APA: Advanced Programming, Algorithms and Data Structures

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Python Overview
November 5-12, 2019









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for variables, functions,

Python 3 Cheat Sheet

Latest version on : https://perso.limsi.fr/pointal/python:memento

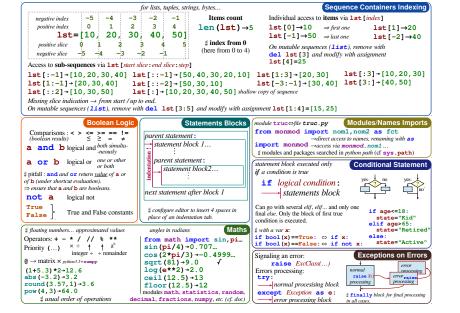
```
integer, float, boolean, string, bytes
                                Base Types
   int 783 0 -192
                        0b010 0o642 0xF3
                         binary octal
                                       hexa
float 9.23 0.0 -1.7e-6
 bool True False
   str "One\nTwo"
                          Multiline strine:
       escaped new line
                            """X\+Y\+Z
        'I\'m'
                            1\t2\t3"""
        escaped '
                              escaped tab
bytes b"toto\xfe\775"
            hevadecimal octal
                                   immutables
```

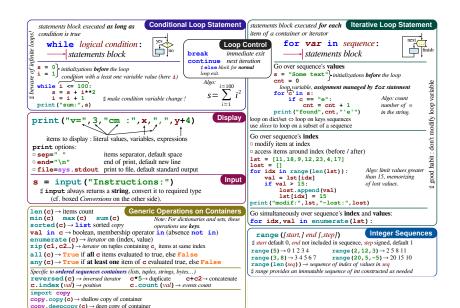
Identifiers

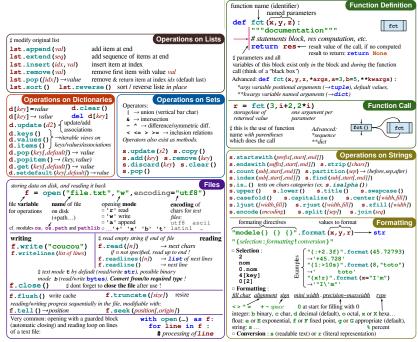
```
• ordered sequences, fast index access, repeatable values
                                                             Container Types
          list [1,5,9]
                                ["x", 11, 8.9]
                                                         ["mot"]
                                                                            n
      ,tuple (1,5,9)
                                 11. "v". 7. 4
                                                         ("mot",)
Non modifiable values (immutables)
                               # expression with only comas → tuple
      str bytes (ordered sequences of chars / bytes)
• key containers, no a priori order, fast key access, each key is unique
dictionary dict {"key":"value"}
                                            dict(a=3,b=4,k="v")
                                                                            (1)
(key/value associations) {1: "one", 3: "three", 2: "two", 3, 14: "π"}
            set {"key1", "key2"}
collection
                                            {1,9,3,0}
                                                                        set (i)
2 keys=hashable values (base types, immutables...)
                                            frozenset immutable set
                                                                          empty
```

```
modules classes names
a...zA...Z followed by a...zA...Z 0...9
diacritics allowed but should be avoided.
□ language keywords forbidden
□ lower/UPPER case discrimination
      a toto x7 y max BigOne
      @ 8y and for
                   Variables assignment
 assignment co binding of a name with a value
 1) evaluation of right side expression value
 2) assignment in order with left side names
x=1.2+8+sin(y)
a=b=c=0 assignment to same value
y,z,r=9.2,-7.6,0 multiple assignments
a.b=b.a values swap
a, *b=seq \] unpacking of sequence in
*a, b=seq | item and list
                                          and
x+=3
           increment \Leftrightarrow x = x + 3
                                          *=
x-=2
           decrement \Leftrightarrow x = x - 2
                                          /=
                                          ·
%=
x=None « undefined » constant value
del x
          remove name x
```

```
Conversions
                                         type (expression)
int("15") → 15
int("3f",16) \rightarrow 63
                               can specify integer number base in 2nd parameter
int(15.56) \rightarrow 15
                               truncate decimal part
float ("-11.24e8") \rightarrow -1124000000.0
round (15.56.1) \rightarrow 15.6
                               rounding to 1 decimal (0 decimal → integer number)
bool (x) False for null x, empty container x, None or False x; True for other x
str(x) → "..."
                 representation string of x for display (cf. formatting on the back)
chr(64) \rightarrow '@' \text{ ord}('@') \rightarrow 64
                                        code ↔ char
repr (x) → "..." literal representation string of x
bytes ([72, 9, 641) \rightarrow b'H\t@'
list("abc") \rightarrow ['a', 'b', 'c']
dict([(3,"three"),(1,"one")]) \rightarrow \{1:'one',3:'three'\}
set(["one","two"]) -> {'one','two'}
separator str and sequence of str → assembled str
   ':'.join(['toto', '12', 'pswd']) → 'toto:12:pswd'
str splitted on whitespaces → list of str
   "words with spaces".split() → ['words', 'with', 'spaces']
str splitted on separator str → list of str
   "1,4,8,2".split(",") \rightarrow ['1','4','8','2']
sequence of one type \rightarrow list of another type (via list comprehension)
   [int(x) for x in ('1', '29', '-3')] \rightarrow [1, 29, -3]
```







