

STATS 507

Data Analysis in Python

Week3-2: Files and Dictionaries

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Recap: Lists in Python

Lists are (mutable) sequences whose values can be of any data type

- We call those list entries the **elements** of the list

Add an element to **end** of the list with `L.append(element)`

list object method name method argument

Add an element to **a specific location** of the list with

```
L.insert(idx, element)
```

Add **multiple** element to the list.

Mutates the list and **return nothing**

```
L.extend(another_list)
```

Recap: Other lists operations in Python

Removes the first instance of x in the list by `list.remove(element)`.

`list.pop()` does two things: 1) remove the last element from the list (mutate)
2) **return** that element

Sort a list.

`L.sort()` is a **method** associated with list and sorts the list **in place**. See documentation for how Python sorts data of different types:
<https://docs.python.org/3/howto/sorting.html>

Reverse a list.

`L.reverse()`

Sort (Again)

`sorted(l)` returns a sorted version of a list, leaving its argument unchanged

Conversion between strings and lists

Recap: Tuples in Python

Tuples are immutable sequences whose values can be of any data type

Create a tuple: tuples are created with “comma notation”, with optional parentheses:

- tuple_1 = 1, 2, 3
- tuple_2 = (2,3)
- tuple_3 = (2, "UM week 3", 98.0, True, [1,2,3])

Applications:

```
a = 1
b = 2
a, b = b, a
print(a, b)
```

```
# Function return for more than 1 value
t = divmod(5,2)
help(divmod)
```

Help on built-in function divmod in module builtins:

```
divmod(x, y, /)
    Return the tuple (x//y, x%y). Invariant: div*y + mod == x.
```

```
1 def my_min( *args ):
2     return min(args)
3 my_min(1,2,3)
```

```
def count_matches(s, t):
    cnt = 0
    for (a, b) in zip(s, t):
        if a == b:
            cnt += 1
    return cnt
```

Recap: Files in Python

What are files?

- Files are way to **store** and **manage** data on a computer.
- Also **objects** in Python

Create/operate a file object

```
1 f = open('demo.txt')
2 type(f)
```

```
_io.TextIOWrapper
```

```
1 f.readline()
```

```
'This is a demo file.\n'
```

```
# text-mode, read-only
open("readme.txt", "rt")
# text mode, write
open("readme.txt", "wt")
# text mode, append
open("readme.txt", "at")
# binary mode, read-only
open("data.dat", "rb")
# binary mode, write
open("data.dat", "wb")
# binary mode, append
open("data.dat", "ab")
```

1. More Files in Python

2. Dictionaries in Python

Formatting strings in Python

Very commonly, we want to write **formatted** string data to a file.

There are 3 ways of doing this in Python:

The `%` operator (**old, avoid using this notation**)

`string.format()`

f-strings (newest)

```
topping = "pineapple"

# all of these print
# "my fav pizza is pineapple"

"my fav pizza is %s" % topping

"my fav pizza is {}".format(topping)
"my fav pizza is {a}".format(a=topping)

f"my fav pizza is {topping}"
```

Formatting strings for practice

```
# Xian Zhang scored 85.5 in Stats 507, receiving a grade of B+ and ranking 50th in class.
```

```
# Given variables
```

```
name = "Xian Zhang"  
subject = "Stats 507"  
score = 85.5  
grade = "B+"  
rank = "50th"
```

```
# xian
```

```
# 1. Using %-formatting
```

```
percent_formatted = "%s scored %.1f in %s, receiving a grade of %s " \  
                    "and ranking %s in class." % (name, score, subject, grade, rank)
```

```
# 2. Using str.format() method
```

```
format_method = "{} scored {:.1f} in {}, receiving a grade of {}" \  
               "and ranking {} in class.".format(name, score, subject, grade, rank)
```

```
# 3. Using f-string
```

```
f_string = f"{name} scored {score:.1f} in {subject}, receiving a grade of {grade} and ranking {rank} in class."
```

```
print("percent_formatted: ", percent_formatted)
```

```
print("format_method: ", format_method)
```

```
print("f_string: ", f_string)
```

Use `" \ "` to split the string formatting across two lines for better readability

Just a bit more on files...

