TUPLES, LISTS, ALIASING, MUTABILITY, CLONING

LAST TIME

- functions
- decomposition – create structure
- abstraction – suppress details
- from now on will be using functions a lot

Objective

- have seen variable types: `int`, `float`, `bool`, `string`
- introduce new **compound data types**
  - tuples
  - lists
- idea of aliasing
- idea of mutability
- idea of cloning

Aliasing = memory allocation (데이터 access)
Mutability = 바꿀 수 있는가?
Cloning = 복제

TUPLES

- an ordered sequence of elements, can mix element types
- cannot change element values, **immutable**
- represented with parentheses

remember strings?

```
te = ()
t = (2,"mit",3)
```

empty tuple

```
t[0]                          → evaluates to 2
(2,"mit",3) + (5,6)           → evaluates to (2,"mit",3,5,6)
t[1:2]      → slice tuple, evaluates to ("mit",)
t[1:3]      → slice tuple, evaluates to ("mit",3)
len(t)      → evaluates to 3
t[1] = 4    → gives error, can't modify object
```

extra comma means a tuple with one element

TUPLES

- conveniently used to **swap** variable values

```
x = y
y = x
```

```
temp = x
x = y
y = temp
```

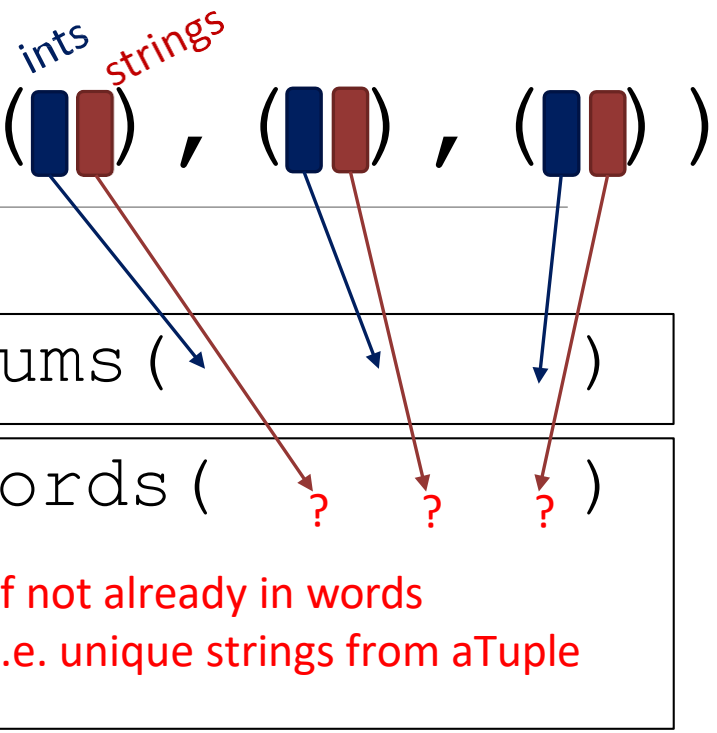
```
(x, y) = (y, x)
```

- used to **return more than one value** from a function

```
def quotient_and_remainder(x, y):
    q = x // y
    r = x % y
    return (q, r)
(quot, rem) = quotient_and_remainder(4,5)
```

integer division

MANIPULATING TUPLES



- can **iterate** over tuples

```
def get_data(aTuple):
    nums = ()
    words = ()
    for t in aTuple:
        nums = nums + (t[0],)
        if t[1] not in words:
            words = words + (t[1],)
    min_n = min(nums)
    max_n = max(nums)
    unique_words = len(words)
    return (min_n, max_n, unique_words)
```

empty tuple

singleton tuple

LISTS

- **ordered sequence** of information, accessible by index
- a list is denoted by **square brackets**, `[ ]`
- a list contains **elements**
  - usually homogeneous (ie, all integers)
  - can contain mixed types (not common)
- list elements can be changed so a list is **mutable**

INDICES AND ORDERING

```
a_list = []
```

empty list

```
L = [2, 'a', 4, [1,2]]
```

`len(L)` → evaluates to 4

`L[0]` → evaluates to 2

`L[2]+1` → evaluates to 5

`L[3]` → evaluates to `[1,2]`, another list!

`L[4]` → gives an error

```
i = 2
```

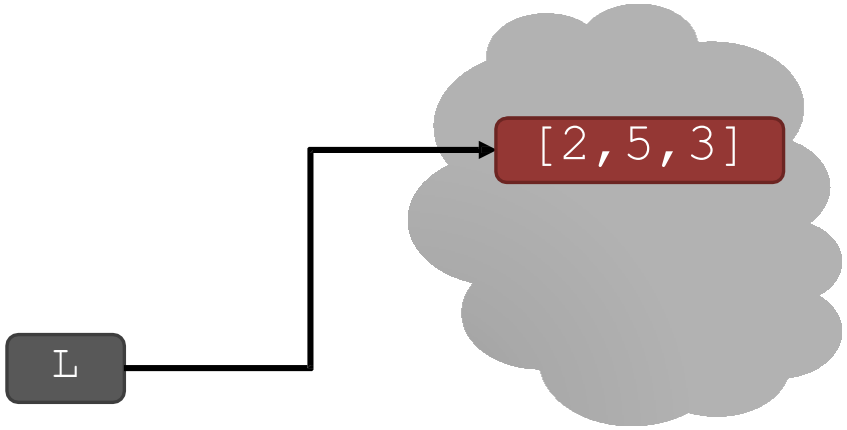
`L[i-1]` → evaluates to ‘a’ since `L[1]='a'` above

CHANGING ELEMENTS

- lists are **mutable**!
- assigning to an element at an index changes the value

```
L = [2, 1, 3]
L[1] = 5
```

- `L` is now `[2, 5, 3]`, note this is the **same object** `L`



ITERATING OVER A LIST

- compute the **sum of elements** of a list
- common pattern, iterate over list elements

like strings, can iterate over list elements directly

```
total = 0
for i in range(len(L)):
    total += L[i]
print total
```

```
total = 0
for i in L:
    total += i
print total
```

- notice
  - list elements are indexed `0` to `len(L)-1`
  - `range(n)` goes from `0` to `n-1`

OPERATIONS ON LISTS - ADD

- **add** elements to end of list with `L.append(element)`
- **mutates** the list!

```
L = [2,1,3]
L.append(5)
```

→ L is now `[2,1,3,5]`

- what is the dot?
  - lists are Python objects, everything in Python is an object
  - objects have data
  - objects have methods and functions
  - access this information by `object_name.do_something()`
  - will learn more about these later

OPERATIONS ON LISTS - ADD

- to combine lists together use **concatenation**, + operator, to give you a new list
- **mutate** list with `L.extend(some_list)`

```
L1 = [2,1,3]
L2 = [4,5,6]
L3 = L1 + L2
```

→ `L3` is `[2,1,3,4,5,6]`
`L1, L2` unchanged

```
L1.extend([0,6])
```

→ mutated `L1` to `[2,1,3,0,6]`

OPERATIONS ON LISTS - REMOVE

- delete element at a **specific index** with `del(L[index])`
- remove element at **end of list** with `L.pop()`, returns the removed element
- remove a **specific element** with `L.remove(element)`
  - looks for the element and removes it
  - if element occurs multiple times, removes first occurrence
  - if element not in list, gives an error

all these operations mutate the list

```
L = [2,1,3,6,3,7,0] # do below in order
L.remove(2) → mutates L = [1,3,6,3,7,0]
L.remove(3) → mutates L = [1,6,3,7,0]
del(L[1])   → mutates L = [1,3,7,0]
L.pop()     → returns 0 and mutates L = [1,3,7]
```

CONVERT LISTS TO STRINGS AND BACK

- convert **string to list** with `list(s)`, returns a list with every character from `s` an element in `L`
- can use `s.split()`, to **split a string on a character** parameter, splits on spaces if called without a parameter
- use `''.join(L)` to turn a **list of characters into a string**, can give a character in quotes to add char between every element

```
s = "I<3 cs"          → s is a string
list(s)               → returns ['I','<','3',' ','c','s']
s.split('<')          → returns ['I', '3 cs']
L = ['a','b','c']     → L is a list
''.join(L)            → returns "abc"
'_'.join(L)           → returns "a_b_c"
```

OTHER LIST OPERATIONS

- `sort()` and `sorted()`
- `reverse()`
- and many more!
  https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/datastructures.html

```
L=[9,6,0,3]
```

`sorted(L)` → returns sorted list, does **not mutate** `L`

`L.sort()` → **mutates** `L=[0,3,6,9]`

`L.reverse()` → **mutates** `L=[9,6,3,0]`

MUTATION, ALIASING, CLONING

Again, Python Tutor is your best friend to help sort this out!

http://www.pythontutor.com/

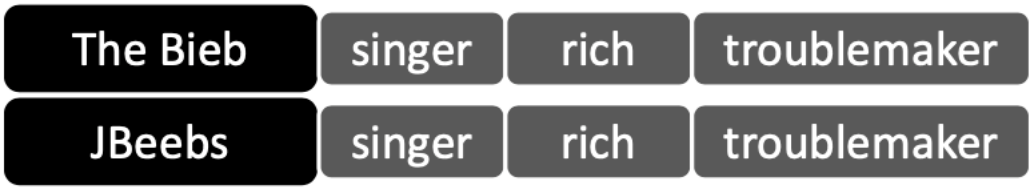
LISTS IN MEMORY

- lists are **mutable**
- behave differently than immutable types
- is an object in memory
- variable name points to object
- any variable pointing to that object is affected
- key phrase to keep in mind when working with lists is **side effects**

AN ANALOGY

- attributes of a person
  - singer, rich
- he is known by many names
- all nicknames point to the **same person**
  - add new attribute to **one nickname** …

  - … **all his nicknames** refer to old attributes AND all new ones

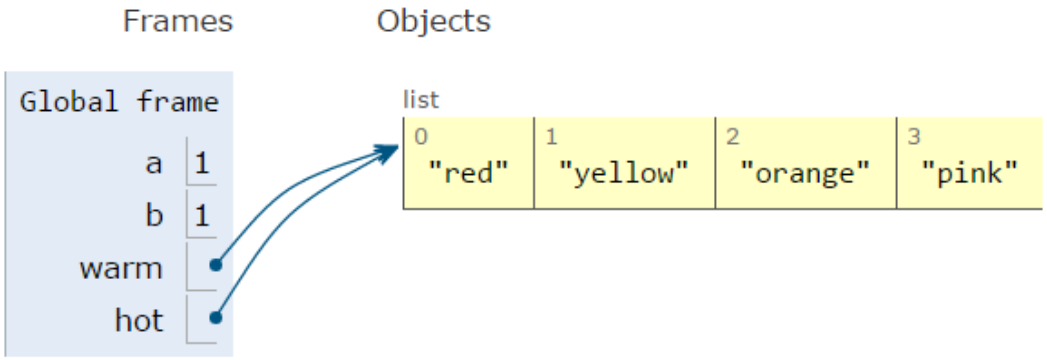


ALIASES

- `hot` is an **alias** for `warm` – changing one changes the other!
- `append()` has a side effect

```
1  a = 1
2  b = a
3  print(a)
4  print(b)
5
6  warm = ['red', 'yellow', 'orange']
7  hot = warm
8  hot.append('pink')
9  print(hot)
10 print(warm)
```

```
1
1
['red', 'yellow', 'orange', 'pink']
['red', 'yellow', 'orange', 'pink']
```