High-level, dynamically typed, easily readble

```
def quicksort(arr):
""" An example (not necessarily most efficient) implementation of quicksort algorithm""'
    if len(arr) <= 1:
         return arr
    pivot = arr[len(arr) // 2]
    left = [x \text{ for } x \text{ in arr if } x < pivot]
    middle = [x for x in arr if x == pivot]
    right = [x \text{ for } x \text{ in arr if } x > pivot]
    return quicksort(left) + middle + quicksort(right)
print(quicksort([3,6,8,10,1,2,1]))
# Output: [1, 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 10]
```

Source: Justin Johnson (accessed on Nov 2019)

- Assignment manipulates references
 - —x = y does not make a copy of the object y references
 - -x = y makes x reference the object y references
- Very useful; but beware!
- Example:

```
>>> a = [1, 2, 3] # a now references the list [1, 2, 3]

>>> b = a # b now references what a references

>>> a.append(4) # this changes the list a references

>>> print b # if we print what b references,

[1, 2, 3, 4] # SURPRISE! It has changed...
```

Why??

- There is a lot going on when we type:
 - x = 3
- First, an integer 3 is created and stored in memory
- A name x is created
- An reference to the memory location storing the 3 is then assigned to the name x
- So: When we say that the value of x is 3
- we mean that x now refers to the integer 3



- The data 3 we created is of type integer. In Python, the datatypes integer, float, and string (and tuple) are "immutable."
- This doesn't mean we can't change the value of x, i.e. change what x refers to ...
- For example, we could increment x:

```
>>> x = 3
>>> x = x + 1
>>> print x
4
```

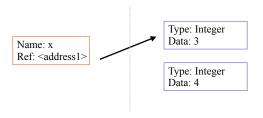
- If we increment x, then what's really happening is:
 - 1. The reference of name **X** is looked up.
 - The value at that reference is retrieved.

Name: x Ref: <address1>

Source: SAO Telescope Data Center

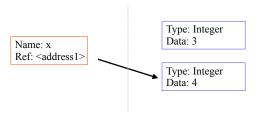
- If we increment x, then what's really happening is:
 - 1. The reference of name X is looked up.

- 2. The value at that reference is retrieved.
- The 3+1 calculation occurs, producing a new data element 4 which is assigned to a fresh memory location with a new reference.



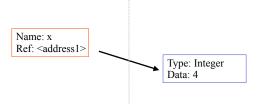
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- The 3+1 calculation occurs, producing a new data element 4 which is assigned to a fresh memory location with a new reference.
- The name X is changed to point to this new reference.



- If we increment x, then what's really happening is:
 - 1. The reference of name X is looked up.

- 2. The value at that reference is retrieved.
- The 3+1 calculation occurs, producing a new data element 4 which is assigned to a fresh memory location with a new reference.
- 4. The name X is changed to point to this new reference.
- 5. The old data 3 is garbage collected if no name still refers to it.



Sequence Types

- 1. Tuple
 - A simple immutable ordered sequence of items
 - Items can be of mixed types, including collection types
- 2. Strings
 - Immutable
 - Conceptually very much like a tuple
- 3. List
 - Mutable ordered sequence of items of mixed types

Tuples: Immutable

```
>>> t = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')
>>> t[2] = 3.14

Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#75>", line 1, in -toplevel-
    tu[2] = 3.14

TypeError: object doesn't support item assignment
```

You can't change a tuple.

You can make a fresh tuple and assign its reference to a previously used name.

```
>>> t = (23, 'abc', 3.14, (2,3), 'def')
```

Lists: Mutable

```
>>> li = ['abc', 23, 4.34, 23]
>>> li[1] = 45
>>> li
['abc', 45, 4.34, 23]
```

- We can change lists in place.
- Name li still points to the same memory reference when we're done.
- The mutability of lists means that they aren't as fast as tuples.

Tuples vs. Lists

- Lists slower but more powerful than tuples.
 - Lists can be modified, and they have lots of handy operations we can perform on them.
 - · Tuples are immutable and have fewer features.
- To convert between tuples and lists use the list() and tuple() functions:

```
li = list(tu)
tu = tuple(li)
```

Other containers - Python collections module

namedtuple factory function for creating tuple subclasses

with named fields

deque list-like container with fast appends and pops

on either end

ChainMap dict-like class for creating a single view of mul-

tiple mappings

Counter dict subclass for counting hashable objects

OrderedDict dict subclass that remembers the order entries

were added

defaultdict dict subclass that calls a factory function to

supply missing values

book.pythontips.com/en/latest/collections.html

• docs.python.org/3.7/library/collections.html

Sources: Yasoob Khalid & Python Software Foundation (accessed on Nov 2019)