Saving objects as string to files...

Now we can write a string to a file. But not all object are strings...

Sometimes it is useful to be able to turn an object into a string.

```
1 import pickle
2 t1 = [1, 'two', 3.0]
3 s = pickle.dumps(t1)
4 s
```

`pickle.dumps()` (short for “dump string”) creates a **binary string** representing an object.

```
b'\x80\x03]q\x00(K\x01X\x03\x00\x00\x00twoq\x01G@\x08\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00e.'
```

This is a raw binary string that **encodes** the list `t1`. Each symbol encodes one byte.

`pickle` module in Python is used for **serializing** and **deserializing** Python objects.

- Serialization: Convert Python objects into a byte stream.
- Deserialization: Convert a byte stream back into Python objects

<https://docs.python.org/3/library/pickle.html>

<https://docs.python.org/3/library/codecs.html>

Saving (any) object to files...

`pickle` module in Python is used for serializing and deserializing Python objects.

- Serialization: Convert Python **objects** into a **byte** stream.
- Deserialization: Convert a byte stream back into Python objects

```
1 import pickle
2 t1 = [1, 'two', 3.0]
3 s = pickle.dumps(t1)
4 s
```

We can now use this string to store (a representation of) the list referenced by `t1`. We can write it to a file for later reuse, use it as a key in a dictionary, etc.

```
b'\x80\x03]q\x00(K\x01X\x03\x00\x00\x00twoq\x01G@\x08\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00e.'
```

```
1 t2 = pickle.loads(s)
2 t1==t2
```

Later on, to “unpickle” the string and turn it back into an object, we use `pickle.loads()` (short for “load string”).

```
True
```

Important point: pickling stores a representation of the value, not the variable! So after this assignment, `t1` and `t2` are equivalent...

```
1 t1 is t2
```

```
False
```

...but not identical.

Locating files in Python: the `os` module

`os` module lets us interact with the operating system:

- `os.getcwd()` returns a string corresponding to the **current working directory**.
- `os.listdir()` lists the contents of its argument, or the current directory if no argument.
- A **path**: It starts at the **root directory**, '/', and describes a sequence of nested directories
- A path from the root to a file or directory is called an **absolute path**. A path from the current directory is called a **relative path**.
- Read more:

<https://docs.python.org/3/library/os.html>

```
import os
os.getcwd()
```

```
'/Users/xianzhang/Desktop/demo'
```

```
# List contents of a directory
print(os.listdir('.'))
# Create a new directory
os.mkdir('new_folder')
# Rename a file or directory
os.rename('old_name.txt', 'new_name.txt')
# Get environment variables
print(os.environ.get('HOME'))
# Join paths in an OS-independent way
new_path = os.path.join('folder', 'subfolder', 'file.txt')
# Check if a file or directory exists
print(os.path.exists('file.txt'))
# Get the size of a file in bytes
print(os.path.getsize('new_name.txt'))
# Remove a file
os.remove('new_name.txt')
# Remove a directory
os.rmdir('new_folder')
```

```
['.DS_Store', '.ipynb_checkpoints', 'old_name.txt', 'test.ipynb']
/Users/xianzhang
False
50
```

1. Files in Python

2. Dictionaries in Python

Why do we need yet another data type...

Suppose we want to store and use grade information for a set of students in Python.

- One way is to use list (mutable, add, delete, change...)

```
names = ['Xian', 'Roman', 'Julian']  
grade = ['B+', 'A', 'A+']  
# ps1 = [...]  
# ps2 = [...]
```

- Info stored across many lists at the **same index**
- **Indirectly** access information by find locations..

Not effective, not efficient...

Solutions?

