

A Brief Introduction to Python by Examples

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Artificial Intelligence 2010

Scope and
Motivations

Python
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Basics

Expressions and
Built-in Data Types

Python Type
System Overview

Functions and
Control Structures

Functional
Programming

Object-
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Structural Subtyping
and Duck-Typing

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- Python language basics

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- Python fundamentals
- Functional Programming Python
- Python for Object-Oriented Programming
- Leveraging Python for Artificial Intelligence

- This lesson is a guided tour into the language
 - Think of it as a collective interactive tutorial
- Brief introduction and then on with tutorials and exercises
 - They help to familiarize with the language
 - Not very AI oriented, but we'll have time for that. . .
- We **will** overlook a lot of details
 - For those, refer to the documentation
 - We will introduce some should the need arise

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Python features

- Python is:
 - ➊ a *scripting* language
 - ➋ interpreted
 - ➌ multi-paradigm
 - Imperative
 - Functional
 - Object-Oriented
 - Metaprogramming
 - ➍ strongly typed
 - ➎ dynamically typed
 - ➏ garbage collected

What we will use Python for

- Rapid algorithm development
- Statistical algorithm analysis

Which version?

- Two major versions are available:
 - 1 Python 2.6.x
 - 2 Python 3.1.x
- Version 3 introduces non backward-compatible changes
- We will stick with version 2.6
 - But many things still apply to 3

Which tools?

What: Python interpreter

Where: [Documentation](#)

How: Any text editor (with a bit of support)

- An [Eclipse plug-in](#) is available
- Several specific IDEs as well

- Official site: www.python.org
- [Standard library documentation](#):
 - Also home of a tutorial
 - Contains language specifications for the most curious
- Introductory tutorials:
 - Dive Into Python for version [2.6.x](#) and [3.1.x](#) (they are both worth a reading)
 - Ever heard about [Google](#)?
- [Idiomatic Python](#): a collection of programming idioms and techniques for a productive and fun Python experience
 - *Warmly recommended*
- [Learning Python, 4th edition](#)

- print statement to... print things!

```
>>> print "Hello world!", 10, 3.14, []  
Hello World 10 3.14 []
```

- Variables are just names
- Comments start with # and span to the end of line

```
x = 10  
print x # prints 10  
x = "some string"  
print x # prints some string
```

- All kind of operators supported

```
x, y = 3, 4  
z = x^2 + y^2  
print z + z # prints 10
```

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Numbers

- Python natively supports:

`int` Integers

`float` Double-precision floating point

`complex` Complex numbers of the form: $\text{Re} + \text{Im } j$

`10 + 1j`, `4j`, `30 + 0j` # *but not* `10 + j`

- Type name is used as a function for conversions
- Python never converts on your behalf

Strings

- Enclosed in single or double quotes
- Also a triple quoted form that can span multiple lines
- Many built-in methods
- Subscript access to single characters

Python lists

- Linear sequence of **mutable** object **references**
- Indexed from 0, subscript notation
- Also allow for slicing:

```
l = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
x = l[1:4] # x is [2, 3, 4]
```

Python sequences

- A sequence is not an object but an **object interface** (called protocol in Python parlance)
- Sequences are iterable objects (method `iter`)
- Many more methods defined, like:
 - Membership
 - Slice
 - Concatenation
- Look them up [here](#)

- **Unordered mutable** collections of key-value pairs
 - Key can be any immutable object (actually, it must be hashable)
 - Value can be anything
- Their type is `dict` (so `help(dict)` in an interpreter to learn about their methods)

```
d = {a: 1, b: 2, c: 3, d: 1}
d.keys() # returns [a, b, c, d]
d[b] # returns 2
d.values() # returns [1, 1, 2, 3]
```

- Python tuples are immutable sequences of object references
 - Practically, like lists, but immutable
 - Cannot be shrunk or grown
 - Can't even assign to a tuple element
- Implement sequence protocol
- Many syntactic facilities to define them

```
aTuple = (1, 2, 3)
anotherTuple = tuple([1, 2, 3])
x = 1, 2, 3 # this is a tuple too!
y = x + ("ciao",) # notice the singleton tuple
                syntax
print y # prints (1, 2, 3, "ciao")
```

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Everything is an Object

- Python is “more” object-oriented than Java
- Really **everything** is an object
 - Numbers, strings, booleans, ... any datatype
 - Functions and classes
 - Code, stack-traces (OK, forget I ever wrote that!)