Generators, iterators and iterables

• Iterable (any object that returns an iterator or can take indices)

```
- __iter__ or __get_item__
```

Iterator

```
    next or next
```

Generator (one time iterators where items generated on demand)

- yield

```
def generator_function(n):
    for i in range(n):
        yield i
    for item in generator_function():
        print(item)
```

Source: Yasoob Khalid (accessed on Nov 2019)

Function calls with extra arguments

```
def f(a, *b, **c):
    print(a)
     print(b)
     print(c)
> f(1, 2, c=5)
> f(a=1, b=2, c=5)
> f(1, 2, 4, 5)
> f(1, 2, 4, 5, b=3)
```

Function calls with extra arguments

```
def f(a, *b, **c):
     print(a)
     print(b)
     print(c)
> f(1, 2, c=5)
(2,)
{'c': 5}
> f(a=1, b=2, c=5)
{'b': 2, 'c': 5}
> f(1, 2, 4, 5)
(2, 4, 5)
> f(1, 2, 4, 5, b=3)
(2, 4, 5)
{'b': 3}
```

Function calls with extra arguments

```
def f(a, *b, **c):
    print(a)
    print(b)
     print(c)
> f(1, 2, c=5)
(2,)
{'c': 5}
> f(a=1, b=2, c=5)
                                                        def f(*args, **kwargs):
{'b': 2, 'c': 5}
                                                         a, *b \Rightarrow *args
> f(1, 2, 4, 5)
                                                         **c \Rightarrow **kwargs
(2, 4, 5)
> f(1, 2, 4, 5, b=3)
(2, 4, 5)
{'b': 3}
```

Unpacking syntax & zip function

- *: unpacks collection (to sequence of arguments)
- **: unpacks dictionary (to sequence of named arguments)

zip: Makes an iterator aggregating elements from each of the input iterables

```
names = ["Joe", "James", "Zach"]

ages = [26, 39, 14]

tuples = list(zip(names, ages))

d = dict(zip(names,ages))

print(tuples) # Output: [('Joe', 26), ('James', 39), ('Zach', 14)]

print(list(zip(*tuples))) # Output: [('Joe', 'James', 'Zach'), (26, 39, 14)]
```

Unpacking syntax & zip function

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ages = [26, 39, 14]

tuples = list(zip(names, ages))

d = dict(zip(names,ages))

print(tuples) # Output: [('Joe', 26), ('James', 39), ('Zach', 14)]

print(list(zip(*tuples))) # Output: [('Joe', 'James', 'Zach'), (26, 39, 14)]
```

Beware of the behaviour of functions with 'unusual inputs' print(list(zip(range(5), range(3)))) # Output: [(0, 0), (1, 1), (2, 2)]

Functional programming & lambda function

lambda: Inline function without explicit name (anonymous)

```
add = lambda x, y: x + y

print(add(3, 5))
# Output: 8

a = [(1, 2), (4, 1), (9, 10), (13, -3)]
a.sort(key=lambda x: x[1])

print(a)
# Output: [(13, -3), (4, 1), (1, 2), (9, 10)]
```

Source: Yasoob Khalid (accessed on Nov 2019)

Functional programming & higher-order functions

Higher-order functions: Functions that accepts another function as input

map

```
items = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
squared = list(map(lambda x: x**2, items))
print(squared) # Output: [1, 4, 9, 16, 25]
```

filter

```
number_list = range(-5, 5)
less_than_zero = list(filter(lambda x: x < 0, number_list))
print(less_than_zero) # Output: [-5, -4, -3, -2, -1]
```

reduce

```
from functools import reduce
product = reduce((lambda x, y: x * y), [1, 2, 3, 4])
print(product) # Output: 24
```

For with else clause

General structure:

```
for item in container:
    if search_something(item): # Found it!
        process(item)
        break
else: # Didn't find anything..
    not_found_in_container()
```

Example:

```
for n in range(2, 10):
    for x in range(2, n):
        if n % x == 0:
        print( n, 'equals', x, '*', n/x)
        break
    else:
        # loop fell through without finding a factor
        print(n, 'is a prime number')
```

File I/O, Strings, Exceptions...

```
>>> try:
        1 / 0
... except:
    print('That was silly!')
... finally:
     print('This gets executed no matter what')
That was silly!
This gets executed no matter what
                                          with open('filename') as fileptr:
                                              somestring = fileptr.read()
                                              for line in fileptr:
                                                 print line
                                         fileptr.closed # True
>>> a = 1
                   (Context management through enter () and exit () methods)
>>> b = 2.4
>>> c = 'Tom'
>>> '%s has %d coins worth a total of $%.02f' % (c, a, b)
'Tom has 1 coins worth a total of $2.40'
    (OR: '{} has {} coins worth a total of ${:.02f}'.format(c, a, b) )
```

Source: SAO Telescope Data Center

Why Use Modules?

- Code reuse
 - Routines can be called multiple times within a program
 - · Routines can be used from multiple programs
- Namespace partitioning
 - Group data together with functions used for that data
- Implementing shared services or data
 - Can provide global data structure that is accessed by multiple subprograms

Modules

- Modules are functions and variables defined in separate files
- Items are imported using from or import

```
from module import function
function()
import module
module.function()
```

- Modules are namespaces
 - Can be used to organize variable names, i.e.

