CS2204

Program Design and Data Structures for Scientific Computing

Announcements

- Project #1 is posted to Blackboard.
 - We will be creating a class that allows us to represent & manipulate DNA strands
 - We will use a string as our underlying storage container



Acknowledgement: many of these slides were taken from PPT files found at UMBC.edu

Two Kinds of Attributes

- The non-method data stored by objects are called attributes
- Data attributes
 - Variable owned by a particular instance of a class
 - Each instance has its own value for it
 - These are the most common kind of attribute
- Class attributes
 - Owned by the class as a whole
 - All class instances share the same value for it
 - Called "static" variables in some languages
 - Good for (1) class-wide constants and (2) building counter of how many instances of the class have been made

Data Attributes

- Data attributes are created and initialized by an init () method.
 - Simply assigning to a name creates the attribute
 - Inside the class, refer to data attributes using self
 - for example, self. full name

```
class teacher:
   """A class representing teachers."""
   def __init__(self,n):
       self._full_name = n
   def print_name(self):
       print(self._full_name)
```

Class Attributes

- Because all instances of a class share one copy of a class attribute, when any instance changes it, the value is changed for all instances
- Class attributes are defined within a class definition and outside of any method
- Since there is one of these attributes per class and not one per instance, they're accessed via a different notation:
 - Access class attributes using self.__class__.name
 notation -- This is just one way to do this & the safest in general.

```
class sample:
    x = 23
    def increment(self):
       self.__class__.x += 1
```

```
>>> a = sample()
>>> a.increment()
>>> a.__class__.x
24
```

Data vs. Class Attributes

```
class counter:
   overall_total = 0
        # class attribute
   def __init__(self):
        self.my_total = 0
        # data attribute
   def increment(self):
        counter.overall_total = \
        counter.overall_total + 1
        self.my_total = \
        self.my_total + 1
```

```
>>> a = counter()
>>> b = counter()
>>> a.increment()
>>> b.increment()
>>> b.increment()
>>> a.my_total
1
>>> a.__class__.overall_total
3
>>> b.my_total
2
>>> b.__class__.overall_total
3
```

Built-In Members of Classes

- Classes contain many methods and attributes that are included by Python even if you don't define them explicitly.
 - Most of these methods define automatic functionality triggered by special operators or usage of that class.
 - The built-in attributes define information that must be stored for all classes.
- All built-in members have double underscores around their names: init doc

Special Methods

- For example, the method __str__ exists for all classes, and you can always redefine it
- The definition of this method specifies how to turn an instance of the class into a string
 - print f sometimes calls f.__str__() to produce a string for object f
 - If you type f at the prompt and hit ENTER, then you are also calling str to determine what to display to the user as output

Special Methods - Example

```
class student:
    def str (self):
      return "I'm named " + self. full name
>>> f = student("Bob Smith", 23)
>>> print(f)
I'm named Bob Smith
>>> f
"I'm named Bob Smith"
```

Special Methods

You can redefine these as well:

```
init : The constructor for the class
```

eq : Define how == works for class

len : Define how len(obj) works

__copy__ : Define how to copy a class

 Other built-in methods allow you to give a class the ability to use [] notation like an array or () notation like a function call

Private Data and Methods

- Any attribute/method with 2 leading under-scores in its name (but none at the end) is **private** and can't be accessed outside of class
- Note: Names with two underscores at the beginning and the end are for built-in methods or attributes for the class
- Note: There is no 'protected' status in Python; so, subclasses would be unable to access these private data either.

 Now that we seen enough about strings and classes to complete project 1, let's continue our exploration of Python by looking at additional built-in data types.

This will prepare us for project 2.