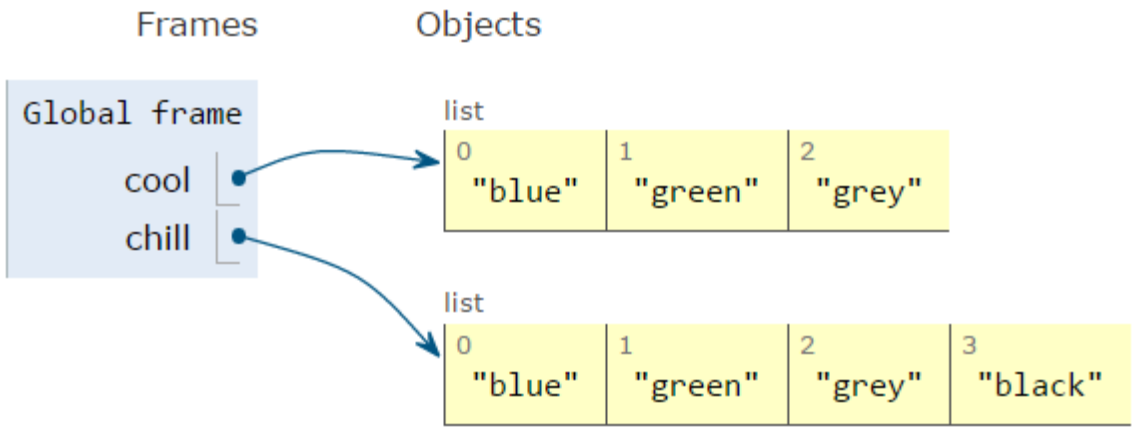


CLONING A LIST

- create a new list and **copy every element** using
  `chill = cool[:]`

```
1 cool = ['blue', 'green', 'grey']
2 chill = cool[:]
3 chill.append('black')
4 print(chill)
5 print(cool)
```

```
['blue', 'green', 'grey', 'black']
['blue', 'green', 'grey']
```

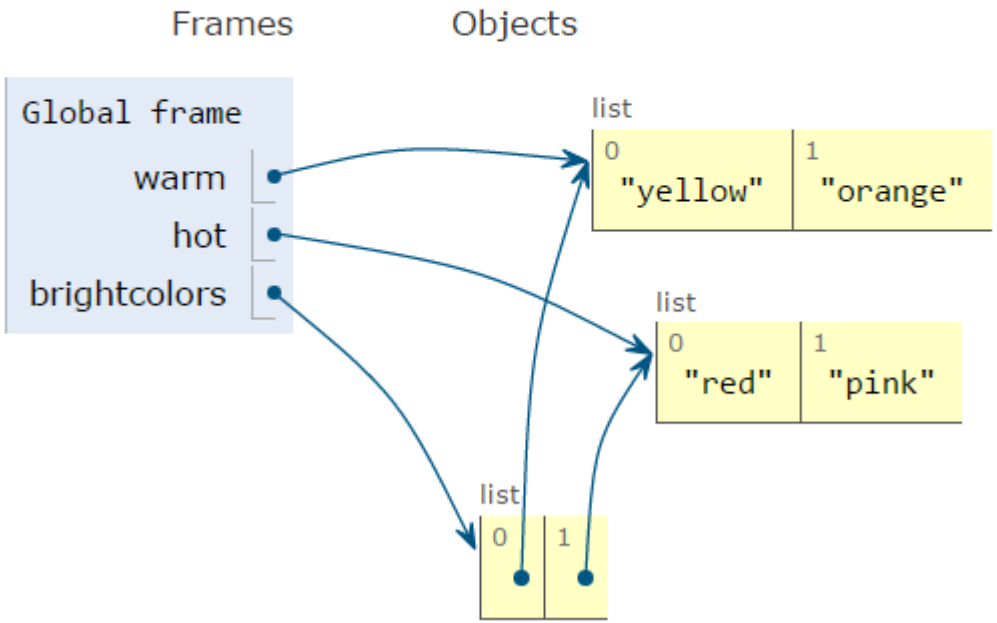


LISTS OF LISTS OF LISTS OF….

- can have **nested** lists
- side effects still possible after mutation

```
[['yellow', 'orange'], ['red']]
['red', 'pink']
[['yellow', 'orange'], ['red', 'pink']]
```

```
1  warm = ['yellow', 'orange']
2  hot = ['red']
3  brightcolors = [warm]
4  brightcolors.append(hot)
5  print(brightcolors)
6  hot.append('pink')
7  print(hot)
8  print(brightcolors)
```



MUTATION AND ITERATION
Try this in Python Tutor!

- **avoid** mutating a list as you are iterating over it

```
def remove_dups(L1, L2):
    for e in L1:
        if e in L2:
            L1.remove(e)
```

```
def remove_dups(L1, L2):
    L1_copy = L1[:]
    for e in L1_copy:
        if e in L2:
            L1.remove(e)
```

```
L1 = [1, 2, 3, 4]
L2 = [1, 2, 5, 6]
remove_dups(L1, L2)
```

clone list first, note that `L1_copy = L1` does NOT clone

- `L1` is `[2,3,4]` not `[3,4]` Why?
  - Python uses an internal counter to keep track of index it is in the loop
  - mutating changes the list length but Python doesn't update the counter
  - loop never sees element 2

RECURSION, DICTIONARIES

LAST TIME

- tuples - immutable
- lists - mutable
- aliasing, cloning
- mutability side effects

Objective

- recursion – divide/decrease and conquer
- dictionaries – another mutable object type

RECURSION

Recursion is the process of repeating items in a self-s imilar way.

WHAT IS RECURSION?

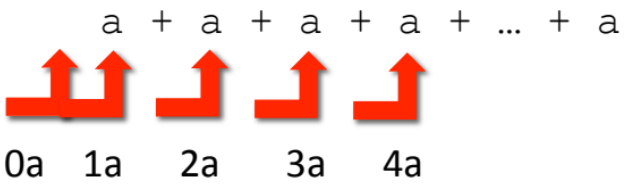
- Algorithmically: a way to design solutions to problems by **divide-and-conquer** or **decrease-and-conquer**
  - reduce a problem to simpler versions of the same problem
- Semantically: a programming technique where a **function calls itself**
  - in programming, goal is to NOT have infinite recursion
    - must have **1 or more base cases** that are easy to solve
    - must solve the same problem on **some other input** with the goal of simplifying the larger problem input

ITERATIVE ALGORITHMS SO FAR

- looping constructs (`while` and `for` loops) lead to **iterative** algorithms
- can capture computation in a set of **state variables** that update on each iteration through loop

MULTIPLICATION – ITERATIVE SOLUTION

- "multiply `a` * `b`" is equivalent to "add `a` to itself `b` times"
- capture **state** by
  - an **iteration** number (`i`) starts at b
    `i` ← `i-1` and stop when 0
  - a current **value of computation** (`result`)
    `result` ← `result + a`




```
def mult_iter(a, b):
    result = 0
    while b > 0:
        result += a
        b -= 1
    return result
```

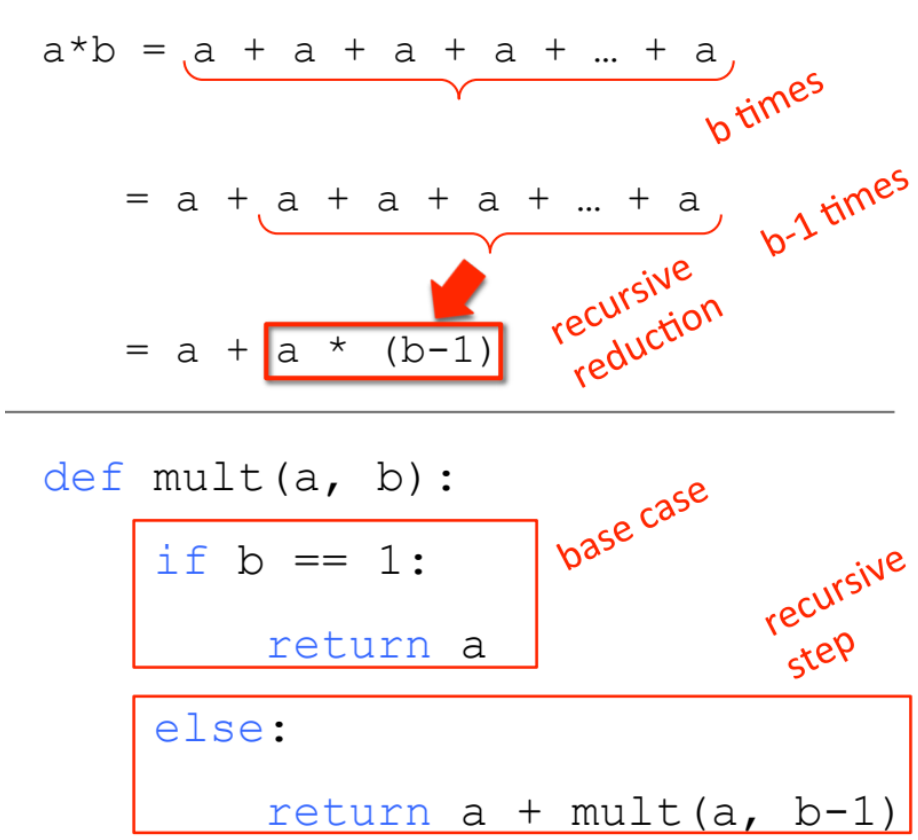
iteration

current value of computation, a running sum

current value of iteration variable

MULTIPLICATION – RECURSIVE SOLUTION

- **recursive step**
  - think how to reduce problem to a **simpler/ smaller version** of same problem
- **base case**
  - keep reducing problem until reach a simple case that can be **solved directly**
  - when b = 1, a*b = a



FACTORIAL

`n! = n*(n-1)*(n-2)*(n-3)* … * 1`

- for what `n` do we know the factorial?

  n = 1 →
  ```
  if n == 1:
      return 1
  ```
  base case

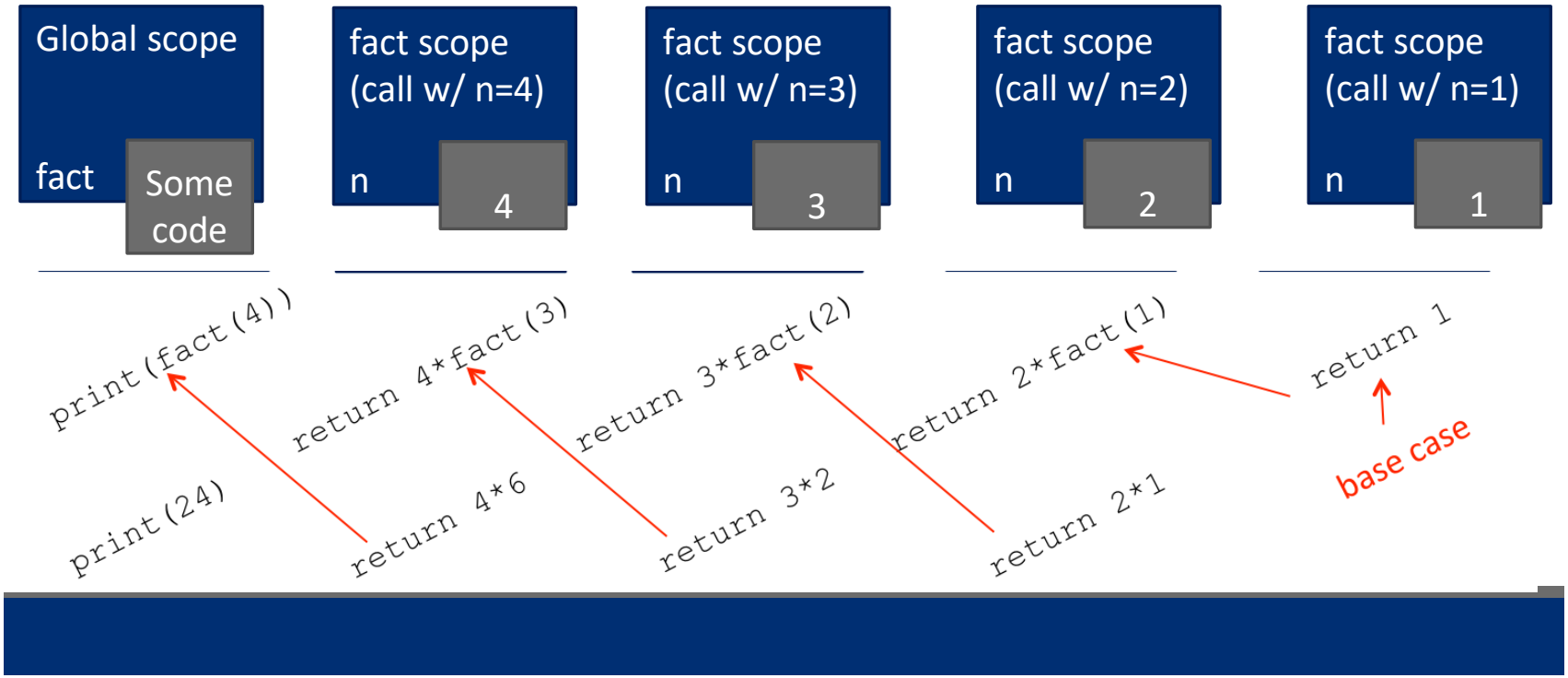
- how to reduce problem? Rewrite in terms of something simpler to reach base case

  n*(n-1)! →
  ```
  else:
      return n*factorial(n-1)
  ```
  recursive step

RECURSIVE FUNCTION SCOPE EXAMPLE

```
def fact(n):
    if n == 1:
        return 1
    else:
        return n*fact(n-1)

print(fact(4))
```