```
atom.position = atom.position - molecule.position
```

What is an Object?

- A software item that contains variables and methods
- Object Oriented Design focuses on
 - · Encapsulation:
 - —dividing the code into a public interface, and a private implementation of that interface
 - Polymorphism:
 - —the ability to overload standard operators so that they have appropriate behavior based on their context
 - · Inheritance:
 - —the ability to create subclasses that contain specializations of their parents

Example

```
class atom(object):
 def __init__(self,atno,x,y,z):
      self.atno = atno
      self.position = (x,y,z)
 def symbol(self): # a class method
      return Atno to Symbol[atno]
 def repr (self): # overloads printing
      return '%d %10.4f %10.4f %10.4f' %
             (self.atno, self.position[0],
              self.position[1],self.position[2])
>>> at = atom(6,0.0,1.0,2.0)
>>> print at
6 0.0000 1.0000 2.0000
>>> at.symbol()
'C'
```

Atom Class

- Overloaded the default constructor
- Defined class variables (atno,position) that are persistent and local to the atom object
- Good way to manage shared memory:
 - instead of passing long lists of arguments, encapsulate some of this data into an object, and pass the object.
 - · much cleaner programs result
- Overloaded the print operator
- We now want to use the atom class to build molecules...

Molecule Class

```
class molecule:
    def __init__(self,name='Generic'):
        self.name = name
        self.atomlist = []
    def addatom(self,atom):
        self.atomlist.append(atom)
    def __repr__(self):
        str = 'This is a molecule named %s\n' % self.name
        str = str+'It has %d atoms\n' % len(self.atomlist)
        for atom in self.atomlist:
            str = str + `atom` + '\n'
        return str
```

Using Molecule Class

```
>>> mol = molecule('Water')
>>> at = atom(8,0.,0.,0.)
>>> mol.addatom(at)
>>> mol.addatom(atom(1,0.,0.,1.))
>>> mol.addatom(atom(1,0.,1.,0.))
>>> print mol
This is a molecule named Water
It has 3 atoms
8 0.000 0.000 0.000
1 0.000 0.000 1.000
1 0.000 1.000 0.000
```

Note that the print function calls the atoms print function

 Code reuse: only have to type the code that prints an atom once; this means that if you change the atom specification, you only have one place to update.

Inheritance

```
class qm_molecule(molecule):
    def addbasis(self):
        self.basis = []
        for atom in self.atomlist:
            self.basis = add_bf(atom,self.basis)
```

- __init__, __repr__, and __addatom__ are taken from the parent class (molecule)
- Added a new function addbasis() to add a basis set
- Another example of code reuse
 - Basic functions don't have to be retyped, just inherited
 - Less to rewrite when specifications change

Overloading

```
class qm_molecule(molecule):
    def __repr__(self):
        str = 'QM Rules!\n'
        for atom in self.atomlist:
            str = str + `atom` + '\n'
        return str
```

- Now we only inherit __init__ and addatom from the parent
- We define a new version of __repr__ specially for QM

Adding to Parent Functions

 Sometimes you want to extend, rather than replace, the parent functions.

```
class qm_molecule(molecule):
    def __init__(self,name="Generic",basis="6-31G**"):
        self.basis = basis
        super(qm_molecule, self).__init__(name)
```

Public and Private Data

In Python anything with two leading underscores is private

__a, __my_variable

 Anything with one leading underscore is semiprivate, and you should feel guilty accessing this data directly.

_b

Sometimes useful as an intermediate step to making data private

Public and private data - cont'd

```
class A:

def __init__(self):

self.__x = 1

self._y = 2

self.z = 3

a1 = A()

print(a1.z) # 3

print(a1._y) # 2

print(a1._x) # AttributeError: 'A' object has no attribute '__x'
```

Instance vs class attributes & static vs class methods

- Instance attributes: attributes whose value depends on the specific instance
- Class attributes: attributes whose value is bound to the class and independent of any specific instance
- Class method can access and modify the class state (thus require a reference to the class) while static methods can not

```
class A:
   count = 0
   def init (self):
       self. x = 1
   @staticmethod
   def get_count():
       return A.count
   @classmethod
   def set count(cls):
       cls.count += 1
```

Magic methods

Internal methods, not meant to be invoked directly

- Invocation happens internally from the class on a certain action
- Syntax: def __magicMethod__()
- Python examples: __init__(), __str__(), __add__()
- For instance when you add two values using the + operator, internally, the __add__() method will be called

Source: Majeed Kassis - BGU

Garbage collection

Python objects are automatically deleted once there are no references to them

 The garbage collector removes the object instance once the reference count reaches zero

