

Welcome to BIO-210

Applied software engineering for life sciences

November 11th 2024 – Lecture 9

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EPFL

Announcements

- Today (Monday at 10am) v4 on testing was due, we will grade it. If you haven't released it yet, please do so asap.
- Today is the last in person quiz: please come *in time*, there will be no extra time. Submission closes at 13:35. To start, you'll need to sign in. Bring your Camipro. No notes are allowed. If you switch to a different tab from Moodle's quiz or communicate with somebody, you'll receive 0 points.
- Monday 15:15 - 16: my office hours at SV 2811

	Date	Topic	Software version	Software releases	Grading / Feedback
0	09/09/2024	Python introduction I			
1	16/09/2024	Public holiday			
2	23/09/2024	Python introduction II			
3	30/09/2024	Git and GitHub (+installation VS Code)			
4	07/10/2024	Project introduction	v1		
5	14/10/2024	Functionify	v2	v1	
6	21/10/2024	EPFL fall break			
7	28/10/2024	Visualization and documentation	v3	v2	code review (API)
8	04/11/2024	Unit-tests, functional tests	v4	v3	
9	11/11/2024	Code refactoring	v5	v4	graded (tests)
10	18/11/2024	Profiling and code optimization	v6	v5	code review
11	25/11/2024	Object oriented programming	v7	v6	graded (speed)
12	02/12/2024	Model analysis and project report	v8	v7	code review (OO)
13	09/12/2024	Work on project			
14	16/12/2024	Wrap up		v8	graded (project)

Practical tips for addressing code reviews

A few weeks ago, you got code reviews for version v2 and you will also get feedback for v5 (due next week).

The course assistants opened ``GitHub issues`` on your project to give feedback. GitHub Issues allow one to track ideas, feedback, tasks, or bugs for work on GitHub.

Importantly, Issues also allow traceability:

- you can link your pull request (PR) to issues (opened by the assistants) with the corresponding "#number". E.g. in a commit message you can write "git commit -m "closes #3", which will literally close issue #3 when you push it to GitHub (e.g. see this issue)
- You can also cross-link by putting hyperlinks: example
- These mechanisms support working in teams

Your README.md file

A README is a text file that introduces and explains your GitHub project.

- should be succinct, but detailed
- notice that it's the face of your project

Typical content:

- Project title + description
- Installation guide/requirements (see below)
- Examples (for using the code)
- License

Examples

Check out some example projects:





- Scipy
- a somewhat recent machine learning project in my group: DMAP
- a recent machine learning project in my group: hBehaveMAE
- ML-From-Scratch
- Awesome Python
- Python The Algorithms
- 100-days of ML
- Awesome DeepVision
- Unity ML-Agents Toolkit

but also the class Demo project.

A readme is indeed the face of your project: Demo project without readme

How to format a Readme.md?

Formatting READMEs is based on the Markdown language, which enables you to write nicely formatted and visually appealing texts!

- it's simple to learn, just skim this Markup Guide     ...
- Check out this readme generator

Use a .gitignore file

Use a **.gitignore** file to exclude files you don't want to version control (e.g. notebook checkpoints, pycache, files from your IDE, ...).

- Docs for gitignore
- demo-project/.gitignore.

Note: if you already have unwanted files in your repository and create a .gitignore, you need to remove those, as they are already tracked with git.

How to make code reproducible?

- make dependencies and requirements explicit (next slide)
- use version control and store which version produced what results
- use tests / doctests
- do not comment/uncomment sections of your code to control the behavior. This approach makes it error prone, hard to reproduce and difficult to automate. Instead, use if/else statements to control the flow of your program
- You could also consider making different experiment scripts (to reproduce each experiment)

Documenting requirements: Software dependencies

- Software often has many dependencies
 - Code might run differently with different library versions!
 - Thus, placing dependencies within a contained environment can minimize issues and allow others to run the code just like it runs on your system
 - Different programs might also require different libraries, which can be supported by `environments`
 - Common python environments include Anaconda (conda) and virtualenv
- > share an environment/requirement file (e.g. see demo-project)
- > also see DMAP

Discussion: How could your code be organized?

How could your code be organized?

Code and Basics:

- README (see above, also demo code!) + .gitignore file
- a main function that is clean and easy to run (additionally ``experimentX.py``, ``exptY.py``, ...)
- a test function with all our doctests/pytests
- scripts containing functions (named reasonably, e.g. ``TuringModel.py``) and a ``utils.py`` script containing plotting etc.

