## CS 61A Spring 2019

# Iterators, Generators, and Streams

Discussion 10: April 17, 2019 Solutions

#### Iterators and Generators

An **iterable** is a data type which contains a collection of values which can be processed one by one sequentially. Some examples of iterables we've seen include lists, tuples, strings, and dictionaries. In general, any object that can be iterated over in a **for** loop can be considered an iterable.

While an iterable contains values that can be iterated over, we need another type of object called an **iterator** to actually retrieve values contained in an iterable. Calling the **iter** function on an iterable will create an iterator over that iterable. Each iterator keeps track of its position within the iterable. Calling the next function on an iterator will give the current value in the iterable and move the iterator's position to the next value.

In this way, the relationship between an iterable and an iterator is analogous to the relationship between a book and a bookmark - an iterable contains the data that is being iterated over, and an iterator keeps track of your position within that data.

Once an iterator has returned all the values in an iterable, subsequent calls to **next** on that iterable will result in a StopIteration exception. In order to be able to access the values in the iterable a second time, you would have to create a second iterator.

One important application of iterables and iterators is the **for** loop. We've seen how we can use **for** loops to iterate over iterables like lists and dictionaries.

This only works because the **for** loop implicitly creates an iterator using the builtin iter function. Python then calls next repeatedly on the iterator, until it raises StopIteration.

The code to the right shows how we can mimic the behavior of **for** loops using while loops.

Note that most iterators are also iterables - that is, calling iter on them will return an iterator. This means that we can use them inside **for** loops. However, calling iter on most iterators will not create a new iterator - instead, it will simply return the same iterator.

We can also iterate over iterables in a list comprehension or pass in an iterable to the built-in function list in order to put the items of an iterable into a list.

In addition to the sequences we've learned, Python has some built-in ways to create iterables and iterators. Here are a few useful ones:

• range(start, end) returns an iterable containing numbers from start to end-1. If start is not provided, it defaults to 0.

```
>>> a = [1, 2]
>>> a_iter = iter(a)
>>> next(a_iter)
>>> next(a_iter)
>>> next(a_iter)
StopIteration
```

```
counts = [1, 2, 3]
for i in counts:
   print(i)
items = iter(counts)
while True:
   try:
      i = next(items)
      print(i)
   except StopIteration:
      break #Exit the while loop
```

- map(f, iterable) returns a new iterator containing the values resulting from applying f to each value in iterable.
- filter(f, iterable) returns a new iterator containing only the values in iterable for which f(value) returns True.

#### Questions

.1 What would Python display? If a StopIteration Exception occurs, write StopIteration, and if another error occurs, write Error.

```
>>> lst = [6, 1, "a"]
>>> next(lst)

Error

>>> lst_iter = iter(lst)
>>> next(lst_iter)

6

>>> next(lst_iter)

1

>>> next(iter(lst))

6

>>> [x for x in lst_iter]
["a"]
```

### Generators

A generator function is a special kind of Python function that uses a yield statement instead of a return statement to report values. When a generator function is called, it returns a generator object, which is a type of iterator. To the right, you can see a function that returns an iterator over the natural numbers. The yield statement is similar to a return statement. However, while a return statement closes the current frame after the function exits, a yield statement causes the frame to be saved until the next time next is called, which allows the generator to automatically keep track of the iteration state.

Once **next** is called again, execution resumes where it last stopped and continues until the next **yield** statement or the end of the function. A generator function can have multiple **yield** statements.

```
>>> def gen_naturals():
...     current = 0
...     while True:
...         yield current
...         current += 1
>>> gen = gen_naturals()
>>> gen
<generator object gen at ...>
>>> next(gen)
0
>>> next(gen)
1
```

Including a **yield** statement in a function automatically tells Python that this function will create a generator. When we call the function, it returns a generator object instead of executing the body. When the generator's **next** method is called, the body is executed until the next **yield** statement is executed.

```
When yield from is called on an iterator, it will yield every value from that iterator. It's similar to doing the following:

**The example to the right demonstrates different ways of computing the same result.**

**Questions**

**Square = lambda x: x*x  

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```

What would Python display? If a StopIteration Exception occurs, write StopIteration, or if another error occurs, write Error.

