The current topic: Python	Announcements
 Introduction Object-oriented programming: Python Features, variables, numbers, strings, Booleans, while loops If statements, sequences, functions, modules Dictionaries, command-line arguments, files, classes, inheritance, polymorphism Exceptions, operator overloading, privacy Next up: Multiple inheritance, parameters and arguments, list comprehensions Types and values Syntax and semantics Functional programming: Scheme Exceptions Logic programming: Prolog 	 Lab 1 is due September 29th at 10:30 am. Submit each file using the submitcsc326f command, with the first argument (the assignment number) set to 1. For example, to submit ex3.py, use: submitcsc326f 1 ex3.py After submitting, use the command submitcsc326f -1 1 (the character after the dash is a lower case L) to see a list of the files you submitted, the size of each file, and the time each file was submitted. Your list of files should include ex1.py, ex2.py, ex3.py, ex4.py, ex5.py, ex6.py, and MyList.py.
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Multiple Inheritance

- Like C++ but unlike Java, Python allows *multiple inheritance*. – This means that a class can have multiple parent classes.
 - class A(object): ...
 class B(object): ...
 class C(A, B): ...
 - Issues to consider:
 - Suppose A and B each define a method m(), and C does not define such a method. Which m() gets called in the following situation? c = C()
 - c.m()

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- Things get even more interesting with diamond-shaped inheritance. In the current example, object is an ancestor of C two different ways (through A and through B).
- How do we make sure that each ancestor class' constructor gets called exactly once?

Multiple Inheritance

• An example:

- Suppose we want an object that can store a bunch of data items *and* draw a picture on the screen.
- Suppose we have a List class that can store a bunch of data items.
- Suppose we have a Window class that can draw a picture on the screen.
- Then we can define an LW class that has List and Window as parents.



Multiple Inheritance

• To make things more interesting, suppose List and Window are both children of Store.



 Answer: Python defines a method resolution order. When looking for a method, it checks classes in the order specified by the method resolution order.

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Multiple Inheritance The rules defining the method resolution order are complicated. One general idea is that the methods of a child class have priority over those of its parent. For example, methods in List and Window have priority

over those in Store.

- Details about the rules: http://www.python.org/download/releases/2.3/mro/

 To find out the method resolution order of a class, check its __mro_____ attribute.

class Store(object): pass class List(Store): pass class Window(Store): pass class LW(List, Window): pass LW. mro # (LW, List, Window, Store)

- So LW inherits List's getitem () and Window's m().
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Multiple Inheritance

- Another issue: suppose Store, List, and Window each define an ____init__() method. When writing LW's ___init__() method, how can we make sure each of its ancestor's __init__() methods is called?
 - One solution: Each class' __init__() should call the __init__() of each of its parents.
 - Problem: If we did this, Store's __init__() will get called twice when we're constructing an LW object (once as a result of calling List's __init__() and once as a result of calling Window's __init__()).
 - Better solution: Call the ancestor's __init__() methods in the order specified by the method resolution order.

Multiple Inheritance

- The function super() can be used to determine what comes next in an object's method resolution order.
 - super(C, o) is the same object as o but looks for methods starting after class C in o's method resolution order.
 - For example, if object o is an instance of LW, then super(List, o).__getitem__() calls Window's __getitem__() method since Window follows List in LW.__mro__.
- To make sure each ancestor's __init__() gets called exactly once, add the line

super(C, self).__init__()

- to the __init__() method of each class C.
- Note that the C inside the super () call should match the name of the class within which this call is being made.
- For now, we're glossing over the issue of passing arguments to __init__().
 One solution is to use keyword parameters, which we haven't covered yet.

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Multiple Inheritance



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Parameters and arguments Parameters appear in the definition of a function (or method). They are a "placeholder" for the actual values passed in a call. Arguments (or actual parameters) appear in a function call and must correspond to the parameters in the function definition. Python passes parameters by copying their value, just like C/Java. But Python variables always store references to objects. "Copying" the parameter just copies the reference it stores. This has the effect of passing the original object, not a copy of the object.

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Parameters

- In a Python function definition, the parameter list has four parts:
 Mandatory parameters.
 - This is all we've seen so far.
 - Optional parameters.
 - Extra non-keyword parameters specified as a tuple *t.
 - Extra keyword parameters specified as dictionary **d.
- Any of these parts may be omitted in a function definition, but the parts that do appear must appear in the order given above.

Arguments

- In a Python function call, the argument list has four parts:
 - Non-keyword arguments.
 - This is all we've seen so far.
 - Keyword arguments.
 - Non-keyword arguments given as single tuple *t.
 - Keyword arguments given as a single dictionary **d.
- The parts that appear in a function call must appear in the order given above. The function definition determines which of the above parts are required, optional, and not allowed.

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Optional parameters	Optional parameters
 To make a parameter optional, we have to provide a default value. 	 The default value of an optional parameter becomes an attribute of the function.
<pre>def incr(x, y=0):</pre>	 Default values are stored in an attribute called func_defaults.
y += x return y	 This is a tuple that store default values in the order that they appear in the function declaration.
incr(4) # 4 incr(6, 5) # 11	 If the default value is a mutable object, and the function modifies this object, then future calls to the function get the modified object, not the original.
incr(6) # 6	– To keep the default value the same for every call, create a new object each time:
Another example:	<pre>def f(x, y=None): if y == None: y = [] # A new object.</pre>
<pre>def f(x, y=[]): y.append(x) return u </pre>	y.append(x) return y
feturn y	f(23) #[23]
f(23) # [23]	f(45) # [45]
f(45) # [23, 45]. Only one copy of the default value!	f(1) # [1] f func defaulte $\# (None)$
f(1) # [23, 45, 1]	1. Tunc_defaults # (None,)
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Keyword arguments

• What happens when there are multiple optional parameters?

```
def g(x, y=3, z=10):
    print 'x:', x, 'y:', y, 'z:', z
```

How do we call g if we want to specify a value for \mathbf{z} but use the default for $\mathbf{y}?$

```
g(1, , 3) # SyntaxError
```

• Solution: Keyword arguments.