Results:

- a folder (e.g. called 'results') containing saved experiments/outcomes (could have traceable names: e.g. ``experiment17_parametersXYZ.png`` are the results for ``experiment17.py``)
- Note: you could also add jupyter notebooks that integrate documentation (description + figures)
- NOTE: for BIO-210 just follow the problem sets (to get the highest score!); e.g. main.py in v2 should do whatever you're asked to have implemented

Further reading

- Good enough practices in scientific computing - a very short article!
- Guide for reproducible research by the Alan Turing Institute

Questions?

Quiz: How can we make this faster?

```
1  def generate_patterns(num_patterns, pattern_size):
2
3      patterns = np.zeros([num_patterns, pattern_size])
4      for i in range(num_patterns):
5          for j in range(pattern_size):
6              patterns[i,j]=np.random.choice([-1,1])
7
8      return patterns
```

Quiz: Are these good doctstrings?

```
1  def generate_pattern(pattern_number,pattern_size):
2      '''
3      Generate_pattern generates an array of (pattern_number) patterns of
4      neuron connections of size (L)
5
6      Parameters
7      -----
8      pattern_number : int
9      pattern_size : int
10     Returns an array consisting of "pattern_number" patterns
11     -----
12     '''
13     return np.random.choice([-1,1],size=(pattern_number,pattern_size))
```

Questions?

Selected function topics

Reminder: Function-related statements and expressions

Statement or expression	Examples
Call expression	<code>myfunc('Seppl',175,age=22,*rest)</code>
<code>`def`</code>	<code>def printer(message): print('Hello'+message)</code>
<code>`return`</code>	<code>def adder(a,b=1,*c): return a+b+c[0]</code>
<code>`global`</code>	<code>x = 'outside' def changer(): global x; x= 'new'</code>
<code>`lambda`</code>	<code>`func` = [lambda x: x**2, lambda x: x**3]`</code>

Arbitrary positional arguments collectors (*args)

When this function is called all arguments are assigned to a tuple *args*.

```
1  In [1]: def f(*args): print(args)    # Note use of *
2
3  In [2]: f()
4          # returns a tuple!
5
6  In [3]: f(1)
7          # returns a tuple!
8
9  In [4]: f(1,2,3,4)
10         # returns a tuple!
11
12 In [5]: f("EPFL","is","great!")
13         # returns a tuple!
```


Why is *args useful?

For instance, imagine you need to sum all numbers somebody gives you ...

```
1 In [1]: def summation(a,b,c):
2         ...:     return a+b+c
3         ...: summation(1,2,3)
4 Out[1]: 6
5 In [2]: summation(1,2,3,4,5)           # That's too many for your function!
6 -----
7 TypeError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
8 <ipython-input-2-0851c3d51d8a> in <module>
9 ----> 1 summation(1,2,3,4,5)
10 TypeError: summation() takes 3 positional arguments but 5 were given
11 In [3]: def summation(*args):
12         ...:     Sigma=0
13         ...:     for s in args:
14         ...:         Sigma+=s
15         ...:     return Sigma
16         ...:
17 In [4]: summation(1,2,3,4,5)
18 Out[4]: 15
19 In [5]: summation(213.1,445560123,111)
20 Out[5]: 445560447.1
```

Arbitrary keyword arguments collectors (**kargs)

When this function is called all arguments are assigned to a dictionary *args*.

```
1  In [1]: def f(**kargs): print(kargs)          # Note use of **
2
3  In [2]: f()
4  {}                                           # returns a dict
5
6  In [3]: f(1)
7  -----
8  TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
9  <ipython-input-3-281ab0a37d7d> in <module>
10  ----> 1 f(1)
11
12  TypeError: f() takes 0 positional arguments but 1 was given
13
14  In [4]: f(x=1,y=2)
15  {'x': 1, 'y': 2}                           # returns a dict
16
```

Argument matching in Python function

Now we have seen all four styles: *Positionals*, *Keywords*, *Defaults*, and *Varargs collecting*

These methods can also be combined, but note positional arguments come before keyword arguments. Just like default variables come after positional variables.

```
1  def myfun(a,b,*args,**kwargs):  
2      pass
```

Read more in the [docs](#)

Anonymous functions: lambda

Python has an expression ``lambda`` to generate function objects (name from lambda calculus).

```
1  lambda arg1, arg2, ... argN: expression using args
```

Functions returned by running ``lambda`` expressions are like those created and assigned by ``def``.

```
1  In [1]: def f(x,y,z): return x*y*z
2  In [2]: f(1,2,3)
3  Out[2]: 6
4  In [3]: f=lambda x,y,z: x*y*z      # explicitly assign
5  In [4]: f(1,2,3)
6  Out[4]: 6
7  In [5]: f=lambda x,y=2,z=2: x*y*z  # defaults work similarly
8  In [6]: f(1)
9  Out[6]: 4
```


Differences of `lambda` and `def`

- `lambda` is an expression not a statement. Thus, `lambda` can appear in different places!
- `lambda`'s body is a single expression not a block of statements.

