

# Python

CSE 216 : Programming Abstractions

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# A Brief Background

- Developed in the late 1980s, primarily by Guido Van Rossum.
  - Python 2.0 was released in 2000.
  - Python 3.0 was released in 2008.
  - Unlike Java, Python 3.x is *not* backward compatible.
    - That is, if you write a program in a version 2.x., it may not work on modern Python interpreters.
    - The [official Python wiki](https://wiki.python.org/moin/BeginnersGuide) says “Python 2.x is legacy, Python 3.x is the present and future of the language”. So, we will use Python 3.x in this course.
- **For additional help**
    - The standard Python documentation (<https://docs.python.org/3/>) contains a tutorial.
    - The beginner’s guide to Python (<https://wiki.python.org/moin/BeginnersGuide>)

# Coding Environment

- Many computers come pre-installed with Python. If not, you can download and install it from <https://www.python.org/downloads/>.
- The Python interpreter can be launched straight-away from the terminal. This is an interactive shell, and perhaps the best way to get started!

```
[
rbanerjee@Macademia:lecture-codes $ python --version
Python 3.6.0 :: Anaconda 4.3.0 (x86_64)
rbanerjee@Macademia:lecture-codes $ python
Python 3.6.0 |Anaconda 4.3.0 (x86_64)| (default, Dec 23 2016, 13:19:00)
[GCC 4.2.1 Compatible Apple LLVM 6.0 (clang-600.0.57)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
[>>> print("Hello World")
Hello World
[>>> quit()
rbanerjee@Macademia:lecture-codes $
]
```

# Coding Environment

The Python installation also usually comes with a GUI environment called IDLE, which contains a Python shell.

For more complex projects, you may want to use a IDE like [PyCharm](#) or [PyDev+Eclipse](#).

# Running a simple program

```
# Welcome.py
# Display the one true message
# In case you haven't figured it out yet,
# the hash marks a comment line.
print("Hello World!")

# No semi-colon needed at the end of a statement
```

```
[rbanerjee@Macademia:lecture-codes $ python welcome.py
]
Hello World!
rbanerjee@Macademia:lecture-codes $ █
```

# Syntax: blocks and indents

- Instead of brackets, Python uses indented block structures.
- So, instead of

```
if (x) {  
    if (y) {  
        a_subroutine();  
    }  
    another_subroutine();  
}
```

- Python looks like:

```
if x:  
    if y:  
        a_subroutine()  
    another_subroutine()
```