Sequence Types

1. Tuple

- A simple immutable ordered sequence of items
- Items can be of mixed types, including collection types

2. Strings

- A simple *immutable* ordered sequence of characters
- Conceptually very much like a tuple

3. List

Mutable ordered sequence of items of mixed types

Similar Syntax

- All three sequence types (tuples, strings, and lists) share much of the same syntax and functionality.
 - We've already been introduced to many via the string class
- Key difference:
 - Tuples and strings are immutable
 - Lists are mutable
- The operations shown in the following slides can be applied to all sequence types
 - most examples will just show the operation performed on one

Sequence Types 1

Define tuples using parentheses and commas

```
>>> tu = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')
```

Define lists are using square brackets and commas

```
>>> 1i = ["abc", 34, 4.34, 23]
```

Define strings using quotes (", ', or """).

```
>>> st = "Hello World"
>>> st = 'Hello World'
>>> st = """This is a multi-line
string that uses triple quotes."""
```

Sequence Types 2

- Access individual members of a tuple, list, or string using square bracket "array" notation
- Note that all are 0 based...

Positive and negative indices

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

Positive index: count from the left, starting with 0

```
>>> t[1]
'abc'
```

Negative index: count from right, starting with -1

```
>>> t[-3]
4.56
```

Slicing: Return Copy of a Subset

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

•Return <u>a copy</u> of the container with a subset of the original members. Start copying at the first index, and stop copying <u>before</u> the second index.

```
>>> t[1:4]
('abc', 4.56, (2,3))
```

You can also use negative indices

```
>>> t[1:-1]
('abc', 4.56, (2,3))
```

Slicing: Return Copy of a Subset

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

 Omit first index to make a copy starting from the beginning of the container

```
>>> t[:2]
(23, 'abc')
```

•Omit second index to make a copy starting at the first index and going to the end of the container

```
>>> t[2:]
(4.56, (2,3), 'def')
```

Copying the Whole Sequence

• [:] makes a *copy* of an entire sequence

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

 Note the difference between these two lines for mutable sequences

The 'in' Operator

Boolean test whether a value is inside a container:

```
>>> t = [1, 2, 4, 5]
>>> 3 in t
False
>>> 4 in t
True
>>> 4 not in t
False
```

For strings, tests for substrings

```
>>> a = 'abcde'
>>> 'c' in a
True
>>> 'cd' in a
True
>>> 'ac' in a
False
```

 Be careful: the in keyword is also used in the syntax of for loops and list comprehensions

The + Operator

 The + operator produces a <u>new</u> tuple, list, or string whose value is the concatenation of its arguments.

```
>>> (1, 2, 3) + (4, 5, 6)
  (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)

>>> [1, 2, 3] + [4, 5, 6]
  [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]

>>> "Hello" + " " + "World"
  'Hello World'
```

The * Operator

 The * operator produces a <u>new</u> tuple, list, or string that "repeats" the original content.

```
>>> (1, 2, 3) * 3
(1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3)
>>> [1, 2, 3] * 3
[1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3]
>>> "Hello" * 3
'HelloHelloHello'
```

Lists are 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.

Tuples are 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')
```

- The immutability of tuples means they're faster than lists.
 - -But making copies or new tuples is not free

Operations on Lists Only

```
>>> li = [1, 11, 3, 4, 5]
>>> li.append('a')  # Note the method syntax
>>> li
[1, 11, 3, 4, 5, 'a']
>>> li.insert(2, 'i')
>>>li
[1, 11, 'i', 3, 4, 5, 'a']
```

The extend method vs +

- + creates a fresh list with a new memory ref
- extend operates on list li in place.

```
>>> li.extend([9, 8, 7])
>>> li
[1, 2, 'i', 3, 4, 5, 'a', 9, 8, 7]
```

- Potentially confusing:
 - extend takes a list as an argument.
 - append takes a singleton as an argument.