Dictionaries in Python

A Python dictionary has entries that map a **key: value**

A list

0	Elem1
1	Elem2
2	Elem3
3	Elem4
...	...

index element

A dictionary

key1	val1
key2	val2
key3	val3
key4	val4
...	...

Customized value
index

A better and cleaner way to create grades -- use dictionary

```
grades = {'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}  
print(grades)  
type(grades)  
  
{'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}  
dict
```

Creating Dictionaries in Python

A Python dictionary store pairs of data as an entry

- key (customized index, any **immutable** object)
 - str, int, bool, tuple, **NOT** list, **NOT** dict
- value (can be any object)
 - all above plus lists and dicts!

A dictionary

key1	val1
key2	val2
key3	val3
key4	val4
...	...

Customized value
index

Use `{ }` to create a dictionary, an entry maps a key to a value

```
my_dict = {}  
print(my_dict)  
grades = {'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}  
print(grades)  
  
{ }  
{'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}
```


Dictionary operations in Python

```
grades = {'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}  
print(type(grades))  
print(grades)
```

```
<class 'dict'>  
{'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}
```

Modify/change an entry (**existing** key).

```
grades['Xian'] = 'A'  
print(grades)  
{'Xian': 'A', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+', 'Bob': 'A'}
```

Add an entry (add a key-value pair)

```
grades['Bob'] = 'A'  
print(grades)  
{'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+', 'Bob': 'A'}
```

A dictionary

key1	val1
key2	val2
key3	val3
key4	val4
...	...

Customized value
index

Dictionary operations: delete an entry

```
grades = {'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}  
print(type(grades))  
print(grades)
```

```
<class 'dict'>  
{'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}
```

Delete an entry using the `del()` function: mutates the dictionary

```
del(grades['Xian'])  
print(grades)
```

```
{'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}
```

```
del(grades['Xian'])  
print(grades)
```

```
-----  
KeyError                                Traceback (most recent call last)  
Cell In[7], line 1  
----> 1 del(grades['Xian'])  
      2 print(grades)  
  
KeyError: 'Xian'
```

Check membership

Check if a key is in dictionary using `in`

```
grades = {'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}
```

```
'Xian' in grades
```

True

```
'Bob' in grades
```

False

Note: `in` only checks the keys, NOT the values in the dictionaries.

Another Note: Dictionary for in check is much faster than list (more on this later!)

Iterate over dictionaries.

Get an **iterable** that acts like a tuple of all **keys**: `Dict.keys()`

```
grades = {'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}  
print(type(grades.keys()))  
print(grades.keys())
```

```
<class 'dict_keys'>  
dict_keys(['Xian', 'Roman', 'Julian'])
```

Get an **iterable** that acts like a tuple of all **values**: `Dict.values()`

```
grades = {'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}  
print(type(grades.values()))  
print(grades.values())
```

```
<class 'dict_values'>  
dict_values(['B+', 'A', 'A+'])
```

Iterate over dictionaries.

Get an iterable that acts like a tuple of all items : `Dict.items()`

- To get the keys and values as pairs together

```
grades = {'Xian': 'B+', 'Roman': 'A', 'Julian': 'A+'}  
print(type(grades.items()))  
print(grades.items())  
  
<class 'dict_items'>  
dict_items([('Xian', 'B+'), ('Roman', 'A'), ('Julian', 'A+')])
```

In-class practice

Dictionary as a counter

We can use a dictionary as a counter.

