# 301AA - Advanced Programming

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**AP-26**: Introduction to Python

## **Full Python Tutorial**

- Developed by Guido van Rossum in the early 1990s
  - In July 2018, Van Rossum stepped down as the leader in the language community after 30 years.
- Named after Monty Python
- Available for download from <a href="http://www.python.org">http://www.python.org</a>



## Python 1

- Installing Python & main documentation
- Useful commands
- Modules: importing and executing
- Basics of the language
- Sequence datatypes
- Dictionaries
- Boolean expressions
- Control flow
- List Comprehension

## Language features

- Indentation instead of braces
- Several sequence types
  - Strings '...': made of characters, immutable
  - Lists [...]: made of anything, mutable
  - Tuples (...): made of anything, immutable
- Powerful subscripting (slicing)
- Functions are independent entities (not all functions are methods)
- Exceptions as in Java
- Simple object system
- Iterators (like Java) and generators

# Why Python?

- Good example of scripting language
- "Pythonic" style is very concise
- Powerful but unobtrusive object system
  - Every value is an object
- Powerful collection and iteration abstractions
  - Dynamic typing makes generics easy

# Dynamic typing – the key difference

#### Java: statically typed

- Variables are declared to refer to objects of a given type
- Methods use type signatures to enforce contracts

### Python

- Variables come into existence when first assigned to
- A variable can refer to an object of any type
- All types are (almost) treated the same way
- Main drawback: type errors are only caught at runtime

## Recommended Reading

#### On-line Python tutorials

- The Python Tutorial (<a href="http://docs.python.org/tutorial/">http://docs.python.org/tutorial/</a>)
  - Dense but more complete overview of the most important parts of the language
  - See course home page for others

#### PEP 8- Style Guide for Python Code

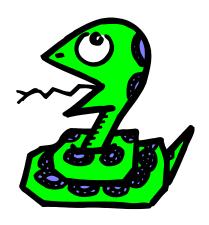
- http://www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0008/
- The official style guide to Python, contains many helpful programming tips

#### Many other books and on-line materials

If you have a specific question, try Google first

### **Technical Issues**

**Installing & Running Python** 



## Which Python?

#### Python 2.7

- Last stable release before version 3
- Implements some of the new features in version 3, but fully backwards compatible

#### Python 3

- Released in December 2008
- Many changes (including incompatible changes)
- Much cleaner language in many ways
- Strings use Unicode, not ASCII
- But: A few important third party libraries are not yet compatible with Python 3 right now
- "End-of-life" date of Python 2 set initially at 2015, then postponed to 2020

## The Python Interpreter

Download it from

```
https://www.python.org/
```

- Current version: 3.8.0
- Interactive interface to Python

% python

```
Python 3.6.3 (v3.6.3:2c5fed86e0, Oct 3 2017, 00:32:08) [GCC 4.2.1 (Apple Inc. build 5666) (dot 3)] on darwin Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information. >>>
```

Python interpreter evaluates inputs:

```
>>> 3*(7+2)
27
```

### **Useful commands**

- help()
  - Enters Python interactive help utility
- help(arg)
  - Prints documentation about arg
  - Example: help(1), help(str), help({}), help(print), help(builtins)
- type(arg)
  - Prints the type of arg
  - Example: type(1), type("Hello"), type(str), type(type)
- in the interpreter is the value of the last expression
- Since "everything is an object", try "dot-completion" to see what are the options...
  - Example: 1. <tab><tab> "hello". <tab><tab>
  - NB: the latter might not work. Try: "hello" <ret>; \_. <tab><tab>

### The dir() Function

The built-in function dir() returns a sorted list of strings containing all names defined in a module, a class, or an object

### Import and Modules

- Programs will often use classes & functions defined in another file
- A Python module is a single file with the same name (plus the .py extension)
- Modules can contain many classes and functions
- Access using import

#### Where does Python look for module files?

- The list of directories where Python looks: sys.path
- When Python starts up, this variable is initialized from the PYTHONPATH environment variable
- To add a directory of your own to this list, append it to this list.

```
sys.path.append('/my/new/path')
```

Oops! Operating system dependent....