This is particularly helpful with other tools...

Mapping functions over iterables: map

```
1 In [1]: data=[0,123,1224,412.23]
2 In [2]: map?
3 Init signature: map(self, /, *args, **kwargs)
4 Docstring:
5 map(func, *iterables) --> map object
6
7 Make an iterator that computes the function using arguments from
8 each of the iterables. Stops when the shortest iterable is exhausted.
9 Type:
10         type
11 Subclasses:
12 In [3]: map(lambda x: x**17-13.2,data)          # it is an iterator!
13 Out[3]: <map at 0x7fa1515be9a0>
14 In [4]: list(map(lambda x: x**17-13.2,data))      # convert to list for displaying
15 Out[4]:
16 [-13.2, 3.3758791744665375e+35, 3.1065911647383047e+52, 2.866639650957827e+44]
17 # Remember pow(base,exp) = base ** exp
18 In [5]: list(map(pow,[0,1,2,3,4],[2,2,2,3]))      # Notice *args in use!
19 Out[5]: [0, 1, 4, 27]
```

Selecting items in iterables: filter

`filter` allows the selection of iterable's items based on a function.

```
1 In [1]: list(range(-10,10))
2 Out[1]: [-10, -9, -8, -7, -6, -5, -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
3
4 In [2]: list(filter((lambda x: x>3.4), range(-10,10)))
5 Out[2]: [4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
6
```

Combining items in iterables: reduce

``reduce`` allows cumulatively applying a function!

```
1 In [1]: from functools import reduce
2
3 In [2]: reduce(lambda x,y: x+y, [1,2,3,4,5])
4 Out[2]: 15
5
6 In [3]: reduce(lambda x,y: x*y, [1,2,3,4,5])
7 Out[3]: 120
8
9 In [4]: reduce?
10 Docstring:
11 reduce(function, sequence[, initial]) -> value
12
13 Apply a function of two arguments cumulatively to the items of a sequence,
14 from left to right, so as to reduce the sequence to a single value.
15 For example, reduce(lambda x, y: x+y, [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]) calculates
16 (((((1+2)+3)+4)+5)). If initial is present, it is placed before the items
17 of the sequence in the calculation, and serves as a default when the
18 sequence is empty.
19 Type: builtin_function_or_method
```


Imperative vs. functional programming

```
1 In [1]: input = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
2         ...: output = 0
3         ...: for i in range(len(input)):
4         ...:     if input[i] % 2 == 0:
5         ...:         output += input[i]*10
6         ...:
7
8 In [2]: output
9 Out[2]: 300
```

```
1 In [3]: reduce(lambda x,y: x+y, map(lambda i: 10*i, \
2                                     filter(lambda i: i%2 == 0, range(1,11))))
3 Out[3]: 300
```

```
1 In [4]: np.sum(np.arange(0,11,2)*10)
2 Out[4]: 300
```

For some theory, check out: Can programming be liberated from the von Neumann style?: a functional style and its algebra of programs by John Backus.

Quiz: How can we test if the input has too many dimensions?

```
1  def dX_dt(X, a=1.0, b=0.1, c=1.5, d=0.75):
2      ''' Docstrings ommitted! '''
3      if np.size(X)>2:
4          raise ValueError("X has only two dimensions!")
5
6      return np.array([a * X[0] - b * X[0] * X[1], -c * X[1] + d * b * X[0] * X[1]])
7
```

Option 1, doctest:

```
1  def dX_dt(X, a=1.0, b=0.1, c=1.5, d=0.75):
2      ''' Docstrings ommitted!
3      >>> dX_dt(np.ones(13))
4      Traceback (most recent call last):
5          ...
6      dX_dt: X has only two dimensions!
7      '''
8      if np.size(X)>2:
9          raise dX_dt("X has only two dimensions!")
10
11     return np.array([a * X[0] - b * X[0] * X[1], -c * X[1] + d * b * X[0] * X[1]])
```

Option 2, pytest:

```
1  def test_dX_dt_wronginput():
2      """ testing for wrong dimensions (ValueError) """
3      import pytest
4      with pytest.raises(ValueError):
5          LotkaVolterraModel.dX_dt(np.ones(3), 1, 0.1, 1.5, 0.75)
```

Scipy library: scientific computing

Important tools in the scipy library:

- numerical integration scipy.integrate
- optimization scipy.optimize
- Fourier transforms scipy.fft

For a full list, see the docs and the cookbook.