```
>>> def weird_gen(x):
        if x % 2 == 0:
           yield x * 2
        else:
           yield x
           yield from weird\_gen(x - 1)
>>> next(weird_gen(2))
>>> list(weird_gen(3))
[3, 4]
>>> def greeter(x):
        while x % 2 != 0:
            print('hello!')
            yield x
            print('goodbye!')
>>> greeter(5)
<generator object greeter at ...>
>>> gen = greeter(5)
>>> next(gen)
hello!
5
```

>>> next(gen)

goodbye! hello! 5

1.2 Implement filter\_link, which takes in a linked list link and a function f and returns a generator which yields the values of link for which f returns True.

Try to implement this both using a while loop and without using any form of iteration.

```
def filter_link(link, f):
   >>> link = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))
   >>> g = filter_link(link, lambda x: x % 2 == 0)
   >>> next(g)
   2
   >>> next(g)
   StopIteration
   >>> list(filter_link(link, lambda x: x % 2 != 0))
   [1, 3]
   .....
   while _____:
       if _____:
def filter_link(link, f):
   while link is not Link.empty:
       if f(link.first):
          yield link.first
       link = link.rest
def filter_no_iter(link, f):
   >>> link = Link(1, Link(2, Link(3)))
   >>> list(filter_no_iter(link, lambda x: x % 2 != 0))
   [1, 3]
   .....
       return
   elif _____:
```

```
def filter_no_iter(link, f):
    if link is Link.empty:
        return
    elif f(link.first):
        yield link.first
   yield from filter_no_iter(link.rest, f)
```

1.3 Implement sum\_paths\_gen, which takes in a Tree instance t and and returns a generator which yields the sum of all the nodes from a path from the root of a tree to a leaf.

You may yield the sums in any order.

```
def sum_paths_gen(t):
   11 11 11
   >>> t1 = Tree(5)
   >>> next(sum_paths_gen(t1))
   >>> t2 = Tree(1, [Tree(2, [Tree(3), Tree(4)]), Tree(9)])
   >>> sorted(sum_paths_gen(t2))
   [6, 7, 10]
   11 11 11
   if _____:
      yield _____
   for _____:
      for _____:
         yield _____
def sum_paths_gen(t):
   if t.is_leaf():
      yield t.label
   for b in t.branches:
      for s in sum_paths_gen(b):
         yield s + t.label
```

#### 2 Streams

In Python, we can use iterators to represent infinite sequences (for example, the generator for all natural numbers). However, Scheme does not support iterators. Let's see what happens when we try to use a Scheme list to represent an infinite sequence of natural numbers:

Because cons is a regular procedure and both its operands must be evaluted before the pair is constructed, we cannot create an infinite sequence of integers using a Scheme list.

Instead, our Scheme interpreter supports *streams*, which are *lazy* Scheme lists. The first element is represented explicitly, but the rest of the stream's elements are computed only when needed. Computing a value only when it's needed is also known as *lazy evaluation*.

We use the special form cons-stream to create a stream:

```
(cons-stream <operand1> <operand2>)
```

cons-stream is a special form because the second operand is not evaluated when evaluating the expression. To evaluate this expression, Scheme does the following:

- 1. Evaluate the first operand.
- 2. Construct a promise containing the second operand.
- 3. Return a pair containing the value of the first operand and the promise.

To actually get the rest of the stream, we must call cdr-stream on it to force the promise to be evaluated. Note that this argument is only evaluated once and is then stored in the promise; subsequent calls to cdr-stream returns the value without recomputing it. This allows us to efficiently work with infinite streams like the naturals example above. We can see this in action by using a non-pure function to compute the rest of the stream:

```
scm> (define (compute-rest n)
       (print 'evaluating!)
...>
       (cons-stream n nil))
...>
compute-rest
scm> (define s (cons-stream 0 (compute-rest 1)))
scm> (car (cdr-stream s))
evaluating!
scm> (car (cdr-stream s))
```

Here, the expression compute-rest 1 is only evaluated the first time cons-stream is called, so the symbol evaluating! is only printed the first time.

When displaying a stream, the first element of the stream and the promise are displayed separated by a dot (this indicates that they are part of the same pair, with the promise as the cdr). If the value in the promise has not been evaluated by calling cdr-stream, we consider it to be not forced. Otherwise, we consider it forced.