## **Defining Modules**

- Modules are files containing definitions and statements. A module defines a new namespace.
- Modules can be organized hierarchically in packages

```
# File fibo.py - Fibonacci numbers module
def fib(n): # write Fibonacci series up to n
    a, b = 0, 1
   while b < n:
       print(b, end=' ')
       a, b = b, a+b
   print()
def fib2(n): # return Fibonacci series up to n
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while b < n:
       result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
    return result
```

## Importing a module

```
>>> import fibo  # imports module from local file
'fibo.py'
>>> fibo.fib(6)  # dot notation
[1, 1, 2, 3, 5]
>>> fibo.__name__ # special attribute __name__
'fibo'
>>> fibo.fib.__module__ # special attribute __module__
'fibo'
```

# Executing a module as a script

A module can be invoked as a script from the shell as

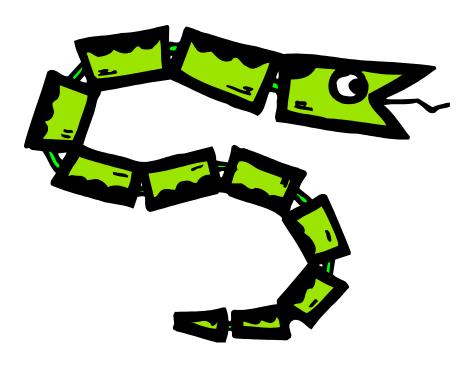
```
> python fibo.py 60
```

Executed with \_\_name\_\_ set to "\_\_main\_\_".

```
# File fibo.py - Fibonacci numbers module
def fib(n):  # write Fibonacci series up to n
...
def fib2(n):  # return Fibonacci series up to n
...
if __name__ == "__main__": # added code
    import sys
    fib(int(sys.argv[1]))
```

```
> python fibo.py 60
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34
>
```

### **The Basics**



# A Code Sample (in IDLE)

# **Enough to Understand the Code**

- Indentation matters to the meaning of the code:
  - Block structure indicated by indentation
- The first assignment to a variable creates it.
  - Variable types don't need to be declared.
  - Python figures out the variable types on its own.
- Assignment uses = and comparison uses ==.
- For numbers + \*/% are as expected.
  - Special use of + for string concatenation.
  - Special use of % for string formatting (as with printf in C)
- Logical operators are words (and, or, not) not symbols
- Simple printing can be done with print().

# **Basic Datatypes**

Integers (default for numbers)

```
z = 5 // 2 # Answer is 2, integer division.
```

Floats

```
x = 3.456

k = 5 / 2 \# k = 2.5 in [Py3], k = 2 in [Py2]
```

- Strings
  - Can use "" or ' ' to specify."abc" 'abc' (Same thing.)
  - Unmatched can occur within the string."matt's"
  - Use triple double-quotes for multi-line strings or strings than contain both ' and " inside of them:

```
"""a ' b"c"""
```

# Whitespace

Whitespace is meaningful in Python: especially indentation and placement of newlines.

- Use a newline to end a line of code.
  - Use \ when must go to next line prematurely.
- No braces { } to mark blocks of code in Python...
  Use consistent indentation instead.
  - The first line with less indentation is outside of the block.
  - The first line with more indentation starts a nested block
- Often a colon ":" appears at the start of a new block. (E.g. for function and class definitions.)

### **Comments**

- Start comments with # the rest of line is ignored.
- Can include a "documentation string" as the first line of any new function or class that you define.
- The development environment, debugger, and other tools use it: it's good style to include one.

```
def my_function(x, y):
    """This is the docstring. This
    function does blah blah blah. """
# The code would go here...
```

# **Assignment**

- Binding a variable in Python means setting a name to hold a reference to some object.
  - Assignment creates references, not copies (like Java)
- A variable is created the first time it appears on the left side of an assignment expression:

$$x = 3$$

- An object is deleted (by the garbage collector) once it becomes unreachable.
- Names in Python do not have an intrinsic type.
   Objects have types.
  - Python determines the type of the reference automatically based on what data is assigned to it.