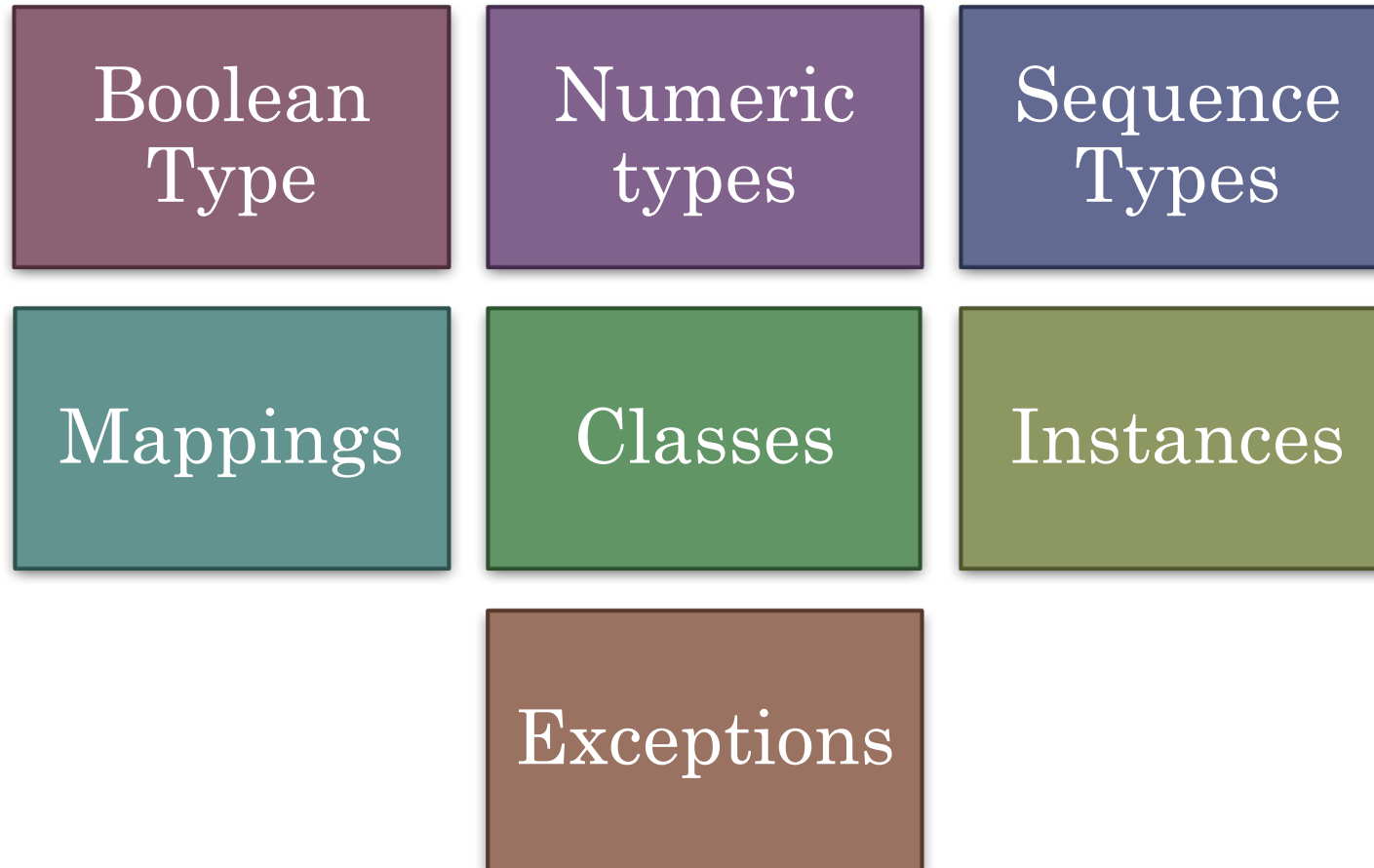
- The convention is to use 4 spaces (not tabs).
  - This is not a *formal* requirement, but using anything other than 4 spaces will make your code incompatible with most other python codes.

# Objects

- Python is an object-oriented language.
- Everything – including numbers – is an object.
- Every object has an `id()` and a `type()`
  - The id remains unchanged from the creation until the destruction of the binding between the name and the object.
  - In the C implementation, the id is address of the object in memory.

```
>>> x = 3**3
>>> type(x)
<class 'int'>
>>> id(x)
4502620816
```

# Built-in Types





# Boolean Type

- An object is considered true by default, unless its class defines either a `__bool__()` method that returns `False` or a `__len__()` method that returns zero.
- The common built-in objects that are equivalent to false are
  - a) constants defined to be false: `None` and `False`.
  - b) zero of any numeric type
  - c) empty sequences and collections
- The boolean operations are `and`, `or`, `not`.
  - With `or`, the second argument only gets evaluated if the first argument is true.
  - With `and`, the second argument only gets evaluated if the first argument is false.
- In Python, Booleans are a subtype of integers.
  - 0 is false, everything else is true.

