



## ECE 364 Software Engineering Tools Laboratory

Lecture 4  
Python: Collections I

Fall 2018



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## Lecture Summary

- Lists
- Tuples
- Sets
- Dictionaries
- Printing, More I/O
- Bitwise Operations
- OrderedDict
- namedtuple



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## Lists

- **list** is a built-in Python data type
  - Much more powerful than plain old arrays
  - Can also be used to implement **stacks** and **queues**
- Lists are containers of things (objects)
  - Items need not be of the same data type

```
a = [1, 2, 3, 4]
b = [1, "Big Deal", [1, 2], 6.7]
```



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## Lists (2)

- Lists are **mutable**, elements can be reassigned:  

```
a = [1, 2, 3]
a[0] = "First"
```
- Use the **len(x)** function to return the length of a list  

```
len(a)          # Returns 3
```
- Lists are **not** sparse – an index must exist  

```
a[9] = "foo" # Illegal - causes a runtime error
```



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## Indexing

Negative indices are allowed in Python

```
x = ["1st", "2nd", "3rd"]
x[0] = x[-3] = "1st"
x[1] = x[-2] = "2nd"
x[2] = x[-1] = "3rd"
```

- 0 is the index of the **leftmost** item
- -1 is the index of the **rightmost** item



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## Slicing

- Slicing is a way to extract multiple elements from lists, tuples and strings.

**a[m:n]** A slice of elements starting from index **m** and ending at index **n-1**

**a[m:n:s]** A slice of elements starting from index **m** and ending at index **n-1**, with a step **s**

**a[m:]** A slice of elements starting from index **m**

**a[:n]** A slice of elements starting from index **0** and ending at index **n-1**

**a[:]** A slice containing all elements of **a**



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## Slicing (2)

- Many things in Python can be sliced.
  - List, tuples and strings just to name a few

```
a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
b = "ECE 364 is only 1 credit hour."

a[2:4] is [3, 4]      b[4:7] is '364'

a[:3] is [1, 2, 3]
```



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## Tuples

- tuple** is essentially an **immutable** list
  - Once created the contents can not be changed.
  - You can read using indexing and slicing.
- Basic Syntax

```
a = (1, "Big Deal", [1, 2], 6.7J)
a[0] is 1
a[1] is "Big Deal"
```



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## Tuples (2)

- To create a tuple from a list use **tuple()**

```
a=[1,2,3]
b=tuple(a)    # b is (1, 2, 3)
```

- To create a tuple from a string use **tuple()**

```
s="Hello"
t=tuple(t)
# t is ('H','e','l','l','o')
```



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## Tuples (3)

- Tuples can be unpacked.

```
x = 2; y = 3
point = (x, y)
z, w = point          # z = 2 and w = 3
```
- This is extremely useful in iterations.

```
namesAndAges = [('Alex', 'Gheith', 40),
                ('Mary', 'Hanson', 22),
                ('John', 'Stewart', 33)]

for first, last, age in namesAndAges:
    # Do something.
```
- You can also choose not to use all elements in the tuple. Note that **()** are optional:

```
for first, _, age in namesAndAges:
    # Do something.
```



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## Sets

- A **set** is an unordered collection with no duplicate elements.

```
grades = {'A', 'D', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'B', 'A', 'D',
          'C', 'D', 'B', 'A', 'D'}
# grades = {'C', 'D', 'A', 'B'}
```
- Used for fast membership testing and maintaining unique elements.

```
grades = {'C', 'D', 'A', 'B'}
'C' in grades # Answer is True
'F' in grades # Answer is False
```
- Support mathematical operations like union (**|**), intersection (**&**), difference (**-**), and symmetric difference (**^**).



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## More on Strings

- Strings can be viewed as lists, and hence support list functions.
- However, strings are **immutable** and **can not be changed**
- String functions that perform formatting, whitespace removal etc. **are creating new copies of the original string**



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## More on Strings (2)

`s_needle in s_haystack`  
returns **True** if `s_needle` is in the string, **False** if it is not

`s_needle not in s_haystack`  
returns **True** if `s_needle` is not in the string, **False** if it is

`s_haystack.find(s_needle)`  
returns the index of the first occurrence of `s_needle` or **-1** if not found

`s_haystack.rfind(s_needle)`  
like `find()` but begins searching at the end of the string



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## More on Strings (3)

`s_haystack.count(s_needle)`  
returns the number of times `s_needle` occurs in the string, or **0** if not found

`s_haystack.endswith(s_suffix)`  
returns **True** if `s_haystack` ends with `s_suffix`

`s_haystack.startswith(substr)`  
returns **True** if `s_haystack` starts with `s_prefix`

`s.replace(p, q, n)`  
Replaces `n` occurrences of the substring `p` with the string `q`.  
`n` is optional, default behavior is to replace all matches.