Example

A Prompt Session

```
>>> print "hello world".upper()  
HELLO WORLD  
>>> print 2 > 4  
False  
>>> print 3 + 4, (3).__add__(4)  
7 7
```

Operators are just syntactic sugar for method invocation

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Strong Type System

- Will not allow not well-defined operations
- Almost never Python will coerce an object for you

Example

```
>>> print "3" + 4 # this is an error
>>> print "3" + str(4) # explicit casting
34
>>> print True + 3 # 'booleans are integers'
4
```

There are no booleans in Python: True and False are just constants with value 1 and 0 respectively.

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Objects in a nutshell

- 1 Objects are dictionaries, i.e., name-value pairs
- 2 Objects are (usually **mutable**) collections of names (also called **Namespace Objects**)
- 3 Every attribute access corresponds to a **dynamic dictionary look-up**
- 4 Access is performed via dotted notation

Variables and everything else

- Variables have no type annotation
 - A variable is just a **reference** to an object
 - It has no connection to underlying memory representation
- Functions and methods have no type annotations as well

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The Layout Rule

- A block is a textual element which has the following structure:

header:

body *# watch the indentation!*

- The indentation is mandatory and must be consistent for the whole block body
- Python many common control structures
 - if ... else
 - while
 - for, but this is special and much more powerful than its C/Java counterpart
- no switch/case or do/while
- break and continue work as usual

Example

```
count = 10
while count > 0:
    if count % 2 == 0:
        print count, "is even"
    elif count % 3 == 0:
        print count, "is divisible by 3"
    else:
        print count
    count -= 1 # augmented assignment but no -- or ++ operators
```

for statement and iterables

- for statements have this form:

```
for iterationVariables in iterable:  
    body
```

- `iterable` is any object that supports *Iterable* protocol
 - Very similar to Java
 - Lists, tuples, dictionaries, sets
 - Must return an *Iterator* when passed to `iter` function
- `body` is executed once for every object returned by the iterator
- Iteration variables can “unpack” objects returned by the iterator
- Look [over here](#) for some idiomatic looping techniques
- Think of it as the Python equivalent of the Enhanced For Loop in Java or a `for . . . in` loop in JavaScript

Example

Iterations

```
for x in range(0, 7): # like for x in [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
    print x * x
for x in "hello, world!":
    print x.upper() # prints "hello, world!" capitalized
                     one character for each line
```

Example

Unpacking

```
for a, b in [(1, 2), (10, 20), (-1, 7)]:
    print a * b # prints 2 200 -7
for ch, i in zip("hello", range(0, 5)): # see also
    enumerate function
    print i, "=>", ch # prints a character and its index
```

Scopes: an introduction

- A scope is a textual region in the code
- A scope determines the meaning of all **unqualified** names
- In Python only **modules**, **functions** and **classes** define scopes
 - Not control blocks
 - For example, the iteration variable in a for loop is available *after* the loop

Bindings

- A binding is a **runtime** association between a name and an object
- Assignment creates bindings
- Not only assignment operator creates bindings; also:
 - Class and function declarations
 - Module import
 - Anything that introduces a name (like iteration variables in for loops)

Final remarks

- 1 In Python everything is **executable code**
 - Even what may you seem like a declarations
- 2 Variables come into existence when assigned

Example

```
for x in range(0, 10):  
    pass # "do-nothing" statement  
print x * x # prints 81  
fun = "ciao"  
print fun # prints ciao  
def fun(): # function declaration  
    pass  
print fun # prints <function f at ...>
```

Functions basics

- Functions are first class citizen, i.e. objects
- Function declaration:

```
def function_name(function_arguments):  
    body
```

- Many possibilities for specifying function arguments
 - Default arguments
 - Named arguments
 - Packing/unpacking
- `return` keyword does what you expect
- But we will see also `yield`
- Since functions are objects they can be:
 - Passed around
 - “Renamed”
 - Queried (useful for metaprogramming geeks)