# Numeric Types

- Python has three numeric types (not considering Boolean):
  1. Integers
  2. Floating-point numbers
  3. Complex Numbers
- An `int` has unlimited precision, which is why there is no separate data type called 'long' in Python.
- A `float` are implemented as `double` in C.
- A `complex` is a complex number (*e.g.*, `5 + 3j`), implemented as two floating-point numbers denoting the real and imaginary `.parts` respectively

# Type Conversion

Python performs the following type conversions for numbers:

- `int(4.2)` → 4
- `float(4)` → 4.0
- `round(4.51)` → 5
- `round(4.5)` → 4
- `int(4.2)` → 4

## Built-in functions for numeric types

The following functions use the [math module](#):

```
>>> max(2,3,4) # 4
```

```
>>> min(2,3,4) # 2
```

```
>>> round(4.51) # 5
```

```
>>> abs(-3.2) # 3.2
```

```
>>> pow(3,2) # 9 (same as 3**2)
```

# Sequence Types

Lists

Tuples

Ranges

Two additional  
sequence types:

- String
- Binary data

Operation	Result
<code>x in s</code>	<code>True</code> if an item of <code>s</code> is equal to <code>x</code> , else <code>False</code>
<code>x not in s</code>	<code>False</code> if an item of <code>s</code> is equal to <code>x</code> , else <code>True</code>
<code>s + t</code>	the concatenation of <code>s</code> and <code>t</code>
<code>s * n</code> or <code>n * s</code>	equivalent to adding <code>s</code> to itself <code>n</code> times
<code>s[i]</code>	<code>i</code> th item of <code>s</code> , origin 0
<code>s[i:j]</code>	slice of <code>s</code> from <code>i</code> to <code>j</code>
<code>s[i:j:k]</code>	slice of <code>s</code> from <code>i</code> to <code>j</code> with step <code>k</code>
<code>len(s)</code>	length of <code>s</code>
<code>min(s)</code>	smallest item of <code>s</code>
<code>max(s)</code>	largest item of <code>s</code>
<code>s.index(x[, i[, j]])</code>	index of the first occurrence of <code>x</code> in <code>s</code> (at or after index <code>i</code> and before index <code>j</code> )
<code>s.count(x)</code>	total number of occurrences of <code>x</code> in <code>s</code>

Source: <https://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#common-sequence-operations>

# Common Sequence Operations

# Lists

- A **list** is a *mutable* sequence.
- It *can* be heterogeneous, but usually, programmers use homogeneous lists.
- List construction:
  1. `a_list = []` # create an empty list
  2. `a_list = list()` # same as line 1.
  3. `a_list = [2,3,4]` # create a list with these three integers
  4. `a_list = ['red', 'green', 'blue']` # create a list with these  
# three strings
  5. `a_list = list('red')` # create the list ['r', 'e', 'd']; this is  
# possible because a string is a sequence

# List methods

We are using the python syntax for method signature below, which is:

`<method_name>(var_name: var_type, ...): return_type`

- `append(x: object): None`
- `insert(index: int, x: object): None`
- `remove(x: object): None`
- `index(x: object) int`
- `count(x: object): int`
- `sort(): None`
- `reverse(): None`
- `extend(l: list): None`



```
[>>> a_list = [2,3,4,1,16,30]
[>>> len(a_list)
6
[>>> max(a_list)
30
[>>> min(a_list)
1
[>>> sum(a_list)
56
[>>> all(a_list)
True
[>>> any(a_list)
True
[>>> sorted(a_list)
[1, 2, 3, 4, 16, 30]
```

```
[>>> b_list = list()
[>>> all(b_list)
True
[>>> any(b_list)
False
[>>> b_list.append('red')
[>>> any(b_list)
True
[>>> all(b_list)
True
```

# Built-in Functions with Lists

```
[>>> a = [1,2]
[>>> b = [3,4]
[>>> a + b
[1, 2, 3, 4]
[>>> c = a + b
[>>> d = 2 * a
[>>> d
[1, 2, 1, 2]
[>>> d = a * 2
[>>> d
[1, 2, 1, 2]
[>>> e = d[2:4]
[>>> e
[1, 2]
[>>> e = d[1:3]
[>>> e
[2, 1]
```

```
[>>> a = [1,3,5,4,11,-2,0,25,-5]
[>>> a[-1]
-5
[>>> a[-2]
25
[>>> 25 in a
True
[>>> 100 in a
False
```