SOME OBSERVATIONS

- each recursive call to a function creates its **own scope/environment**
- **bindings of variables** in a scope are not changed by recursive call
- flow of control passes back to **previous scope** once function call returns value

using the same variable but they are different objects in separate scopes

ITERATION vs. RECURSION

```
def factorial_iter(n):
    prod = 1
    for i in range(1,n+1):
        prod *= i
    return prod
```

```
def factorial(n):
    if n == 1:
        return 1
    else:
        return n*factorial(n-1)
```

- recursion may be simpler, more intuitive
- recursion may be efficient from programmer POV
- recursion may not be efficient from computer POV

INDUCTIVE REASONING

- How do we know that our recursive code will work?
- `mult_iter` terminates because b is initially positive, and decreases by 1 each time around loop; thus must eventually become less than 1
- `mult` called with b = 1 has no recursive call and stops
- `mult` called with b > 1 makes a recursive call with a smaller version of b; must eventually reach call with b = 1

```
def mult_iter(a, b):
    result = 0
    while b > 0:
        result += a
        b -= 1
    return result


def mult(a, b):
    if b == 1:
        return a
    else:
        return a + mult(a, b-1)
```

MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION

- To prove a statement indexed on integers is true for all values of n:
  - Prove it is true when n is smallest value (e.g. n = 0 or n = 1)
  - Then prove that if it is true for an arbitrary value of n, one can show that it must be true for n+1

EXAMPLE OF INDUCTION

- $0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + \ldots + n = (n(n+1))/2$
- Proof:
  - If n = 0, then LHS is 0 and RHS is 0*1/2 = 0, so true
  - Assume true for some k, then need to show that

    $0 + 1 + 2 + \ldots + k + (k+1) = ((k+1)(k+2))/2$
    - LHS is $k(k+1)/2 + (k+1)$ by assumption that property holds for problem of size k
    - This becomes, by algebra, $((k+1)(k+2))/2$
  - Hence expression holds for all n >= 0

RELEVANCE TO CODE?

- Same logic applies

```
def mult(a, b):
    if b == 1:
        return a
    else:
        return a + mult(a, b-1)
```

- Base case, we can show that `mult` must return correct answer
- For recursive case, we can assume that `mult` correctly returns an answer for problems of size smaller than b, then by the addition step, it must also return a correct answer for problem of size b
- Thus by induction, code correctly returns answer

TOWERS OF HANOI

- The story:
  - 3 tall spikes
  - Stack of 64 different sized discs – start on one spike
  - Need to move stack to second spike (at which point universe ends)
  - Can only move one disc at a time, and a larger disc can never cover up a small disc

TOWERS OF HANOI

- Having seen a set of examples of different sized stacks, how would you write a program to print out the right set of moves?
- **Think recursively!**
  - Solve a smaller problem
  - Solve a basic problem
  - Solve a smaller problem

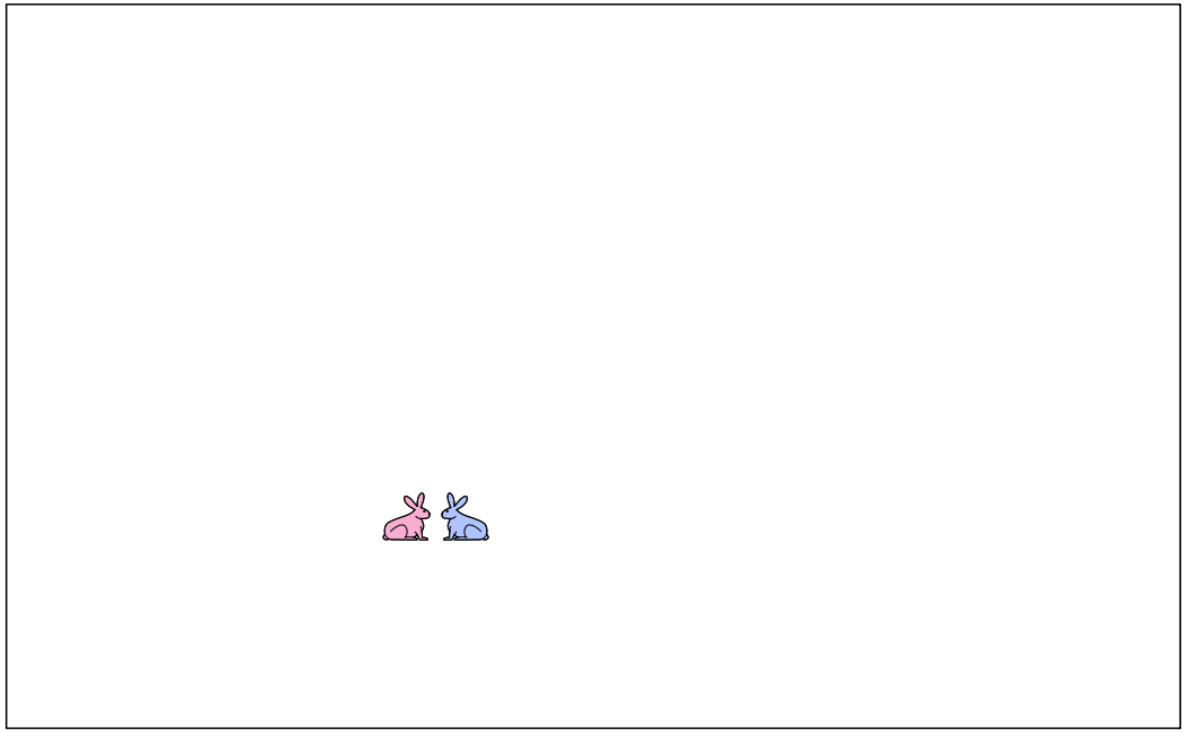
```
def printMove(fr, to):
    print('move from ' + str(fr) + ' to ' + str(to))

def Towers(n, fr, to, spare):
    if n == 1:
        printMove(fr, to)
    else:
        Towers(n-1, fr, spare, to)
        Towers(1, fr, to, spare)
        Towers(n-1, spare, to, fr)
```

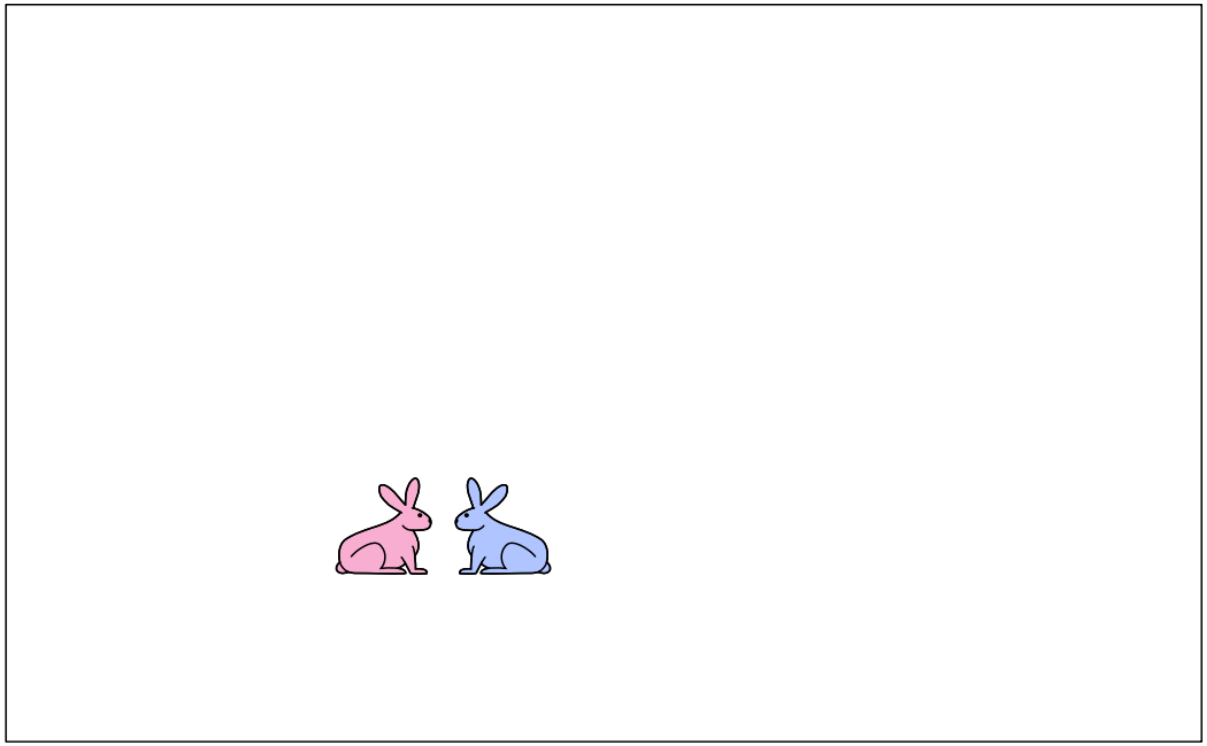
https://namu.wiki/w/%ED%95%98%EB%85%B8%EC%9D%B4%EC%9D%98%20%ED%83%91

RECURSION WITH MULTIPLE BASE CASES

- Fibonacci numbers
  - Leonardo of Pisa (aka Fibonacci) modeled the following challenge
    - Newborn pair of rabbits (one female, one male) are put in a pen
    - Rabbits mate at age of one month
    - Rabbits have a one month gestation period
    - Assume rabbits never die, that female always produces one new pair (one male, one female) every month from its second month on.
    - How many female rabbits are there at the end of one year?