Example

```
def integer_sum(fun, start=0, stop=10):  
    accumulator = 0  
    for x in range(start, stop):  
        accumulator += fun(x)  
    return accumulator  
  
def twice(x):  
    return 2 * x  
twice_alias = twice # twice and twice_alias are  
simple variables!  
  
integer_sum(twice, to=5) # start=0, returns 20  
integer_sum(twice, 3, 12) # start=3, stop=12, returns  
126  
integer_sum(twice_alias, 9) # start=9, stop=10,  
returns 18
```

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Class declaration

- OOP is no different than in Java
 - Objects, classes, instances, methods, ...
 - You also get multiple inheritance
- Some syntactic differences:

```
class AClass(object):  
    def __init__(self, x, y):  
        self.x = x  
        self.other = y  
    def some_method(self, x):  
        return self.x + x
```

```
obj = AClass(10, "ciao")
```

- `self` is **always** explicit
- The “constructor” is the special methods `__init__`
- Invoke (I mean it) the class to build an instance

OOP Gotchas! (from a Java perspective)

- Objects are “open” (actually are dictionaries)
 - New attributes can be added to them

```
x = AClass(10, "ciao")
y = AClass(1, 2)
# x.attrib # this raises exception
y.attrib = [1, 2, 3] # now y has a new attribute
```

- Classes are object (therefore are open)
- Every assignment in class scope goes into class object

```
class C(object):
    x = 90
    def some_other_method(self): pass
print C.x # prints 90
```

- A class is like a big dictionary shared by all its instances

```
obj = C()
print obj.x # prints 90 again
```

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Subtyping *in theory*

- Subtyping is a form of type polymorphism
- Semantically, it is described by *Liskov substitution principle*:
- For every program P , if U is a subtype of T , I can replace every object of type T with objects of type U without altering program behaviour
 - Let's forget about the “*For every program*” stuff
 - It is undecidable anyway

Subtyping *for real*

- The best a compiler can do is to check names and type signatures
- It all boils down to object capabilities:
 - What can objects of a certain class do?
- It is all about object methods and attributes

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How many kinds of subtyping?

Nominal: subtype relations are explicitly stated by the programmer

Structural: subtype relation depends on object structure

What you already know

- In Java subtyping is **nominal**
- Programmer explicitly:
 - Extends a class
 - Implements an interface
- That way a hierarchy of types is defined
- **Drawback:** nominal subtyping is not “retroactive”

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Example

- Suppose that I write an interface I_F to be used inside my framework
- Any new class that is supposed to be plugged into the framework will implement I_F
- What about all those classes that still respect I_F but were written before I_F was?
- The most favourite sport of OO programmers: wrapping things $\Rightarrow$ Adapter pattern

Example

```
interface IStream {  
    void write(String s);  
    void close();  
}  
  
class Framework {  
    void setup(IStream s){  
        s.write("Ready");  
        doStuff();  
        s.close()  
    }  
}
```

```
class FrameworkLogger  
    implements IStream {  
    void write(String s) {  
        ... }  
    void close() { ... }  
}
```

- `java.io.PrintWriter` class has exactly the same methods required by `IStream`
- But I cannot use it inside my framework
- I have to *adapt* it, even though it is useless!

Structural Subtyping

- In Structural Subtyping the **interface** of an object determines subtype relation
 - Only method signature counts
- In the preceding example both `FrameworkLogger` and `PrintWriter` classes would do
- Any object with `write(String)` and `close` methods could be provided to setup
- Structural subtyping is retroactive in this sense
- Available in many languages with different implementations
 - Scala
 - Haskell
 - OCaml
- Despite what you may think, it *can* be checked at compile time

- Python type system is even more permissive
- Only the **runtime interface** of an object matters
- Whenever you access an object's attribute (method or member field) Python looks up in a dictionary
 - If the attribute is found it is returned
 - Otherwise an exception is raised
- Drawback: types are not checked at compile time!
 - You can catch type errors only at runtime
 - There is no compilation stage anyway

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