```
scm> (define s (cons-stream 1 nil))
s
scm> s
(1 . #[promise (not forced)])
scm> (cdr-stream s) ; nil
()
scm> s
(1 . #[promise (forced)])
```

Streams are very similar to Scheme lists in that they are also recursive structures. Just like the cdr of a Scheme list is either another Scheme list or nil, the cdr-stream of a stream is either a stream or nil. The difference is that whereas both arguments to cons are evaluated upon calling cons, the second argument to cons-stream isn't evaluated until the first time that cdr-stream is called.

Here's a summary of what we just went over:

- nil is the empty stream
- cons-stream constructs a stream containing the value of the first operand and a promise to evaluate the second operand
- car returns the first element of the stream
- cdr-stream computes and returns the rest of stream

Video walkthrough

#### Questions

2.1 What would Scheme display?

As you work through these problems, remember that streams have two important components:

- Lazy evaluation so the remainder of the stream isn't computed until explicitly requested.
- Memoization so anything we compute won't be recomputed.

The examples here stretch these concepts to the limit. In most practical use cases, you may find you rarely need to redefine functions that compute the remainder of the stream.

```
scm> (define (has-even? s)
       (cond ((null? s) #f)
             ((even? (car s)) #t)
             (else (has-even? (cdr-stream s)))))
has-even?
scm> (define (f x) (* 3 x))
scm> (define nums (cons-stream 1 (cons-stream (f 3) (cons-stream (f 5) nil))))
nums
scm> nums
(1 . #[promise (not forced)])
scm> (cdr-stream nums)
(9 . #[promise (not forced)])
scm> nums
(1 . #[promise (forced)])
scm> (define (f x) (* 2 x))
scm> (cdr-stream nums)
(9 . #[promise (not forced)])
scm> (cdr-stream (cdr-stream nums))
(10 . #[promise (not forced)])
scm> (has-even? nums)
True
```

#### Video walkthrough

2.2 Write a function slice which takes in a stream s, a start, and an end. It should return a Scheme list that contains the elements of s between index start and end, not including end. If the stream ends before end, you can return nil.

```
(define (slice s start end)
```

```
(cond
    ((or (null? s) (= end 0)) nil)
    ((> start 0)
        (slice (cdr-stream s) (- start 1) (- end 1)))
    (else
        (cons (car s)
              (slice (cdr-stream s) (- start 1) (- end 1))))))
scm> (define nat (naturals 0)); See naturals procedure defined earlier
nat
scm> (slice nat 4 12)
(4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11)
```

2.3 Since streams only evaluate the next element when they are needed, we can combine infinite streams together for interesting results! Use it to define a few of our favorite sequences. We've defined the function combine-with for you below, as well as an example of how to use it to define the stream of even numbers.

```
(define (combine-with f xs ys)
  (if (or (null? xs) (null? ys))
   nil
     (cons-stream
        (f (car xs) (car ys))
        (combine-with f (cdr-stream xs) (cdr-stream ys)))))
scm> (define evens (combine-with + (naturals 0) (naturals 0)))
evens
scm> (slice evens 0 10)
(0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18)
```

For these questions, you may use the naturals stream in addition to combine-with.

i. (define factorials

```
(cons-stream 1 (combine-with * (naturals 1) factorials)))
scm> (slice factorials 0 10)
(1 1 2 6 24 120 720 5040 40320 362880)
(Continued on next page)
```

```
ii. (define fibs
```

```
(cons-stream 0
    (cons-stream 1
        (combine-with + fibs (cdr-stream fibs)))))
scm> (slice fibs 0 10)
(0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34)
```

iii. (Extra for practice) Write exp, which returns a stream where the nth term represents the degree-n polynomial expantion for  $e^x$ , which is  $\sum_{i=0}^n x^i/i!$ .

You may use factorials in addition to combine-with and naturals in your solution.