Demo courtesy of Prof. Denny Freeman and Adam Hartz



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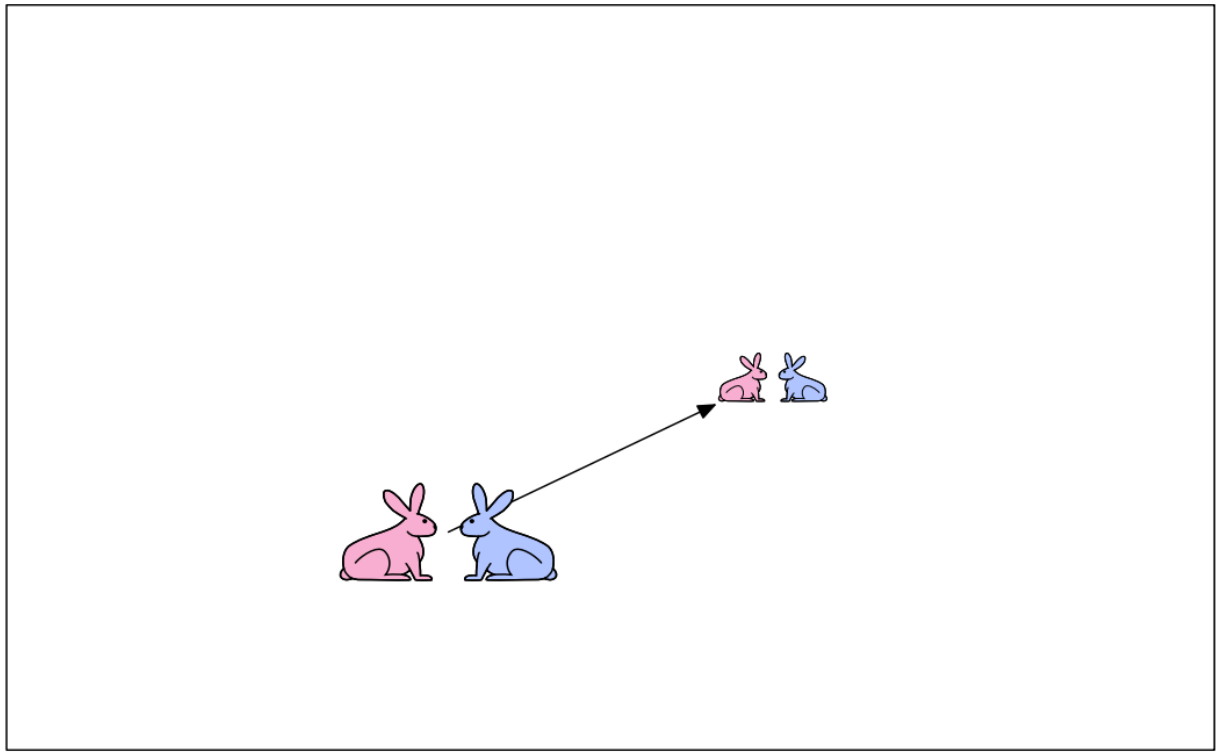

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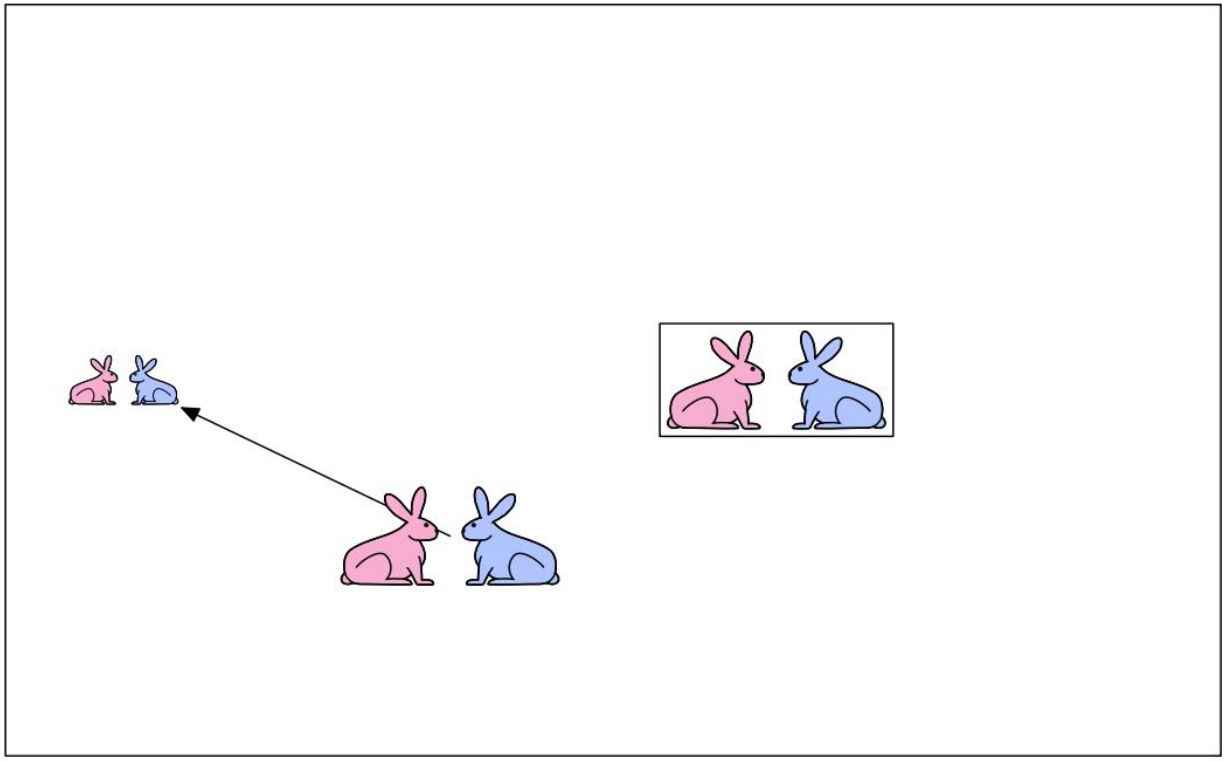

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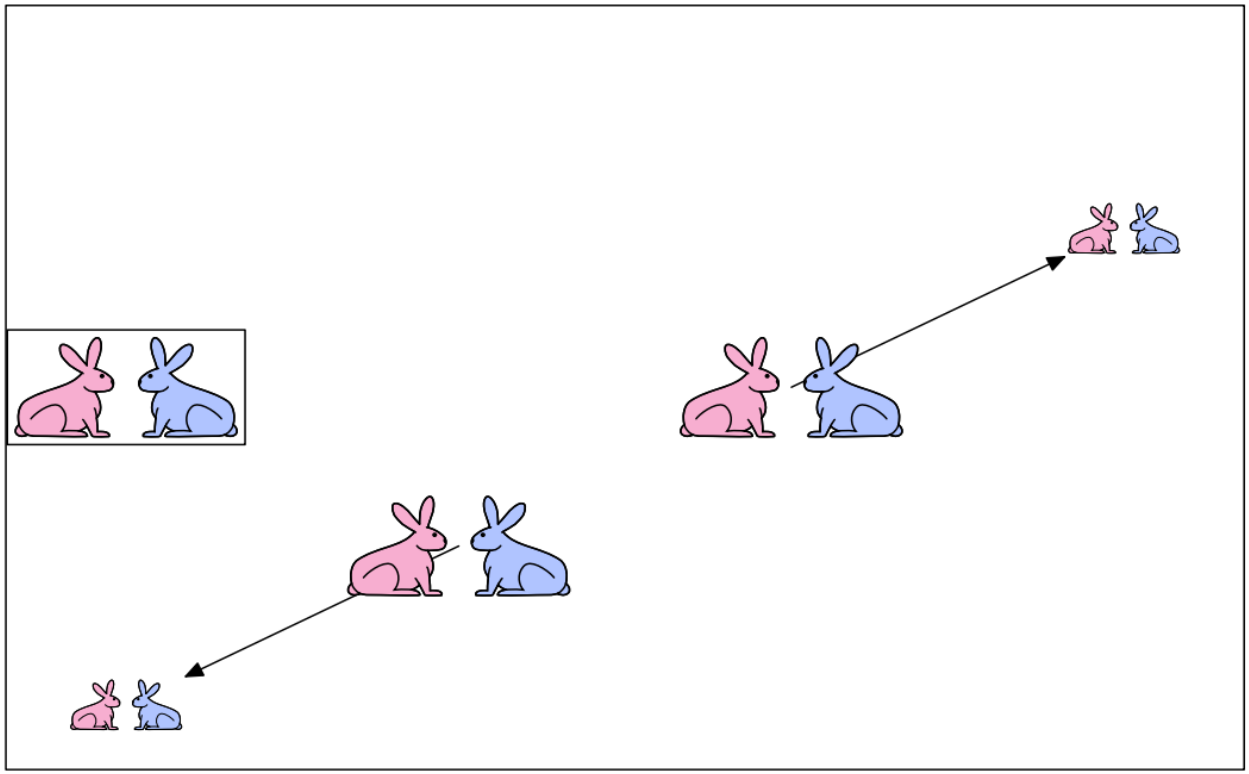

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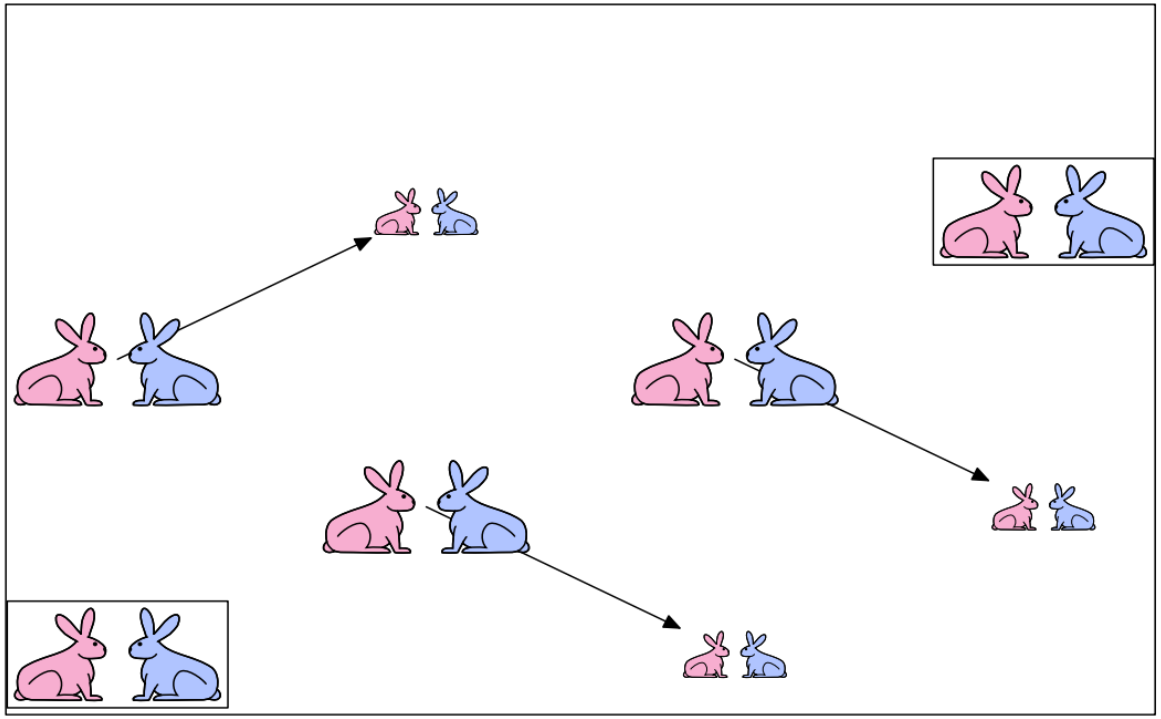