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## More on Strings (4)

`s.isalnum()`  
returns **True** if the string has only alphanumeric characters

`s.isalpha()`  
returns **True** if the string has only alpha characters

`s.isdigit()`  
returns **True** if the string has only digits

`s.isspace()`  
returns **True** if the string has only whitespace

`s.isupper()`  
returns **True** if the string has only uppercase characters

`s.islower()`  
returns **True** if the string has only lowercase characters



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## More on Strings (5)

`s.lower()`  
returns a copy of the string converted to lower case

`s.upper()`  
returns a copy of the string converted to upper case

`s.title()`  
returns a copy of the string converted to title case



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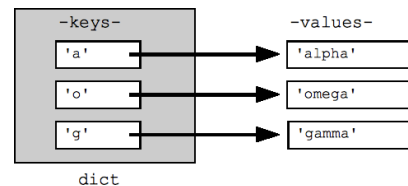
## Dictionaries

- A dictionary is an **unordered** **associative** container that **maps keys to values**
- Dictionary is also called "Map" and "Lookup-Table" in other languages.
- A key can be any **immutable** value
  - Integers, strings, tuples etc.
- A value can be any type
  - Integers, strings, tuples, lists, dictionary etc.
- Items in a dictionary always exist as **key-value pairs**



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## Dictionaries (2)



Source: <http://code.google.com/edu/languages/google-python-class/dict-files.html>



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### Dictionaries (3)

```
# To create an empty dictionary
d = {}

# To create an empty set, you have use:
s = set()

# To set initial key:value pairs
d = {'a' : 'alpha', 'o' : 'omega', 'g' : 'gamma'}

# Note that keys do NOT have to be of the same type
d = {(1,2) : True, "foo" : [1, 2, 3], 3.14 : "pi"}
```



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### Dictionaries (4)

- Dictionary values are accessed by specifying a key  
`d[key]` # Gets the value associated with Key

For example:

```
d = {'a' : 'alpha', 'o' : 'omega', 'g' : 'gamma'}
s = d['a'] # The value in 1 is 'alpha'
```

- If a `key:value` pair is not present a `KeyError` exception is raised  
`g = d['b']` # This will raise a `KeyError`



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### Dictionaries (5)

- To check if an item exists in a dictionary:

```
key in a # True if key in a
```

- To negate the test:

```
key not in a # True if key is not in a
```

- In Python 2.x, there was a function called `has_key` that has been removed in Python 3.x

```
a.has_key(key) # True if key is in a
```



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### Dictionaries (6)

- `get(<Key>, <NotFoundValue>)`
  - returns `<NotFoundValue>` instead of raising an exception if `<Key>` is not found in the dictionary
  - `<NotFoundValue>` has a default value of `None`

```
a = {"red":23, "green":42}
```

```
a.get("red") returns 23
```

```
a.get("blue") returns None
```

```
a.get("red", "not found") returns 23
```

```
a.get("blue", "not found") returns "not found"
```

```
a.get("blue", (1, 2, 3)) returns (1, 2, 3)
```

```
a.get((1, 2), 0) returns 0
```



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### Dictionaries (7)

- To insert or change an item:

```
d1[key] = value
```

- To merge two dictionaries use `update()`

```
>>> d1 = {1:20, -5:7, 8.2:31}
```

```
>>> d2 = {'foobar', 9:0}
```

```
>>> d1.update(d2)
```

```
>>> print(d1)
```

```
{1: 'foobar', -5: 7, 9: 0, 8.2: 31}
```



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### Dictionaries (8)

- To delete an item from a dictionary:

```
del d[key] # does not return a value!
```

- To remove an item and get the value:

```
value = d.pop(key)
```

- To remove an item and get both the key and value:

```
key, value = d.popitem() # does not take a Key!
```



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### Dictionaries (9)

- To obtain a list of the keys in a dictionary use the `keys()` function:

```
>>> a = { "Foobar" : 100,
...       2 : "Big Deal",
...       (1, 2, 34) : [[1, 2], "Yuk"]}

>>> print(a.keys())
[(1, 2, 34), 2, 'Foobar']
```



