as f” takes care of closing the file \* .write(), .read(), .close(), .readlines() \* For faster loading it is commonly to use numpy package: np.savetxt(‘some.txt’, np.array(), fmt=‘%.2f’, header=‘..’), np.loadtxt(‘some.txt’)

Working with dataframes: \* Combining dataframes in pandas: append() (for horizontal stacking) and concat() (for vertical stacking) \* Identifying missing values: isnull() and isna() \* Handling missing values: fillna() \* Creating missing values for known indexes: pd.DataFrame(index=…, columns=…) \* df.query(): for extracting data with specified conditions \* When you want to create a new df based on a subset of your initial df, it’s best to use the copy() method \* Pandas also has str() method \* Renaming columns: better to use .rename() function \* Setting index to a column: df.set\_index([‘some’]) (it removes column automatically) \* DataFrame.plot makes plots of Series or DataFrame. There is various kinds of plot to produce and can be assigned in „kind“ parameter. Options are: ‘line’ (default), ‘bar’, ‘barh’, ‘hist’, ‘box’, ‘kde’/‘density’, ‘area’, ‘pie’, ‘scatter’, ‘hexbin’’

### Modules

* **itertools** module, for different iterations
* **counter** is a dict subclass for counting hashable objects. It is a collection where elements are stored as dictionary keys and their counts are stored as dictionary values. Counts are allowed to be any integer value including zero or negative counts. It is a Pythonic way to count objects.
* from collections import Counter
  + update(): for adding elements
  + elements(): for restoring elements (Counter remembers the insertion order of its keys as a feature inherited from dict)
  + subtract(): for removing elements
  + most\_common(), &, |, +, -
* File related modules: **os, os.path, shutil.os**
* **operator** module exports a set of efficient functions corresponding to the intrinsic operators of Python. The functions fall into categories that perform object comparisons, logical operations, mathematical operations and sequence operations. This functions are handy in cases where callables must be stored, passed as arguments (egz. For map(), sorted(), itertools, groupby()), or returned as function results. Probably the most used function is .itemgetter() with which you can sort some list of tuples, or dict,.. with specified key, and is also faster than sort function. It is also more clearable than lambda function when sending as an argument
* egz. If you want to sort some lists/dict first by 2nd element and then by 1st element, you can use key=itemgetter(1,0).
* **numpy** stands for numerical python and it is used for general numeric computations on numerical data saved in arrays. Provides vectorization of mathematical operations on arrays and matrices
* **scipy** stands for scientific python. Collection of algorithms for linear algebra, solving differential equations, numerical integration, optimization, statistics and more.. (built on numpy)
* **pandas** adds data structures and tools designed to work with table-like data. Provides tools for data manipulation: reshaping, merging, sorting, slicing, aggregations.. allows handling missing data. Used to implement ETL (extracting, transforming and loading the datasets)
* **sklearn** provides machine learning algorithms: classification, regression, clustering, model validation, etc… (built on numpy, scipy and matplotlib)
* **matplotlib** is 2D plotting library which produces publication quality figures in a variety of hardcopy formats. A set of functionalities similar to those of MATLAB. Has line plots, scatter plots, barcharts, histograms, pie charts, etc..
* **seaborn** provides high level interface for drawing attractive statistical graphs.. (based on matplotlib)