# **Multiple Assignment**

You can also assign to multiple names at the same time.

```
>>> x, y = 2, 3
>>> x
2
>>> y
3
```

# Sequence types: Tuples, Lists, and Strings



### **Sequence Types**

#### 1. Tulpes

- A simple immutable ordered sequence of items
  - Immutable: a tuple cannot be modified once created....
- Items can be of mixed types, including collection types

#### 2. Strings

- Immutable
- Conceptually very much like a tuple
- [Py3] UTF-8 Unicode (type str)
- [Py2] 8-bit chars (type str) UTF-16 Unicode (type unicode)

#### 3. Lists

Mutable ordered sequence of items of mixed types

### **Sequence Types 2**

- The three sequence types (tuples, strings, and lists) share much of the same syntax and functionality.
- Tuples are defined using parentheses (and commas).

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

Lists are defined using square brackets (and commas).

```
>>> li = ["abc", 34, 4.34, 23]
```

Strings are defined using quotes (", ', or """).

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

## **Sequence Types 3**

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

```
>>> tu = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')
>>> tu[1]  # Second item in the tuple.
  'abc'

>>> li = ["abc", 34, 4.34, 23]
>>> li[1]  # Second item in the list.
  34

>>> st = "Hello World"
>>> st[1]  # Second character in string.
  'e'
```

# **Negative indices**

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

Positive index: count from the left, starting with 0.

Negative lookup: count from right, starting with -1.

### Slicing: Return Copy of a Subset (1)

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

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

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

You can also use negative indices when slicing.

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

Optional argument allows selection of every nth item.

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

### Slicing: Return Copy of a Subset (2)

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

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

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

Omit the 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

To make a *copy* of an entire sequence, you can use [:].

```
>>> 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 collection (often called a container in Python):

```
>>> 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 new tuple, list, or string whose value is the concatenation of its arguments.
- Extends concatenation from strings to other types

```
>>> (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'
```

**Mutability: Tuples vs. Lists** 



### **Lists: Mutable**

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

- We can change lists in place.
- Name // still points to the same memory reference when we're done.

#### **Tuples: Immutable**

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

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

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

You can't change a tuple.

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

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

The immutability of tuples means they're faster than lists.

#### **Operations on Lists Only - 1**

```
>>> 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 the + operator

- + creates a fresh list (with a new memory reference)
- extend is just like add in Java; it operates on list li in place.

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

#### **Confusing**

- extend takes a list as an argument
- append t akes a singleton as an argument, unlike Java

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

# **Operations on Lists Only - 3**

```
>>> li = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'b']
>>> li.index('b')  # index of first occurrence*
  *more complex forms exist
>>> li.count('b') # number of occurrences
2
>>> li.remove('b')  # remove first occurrence
>>> 1 i
 ['a', 'c', 'b']
```

# **Operations on Lists Only - 4**

```
>>> li = [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
```

#### **Tuples vs. Lists**

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

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

# Sets, by examples

- Empty set: set()
- Indexing not supported
- Mixed types

```
>>> basket = {'apple', 'orange', 'apple', 'pear', 'orange',
'banana'}
>>> print(basket)
                      # show that duplicates have been
removed
{'orange', 'banana', 'pear', 'apple'}
                               # fast membership testing
>>> 'orange' in basket
True
>>> 'crabgrass' in basket
False
>>> # Demonstrate set operations on unique letters from two words
>>> a = set('abracadabra')
>>> b = set('alacazam')
                                       # unique letters in a
>>> a
{'a', 'r', 'b', 'c', 'd'}
>>> a - b
                                       # letters in a but not in b
{'r', 'd', 'b'}
>>> a | b
                                       # letters in a or b or both
{'a', 'c', 'r', 'd', 'b', 'm', 'z', 'l'}
>>> a & b
                                       # letters in both a and b
{'a', 'c'}
>>> a ^ b
                                    # letters in a or b but not both
{'r', 'd', 'b', 'm', 'z', 'l'}
```

#### Dictionaries: a *mapping* collection type



# Dictionaries: Like maps in Java

- Dictionaries store a mapping between a set of keys and a set of values.
  - Keys can be of any immutable hashable type
    - cannot contain mutable components
  - Values can be any type
  - Values and keys can be of different types in a single dictionary

#### You can

- define
- modify
- view
- lookup
- delete

the key-value pairs in the dictionary.

# Creating and accessing dictionaries

```
>>> d = {'user':'bozo', 'pswd':1234}
>>> d['user']
'bozo'
>>> d['pswd']
1234
>>> d['bozo']
Traceback (innermost last):
  File '<interactive input>' line 1, in ?
KeyError: bozo
```

Keys must be unique.