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### Dictionaries (10)

- To obtain a list of the values in a dictionary use the `values()` function:

```
>>> a = { "Foobar" : 100,
...       2 : "Big Deal",
...       (1, 2, 34) : [[1, 2], "Yuk"]}

>>> print(a.values())
[[[1, 2], 'Yuk'], 100, 'Big Deal']
```



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### Dictionaries (11)

- To get a list of `key:value` pairs use the `items()` function
- Returns a list of (`key`, `value`) tuples

```
>>> a = {"a" : "alpha",
...      "b" : "big",
...      (1,2) : True }

>>> print(a.items())
[("a", "alpha"), ("b", "big"), ((1,2), True)]
```



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### Dictionaries (12)

- In a for loop, a dictionary returns its keys:  
`for key in a:`  
...
- An equivalent statement would be:  
`for key in a.keys():`  
...
- To iterate over its values only, use:  
`for value in a.values():`  
...
- To iterate over values and keys, use:  
`for key, value in a.items():`  
...



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### File Attribute Testing

- Python provides functions to test file attributes in the `os` module
- `os.access(Path, Attribute)`
  - `Path` – String file path
  - `Attributes` – Flags
    - `os.R_OK` – File is readable
    - `os.W_OK` – File is writeable
    - `os.X_OK` – File is executable



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### File Attribute Testing (2)

- File attributes are actually just numbers so you can combine them with bitwise operators

```
if os.access(file, os.R_OK):
    print("{} is readable!".format(file))

if os.access(file, os.R_OK | os.X_OK):
    print("{} is both readable and executable!"
          .format(file))
```



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### File Attribute Testing (3)

- Other helpful functions from the `os` module check properties of file paths
  - `os.path.exists(path)`
  - `os.path.isfile(path)`
  - `os.path.isdir(path)`



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### File I/O

- The `open()` function opens a file and returns a special object that represents the file
  - Very much like a `FILE*` pointer from C
  - Raises an exception when the file is not found

```
FileObject = open(FileName, Mode)
# Do some work.
FileObject.close()
```

- Modes:
  - "r" - open for reading
  - "w" - erase file and open for writing
  - "a" - open file and append to end for writing
- This is NOT the preferred method in this lab.



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### File I/O (2)

- The preferred method to open files is using the `with` keyword.
- The `with` keyword is a shorthand for a lot of work in the background to ensure resources are claimed by the system when done, i.e. no need to invoke `fileObj.close()`.
- Can be used for both reading and writing.
- Note that once you read the file content, you should leave the "with" block.

```
# The "myFile" below is called the file alias.
# This is called a "with-block"
with open('textFile.txt', 'r') as myFile:
    all_lines = myFile.readlines()

# The variable 'all_lines' is now populated.
for line in all_lines:
    # Do something
```



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### Command Line Arguments

- The `sys` module provides access to program arguments
- `sys.argv` is the **list** of command line arguments passed to your script
  - `sys.argv[0]` is the same as `$0` from Bash
  - Arguments are **passed as strings** so you may need to convert!



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### Command Line Arguments (2)

```
import sys

total = 0

# Loop over arguments 1 to N
# Why not include the 0th arg?

for arg in sys.argv[1:]:
    total += float(arg)

print("The sum is {:.f}".format(total))
```

*Hint: Sum of list element can be obtained using the `sum()` function.*



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### Reading from `stdin`

- `sys.stdin.readline()`
  - Read a single line from `stdin`
  - Will **include** the `\n` at the end of the line!
  - Returns the empty string at the end of input
- `input([prompt])`
  - Read a single line from `stdin`
  - Will strip the `\n` at the end of the line.
  - `[prompt]` is an optional prompt string



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## Reading from `stdin` (2)

```
import sys

s=sys.stdin.readline()

# empty string will evaluate to False
while s:

    # remove the extra \n at the end
    print(s.rstrip())

    # read next line
    s=sys.stdin.readline()
```



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## Reading from `stdin` (3)

- `sys.stdin.readlines()`
  - Reads every line from `stdin` and returns a list containing each line
  - `\n` is still included on each line!

```
lines=sys.stdin.readlines()
for l in lines:
    l = l.rstrip()
    print(l)
```



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## Reading from `stdin` (4)