```
class Employee:
    def init (self):
        print("created")
    def del (self):
        print("destroyed")
e1 = Employee() # created
e^{2} = e^{1}
print('e1 id=', id(e1)) # e1 id = 2257554491936
print('e2 id=', id(e2)) # e2 id = 2257554491936
del e1 # removes the reference e1, reducing the ref count by 1
print('e2 id=', id(e2)) # e2 id = 2257554491936
del e2 # destroyed, ref count is zero
```

Decorators

Decorators add functionality to existing functions without modifying the original code

```
def debug(func):
   def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
       print('received arguments:', args, kwargs)
       return_values = func(*args, **kwargs)
       print('return value:', return_values)
       return return values
   return wrapper
def add two elements(a, b):
   return a + b
debug add two elements = debug(add two elements)
debug add two elements(5, b=6)
# received arguments: (5,) {'b': 6}
# return value: 11
```

Functions as first class objects

Functions can act like objects

- referenced by another function as a variable
- passed to another function as a variable
- returned to another function as variable

Functions can act as variables

- defined inside another function
- passed as arguments to another function
- returned as values from another function

```
def make_divisibility_test(n):
    def divisible_by_n(m):
        return m % n == 0
    return divisible_by_n

is_divisable_by_five = make_divisibility_test(5)
is_divisable_by_five(10) # True
make_divisibility_test(7)(10) # False

div_by_3 = make_divisibility_test(3)
print(filter(div_by_3, range(10))) # 0, 3, 6, 9
```

Typing in Python

- Names for all standard built-in types are defined in types module
- isinstance() function is recommended for testing the type of an object (it takes subclasses into account)

```
type(2) # => <class 'int'>
type("Hi!") # => <class 'str'>
type(None) # => <class 'NoneType'>
type(int) # => <class 'type'>
```

```
class Plant: pass # Dummy class
class Tree(Plant): pass # Dummy class derived from Plant
tree = Tree() # A new instance of Tree class
print isinstance(tree, Tree) # True
print isinstance(tree, Plant) # True
print isinstance(tree, object) # True
print type(tree) is Tree # False
print type(tree).__name__ == "instance" # True
print tree.__class__.__name__ == "Tree" # True
```

Static vs dynamic typing

- Dynamically typed: Typing is not enforced by default in python and checked in **runtime**
- Strongly type: Once the type is detected, operations can be executed only for that detected type

```
def greeting(name: str) -> str:
    return 'Hello ' + name

greeting(2) # Run time TypeError: must be str, not int
```

- Typing syntax could be used for annotating the code
- Type checking can be enforced with mypy package

```
$ mypy greeting.py greeting.py:4: error: Argument 1 to "greeting" has incompatible type "int"; expected "str"
```

Static vs dynamic typing - cont'd

```
from typing import Dict
def get first name(full name: str) -> str:
   return full name.split(" ")[0]
fallback_name: Dict[str, str] = {
   "first name": "UserFirstName",
   "last name": "UserLastName"
raw name: str = input("Please enter your name: ")
first name: str = get first name(raw name)
if not first_name: # If the user didn't type anything in, use the fallback name
   first name = get first name(fallback name)
print(f"Hi, first name!")
```

```
$ mypy my_script.py
my_script.py:21: error: Argument 1 to "get_first_name" has incom-
patible type "Dict[str, str]"; expected "str"
```

Introspection and reflection

Ability to examine and modify an object (its attributes) at runtime

- Everything in python is an object (inherited from the built-in object class)
- Reflection-enabling functions include type(), isinstance(), callable(), dir() and getattr()
- inspect module provide more inspection functionality
- type(), isinstance(), issubclass() check type of an object/class

```
# Check the type/class of an object
type(my_object)
my_object.__class__

# check is the object is a specific type or class
isinstance(my_str, str)

# check if an object's class is a subclass of a parent class
issubclass(my_object.__class__, ParentClass)
```

• dir() returns the list of names of attributes of an object, including its methods

```
class A:
   def init (self):
      self. x = 1
a1 = A()
print(dir(a1))
# [' class ', ' delattr ', ' dict ', ' dir ', ' doc ',
'__eq__', '__format__', '__ge__', '__getattribute__', ' gt ',
' hash ', ' init ', ' init subclass ', ' le ', ' lt ',
' module ', ' ne ', ' new ', ' reduce ', ' reduce ex ',
'repr', 'setattr', 'sizeof', 'str', 'subclasshook',
' weakref ', ' A x']
print(a1. A x) # 1
```

• callable() determines whether the object can be called

```
callable([1,2].pop) # True
```

• a class can be made callable by providing a __call__() method

```
class Sq:
    def __call__(self, x):
        return x**2

f = Sq()
f(2) # 4
```

 getattr() returns the value of an attribute of an object using the attribute name passed as a string

Source:

```
class MyClass:
    def getattr (self, attr):
        greeting = " ".join(attr.split(' ')[1:])
    return greeting.capitalize()
m = MyClass()
m.say hello() # TypeError: 'str' object is not callable
m.say hello # 'Hello'
class MyClass:
    def getattr (self, attr):
       def call():
            greeting = " ".join(attr.split('_')[1:])
            return greeting.capitalize()
        return call
m = MyClass()
m.say hello() # 'Hello'
m.say bye_bye() # 'Bye bye'
```