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```
g(1, z=2)  # 'x: 1 y: 3 z: 2'
g(z=1, x=4)  # 'x: 4 y: 3 z: 1'
g(y=1, 2)  # SyntaxError: non-keyword arg after keyword arg
g(7, y=1, x=0)  # TypeError: multiple values for x
g(4,6,z=1)  # 'x: 4 y: 6 z: 1'
g(z=2, x=0, y=22)  # 'x: 0 y: 22 z: 2'
g(z=2)  # TypeError: no value given for x
```

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Keyword arguments

- Any parameter, whether it's optional or mandatory, can be provided using a keyword argument in a function call.
- Keyword arguments can appear in any order, as long as all keyword arguments appear *after* all non-keyword arguments.
- When a call includes a mix of non-keyword and keyword arguments:
 - Python matches up the non-keyword arguments with parameters by position (the approach that you're used to seeing).
 - Then, Python matches up the keyword arguments with parameters by name.
 - If any mandatory parameter isn't given a value by this process, a TypeError occurs.
 - If any mandatory or optional parameter is given more than one value by this process, a TypeError occurs.



A tuple of non-keyword arguments

• In a function call, a sequence of non-keyword arguments can be given as a single tuple by preceding the tuple with a star.

```
def f(x, y=4, *z):
    print y, z
 t = (1, 2, 3)
 f(*t)
                  # 2 (3,)
 f(0, *t)
                  # 1 (2,3)
 f(9, 0, *t)
                  \# 0 (1,2,3)
 f(9, 8, 0, *t) # 8 (0,1,2,3)
                  # TypeError. Non-keyword arguments are matched
 f(y=2, *t)
                  # before keyword arguments, so y got 2 values.
 f(*(1, 2))
                  # 2 ()
• Note that even though the tuple of non-keyword arguments appears
 after keyword arguments in the function call, all non-keyword arguments
 are matched with parameters (by position) before keyword arguments
 are matched.
```

A dictionary of keyword arguments

• In a function call, a collection of keyword arguments can be given as a single dictionary by preceding the dictionary with two stars.

- Observe that the call g(**d) is equivalent to the call g(x='3',a=1,b='cde').
- More calls:

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```
g(w=9,**d)# 4 {'a': 1, 'b': 'cde', 'w': 9}g(1,**d)# TypeError: multiple values for xg(y=0,**d)# 0 {'a': 1, 'b': 'cde'}g(1,**{'c':3, 'd':2})# 4 {'c': 3, 'd': 2}
```

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List comprehensions List comprehensions Idea comes from set notation. • In math, if we have a set S, say $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, we can define a new set We can also specify conditions on the iteration. by writing: - Only objects satisfying the condition are used to construct the new list. $T = \{2x \mid x \in S\}$ old = [90, 50, 15, 20, 40, 75] Then $T = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$. new = $[x+1 \text{ for } x \text{ in old if } x \ge 40]$ # [91, 51, 41, 76] new List comprehensions allow us to apply the same idea to construct lists. - And we don't need to start with a list - we can start with anything that can be Everything we can do with list comprehensions we can also do with for iterated. loops. - But list comprehensions are more compact (less typing). • A simple example: - List comprehensions actually execute faster than equivalent for loops. S = [1, 2, 3, 4]T = [2*x for x in S]т # [2, 4, 6, 8]

```
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```

loops):

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A = [4, 8, 16, 32]

B = [0, 1, 2]

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List comprehensions

· List comprehensions can include nested iterations (like nested for

C = [x/y for x in A for y in B if y > 0]

[4, 2, 8, 4, 16, 8, 32, 16]

next (y in B) is treated as the "inner" loop.

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List comprehensions
List comprehensions can be useful for working with matrices (represented as nested lists).
Create a 3x3 matrix of 1s:
M = [[1 for i in range(3)] for j in range(3)]

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```
M # [[1,1,1], [1,1,1], [1,1,1]]
```

```
- Multiply a matrix by a constant:
```

```
L = [[1,2,3], [4,5,6], [7,8,9]]
L = [[2*i for i in row] for row in L]
L # [[2,4,6], [8,10,12], [14,16,18]]
```

- Another way to do this:

```
L = [[1,2,3], [4,5,6], [7,8,9]]
L = [[2*L[i][j] for j in range(3)] for i in range(3)]
L # [[2,4,6], [8,10,12], [14,16,18]]
```

 Note the order in which objects are processed – the iteration specified first (x in A) is treated as the "outer" loop and the iteration specified

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List comprehensions		Exercises	
 Using objects other than lists: The only requirement is that the object can be iterated. 		 Write a function that can be called with an arbitrary number of non- keyword arguments and returns the first argument that is divisible by 3. (Recall that we can use the % ("mod") operator to test divisibility.) 	
– Using a file:			
<pre># List of every line that starts with 'A' in file 'in.txt'. L = [line for line in open('in.txt', 'r') if line[0] == 'A']</pre>		 Write a function that can be called with an arbitrary number of keyword arguments and returns the sum of all keyword arguments whose name is at least 2 characters long. 	
- Using the MyList class from Lab 1:			
<pre>m = MyList() m.append('a') m.append(22) m.append(0.4)</pre>		 Write a function that takes two matrices (of the same size) and returns their sum. The function should use list comprehensions to compute the sum. 	
L = [3*i for i in m]			
L # ['aaa', 66, 1.2]			
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