- A for loop can be used to read the entire contents of a file stream

# You can "loop over" file streams!

```
for line in sys.stdin:
    line = line.rstrip()
    print(line)
```



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## Data Pretty Printer

- A quick way to printout the content of a collection is using the Data Pretty Printer module.
- Try out the following code:

```
from pprint import pprint as pp

# Create a large dictionary:
days = ['Monday', 'Tuesday', 'Wednesday', 'Thursday', 'Friday',
        'Saturday', 'Sunday']
occurrences = [32, 12, 67, 21, 9, 45, 83]
dict_example = {day: occurrence for day, occurrence in
                zip(days, occurrences)}

# Regular Printing
print(dict_example)

# Pretty Printing
pp(dict_example)
```



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## Expressing Numbers in Base 2/8/10/16

- Use the following formats to express numbers in different bases

Base	Name	Format	Examples
2	Binary	<code>0b&lt;digits&gt;</code>	<code>0b1010</code> <code>0b11111111</code>
8	Octal	<code>0o&lt;digits&gt;</code>	<code>0o112</code> <code>-0o5534563</code>
10	Decimal	<code>&lt;digits&gt;</code>	123 -17890423
16	Hexadecimal	<code>0x&lt;digits&gt;</code>	<code>0xdeadbeef</code> <code>0x1234abcd</code>



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## Numbers to String

- If you want to get a string representation of a number in a specific base

Base	Name	Function	Examples
2	Binary	<code>bin(x)</code>	<code>bin(10) -&gt; '0b1010'</code> <code>bin(0x1c) -&gt; '0b11100'</code>
8	Octal	<code>oct(x)</code>	<code>oct(10) -&gt; '0o12'</code> <code>oct(0b11100) -&gt; '0o34'</code>
10	Decimal	<code>str(x)</code>	<code>str(10) -&gt; '10'</code> <code>str(034) -&gt; '28'</code>
16	Hexadecimal	<code>hex(x)</code>	<code>hex(128) -&gt; '0x80'</code> <code>hex(0b10111) -&gt; '0x17'</code>



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## Bitwise Operators

- **Left Shift** – Shift each bit to the left by one position, shifts in zero to the leftmost position

`a << n` # left shift a by n places

- **Right Shift** – Shift each bit to the right by one position, shifts in 1 to the leftmost position if the number is negative, 0 otherwise

`a >> n` # right shift a by n places



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## Bitwise Operators (2)

- **and** – Perform a bit by bit “and” of two numbers. If each bit is set to 1 then set the output bit is set to 1, otherwise 0

`a & b`

- **or** – Perform a bit by bit “or” of two numbers. If either bit is set to 1 then set the output bit to 1, otherwise 0

`a | b`

- **xor** – Perform a bit by bit “exclusive or” of two numbers. Sets the output bit to 1 if one of the corresponding bits is set to 1 but not both

`a ^ b`

- **complement** – Flip the value of each bit from 1 to 0 or 0 to 1

`~a`



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## OrderedDict

- **OrderedDict** is like a dict, but it preserves the order in which the items are added.

```
from collections import OrderedDict
od = OrderedDict()
od["one"] = 1
od["two"] = 2
for k,v in od.items():
    print("{} ==> {}".format(k, v))
```

one ==> 1  
two ==> 2



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## namedtuple

- **namedtuple** is a sequence of fixed length, for which each element has a name.
  - A namedtuple is immutable. (Values cannot be changed.)
  - The usage is similar to a struct in C (except that it is immutable).
  - It is a kind of tuple, and can be used in the same ways.

*# Import the collections module, which gives us access to namedtuple*  
from collections import namedtuple

*# Define a new namedtuple type called "Point"*  
Point = namedtuple("Point", ("x", "y"))

*# Create an instance of Point*  
p = Point(5, 6)

*# Print its attributes (x and y)*  
print("p: x = {}".format(p.x))  
print("y = {}".format(p.y))

p: x = 5  
y = 6



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## Collection types seen so far

### Collection types

#### Ordered collection types

##### Sequence types

**tuple** (1,2) ordered immutable  
**list** [1,2] ordered mutable  
**namedtuple** ordered immutable

##### String types

**str** "abc" text ordered mutable  
**bytes** binary ordered mutable

##### Set types

**set** {1,2} unordered mutable  
**frozenset** unordered mutable

##### Mapping types

**dict** {"a":1} unordered mutable  
**OrderedDict** ordered mutable



"mutable" means changeable (e.g., a[2]=3, a.append(4), del a[3], etc.)

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