Example: counting words frequencies
the most frequent words in our favorite songs.

```
def highest_frequency_word(word_list):  
    # Create a dictionary to store word counts  
    word_counts = {}  
    # Count occurrences of each word using a for loop  
    for word in word_list:  
        if word in word_counts:  
            word_counts[word] += 1  
        else:  
            word_counts[word] = 1  
    # Find the word with the highest frequency  
    max_word = max(word_counts, key=word_counts.get)  
    # Return the highest frequency word and its count  
    return (max_word, word_counts[max_word])
```

```
words = ["apple", "banana", "apple", "cherry", "date", "banana", "apple"]  
word, count = highest_frequency_word(words)  
print(word, count)
```

apple 3

Dictionary application: memoization

The Fibonacci Sequence

- 0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21...

```
def naive_fibo(n):  
    if n < 0:  
        raise ValueError('Negative Fibonacci Number?')  
    if n == 0:  
        return 0  
    elif n == 1:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return naive_fibo(n - 1) + naive_fibo(n - 2)
```

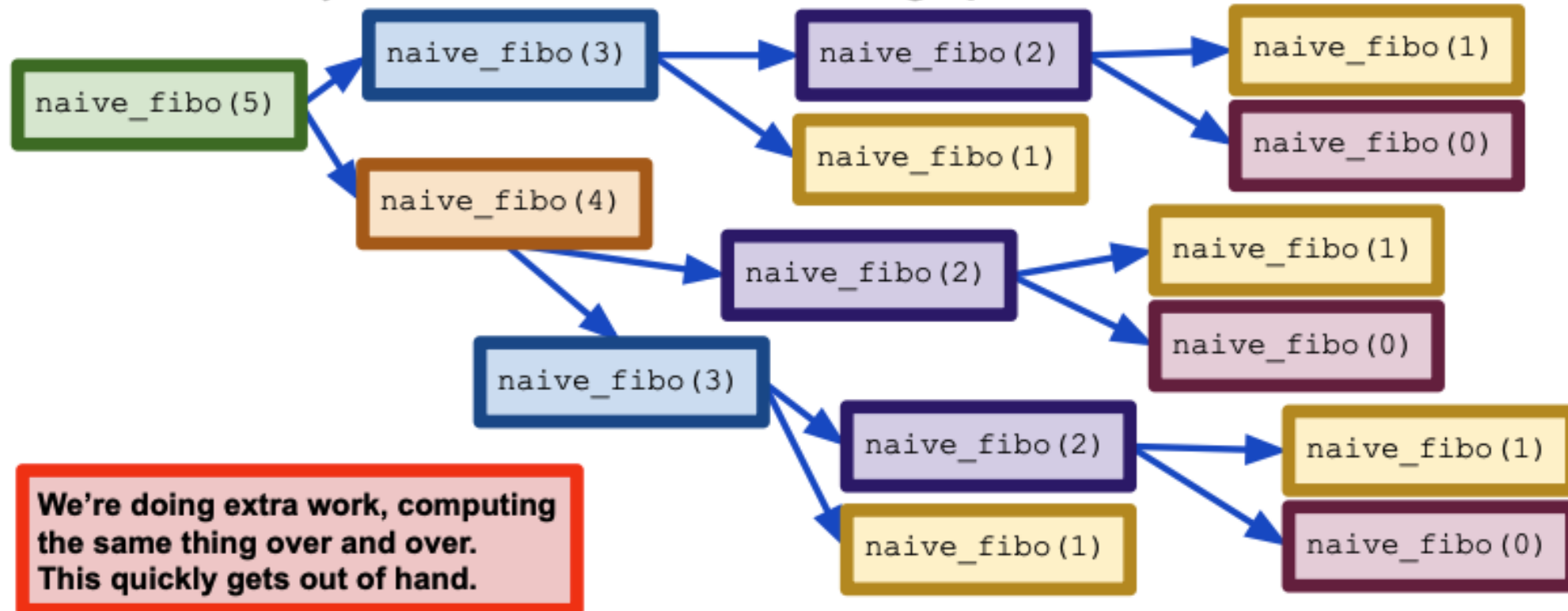
```
for i in range(8, 13):  
    print(naive_fibo(i))
```

21
34
55
89
144

This algorithm gets slow as soon as the argument get moderately big, why?

Dictionary application: memoization

The inefficiency is clear when we draw the **call graph** of the function



Let's visualize it in [Python tutor](#)

How to resolve this?