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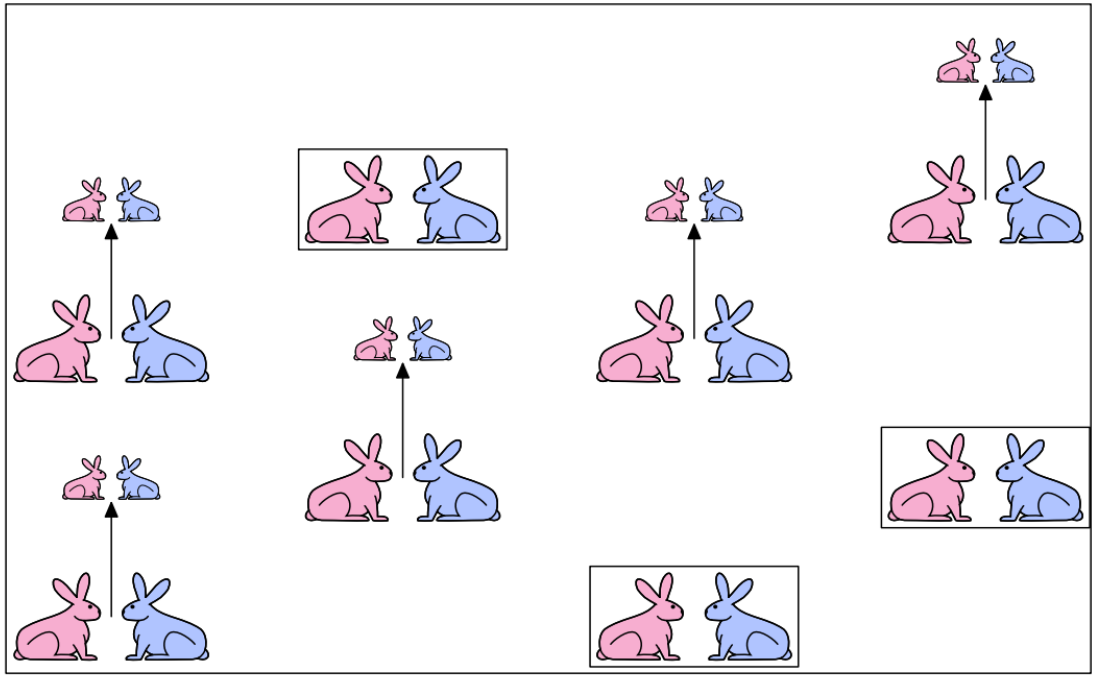

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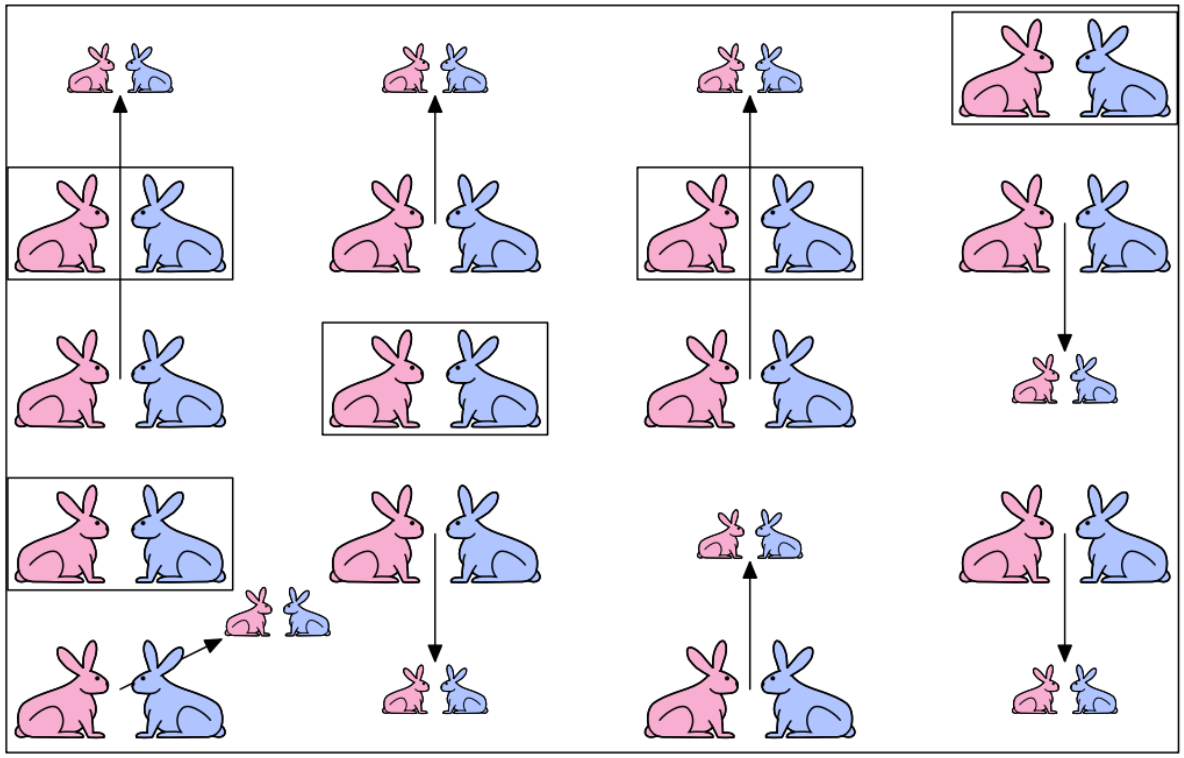

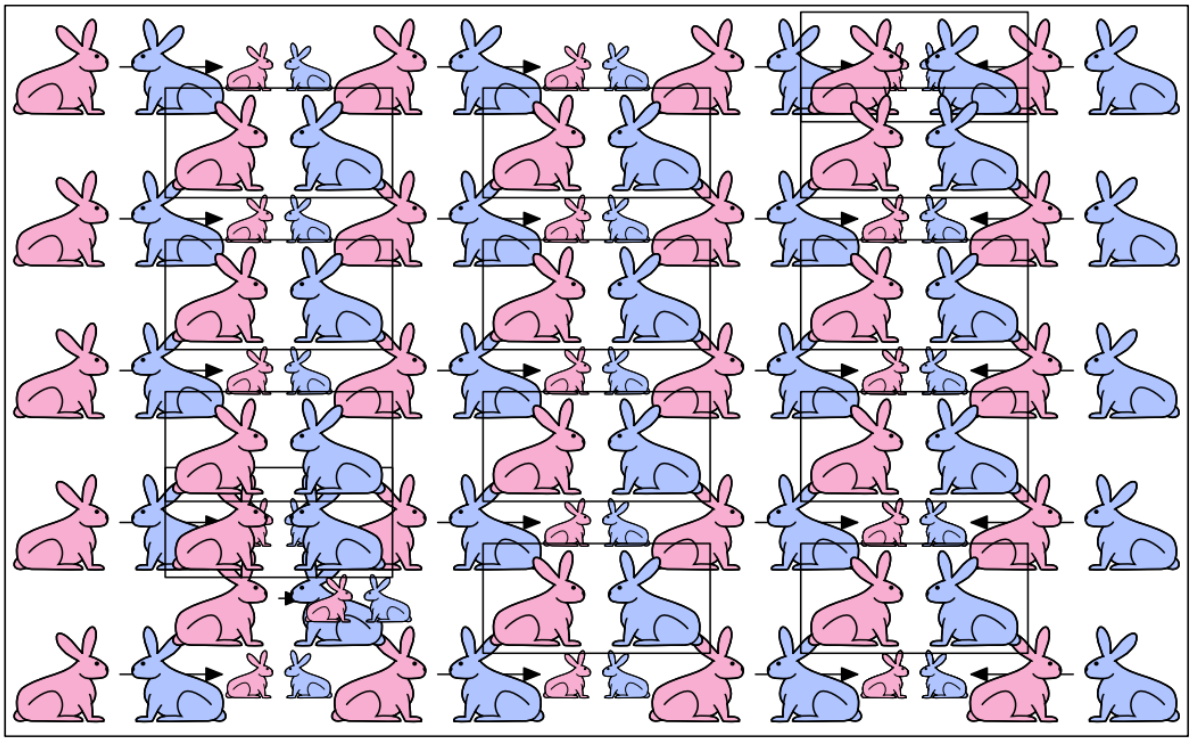

Demo courtesy of Prof. Denny Freeman and Adam Hartz

FIBONACCI

After one month (call it 0) – 1 female

After second month – still 1 female (now pregnant)

After third month – two females, one pregnant, one not

In general, females(n) = females(n-1) + females(n-2)

- Every female alive at month n-2 will produce one female in month n;
- These can be added those alive in month n-1 to get total alive in month n

Month	Females
0	1

FIBONACCI

- Base cases:
  - Females(0) = 1
  - Females(1) = 1
- Recursive case
  - Females(n) = Females(n-1) + Females(n-2)

FIBONACCI

```
def fib(x):
    """assumes x an int >= 0
       returns Fibonacci of x"""”
    if x == 0 or x == 1:
        return 1
    else:
        return fib(x-1) + fib(x-2)
```

RECURSION ON NON- NUMERICS

- how to check if a string of characters is a palindrome, i.e., reads the same forwards and backwards
  - “Able was I, ere I saw Elba” – attributed to Napoleon
  - “Are we not drawn onward, we few, drawn onward to new era?” – attributed to Anne Michaels

Image courtesy of wikipedia, in the public domain.

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SOLVING RECURSIVELY?

- First, convert the string to just characters, by stripping out punctuation, and converting upper case to lower case
- Then
  - Base case: a string of length 0 or 1 is a palindrome
  - Recursive case:
    - If first character matches last character, then is a palindrome if middle section is a palindrome

EXAMPLE

- ‘Able was I, ere I saw Elba’ → ‘ablewasiereisawleba’
- `isPalindrome('ablewasiereisawleba')`
- is same as
  - ‘a’ == ‘a’ and `isPalindrome('blewasiereisawleb')`

```
def isPalindrome(s):

    def toChars(s):
        s = s.lower()
        ans = ''
        for c in s:
            if c in 'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz':
                ans = ans + c
        return ans

    def isPal(s):
        if len(s) <= 1:
            return True
        else:
            return s[0] == s[-1] and isPal(s[1:-1])

    return isPal(toChars(s))
```

DIVIDE AND CONQUER

- an example of a “divide and conquer” algorithm
- solve a hard problem by breaking it into a set of sub-problems such that:
  - sub-problems are easier to solve than the original
  - solutions of the sub-problems can be combined to solve the original

DICTIONARIES

HOW TO STORE STUDENT INFO

- so far, can store using separate lists for every info

```
names = ['Ana', 'John', 'Denise', 'Katy']
grade = ['B', 'A+', 'A', 'A']
course = [2.00, 6.0001, 20.002, 9.01]
```

- a **separate list** for each item
- each list must have the **same length**
- info stored across lists at **same index**, each index refers to info for a different person

HOW TO UPDATE/RETRIEVE STUDENT INFO

```
def get_grade(student, name_list, grade_list, course_list):
    i = name_list.index(student)
    grade = grade_list[i]
    course = course_list[i]
    return (course, grade)
```

- **messy** if have a lot of different info to keep track of
- must maintain **many lists** and pass them as arguments
- must **always index** using integers
- must remember to change multiple lists

A BETTER AND CLEANER WAY – A DICTIONARY

- nice to **index item of interest directly** (not always int)
- nice to use **one data structure**, no separate lists

A list

0	Elem 1
1	Elem 2
2	Elem 3
3	Elem 4
…	…

index element

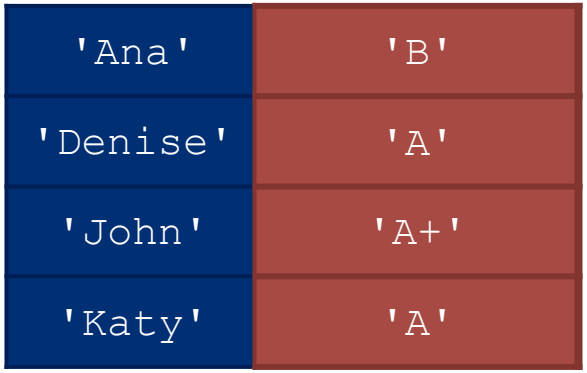
A dictionary

Key 1	Val 1
Key 2	Val 2
Key 3	Val 3
Key 4	Val 4
…	…

custom index by label element

A PYTHON DICTIONARY

- store pairs of data
  - key
  - value



empty dictionary

```
my_dict = {}
```

```
grades = {'Ana':'B', 'John':'A+', 'Denise':'A', 'Katy':'A'}
```

key1 val1 key2 val2 key3 val3 key4 val4

DICTIONARY LOOKUP

- similar to indexing into a list
- **looks up** the **key**
- **returns** the **value** associated with the key
- if key isn't found, get an error