# Operators on Lists

## List Comparisons

```
[>>> a = ["red", "green", "blue"]
[>>> b = ["red", "blue", "green"]
[>>> a == b
False
[>>> a != b
True
[>>> a is b
False
[>>> a >= b
True
[>>> b = a
[>>> a is b
True
[>>> a >= b
True
[>>> a == b
True
```

# Tuples

- A **tuple** is an immutable sequences, typically used to store collections of *heterogeneous* data.
  - We can think of them as the “record” data type in Python.
- **Constructing a tuple**

```
>>> a = (11, 22, 33, )
>>> b = 'aa', 'bb'
>>> c = 123,
>>> a
(11, 22, 33)
>>> b
('aa', 'bb')
>>> c
(123,)
>>> type(c)
<type 'tuple'>
```

# Heterogeneous Tuples

- With heterogeneous tuples, it usually makes more sense to access the data using names instead of indices. To do this, use `collections.namedtuple()`.
  - This is *not* a built-in type.

```
>>> from collections import namedtuple
>>> Phone = namedtuple('Phone', ['owner', 'number'])
>>> p = Phone('John', '1231231231')
>>> p
Phone(owner='John', number='1231231231')
>>> p[0]
'John'
>>> p.owner
'John'
>>> p.number
'1231231231'
```

# Heterogeneous Tuples

- With heterogeneous tuples, it usually makes more sense to access the data using names instead of indices. To do this, use `collections.namedtuple()`.
  - This is *not* a built-in type.

```
>>> q = Phone('Jack', 1231231231)
>>> q.number
1231231231
>>> owner, number = q
>>> owner
'Jack'
>>> number
1231231231
>>> tuple("apple")
('a', 'p', 'p', 'l', 'e')
```

# Ranges

- The **range** data type represented immutable sequences of numbers.
- There are two ways of constructing a range:

1. *class range(stop)*

```
>>> range(10) # 'start' has a default value of 0
range(0, 10)
>>> list(range(10))
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
```

2. *class range(start, stop[, step])*

```
>>> list(range(0, 10, 3)) # 'step' has a default value of 1.
[0, 3, 6, 9]
>>> list(range(0, 10, -2))
[]
>>> list(range(0, -10, -2)) # count down with negative step
[0, -2, -4, -6, -8]
```

# Ranges

- The **range** data type represented immutable sequences of numbers.
- What happens when you print a range?

```
➤ print(list(range(10)))  
[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]  
➤ print(range(10))  
range(0, 10)
```

- In many ways the object returned by **range()** behaves like a list, but it isn't.
- It is an object that returns the successive items of the desired sequence when you iterate over it, but it doesn't really keep the sequence pre-constructed.
  - Saves space.



# Text Sequences – Strings

- A string in Python is an immutable sequence of characters.
  - To be more precise, an immutable sequence of Unicode code points.
  - Internally, it is implemented the same way as in C – a char array that is terminated by the **NULL** character `'\0'`.

```
s1 = 'a string can be defined in single quotes'
```

```
s2 = "or double quotes"
```

```
s3 = """for multiline string,  
      three double quotes are required"""
```

```
s4 = '''three single quotes  
      work as well'''
```

- In the Python shell, you can type `help(str)` to see the documentation.