```
>>> d1 = {1:7,1:5}
>>> d1
{1: 5}
```

# **Updating Dictionaries**

Assigning to an existing key changes the value.

```
>>> d = {'user':'bozo', 'pswd':1234}

>>> d['user'] = 'clown'
>>> d
{'user':'clown', 'pswd':1234}
```

Assigning to a non-existing key adds a new pair.

```
>>> d['id'] = 45
>>> d
{'user':'clown', 'id':45, 'pswd':1234}
```

- Dictionaries are unordered
  - New entry might appear anywhere in the output.
- (Dictionaries work by hashing)

#### Removing dictionary entries

```
>>> d = {'user':'bozo', 'p':1234, 'i':34}
                           # Remove one. Note that del is
>>> del d['user']
                             # a function.
>>> d
{'p':1234, 'i':34}
                             # Remove all.
>>> d.clear()
>>> d
{}
>>> a=[1,2]
>>> del a[1]
                            # (del also works on lists)
>>> a
[1]
```

#### **Useful Accessor Methods**

```
>>> d = {'user':'bozo', 'p':1234, 'i':34}
>>> list(d.keys())
                           # List of current keys
['user', 'p', 'i']
>>> list(d.values())
                           # List of current values.
['bozo', 1234, 34]
>>> list(d.items()) # List of item tuples.
[('user','bozo'), ('p',1234), ('i',34)]
>>> list(d)
                      # When accessing a dictionary as
                       # a list, the keys are returned
['user', 'p', 'i']
```

# **Using dictionaries**

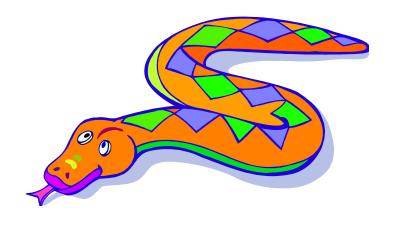
Write a program to compute the frequency of the words of a string read from the input. The output should print the words in increasing alphanumerical order.

```
freq = {} # frequency of words in text [Python3]
line = input()
for word in line.split():
    freq[word] = freq.get(word,0)+1

words = list(freq.keys())
words.sort()

for w in words:
    print ("%s:%d" % (w,freq[w]))
```

# **Boolean Expressions**



#### **True and False**

- True and False are constants
- Other values are treated as equivalent to either True or False when used in conditionals:
  - False: zero, None, empty containers
  - True: non-zero numbers, non-empty objects
  - See PEP 8 for the most Pythonic ways to compare
- Comparison operators: ==, !=, <, <=, etc.</p>
  - X == Y
    - X and Y have same value (like Java equals method)
  - X is Y:
    - X and Y refer to the exact same object (like Java ==)

#### **Logical Operators**

You can also combine Boolean expressions.

True if a is True and b is True: a and b

True if a is True or b is True: a or b

True if a is False: not a

#### **Conditional Expressions**

- x = true\_value if condition else false\_value
- lazy evaluation:
  - First, condition is evaluated
  - If True, true value is evaluated and returned
  - If False, false\_value is evaluated and returned

#### **Control Flow**



# if Statements (as expected)

```
if x == 3:
    print("X equals 3.")
elif x == 2:
    print("X equals 2.")
else:
    print("X equals something else.")
print ("This is outside the 'if'.")
```

#### Note:

- Use of indentation for blocks
- Colon (:) after boolean expression

#### while Loops (as expected)

```
>>> x = 3
>>> while x < 5:
      print (x, "still in the loop")
      x = x + 1
3 still in the loop
4 still in the loop
>>> x = 6
\Rightarrow \Rightarrow while x < 5:
      print (x, "still in the loop")
>>>
```

#### break and continue

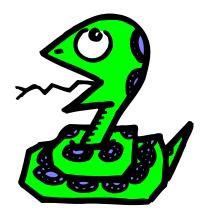
- You can use the keyword break inside a loop to leave the while loop entirely.
- You can use the keyword continue inside a loop to stop processing the current iteration of the loop and immediately go on to the next one.

#### assert

- An assert statement will check to make sure that something is true during the course of a program.
  - If the condition if false, the program throws an exception (AssertionError)

```
assert(number of players < 5)</pre>
```

# For Loops



#### For Loops 1

- For-each is Python's only form of for loop
- A for loop steps through each of the items in a collection type, or any other type of object which is "iterable"

```
for <item> in <collection>:
     <statements>
```

- If <collection> is a list or a tuple, then the loop steps through each element of the sequence.
- If <collection> is a string, then the loop steps through each character of the string.