'Ana'	'B'
'Denise'	'A'
'John'	'A+'
'Katy'	'A'

```
grades = {'Ana':'B', 'John':'A+', 'Denise':'A', 'Katy':'A'}
grades['John']      → evaluates to 'A+'
grades['Sylvan']    → gives a KeyError
```

DICTIONARY OPERATIONS

'Ana'	'B'
'Denise'	'A'
'John'	'A+'
'Katy'	'A'
'Sylvan'	'A'

```
grades = {'Ana':'B', 'John':'A+', 'Denise':'A', 'Katy':'A'}
```

- **add** an entry

```
grades['Sylvan'] = 'A'
```

- **test** if key in dictionary

```
'John' in grades
'Daniel' in grades
```

→ returns `True`
→ returns `False`

- **delete** entry

```
del(grades['Ana'])
```

DICTIONARY OPERATIONS

'Ana'	'B'
'Denise'	'A'
'John'	'A+'
'Katy'	'A'

```
grades = {'Ana':'B', 'John':'A+', 'Denise':'A', 'Katy':'A'}
```

- get an **iterable that acts like a tuple of all keys**

  no guaranteed order

  `grades.keys()` → returns `['Denise','Katy','John','Ana']`

- get an **iterable that acts like a tuple of all values**

  `grades.values()` → returns `['A', 'A', 'A+', 'B']`

  no guaranteed order

DICTIONARY KEYS and VALUES

- values
  - any type (**immutable and mutable**)
  - can be **duplicates**
  - dictionary values can be lists, even other dictionaries!
- keys
  - must be **unique**
  - **immutable** type (`int`, `float`, `string`, `tuple`, `bool`)
    - actually need an object that is **hashable,** but think of as immutable as all immutable types are hashable
  - careful with `float` type as a key
- **no order** to keys or values!

```
d = {4:{1:0}, (1,3):"twelve", 'const':[3.14,2.7,8.44]}
```

`list` vs `dict`

- **ordered** sequence of elements
- look up elements by an integer index
- indices have an **order**
- index is an **integer**

- **matches** “keys” to “values”
- look up one item by another item
- **no order** is guaranteed
- key can be any **immutable** type

EXAMPLE: 3 FUNCTIONS TO ANALYZE SONG LYRICS

1) create a **frequency dictionary** mapping `str:int`

2) find **word that occurs the most** and how many times
- use a list, in case there is more than one word
- return a tuple `(list,int)` for (words_list, highest_freq)

3) find the **words that occur at least X times**
- let user choose "at least X times", so allow as parameter
- return a list of tuples, each tuple is a `(list, int)` containing the list of words ordered by their frequency
- IDEA: From song dictionary, find most frequent word. Delete most common word. Repeat. It works because you are mutating the song dictionary.

CREATING A DICTIONARY

```
def lyrics_to_frequencies(lyrics):
    myDict = {}
    for word in lyrics:
        if word in myDict:
            myDict[word] += 1
        else:
            myDict[word] = 1
    return myDict
```

can iterate over list

can iterate over keys in dictionary

update value associated with key

USING THE DICTIONARY

```
def most_common_words(freqs):
    values = freqs.values()
    best = max(values)
    words = []
    for k in freqs:
        if freqs[k] == best:
            words.append(k)
    return (words, best)
```

this is an iterable, so can apply built-in function

can iterate over keys in dictionary

LEVERAGING DICTIONARY PROPERTIES

```
def words_often(freqs, minTimes):
    result = []
    done = False
    while not done:
        temp = most_common_words(freqs)
        if temp[1] >= minTimes:
            result.append(temp)
            for w in temp[0]:
                del(freqs[w])
        else:
            done = True
    return result


print(words_often(beatles, 5))
```

can directly mutate dictionary; makes it easier to iterate

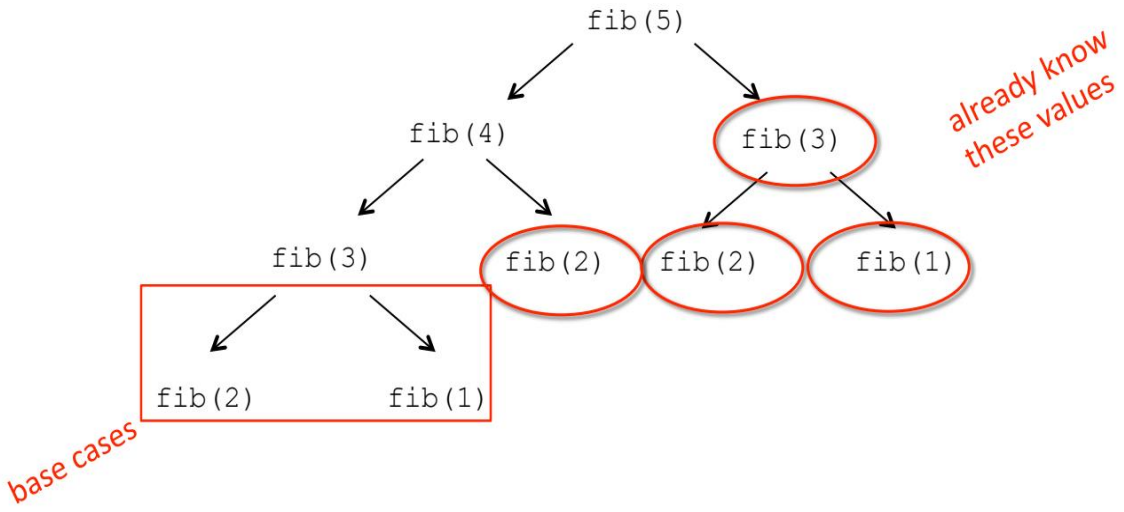
FIBONACCI RECURSIVE CODE

```
def fib(n):
    if n == 1:
        return 1
    elif n == 2:
        return 2
    else:
        return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```

- two base cases
- calls itself twice
- this code is inefficient

INEFFICIENT FIBONACCI

`fib(n) = fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)`



- **recalculating** the same values many times!
- could keep **track** of already calculated values

FIBONACCI WITH A DICTIONARY

```
def fib_efficient(n, d):
    if  n in d:
        return d[n]
    else:
        ans = fib_efficient(n-1, d) + fib_efficient(n-2, d)
        d[n] = ans
        return ans

d = {1:1, 2:2}
print(fib_efficient(6, d))
```

Method sometimes called " memoization"

Initialize dictionary with base cases

- do a **lookup first** in case already calculated the value
- **modify dictionary** as progress through function calls

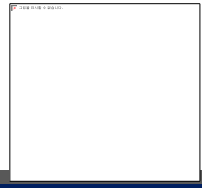
EFFICIENCY GAINS

- Calling fib(34) results in 11,405,773 recursive calls to the procedure
- Calling fib_efficient(34) results in 65 recursive calls to the procedure
- Using dictionaries to capture intermediate results can be very efficient
- But note that this only works for procedures without side effects (i.e., the procedure will always produce the same result for a specific argument independent of any other computations between calls)

TESTING, DEBUGGING, EXCEPTIONS, ASSERTIONS

(download slides and .py files and follow along!)

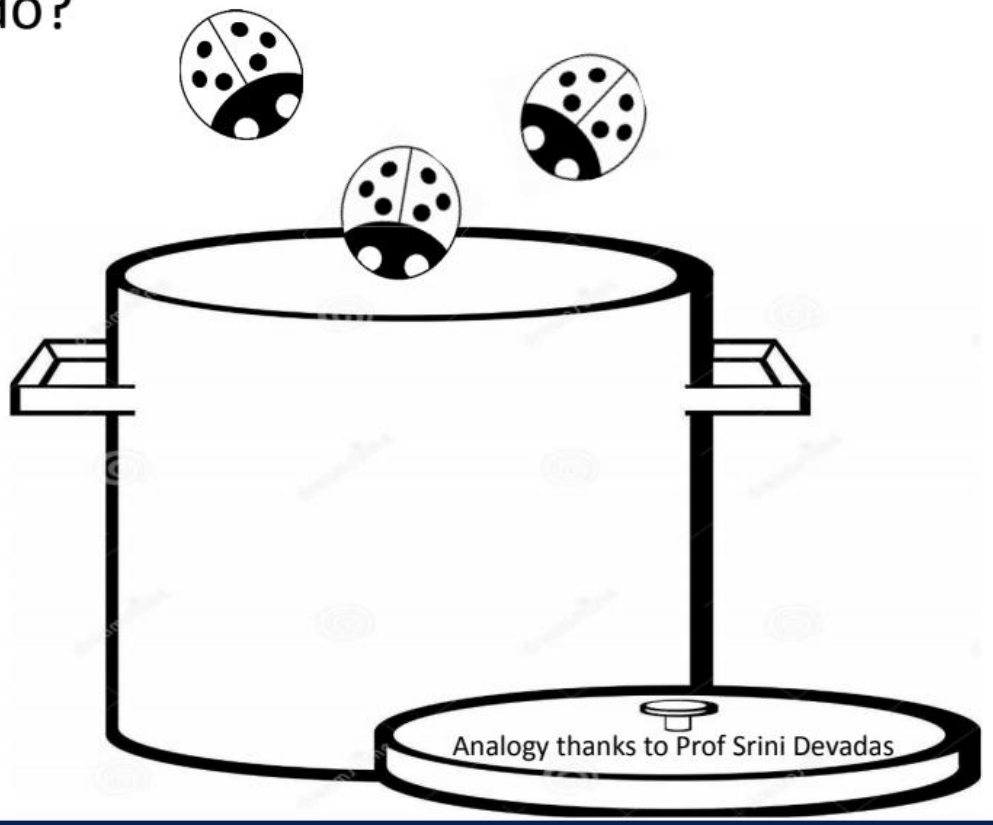
6.0001 LECTURE 7



WE AIM FOR HIGH QUALITY – AN ANALOGY WITH SOUP

You are making soup but bugs keep falling in from the ceiling. What do you do?

- check soup for bugs
  - testing
- keep lid closed
  - defensive programming
- clean kitchen
  - eliminate source of bugs



DEFENSIVE PROGRAMMING

- Write **specifications** for functions
- **Modularize** programs
- Check **conditions** on inputs/outputs (assertions)

TESTING/VALIDATION

- **Compare** input/output pairs to specification
- "It's not working!"
- "How can I break my program?"

DEBUGGING

- **Study events** leading up to an error
- "Why is it not working?"
- "How can I fix my program?"

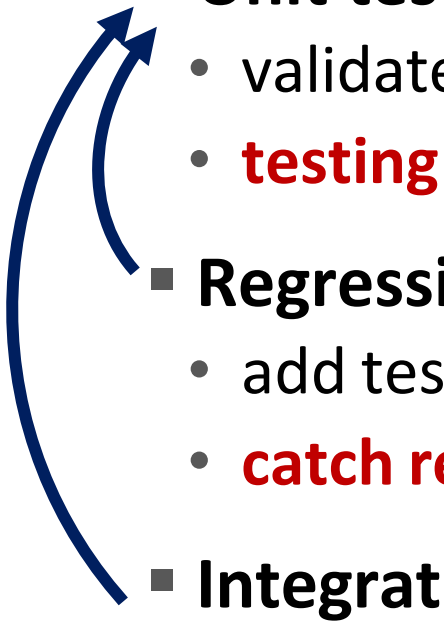
SET YOURSELF UP FOR EASY TESTING AND DEBUGGING

- from the **start**, design code to ease this part
- break program up into **modules** that can be tested and debugged individually
- **document constraints** on modules
  - what do you expect the input to be?
  - what do you expect the output to be?
- **document assumptions** behind code design

WHEN ARE YOU READY TO TEST?

- ensure **code runs**
  - remove syntax errors
  - remove static semantic errors
  - Python interpreter can usually find these for you
- have a **set of expected results**
  - an input set
  - for each input, the expected output

CLASSES OF TESTS



- **Unit testing**
  - validate each piece of program
  - **testing each function** separately
- **Regression testing**
  - add test for bugs as you find them
  - **catch reintroduced** errors that were previously fixed
- **Integration testing**
  - does **overall program** work?
  - tend to rush to do this

TESTING APPROACHES

- **intuition** about natural boundaries to the problem