# Text Sequences - Strings

## Constructing strings

```
>>> s1 = str()  
>>> s2 = str("this is a  
string")  
>>> s3 = "this is a string"  
>>> s1  
''  
  
>>> s2  
'this is a string'  
>>> s3  
'this is a string'
```

# Text Sequences - Strings

## Sequence methods on strings

```
s = "this is a string"
>>> len(s)
16
>>> max(s)
't'
>>> min(s)
' '

>>> s + s
'this is a stringthis is a
string'
>>> 2*s
'this is a stringthis is a
string'
```

# Text Sequences - Strings

## Sequence methods on strings

```
s = "this is a string"
>>> s[2:6]
'is i'
>>> s[:1]
't'
>>> s[3:]
's is a string'
>>> s[-1]
'g'
>>> ' ' in s
True
>>> 'balloon' in s
False
```

# String Methods

- `str.capitalize()`
- `str.lower()`
- `str.endswith(suffix)`
- `str.find(substring)`
  - The `find()` method should be used only if you need to know the position of substring. Otherwise, `in` is sufficient.
- For a complete (or mostly complete) list of methods to do string processing:
  - <https://docs.python.org/3/library/text.html#textservices>

# Sets and Dictionaries

- A **set** is an *unordered* collection of distinct elements\*.
- Two built-in set data types:
  1. **set** – mutable; we can add() and remove() elements
  2. **frozenset** – immutable
- The mapping data type is called a **dictionary**, which maintains key-values pairs of arbitrary types\*.

\* Technically, these elements are hashable objects, but we will look into that when we study the object-oriented data model of Python in detail.

```
s = {"apple", "banana", "mango"}
print(type(s))

a = dict(one=1, two=2, three=3)
b = {'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3}
c = dict(zip(['one', 'two', 'three'], [1, 2, 3]))
d = dict([('two', 2), ('one', 1), ('three', 3)])
e = dict({'three': 3, 'one': 1, 'two': 2})
print(a == b == c == d == e)
```

```
<class 'set'>
True
```

# Dictionary operations

```
a = dict(one=1, two=2, three=3)
print(a.keys())
print(list(a.keys()))
print(list(a.values()))
```

```
a['four'] = 4 # set key to value
a['four']    # return the value with this key
a['five']    # throw KeyError if key is not in dictionary
```

```
dict_keys(['one', 'two', 'three'])
['one', 'two', 'three']
[1, 2, 3]
{'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3, 'four': 4}
4
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "main.py", line 12, in <module>
    a['five']    # throw KeyError if key is not in dictionary
KeyError: 'five'
```

# Control Flow

```
from math import pi

if radius >= 0:
    area = radius * radius * pi
    print("The area of a circle with radius ", radius, "is", area)
else:
    print("I think that was an invalid input")
```



# Control Flow

```
if score >= 90.0:
    grade = 'A'
else:
    if score >= 80.0:
        grade = 'B'
    else:
        if score >= 70.0:
            grade = 'C'
        else:
            if score >= 60.0:
                grade = 'D'
            else:
                grade = 'F'
```

```
if score >= 90.0:
    grade = 'A'
elif score >= 80.0:
    grade = 'B'
elif score >= 70.0:
    grade = 'C'
elif score >= 60.0:
    grade = 'D'
else:
    grade = 'F'
```

# Control Flow

```
words = ['cat', 'window', 'defenestrate']
```

```
for w in words:  
    print(w, len(w))
```

```
for i in range(10):  
    print(i**2)
```

```
a = ['Mary', 'had', 'a', 'little', 'lamb']
```

```
for i in range(len(a)):  
    print(i, a[i])
```

# Control Flow

```
for n in range(2, 10):  
    for x in range(2, n):  
        if n % x == 0:  
            print(n, 'equals', x, '*', n//x)  
            break  
        else:  
            print(n, 'is a prime number')
```

```
3 is a prime number  
4 equals 2 * 2  
5 is a prime number  
5 is a prime number  
5 is a prime number  
6 equals 2 * 3  
7 is a prime number  
7 is a prime number  
7 is a prime number  
7 is a prime number  
7 is a prime number  
8 equals 2 * 4  
9 is a prime number  
9 equals 3 * 3
```