```
class MyClass:
     def init (self):
         self.say hello = 0
     def getattr (self, attr):
         def call():
             greeting = " ".join(attr.split(' ')[1:])
             return greeting.capitalize()
         return call
     def say hello(self):
         return 'Hi'
 m = MyClass()
 m.say_hello # 0
 m.say_hello() # TypeError: 'int' object is not callable
 m.say_bye_bye() # 'Bye bye'
Instance attribute (self.say_hello) takes precedence over class
```

attribute (say_hello(self))

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Instance attributes 'usually' take precedence over class attributes

(See this Stackoverflow post)

```
class Foo(object):
    def init (self, lst):
         self lst = lst
    def sum(self):
         self.sum = sum(self.lst)
         return self.sum
f = Foo([1,2,3])
print(f.sum()) # None \Rightarrow self.sum = 6
print(f.sum()) \# TypeError: 'int' object is not callable <math>\Rightarrow print(6())
```

Source: Stackoverflow Blckknght (accessed on Nov 2019)

```
def capit(func):
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
        return func(*args, **kwargs).capitalize()
return wrapper
class MyClass:
    def __getattr__(self, attr):
        @capit # decorator
        def call():
            greeting = " ".join(attr.split(' ')[1:])
            return greeting
        return call
m = MyClass()
m.say hello() # 'Hello'
m.say bye_bye() # 'Bye bye'
```

```
class GreetMe:
   def init (self, name):
       self.name = name
   def getattr (self, attr):
       allowed = ['hello', 'bye', 'nice_to_meet_you', 'good_bye', 'goodnight']
       def call (name=None):
           if attr in allowed:
               greeting = attr.replace(' ', ' ')
               target = name if name else self.name
               return f"target, greeting.capitalize()"
           else:
               raise ValueError(f"Invalid name or greeting: name, attr")
       return call
greet = GreetMe('Luna')
greet.hello() # Outputs: 'Luna, Hello'
greet.bye(name='John') # Outputs: 'John, Bye'
greet.nice to meet you(name='Jane') # Outputs: 'Jane, Nice to meet you'
```

Source: Bonne Nuit Metrics Blog (accessed on Nov 2019)

Unit testing

Defining tests using unittest module

```
import unittest
class TestStatisticalFunctions(unittest.TestCase):
    def test_average(self):
        self.assertEqual(average([20, 30, 70]), 40.0)
        self.assertEqual(round(average([1, 5, 7]), 1), 4.3)
        with self.assertRaises(ZeroDivisionError):
            average([])
        with self.assertRaises(TypeError):
            average(20, 30, 70)
unittest.main() # Calling from the command line invokes all tests
```

Source: Paul Fodor - SBU (accessed on Nov 2019)

Debugging & profiling

Debugging using pdb package \$ python -m pdb my_script.py

```
import pdb

def make_bread():
    pdb.set_trace()
    return "I don't have time"

print(make_bread())
```

c: continue execution

w: shows the context of the current line it is executing

a: prints the argument list of the current function

s: executes the current line and stop at the first possible occasion

n: continue execution until the next line in the current function is reached or it returns

Profiling using cProfile package

\$ python -m cProfile my_script.py

Memoization: Caching Technique

- A technique to **speed** up Python programs using **caching**.
 - A cache stores the results of an operation for later use.
- It caches a function output based on the given input parameters.
 - It will compute the output **once** for each input set of parameters.
 - Every **consequent** call after the first will be quickly retrieved from a cache!
- · When to use?
 - Only in cases where the code is expensive to run.
 - Expensive code in terms of storage space and execution time.

Memoization: Implementation

- Implementing Memoization:
 - Set up a cache data structure for function results
 - Every time the function is called, do one of the following:
 - Return the cached result, if any; or
 - Call the function to compute the missing result, and then update the cache before returning the result to the caller
 - Given enough cache storage this virtually guarantees that function results for a specific set of function arguments will only be computed once.
- As soon as we have a cached result we won't have to re-run the memoized function for the same set of inputs.
 - Instead, we can just fetch the cached result and return it right away!

Python Decorators: Memoization Decorator

```
1 # Memoization Decorator
                                       1 def fibonacci(n):
                                            if n == 0:
2 def memoize(func):
                                                return 0
3
      cache = dict()
                                            elif n == 1:
      def memoized func(*args):
                                                return 1
          if args in cache:
                                            return fibonacci(n - 1) + fibonacci(n - 2)
6
               return cache[args]
7
           result = func(*args)
                                       8 import timeit
8
          cache[args] = result
9
           return result
                                      10 # Normal Fibbonaci
                                      11 print('normal run')
      return memoized func
                                      12 print(timeit.timeit('fibonacci(35)', globals=globals(),
Θ
                                      13 number=1))
                                      14 print(timeit.timeit('fibonacci(35)', globals=globals().
                                      15 number=1))
                                      16
                                      17 # Memoized Fibbonaci
                                      18 print('memoized run')
                                      19 m fibonacci = memoize(fibonacci)
                                        print(timeit.timeit('m fibonacci(35)', globals=globals(),
                                        number=1))
                                        print(timeit.timeit('m fibonacci(35)', globals=globals().
                                        number=1))
```

Iru_cache (Python 3.2+)