Store our computation for future reuse...

This is called **memorization**!

```
1 known = {0:0, 1:1}
2 def fibo(n):
3     if n in known:
4         return known[n]
5     else:
6         f = fibo(n-1) + fibo(n-2)
7         known[n] = f
8         return(f)
9 fibo(30)
```

832040

This is the dictionary that we'll use for memoization. We'll store `known[n] = fibo(n)` the first time we compute `fibo(n)`, and every time we need it again, we just look it up!

Memoization

Store our computation for future reuse...

This is called **memorization**!

```
1 known = {0:0, 1:1}
2 def fibo(n):
3     if n in known:
4         return known[n]
5     else:
6         f = fibo(n-1) + fibo(n-2)
7         known[n] = f
8         return(f)
9 fibo(30)
```

If we already know the n-th Fibonacci number, there's no need to compute it again. Just look it up!

832040

Memoization

Store our computation for future reuse...

This is called **memorization**!

```
1 known = {0:0, 1:1}
2 def fibo(n):
3     if n in known:
4         return known[n]
5     else:
6         f = fibo(n-1) + fibo(n-2)
7         known[n] = f
8         return(f)
9 fibo(30)
```

832040

If we don't already know it, we have to compute it, but before we return the result, we memoize it in `known` for future reuse.

Much more effective than naïve fibo

Using memorization is much more effective. Especially for huge numbers.

```
1 import time
2 start_time = time.time()
3 naive_fibo(30)
4 time.time() - start_time
```

0.8452379703521729

```
1 start_time = time.time()
2 fibo(30)
3 time.time() - start_time
```

0.00015687942504882812

```
1 fibo(100)
```

354224848179261915075

Our first **dynamic programming** problem, lots of popular interview fall under this purview, we will talk about time/space complexity next week!

The time difference is enormous!

Note: this was done with known set to its initial state, so this is a fair comparison.

If you try to do this with `naive_fibo`, you'll be waiting for quite a bit!

Summary on data types in Python: primitive data type

Different **object** can **represent** different concepts.

ANY object has a **type** that defines what kind of **operations** programs can do to them

- int, -- represent integers, ex: 507
- float, -- represent real numbers, ex: 3.1415, 2.0
- bool, -- represent Boolean values, ex: True, False
- NoneType -- special and has one value, None

Mathematical operator:

+, -, *, /, **, //, %

Logical operator: and,
or, not

Summary on data types in Python: strings, lists and tuples

- Sequence: Indexing, slicing, `len()` ...
- **Immutability** of string and tuple
- Mutable list (add, delete, reorder...)

`s` =

b	a	n	a	n	a
[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[-6]	[-5]	[-4]	[-3]	[-2]	[-1]

```
s[1:5]      #anan
s[1:5:2]     #aa
s[:]        #banana
s[5:1:-2]    #aa
```

Summary on data types in Python: dictionaries

A Python dictionary has entries that map a **key: value**

A list

0	Elem1
1	Elem2
2	Elem3
3	Elem4
...	...

index element

A dictionary

key1	val1
key2	val2
key3	val3
key4	val4
...	...

Customized value
index

Add, change, delete, iterate...

<https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/datastructures.html>

Where to train your muscles?

Practicing Python via:

<https://www.hackerrank.com/>

<https://leetcode.com/>

Coming next:

Part 1: Introduction to Python

Data types, functions, classes, objects, algorithm thinking, functional programming

Part 2: Numerical Computing and Data Visualization

numpy, scipy, scikit-learn, matplotlib, Seaborn

Part 3: Dealing with structured data

pandas, regular expressions, retrieving web data, SQL, real datasets

Part4: Intro to Deep Learning

PyTorch, Perceptron, Multi-layer perceptron, SGD, regularization, CNN...

Other things

HW2 due today.

HW3 out today.

Coming next:

Objects in Python (OOP), algorithm thinking and functional programming