# Control Flow

```
for num in range(2, 10):  
    if num % 2 == 0:  
        print("Found an even number", num)  
        continue  
    print("Found a number", num)
```

```
Found an even number 2  
Found a number 3  
Found an even number 4  
Found a number 5  
Found an even number 6  
Found a number 7  
Found an even number 8  
Found a number 9
```

# Control Flow

- There is a special statement in Python called **pass**:
- The **pass** statement does nothing, and can be used when a statement is required syntactically but the program requires no action.
- Example:  
    while True:  
        pass

# Functions

- The keyword **def** introduces a function definition.
- Function name
- List of formal parameters
- The first statement can (optionally) be a string literal.
  - Python's way of providing the documentation string (**docstring**).

```
def fibseries(n):  
    "Print a Fibonacci series up to n."  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while a < n:  
        print(a, end = ' ')  
        a, b = b, a + b  
    print()
```

# Functions

## Multiple assignments:

- The variables 'a' and 'b' simultaneously get the values 0 and 1.
- In the last line of the loop, we use multiple assignments again.
  - ! The expressions on the right-hand side are evaluated before any assignment takes place.
  - ! The right-hand side expressions are evaluated left-to-right.
- Keep in mind that the comma is implicitly a tuple-construction:
  - `b, a + b` is the tuple `(b, a + b)`

```
def fibseries(n):  
    "Print a Fibonacci series up to n."  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while a < n:  
        print(a, end = ' ')  
        a, b = b, a + b  
    print()
```

# Functions

What does the function `fibseries` return?

- Even functions without a `return` statement do return a value: `None`.
- This is the null value in Python, much like `void` in Java. It is a reserved keyword.
- As an example, here is a function that returns the integer type.

```
def fib(n):  
    "Print the nth Fibonacci number."  
    if n < 0:  
        print("Fibonacci series begins with n = 0")  
    elif n == 0:  
        return 0  
    elif n == 1:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```



# Variable number of parameters

Specify a default value for one or more arguments:

```
def confirmation(query,
                 max_attempts=3,
                 reminder='Please try again with a valid input.'):
    while True:
        response = input(query)
        if response in ('y', 'Y', 'yes', 'Yes', 'YES'):
            return True
        if response in ('n', 'N', 'no', 'No', 'NO'):
            return False
        max_attempts = max_attempts - 1
        if max_attempts < 0:
            raise ValueError('Too many invalid responses.')
    print(reminder)
```

# Variable number of parameters

Specify a default value for one or more arguments:

```
❖ confirmation("Are you sure? ")
Are you sure? No
False
❖ confirmation("Are you sure? ", 1)
Are you sure? ummm...
Please try again with a valid input.
Are you sure? I'm not sure
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "main.py", line 33, in confirmation
    raise ValueError('Too many invalid responses.')
ValueError: Too many invalid responses.
❖ confirmation("Are you sure? ", 1, "Please enter [y]es/[n]o.")
Are you sure? not really
Please enter [y]es/[n]o.
Are you sure? y
True
```

```
➤ i = 0
➤ def default_value_test(arg = i):
...     print(arg)
...
➤ default_value_test()
0
➤ default_value_test(5)
5
```

## How are default values evaluated?

Default values are evaluated *at the point of a function definition*.

```
➤ def default_value_test(num, a_list = list()):  
...     a_list.append(num)  
...     return a_list  
...  
➤ default_value_test(1)  
[1]  
➤ default_value_test(2)  
[1, 2]  
➤ default_value_test(3)  
[1, 2, 3]  
➤ default_value_test(4)  
[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

# How are default values evaluated?

- The default value is *evaluated only once*.
- This is very important for *mutable* objects like lists, dictionaries, etc.

```
➤ def default_value_test(num, a_list = None):  
...     if a_list is None:  
...         a_list = list()  
...     a_list.append(num)  
...     return a_list  
...  
➤ default_value_test(1)  
[1]  
➤ default_value_test(2)  
[2]  
➤ default_value_test(3)  
[3]
```

## How are default values evaluated?

To avoid such sharing of the default value between subsequent function calls, rewrite the function like this.