```
from functools import lru_cache
@lru_cache(maxsize=32)
def fib(n):
    if n < 2:
        return n
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)

>>> print([fib(n) for n in range(10)])
# Output: [0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34]
```

Memoization Caveats

- Memoize deterministic functions only!
 - Caching non-deterministic functions will return incorrect or unexpected results.
- Ensure caching space complexity is much smaller than function execution complexity!
 - It is best to have a **bounded** (max size) caching storage.
- Bounded caches require a smart purge once it is full:
 - By gathering usage statistics
 - Discarding older entries
 - · Discarding least frequently unused entries, etc

Using __slot__ for reducing memory usage

- Python uses a dict to store an object's instance attributes
- Creating a lot of objects (>> 100,000) uses large memory due to the storage of (default) attributes
- __slot__ can be used to tell Python not to use a dict and only allocate space for a fixed set of attributes
- Could give upto 50% reduction in memory usage (see PyPy which does this kind of optimizations by default)

```
class MyClass(object):
    __slots__ = ['name', 'identifier']

def __init__(self, name, identifier):
    self.name = name
    self.identifier = identifier
    self.set_up()

# ...
```

Python General Good Programming Practices

- We will follow PEP8 coding conventions for good programming practices
 - Complete guidelines: https://www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0008/
- Spacing:
 - 4 spaces to indent. No tabs.
 - Use blank lines to separate functions and logical sections inside functions.
 - Use spaces around operators and after commas, but not directly inside delimiters
- Commenting:
 - · Comment all nontrivial functions.
 - Add header comments at the top of files before any imports.
 - · If possible, put comments on a line of their own.

Python General Good Programming Practices

- Naming:
 - snake_case for variables/functions
 - · CamelCase for classes
 - CAPS_CASE for constants
- Decomposition and Logic:
 - Simple is better than complex.
 - · Seek abstractions and clean design.
- Automated Code Style Checking: (PEP8)
 - PyLintOnline: Captures mechanical violations (naming, spacing); advanced suggestions.
 - pycodestyle: install using pip install pycodestyle

Swapping two variables:

```
1 # Bad
2 temp = a
3 a = b
4 b = temp
```

Loop unpacking:

```
# Bad
for bundle in zip([1,2,3], 'abc'):
    num, let = bundle
    print(let * num)

# Bad
for key in d:
    val = d[key]
    print('{}: {}'.format(key, val))
# Good
for key, val in d.items():
print('{}->{}'.format(key, val))
```

Enumerate Iterables:

```
1  # Good
2  for elem in arr:
        print(elem)
4
5  # Good
6  for index, elem in enumerate(arr):
        print(index, elem)
```

• Joining Strings:

```
1 # Bad

2 s = ''

3 for color in colors:

4 s += color

5 6 # Bad

7 s = ''

8 for color in colors:

9 s += color + ', '

10 s = s[:-2]
```

```
1 # Good
2 s = ''.join(colors)
3 4 # Good
5 s = ', '.join(colors)
```

• Reduce In-Memory Buffering:

```
1  # Bad
2  ', '.join([color.upper() for color in colors])
3  # Bad
4  map(lambda x: int(x) ** 2, [line.strip() for line in file])
6  # Bad
sum([n ** 2 for n in range(1000)])

1  # Good
2  ', '.join((color.upper() for color in colors))
3  # Good
4  map(lambda x: int(x) ** 2, (line.strip() for line in file))
5  file))
6  # Good
sum(n ** 2 for n in range(1000))
```

Chained Comparison Tests:

```
1 # Bad return 0 < x and x < 10 # Bad if a < x and x < b: return x
```

```
1 # Good
2 return 0 < x < 10
3 # Good
4 if a < x < b:
return x
```

• Using in:

```
1 # Bad
2 if d.has_key(key):
3     print("Here!")
4 # Bad
5 if x == 1 or x == 2 or x == 3:
6     return True
7 # Bad
8 if 'hello'.find('lo') != -1:
9     print("Found")
```

```
1 # Good
2 if key in d:
3     print("Here!")
4 # Good
5 if x in [1, 2, 3]:
6     return True
7 # Good
8 if 'lo' in 'hello':
9     print("Found")
```

Boolean Tests:

```
1 # Good
2 if x:
3     print("Yes")
4 # Good
5 if items:
6     print("Nonempty")
7 # Good
8 if items:
9     print("Nonempty")
10 # Good
11 if x is not None:
12     print("Something")
```

• Ignore values using underscore:

• Looping Correctly:

```
# Bad
for i in range(len(colors)):
    color = colors[i]
    name = names[i]
    print(color, name)
# Bad
for ind in range(len(elems) - 1, -1, -1):
    print(elems[ind])
```

```
# Good
for color, name in zip(colors, names):
    print(color, name)
# Good
for elem in reversed(elems):
    print(elem)
```

• Initializing Lists:

```
1  # Bad
2  nones = [None, None, None, None]
3  # Bad
4  two_dim = [[None] * 4] * 5]
5  # Good
7  nones = [None] * 4
8  # Good
two_dim = [[None] * 4 for _ in range(5)]
```

• Avoid mutable default parameters:

```
1 # Good
2 def init_list(x, li=None):
3    if li is None:
4        li = []
5        li.append(x)
6        print(li)
7
8 init_list(1, [4]) # => [4, 1]
9 init_list(3) # => [3]
10 init_list(3) # => [3]
11 init_list(3) # => [3]
```

• Use Comprehensions:

```
1  # Good
2  out = [word[:-2] for word in lex if
3  word.endswith('py')]
4  # Good
lengths = {len(word) for word in lex}
```

• Use Context Managers:

```
1 # Bad
2 f = open('path/to/file')
3 try:
4     raw = f.read()
5     except IOError as e:
7     print('IOError:', e)
8 finally:
9     f.close()
```

```
1 # Good
2 with open('path/to/file') as f:
3 raw = f.read()
```

- In python, EAFP > LBYL:
 - EAFP: It's easier to ask for forgiveness than permission.
 - LBYL: Look before you leap

```
1 # LBYL
   def safe_div(m, n):
       if n == 0:
           print("Can't divide by 0")
           return None
       return m / n
   # EAFP
   def safe div(m, n):
10
       try:
11
           return m / n
12
       except ZeroDivisionError:
13
           print("Can't divide by 0")
14
       return None
```

Avoid using Catch-Alls:

```
1 # Bad
 2 try:
       n = int(input("> "))
 4 except:
       print("Invalid input.")
 6 else:
       return n ** 2
 9 # Good
10 try:
       n = int(input("> "))
12 except ValueError:
13
       print("Invalid input.")
14 else:
15
       return n ** 2
```

• Use Custom Made Exceptions:

```
# Bad
if not self.available_cheeses:
    raise ValueError("No cheese!")

# Good
class NoCheeseError(ValueError):
    pass
if not self.available_cheeses:
    raise NoCheeseError("I'm afraid we're right out, sir.")
```

Always implement Magic Methods for the defined Class:

```
class Vector():
    def __init__(self, elems):
        self.elems = elms
    def size(self):
        return len(self.elems)

v = Vector([1,2])
len(v) # => fails!
```

```
class Vector():
    def __init__(self, elems):
        self.elems = elms

def __len__(self):
    return len(self.elems)

v = Vector([1,2])

len(v) # => succeeds!
```

Serialization using Pickle

```
# Importing pickle
try:
   import cPickle as pickle # Python 2
except ImportError:
   import pickle # Python 3
# Creating Pythonic object:
class Family(object):
   def init (self, names):
       self.sons = names
   def str (self):
       return ''.join(self.sons)
my_family = Family(['John', 'David'])
# Dumping to string
pickle_data = pickle.dumps(my_family, pickle.HIGHEST_PROTOCOL)
```

Source: Python notes for professionals (accessed on Nov 2019)

Serialization using JSON

```
import json
families = (['John'], ['Mark', 'David', 'name': 'Avraham'])
# Dumping it into string
json_families = json.dumps(families)
# [["John"], ["Mark", "David", "name": "Avraham"]]
# Pretty printing
print(json.dumps(json_families, indent = 4, sort_keys=True))
# Dumping it to file
with open('families.json', 'w') as json_file:
   json.dump(families, json_file)
# Loading it from string
json families = json.loads(json families)
# Loading it from file
with open('families.json', 'r') as json file:
   json families = json.load(json file)
```

XML parsing

xml.etree.ElementTree

```
import xml.etree.ElementTree as ET
tree = ET.parse('country_data.xml')
root = tree.getroot()
for child in root:
    print(child.tag, child.attrib)
for neighbor in root.iter('neighbor'):
    print(neighbor.attrib)
for country in root.findall('country'):
    rank = country.find('rank').text
    name = country.get('name')
    print(name, rank)
```

Sources: Python documentation (accessed on Nov 2019)

XML parsing – 3rd party

untangle

```
import untangle

obj = untangle.parse('path/to/file.xml')
obj.root.child['my_attr']
```

xmltodict

```
import xmltodict
with open('path/to/file.xml') as fd:
    doc = xmltodict.parse(fd.read())
doc['my_tag']['my_attr']
```

Source: THGtP (accessed on Nov 2019)

Misc

- Native C calls in Python (extending Python with C)
 - https://docs.python.org/3.7/extending/extending.html
 - https://www.csestack.org/calling-c-functions-from-python/
- Multiprocessing https://docs.python.org/3.7/library/multiprocessing.html
- Logging https://docs.python.org/3.7/howto/logging-cookbook.html