```
def is_bigger(x, y):
    """ Assumes x and y are ints
    Returns True if y is less than x, else False """
```

  - can you come up with some natural partitions?
- if no natural partitions, might do **random testing**
  - probability that code is correct increases with more tests
  - better options below
- **black box testing**
  - explore paths through specification
- **glass box testing**
  - explore paths through code

BLACK BOX TESTING

```
def sqrt(x, eps):
    """ Assumes x, eps floats, x >= 0, eps > 0
    Returns res such that x-eps <= res*res <= x+eps """
```

- designed **without looking** at the code
- can be done by someone other than the implementer to avoid some implementer **biases**
- testing can be **reused** if implementation changes
- **paths** through specification
  - build test cases in different natural space partitions
  - also consider boundary conditions (empty lists, singleton list, large numbers, small numbers)

BLACK BOX TESTING

```
def sqrt(x, eps):
    """ Assumes x, eps floats, x >= 0, eps > 0
    Returns res such that x-eps <= res*res <= x+eps """
```

CASE	x	eps
boundary	0	0.0001
perfect square	25	0.0001
less than 1	0.05	0.0001
irrational square root	2	0.0001
extremes	2	1.0/2.0**64.0
extremes	1.0/2.0**64.0	1.0/2.0**64.0
extremes	2.0**64.0	1.0/2.0**64.0
extremes	1.0/2.0**64.0	2.0**64.0
extremes	2.0**64.0	2.0**64.0

GLASS BOX TESTING

- **use code** directly to guide design of test cases
- called **path-complete** if every potential path through code is tested at least once
- what are some **drawbacks** of this type of testing?
  - can go through loops arbitrarily many times
  - missing paths
- guidelines
  - branches → exercise all parts of a conditional
  - for loops → loop not entered, body of loop executed exactly once, body of loop executed more than once
  - while loops → same as for loops, cases that catch all ways to exit loop

GLASS BOX TESTING

```
def abs(x):
    """ Assumes x is an int
    Returns x if x>=0 and -x otherwise """
    if x < -1:
        return -x
    else:
        return x
```

- a path-complete test suite could **miss a bug**
- path-complete test suite: 2 and -2
- but abs(-1) incorrectly returns -1
- should still test boundary cases

DEBUGGING

- steep learning curve
- goal is to have a bug-free program
- tools
  - **built in** to IDLE and Anaconda
  - **Python Tutor**
  - `print` statement
  - use your brain, be **systematic** in your hunt

PRINT STATEMENTS

- good way to **test hypothesis**
- when to print
  - enter function
  - parameters
  - function results
- use **bisection method**
  - put print halfway in code
  - decide where bug may be depending on values

DEBUGGING STEPS

- **study** program code
  - don't ask what is wrong
  - ask how did I get the unexpected result
  - is it part of a family?

- **scientific method**
  - study available data
  - form hypothesis
  - repeatable experiments
  - pick simplest input to test with

ERROR MESSAGES – EASY

- trying to access beyond the limits of a list

  `test = [1,2,3]` then `test[4]` → `IndexError`

- trying to convert an inappropriate type

  `int(test)` → `TypeError`

- referencing a non-existent variable

  `a` → `NameError`

- mixing data types without appropriate coercion

  `'3'/4` → `TypeError`

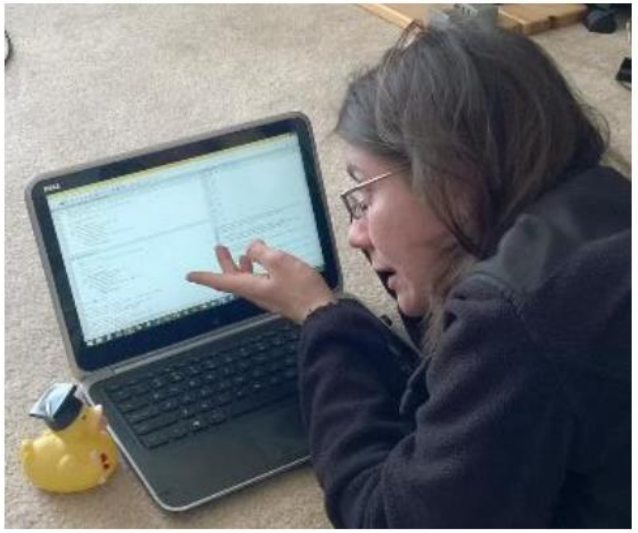
- forgetting to close parenthesis, quotation, etc.

```
a = len([1,2,3]
print(a)
```

→ `SyntaxError`

LOGIC ERRORS - HARD

- **think** before writing new code
- **draw** pictures, take a break
- **explain** the code to
  - someone else
  - a rubber ducky



DON'T

- Write entire program
- Test entire program
- Debug entire program

DO

- Write a function
- Test the function, debug the function
- Write a function
- Test the function, debug the function
- *** Do integration testing ***

- Change code
- Remember where bug was
- Test code
- Forget where bug was or what change you made
- Panic

- Backup code
- Change code
- Write down potential bug in a comment
- Test code
- Compare new version with old version

EXCEPTIONS AND ASSERTIONS

- what happens when procedure execution hits an **unexpected condition**?
- get an **exception**… to what was expected
  - trying to access beyond list limits

```
test = [1,7,4]
test[4]
```
→ `IndexError`

  - trying to convert an inappropriate type

```
int(test)
```
→ `TypeError`

  - referencing a non-existing variable

```
a
```
→ `NameError`

  - mixing data types without coercion

```
'a'/4
```
→ `TypeError`

OTHER TYPES OF EXCEPTIONS

- already seen common error types:
  - `SyntaxError`: Python can't parse program
  - `NameError`: local or global name not found
  - `AttributeError`: attribute reference fails
  - `TypeError`: operand doesn't have correct type
  - `ValueError`: operand type okay, but value is illegal
  - `IOError`: IO system reports malfunction (e.g. file not found)

DEALING WITH EXCEPTIONS

- Python code can provide **handlers** for exceptions

```
try:
    a = int(input("Tell me one number:"))
    b = int(input("Tell me another number:"))
    print(a/b)
except:
    print("Bug in user input.")
```

- exceptions **raised** by any statement in body of **`try`** are **handled** by the **`except`** statement and execution continues with the body of the `except` statement

HANDLING SPECIFIC EXCEPTIONS

- have **separate `except` clauses** to deal with a particular type of exception

```
try:
    a = int(input("Tell me one number: "))
    b = int(input("Tell me another number: "))
    print("a/b = ", a/b)
    print("a+b = ", a+b)
except ValueError:
    print("Could not convert to a number.")
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("Can't divide by zero")
except:
    print("Something went very wrong.")
```

only execute if these errors come up

for all other errors

OTHER EXCEPTIONS

- `else:`
  - body of this is executed when execution of associated `try` body **completes with no exceptions**
- `finally`:
  - body of this is **always executed** after `try`, `else` and `except` clauses, even if they raised another error or executed a `break`, `continue` or `return`
  - useful for clean-up code that should be run no matter what else happened (e.g. close a file)

WHAT TO DO WITH EXCEPTIONS?

- what to do when encounter an error?
- **fail silently**:
  - substitute default values or just continue
  - bad idea! user gets no warning
- return an **"error" value**
  - what value to choose?
  - complicates code having to check for a special value
- stop execution, **signal error** condition
  - in Python: **raise an exception**

```
raise Exception("descriptive string")
```

EXCEPTIONS AS CONTROL FLOW

- don't return special values when an error occurred and then check whether 'error value' was returned
- instead, **raise an exception** when unable to produce a result consistent with function's specification

```
raise <exceptionName>(<arguments>)
```

```
raise ValueError("something is wrong")
```

keyword

name of error you want to raise

optional, but typically a string with a message

EXAMPLE: RAISING AN EXCEPTION

```
def get_ratios(L1, L2):
    """ Assumes: L1 and L2 are lists of equal length of numbers
        Returns: a list containing L1[i]/L2[i] """
    ratios = []
    for index in range(len(L1)):
        try:
            ratios.append(L1[index]/L2[index])
        except ZeroDivisionError:
            ratios.append(float('nan')) #nan = not a number
        except:
            raise ValueError('get_ratios called with bad arg')
    return ratios
```

manage flow of program by raising own error

EXAMPLE OF EXCEPTIONS

- assume we are **given a class list** for a subject: each entry is a list of two parts
  - a list of first and last name for a student
  - a list of grades on assignments

```
test_grades = [[['peter', 'parker'], [80.0, 70.0, 85.0]],
               [['bruce', 'wayne'], [100.0, 80.0, 74.0]]]
```

- create a **new class list**, with name, grades, and an average

```
[[['peter', 'parker'], [80.0, 70.0, 85.0], 78.33333],
[['bruce', 'wayne'], [100.0, 80.0, 74.0], 84.666667]]
```

EXAMPLE CODE

```
[[['peter', 'parker'], [80.0, 70.0, 85.0]],
[['bruce', 'wayne'], [100.0, 80.0, 74.0]]]
```

```
def get_stats(class_list):
    new_stats = []
    for elt in class_list:
        new_stats.append([elt[0], elt[1], avg(elt[1])])
    return new_stats

def avg(grades):
    return sum(grades)/len(grades)
```

ERROR IF NO GRADE FOR A STUDENT

- if one or more students **don't have any grades**, get an error

```
test_grades = [[['peter', 'parker'], [10.0, 5.0, 85.0]],
               [['bruce', 'wayne'], [10.0, 8.0, 74.0]],
               [['captain', 'america'], [8.0,10.0,96.0]],
               [['deadpool'], []]]
```

- get `ZeroDivisionError: float division by zero` because try to

```
return sum(grades)/len(grades)
```

length is 0

OPTION 1: FLAG THE ERROR BY PRINTING A MESSAGE

- decide to **notify** that something went wrong with a msg

```
def avg(grades):
    try:
        return sum(grades)/len(grades)
    except ZeroDivisionError:
        print('warning: no grades data')
```

- running on some test data gives

```
warning: no grades data
[[['peter', 'parker'], [10.0, 5.0, 85.0], 15.41666666],
[['bruce', 'wayne'], [10.0, 8.0, 74.0], 13.83333334],
[['captain', 'america'], [8.0, 10.0, 96.0], 17.5],
[['deadpool'], [], None]]
```

flagged the error

because `avg` did not return anything in the except

OPTION 2: CHANGE THE POLICY

- decide that a student with no grades gets a **zero**

```
def avg(grades):
    try:
        return sum(grades)/len(grades)
    except ZeroDivisionError:
        print('warning: no grades data')
        return 0.0
```

- running on some test data gives