# Keyword and positional arguments

An **argument** is a value passed to a function when calling the function.

Python provides two kinds of arguments:

- A **keyword argument** (**kwarg**) is preceded by an identifier in a function call.
- E.g., construct a complex number by calling `complex(real=3, imag=2)`.
- A **positional argument** is an argument that is *not* a keyword argument. These can appear at the beginning of an argument list.
- E.g., construct a complex number by calling `complex(3, 2)`.

# Variable number of parameters

## Keyword Arguments

```
def confirmation(query,  
                max_attempts=3,  
                reminder='Please try again with a valid input.')
```

- This function can be called in any of the following ways:
  - `confirmation(query='Are you sure? ')`
  - `confirmation(query='Are you sure? ', max_attempts=2)`
  - `confirmation(query='Are you sure? ',  
 max_attempts=2,  
 reminder='Try again.')`
  - `confirmation(query='Are you sure? ', reminder='Try again.')`

# Variable number of parameters

## Keyword Arguments

```
def confirmation(query,  
                max_attempts=3,  
                reminder='Please try again with a valid input.')
```

- But the following are invalid:
  - `confirmation()` # required arg missing
  - `confirmation(query='Are you sure? ', 2)` # non-keyword arg after kw arg



# Variable number of parameters

Keyword arguments must follow positional arguments.

All the keyword arguments passed must match one of the arguments accepted by the function, and their order is not important.

A required argument may also be provided with a keyword.

No argument may receive a value more than once.

# Arbitrary number of arguments

- A function can be called with an arbitrary number of arguments.
- These arguments will be wrapped up in a tuple.
- Normal arguments may occur before the variable number of arguments.
  - They effectively “scoop up” all the remaining arguments passed to the function.
  - Often called **variadic** arguments.

```
def write_multiple_items(file, separator, *args):  
    file.write(separator.join(args))
```

- Any formal parameter after the **\*args** must be keyword arguments.

```
def concat(*args, sep=' '):  
    return sep.join(args)
```

# Arbitrary number of arguments

- A dictionary can be passed as a formal parameter in the form `**name`.

```
def cheeseshop(kind, *arguments, **keywords):  
    print("-- Do you have any", kind, "?")  
    print("-- I'm sorry, we're all out of", kind)  
    for arg in arguments:  
        print(arg)  
    print("--" * 40)  
    for kw in keywords:  
        print(kw, ":", keywords[kw])
```

```
> cheeseshop("Limburger", "It's very runny, sir.",  
...         "It's really very, VERY runny, sir.",  
...         shopkeeper="Michael Palin",  
...         client="John Cleese",  
...         sketch="Cheese Shop Sketch")  
-- Do you have any Limburger ?  
-- I'm sorry, we're all out of Limburger  
It's very runny, sir.  
It's really very, VERY runny, sir.  
-----  
shopkeeper : Michael Palin  
client : John Cleese  
sketch : Cheese Shop Sketch
```

# Function Annotations

- Even though Python is dynamically typed, it allows the programmer to include 'type hints' in the form of function annotations.

```
def sumtwo(a: int, b: int) -> int:  
    return a + b
```

- The annotations are stored in the `__annotations__` attribute of the function as a dictionary and have no effect on any other part of the function.

```
> sumtwo.__annotations__  
{'a': <class 'int'>, 'b': <class 'int'>, 'return': <class 'int'>}
```

## PEPs and coding style

- Python programming guidelines and conventions are defined in **Python Enhancement Proposals**, or **PEPs**.
- [PEP 8](#) has emerged as the nearly-universal style doctrine.
- Fortunately, most modern IDEs (e.g., PyCharm) abide by PEP 8 and will warn the programmer of any violations.
- For this course, we are not enforcing the style guide in its entirety, but we do require some minimal adherence, as described in this [basic coding style guideline](#).