Lecture #15: Generic Functions and Expressivity

Generic Programming

- Consider the function `find`:

```
def find(L, x, k):
    """Return the index in L of the kth occurrence of x (k>=0),
    or None if there isn't one."""
    for i in range(len(L)):
        if L[i] == x:
            if k == 0:
                return i
            k -= 1
```

- This same function works on lists, tuples, strings, and (if the keys are consecutive integers) dicts.
- In fact, it works for any list L for which `len` and indexing work as they do for lists and tuples.
- That is, `find` is *generic* in the type of L.

Duck Typing

- A *statically typed language* (such as Java) requires that you specify a type for each variable or parameter, one that specifies all the operations you intend to use on that variable or parameter.
- To create a generic function, therefore, your parameters' types must be subtypes of some particular interface.
- You can do this in Python, too, but it is not a requirement.
- In fact, our `find` function will work on any object that has `__len__` and `__getitem__`, regardless of the object's type.
- This property is sometimes called *duck typing*: "This parameter must be a duck, and if it walks like a duck and quacks like a duck, we'll say it *is* a duck."

Example: The __repr__ Method

- When the interpreter prints the value of an expression, it must first convert that value to a (printable) string.
- To do so, it calls the `__repr__()` method of the value, which is supposed to return a string that suggests how you'd create the value in Python.

```
>>> "Hello"
'Hello'
>>> print(repr("Hello"))
'Hello'
>>> repr("Hello")    # What does the interpreter print?
```

- (As a convenience, the built-in function `repr(x)` calls the `__repr__` method.)
- User-defined classes can define their own `__repr__` method to control how the interpreter prints them.

Example: The __str__ Method

- When the `print` function prints a value, it calls the `__str__()` method to find out what string to print.
- The constructor for the string type, `str`, does the same thing.
- Again, you can define your own `__str__` on a class to control this behavior. (The default is just to call `__repr__`)

```
>>> class rational:
...     def __init__(self, num, den): ...
...     def __str__(self):
...         if self.numer() == 0: return "0"
...         elif self.denom() == 1: return str(self.numer())
...         else: return "{0}/{1}".format(self.numer(), self.denom())
...     def __repr__(self):
...         return "rational({}, {})".format(self.numer(), self.denom())
...
>>> print(rational(3,4))
3/4
>>> rational(3,4)
rational(3, 4)
>>> print(rational(5, 1))
5
```


Aside: A Small Technical Issue

- `str`, `repr`, and `print` all call the *methods* `__str__` and `__repr__`, ignoring any instance variables of those names.
- For example,

```
>>> v = rational(3, 4)
>>> v.__str__
<bound method rational.__str__ of ...>
>>> v.__str__ = lambda x: "FOO!"
>>> # __str__ is now an instance variable of v as well as a
>>> # a method of class rational.
>>> v.__str
<function <lambda> at ...>
>>> str(v)
3/4
>>> c.__str__()
'FOO!'
```

- How could you implement `str` to do this?
- **Hint:** As in the homework, `type(x)` returns the class of `x`.

Other Generic Method Names

Just as defining `__str__` allows you to specify how your class is printed, Python has many other generic connections to its syntax, which allow programmers great flexibility in expressing things. For example,

Method	Implements	
`__getitem__(S, k)`	`S[k]`	
`__setitem__(S, k, v)`	`S[k] = v`	
`__len__(S)`	`len(S)`	
`__bool__(S)`	`bool(S)`	True or False
`__add__(S, x)`	`S + x`	
`__sub__(S, x)`	`S - x`	
`__mul__(S, x)`	`S * x`	
`__ge__(S, x)`	`S >= x`	
`...`		
`__getattr__(S, 'N')`	`S.N`	Attributes
`__setattr__(S, 'N', v)`	`S.N = v`	

Iterators and Iterables

- The **for** statement is actually a generic control construct with the following meaning:

```
for x in C:
    S
```

```
tmp_iter = iter(C)
try:
    while True:
        x = tmp_iter.__next__()
        S
except StopIteration:
    pass
```

- Types for which `iter` works are called *iterable*, and those that implement `__next__` are *iterators* (returned by calling `iter` on an iterable).
- The built-in `iter` function first tries calling the method `__iter__` on the object, so if you define a class containing `def __iter__(self):...`, you'll have an iterable class.
- In addition, a type is considered iterable if it implements `__getitem__`, the method that implements the `a[...]` operator.

The Many Uses of Iterables

- Python cleanly integrates iterables into many contexts, showing the power of a good abstraction.
- The obvious:

```
for x in anIterable: ...
L = [ f(x) for x in anIterable]
```

- Many functions take iterables as arguments rather than just lists:

```
list(anIterable)
set(anIterable)
map(f, anIterable)
sum(anIterable)
max(anIterable)
all(anIterable)
```