```
for someChar in "Hello World":
    print(someChar)
```

#### For Loops 2

```
for <item> in <collection>:
     <statements>
```

- <item> can be more complex than a single variable name.
  - If the elements of <collection> are themselves collections, then <item> can match the structure of the elements. (We saw something similar with list comprehensions and with ordinary assignments.)

```
for (x, y) in [('a',1), ('b',2), ('c',3), ('d',4)]:
    print(x)
```

# For loops and the range() function

- We often want to write a loop where the variables ranges over some sequence of numbers. The range() function returns a list of n numbers from 0 up to but not including the number we pass to it.
- range(5) returns [0,1,2,3,4]
- So we can say:

```
for x in range(5):
    print(x)
```

- Variant: range(start, stop[,step])
- [Py2]: range() returns a list, xrange() returns an iterator that provides the same functionality, more efficiently
- [Py3]: range() returns an iterator, xrange() illegal

# Abuse of the range() function

 Don't use range() to iterate over a sequence solely to have the index and elements available at the same time

Avoid:

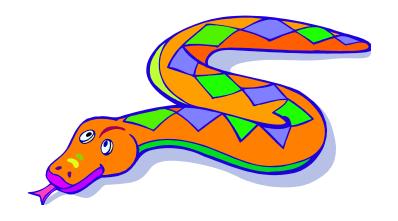
```
for i in range(len(mylist)):
    print(i, mylist[i])
```

Instead:

```
for (i, item) in enumerate(mylist):
    print(i, item)
```

- This is an example of an anti-pattern in Python
  - For more, see: <a href="http://lignos.org/py\_antipatterns/">http://lignos.org/py\_antipatterns/</a>

# **Generating Lists using "List Comprehensions"**



# **List Comprehensions 1**

- A powerful feature of the Python language.
  - Generate a new list by applying a function to every member of an original list.
  - Python programmers use list comprehensions extensively.
     You'll see many of them in real code.

[ expression for name in list ]

#### **List Comprehensions 2**

```
>>> li = [3, 6, 2, 7]
>>> [elem*2 for elem in li]
[6, 12, 4, 14]
```

#### [ expression for name in list ]

- Where <u>expression</u> is some calculation or operation acting upon the variable <u>name</u>.
- For each member of the <u>list</u>, the list comprehension
  - 1. sets <u>name</u> equal to that member, and
  - 2. calculates a new value using expression,
- It then collects these new values into a list which is the return value of the list comprehension.

# **List Comprehensions 3**

If the elements of <u>list</u> are other collections, then name can be replaced by a collection of names that match the "shape" of the <u>list</u> members.

```
>>> li = [('a', 1), ('b', 2), ('c', 7)]
>>> [ n * 3 for (x, n) in li]
[3, 6, 21]
```

[ expression for name in list if filter]

# Filtered List Comprehension 1

- Filter determines whether <u>expression</u> is performed on each member of the <u>list</u>.
- When processing each element of <u>list</u>, first check if it satisfies the <u>filter condition</u>.
- If the <u>filter condition</u> returns *False*, that element is omitted from the <u>list</u> before the list comprehension is evaluated.

# Filtered List Comprehension 2

```
>>> li = [3, 6, 2, 7, 1, 9]
>>> [elem * 2 for elem in li if elem > 4]
[12, 14, 18]
```

- Only 6, 7, and 9 satisfy the filter condition.
- So, only 12, 14, and 18 are produced.

#### **Nested List Comprehensions**

Since list comprehensions take a list as input and produce a list as output, they are easily nested:

- The inner comprehension produces: [4, 3, 5, 2].
- So, the outer one produces: [8, 6, 10, 4].

#### For Loops / List Comprehensions

- Python's list comprehensions provide a natural idiom that usually requires a for-loop in other programming languages.
  - As a result, Python code uses many fewer for-loops
- Caveat! The keywords for and in also appear in the syntax of list comprehensions, but this is a totally different construction.