```
warning: no grades data
[['peter', 'parker'], [10.0, 5.0, 85.0], 15.41666666],
[['bruce', 'wayne'], [10.0, 8.0, 74.0], 13.83333334],
[['captain', 'america'], [8.0, 10.0, 96.0], 17.5],
[['deadpool'], [], 0.0]]
```

still flag the error

now `avg` returns 0

ASSERTIONS

- want to be sure that **assumptions** on state of computation are as expected
- use an **`assert` statement** to raise an `AssertionError` exception if assumptions not met
- an example of good **defensive programming**

EXAMPLE

```
def avg(grades):
    assert len(grades) != 0, 'no grades data'
    return sum(grades)/len(grades)
```

function ends immediately if assertion not met

- raises an `AssertionError` if it is given an empty list for grades
- otherwise runs ok

ASSERTIONS AS DEFENSIVE PROGRAMMING

- assertions don't allow a programmer to control response to unexpected conditions
- ensure that **execution halts** whenever an expected condition is not met
- typically used to **check inputs** to functions, but can be used anywhere
- can be used to **check outputs** of a function to avoid propagating bad values
- can make it easier to locate a source of a bug

WHERE TO USE ASSERTIONS?

- goal is to spot bugs as soon as introduced and make clear where they happened
- use as a **supplement** to testing
- raise **exceptions** if users supplies **bad data input**
- use **assertions** to
  - check **types** of arguments or values
  - check that **invariants** on data structures are met
  - check **constraints** on return values
  - check for **violations** of constraints on procedure (e.g. no duplicates in a list)

OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

OBJECTS

- Python supports many different kinds of data

```
1234      3.14159      "Hello"      [1, 5, 7, 11, 13]
{"CA": "California", "MA": "Massachusetts"}
```

- each is an **object**, and every object has:
  - a **type**
  - an internal **data representation** (primitive or composite)
  - a set of procedures for **interaction** with the object
- an object is an **instance** of a type
  - `1234` is an instance of an `int`
  - `"hello"` is an instance of a string

OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING (OOP)

- **EVERYTHING IN PYTHON IS AN OBJECT** (and has a type)
- can **create new objects** of some type
- can **manipulate objects**
- can **destroy objects**
  - explicitly using `del` or just "forget" about them
  - python system will reclaim destroyed or inaccessible objects – called "garbage collection"

WHAT ARE OBJECTS?

- objects are **a data abstraction** that captures…

(1) an **internal representation**

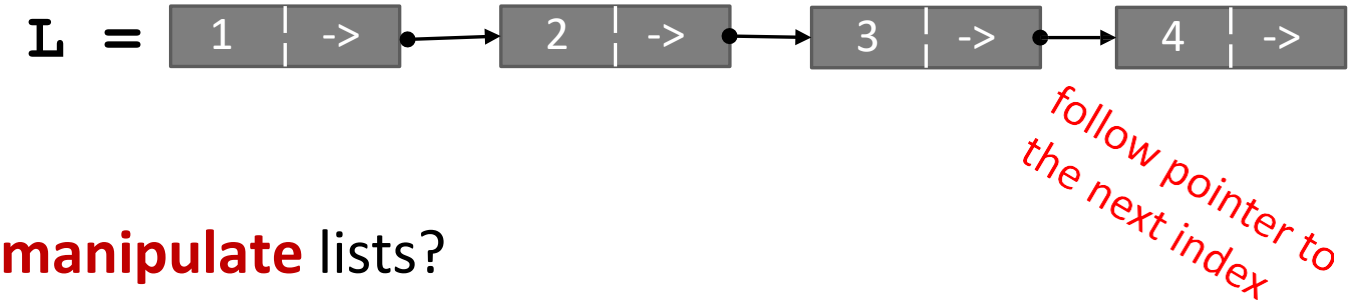
- through data attributes

(2) an **interface** for interacting with object

- through methods (aka procedures/functions)
- defines behaviors but hides implementation

EXAMPLE: [1,2,3,4] has type list

- how are lists **represented internally**? linked list of cells



- how to **manipulate** lists?
  - `L[i], L[i:j], +`
  - `len(), min(), max(), del(L[i])`
  - `L.append(),L.extend(),L.count(),L.index(), L.insert(),L.pop(),L.remove(),L.reverse(), L.sort()`
- internal representation should be private
- correct behavior may be compromised if you manipulate internal representation directly

ADVANTAGES OF OOP

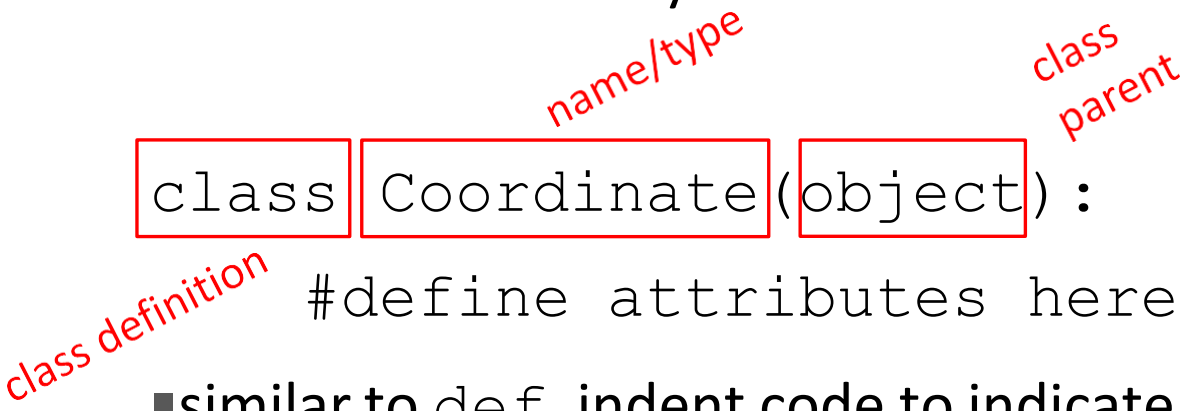
- **bundle data into packages** together with procedures that work on them through well-defined interfaces
- **divide-and-conquer** development
  - implement and test behavior of each class separately
  - increased modularity reduces complexity
- classes make it easy to **reuse** code
  - many Python modules define new classes
  - each class has a separate environment (no collision on function names)
  - inheritance allows subclasses to redefine or extend a selected subset of a superclass' behavior

CREATING AND USING YOUR OWN TYPES WITH CLASSES

- make a distinction between **creating a class** and **using an instance** of the class
- **creating** the class involves
  - defining the class name
  - defining class attributes
  - *for example, someone wrote code to implement a list class*
- **using** the class involves
  - creating new **instances** of objects
  - doing operations on the instances
  - *for example,* `L=[1,2]` *and* `len(L)`

DEFINE YOUR OWN TYPES

- use the `class` keyword to define a new type



- similar to `def`, indent code to indicate which statements are part of the **class definition**
- the word `object` means that `Coordinate` is a Python object and **inherits** all its attributes (inheritance next lecture)
  - `Coordinate` is a subclass of `object`
  - `object` is a superclass of `Coordinate`

WHAT ARE ATTRIBUTES?

- data and procedures that "**belong**" to the class
- **data attributes**
  - think of data as other objects that make up the class
  - *for example, a coordinate is made up of two numbers*
- **methods** (procedural attributes)
  - think of methods as functions that only work with this class
  - how to interact with the object
  - *for example you can define a distance between two coordinate objects but there is no meaning to a distance between two list objects*

DEFINING HOW TO CREATE AN INSTANCE OF A CLASS

- first have to define **how to create an instance** of object
- use a **special method called `__init__`** to initialize some data attributes

```
class Coordinate(object):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
```

special method to create an instance __ is double underscore

what data initializes a Coordinate object

parameter to refer to an instance of the class

two data attributes for every Coordinate object

ACTUALLY CREATING AN INSTANCE OF A CLASS

```
c = Coordinate(3,4)
origin = Coordinate(0,0)
print(c.x)
print(origin.x)
```

create a new object of type `Coordinate` and pass in 3 and 4 to the `__init__`

use the dot to access an attribute of instance `c`

- data attributes of an instance are called **instance variables**
- don't provide argument for `self`, Python does this automatically

WHAT IS A METHOD?

- procedural attribute, like a **function that works only with this class**
- Python always passes the object as the first argument
  - convention is to use `self` as the name of the first argument of all methods
- the "**.**" **operator** is used to access any attribute
  - a data attribute of an object
  - a method of an object

DEFINE A METHOD FOR THE `Coordinate` CLASS

```
class Coordinate(object):
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
    def distance(self, other):
        x_diff_sq = (self.x-other.x)**2
        y_diff_sq = (self.y-other.y)**2
        return (x_diff_sq + y_diff_sq)**0.5
```

use it to refer to any instance

another parameter to method

dot notation to access data

- other than `self` and dot notation, methods behave just like functions (take params, do operations, return)

HOW TO USE A METHOD

```
def distance(self, other):
    # code here
```

method def

Using the class:

- conventional way

```
c = Coordinate(3,4)
zero = Coordinate(0,0)
print(c.distance(zero))
```

object to call method on

name of method

parameters not including `self` (`self` is implied to be `c`)

- equivalent to

```
c = Coordinate(3,4)
zero = Coordinate(0,0)
print(Coordinate.distance(c, zero))
```

name of class

name of method

parameters, including an object to call the method on, representing `self`

PRINT REPRESENTATION OF AN OBJECT

```
>>> c = Coordinate(3,4)
>>> print(c)
<__main__.Coordinate object at 0x7fa918510488>
```

- **uninformative** print representation by default
- define a **`__str__` method** for a class
- Python calls the `__str__` method when used with `print` on your class object
- you choose what it does! Say that when we print a `Coordinate` object, want to show

```
>>> print(c)
<3,4>
```

DEFINING YOUR OWN PRINT METHOD

```
class Coordinate(object):
    def __init__(self, x, y): self.x = x
        self.y = y
    def distance(self, other):
        x_diff_sq = (self.x-other.x)**2
        y_diff_sq = (self.y-other.y)**2
        return (x_diff_sq + y_diff_sq)**0.5
    def __str__(self):
        return "<"+str(self.x)+","+str(self.y)+">"
```

name of special method

must return a string

WRAPPING YOUR HEAD AROUND TYPES AND CLASSES

- can ask for the type of an object instance

```
>>> c = Coordinate(3,4)
>>> print(c)
<3,4>
>>> print(type(c))
<class __main__.Coordinate>
```

return of the __str__ method

the type of object c is a class Coordinate

- this makes sense since

```
>>> print(Coordinate)
<class __main__.Coordinate>
>>> print(type(Coordinate))
<type 'type'>
```

a Coordinate is a class

a Coordinate class is a type of object

- use `isinstance()` to check if an object is a `Coordinate`

```
>>> print(isinstance(c, Coordinate))
True
```

SPECIAL OPERATORS

- +, -, ==, <, >, len(), print, and many others

https://docs.python.org/3/reference/datamodel.html#basic-customization

- like `print`, can override these to work with your class
- define them with double underscores before/after

```
__add__(self, other)    →    self + other
__sub__(self, other)    →    self - other
__eq__(self, other)     →    self == other
__lt__(self, other)     →    self < other
__len__(self)           →    len(self)
__str__(self)           →    print self
```

... and others

EXAMPLE: FRACTIONS

- create a **new type** to represent a number as a fraction
- **internal representation** is two integers
  - numerator
  - denominator
- **interface** a.k.a. **methods** a.k.a **how to interact** with `Fraction` objects
  - add, subtract
  - print representation, convert to a float
  - invert the fraction
- the code for this is in the handout, check it out!

THE POWER OF OOP

- **bundle together objects** that share
  - common attributes and
  - procedures that operate on those attributes
- use **abstraction** to make a distinction between how to implement an object vs how to use the object
- build **layers** of object abstractions that inherit behaviors from other classes of objects
- create our **own classes of objects** on top of Python's basic classes