```
>>> li.append([10, 11, 12])
>>> li
[1, 2, 'i', 3, 4, 5, 'a', 9, 8, 7, [10, 11, 12]]
```

Operations on Lists Only

 Lists have many methods, including index, count, remove, reverse, sort

```
>>> li = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'b']
>>> li.index('b')  # index of 1<sup>st</sup> occurrence
1
>>> li.count('b')  # number of occurrences
2
>>> li.remove('b')  # remove 1<sup>st</sup> occurrence
>>> li
    ['a', 'c', 'b']
```

Operations on Lists Only

```
>>> 1i = [5, 2, 6, 8]
>>> li.reverse() # reverse the list *in place*
>>> li
  [8, 6, 2, 5]
>>> li.sort() # sort the list *in place*
>>> li
  [2, 5, 6, 8]
>>> li.sort(some function)
    # sort in place using user-defined comparison.
    # remember that function are first-class objects.
```

Summary: Tuples vs. Lists

- Lists are slower but more powerful than tuples
 - Lists can be modified, and they have lots of handy operations and methods
 - Being mutable means that you do not have to create a new structure each time you want to make a change
 - Tuples are immutable and have fewer features
- To convert between tuples and lists use the list() and tuple() functions:

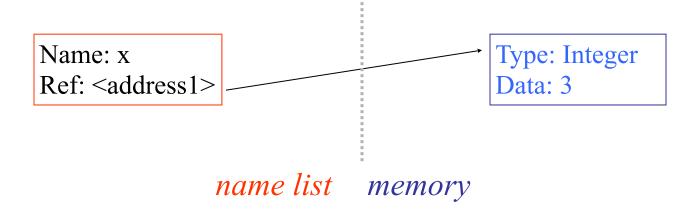
```
>>> li = list(tu)
>>> tu = tuple(li)
```

- Assignment manipulates references
 - x = y does not make a copy of the object y references
 - x = y makes x refer to the object y references
- Very useful; but beware!, e.g.

Why?

list is mutable, tuples are immutable if a is a list, b=a points to a then to what a points to. if a changes, b changes. if a is a tuple, b=a points to the value. if a changes, b doesn't change.

- There's a lot going on with x = 3
- An integer 3 is created and stored in memory
- A name x is created
- A 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

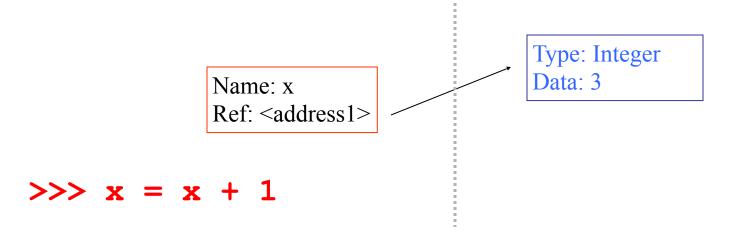


- The data 3 we created is of type integer objects are typed, variables are not
- In Python, the datatypes integer, float, and string (and tuple) are "immutable"
- This doesn't mean we can't change the value of x, i.e. change what x refers to ...
- For example, we could increment x:

```
>>> x = 3
>>> x = x + 1
>>> print(x)
```

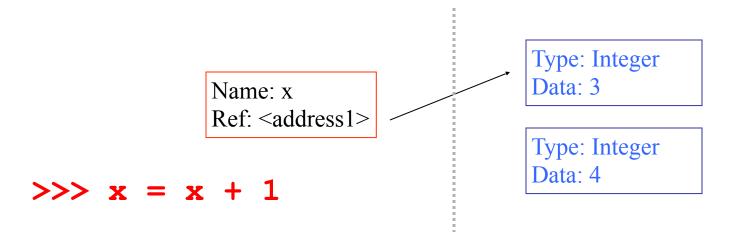
When we increment x, then what happens is:

- 1. The reference of name x is looked up.
- 2. The value at that reference is retrieved.



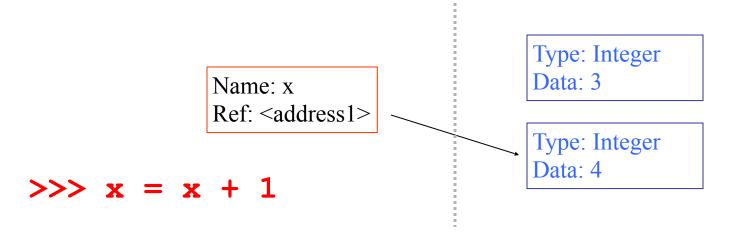
When we increment x, then what happening is:

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



When we increment x, then what happening is:

- 1. The reference of name *x* is looked up.
- 2. The value at that reference is retrieved.
- 3. 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 new ref

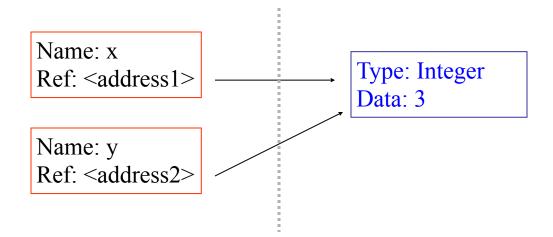


```
>>> x = 3  # Creates 3, name x refers to 3
>>> y = x  # Creates name y, refers to 3
>>> y = 4  # Creates ref for 4. Changes y
>>> print(x) # No effect on x, still ref 3
3
```

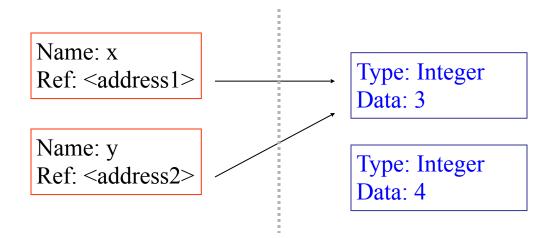
```
>>> x = 3  # Creates 3, name x refers to 3
>>> y = x  # Creates name y, refers to 3
>>> y = 4  # Creates ref for 4. Changes y
>>> print(x) # No effect on x, still ref 3
3
```



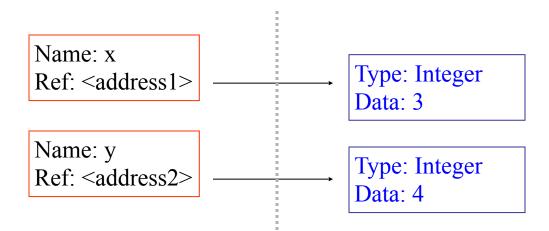
```
>>> x = 3  # Creates 3, name x refers to 3
>>> y = x  # Creates name y, refers to 3
>>> y = 4  # Creates ref for 4. Changes y
>>> print(x) # No effect on x, still ref 3
3
```



```
>>> x = 3  # Creates 3, name x refers to 3
>>> y = x  # Creates name y, refers to 3
>>> y = 4  # Creates ref for 4. Changes y
>>> print(x) # No effect on x, still ref 3
3
```



```
>>> x = 3  # Creates 3, name x refers to 3
>>> y = x  # Creates name y, refers to 3
>>> y = 4  # Creates ref for 4. Changes y
>>> print(x) # No effect on x, still ref 3
3
```



Assignment & mutable objects

For other data types (lists, dictionaries, user-defined types), assignment works differently

- These datatypes are "mutable"
- Change occur in place
- We don't copy them into a new memory address each time
- If we type y=x and then modify y, both x and y are changed

immutable

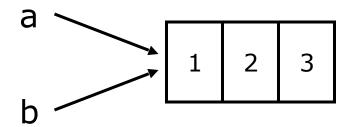
```
>>> x = 3
>>> y = x
>>> y = 4
>>> print(x)
```

mutable

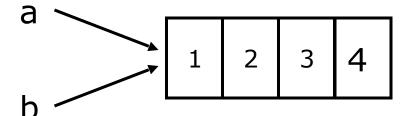
Why? Changing a Shared List

$$a = [1, 2, 3]$$
 a –

$$b = a$$



a.append(4)



Surprising example surprising no more

So now, here's our code:

```
>>> 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...
```