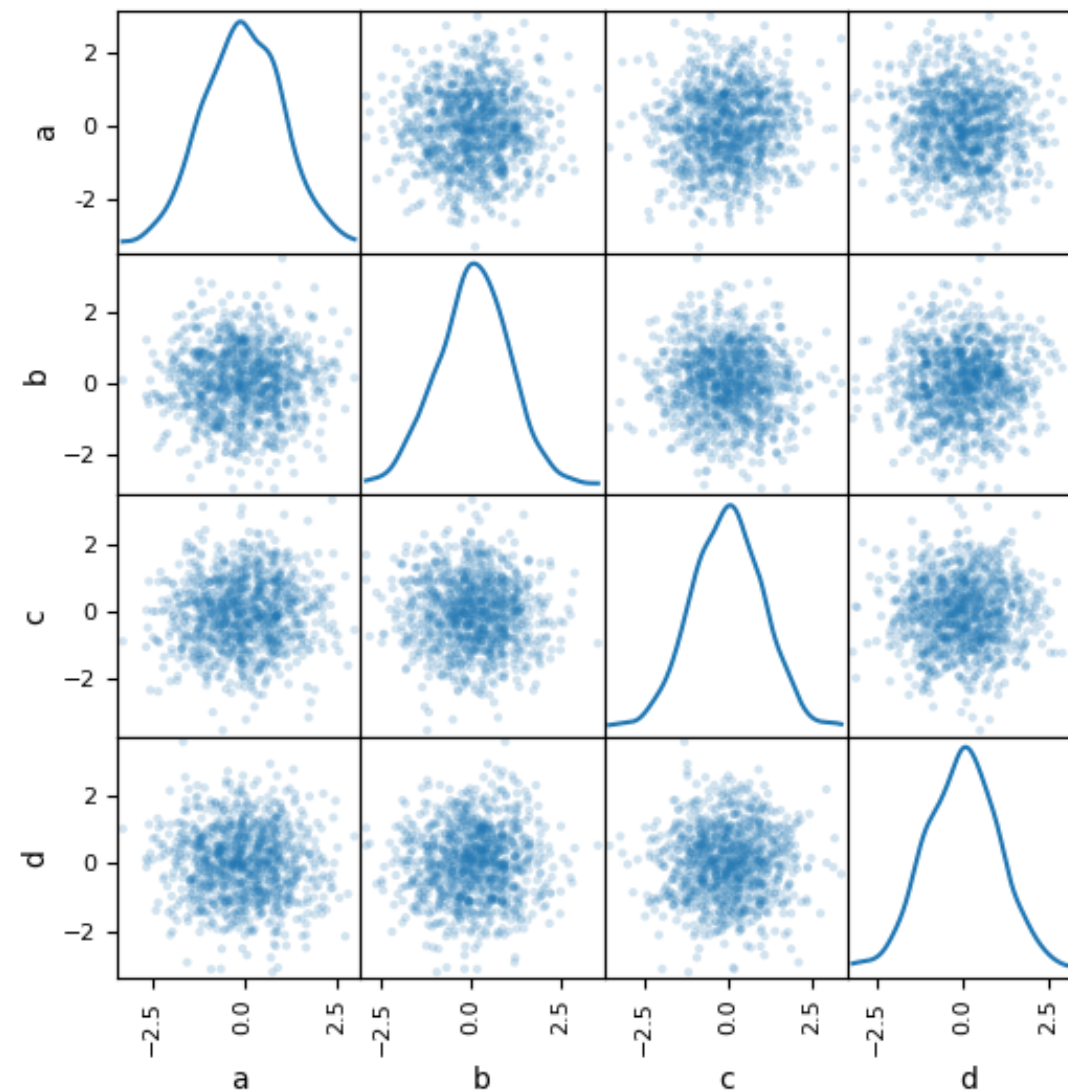
Pandas: data structures and analysis

High-level data analysis package

```
1  >>> import pandas as pd
2  >>> import numpy as np
3  # Defining a dataframe (df):
4  >>> df = pd.DataFrame(np.random.randn(1000, 4), columns=["a", "b", "c", "d"])
5  >>> print(df.head())          # prints the first 5 rows
6  a          b          c          d
7  0 -0.182791 -0.768629 -1.381591  0.035229
8  1  1.210803  0.487254 -0.087025  0.253478
9  2 -0.371740  1.092439 -0.829110  0.518891
10 3 -1.364988 -2.046488  0.172973 -2.117577
11 4  1.369287 -0.413473 -2.047923 -1.240338
12 >>> print(df.mean(axis=0))
13 a    -0.016737
14 b     0.000806
15 c    -0.049374
16 d    -0.052093
17 dtype: float64
```


Pandas: data structures and analysis

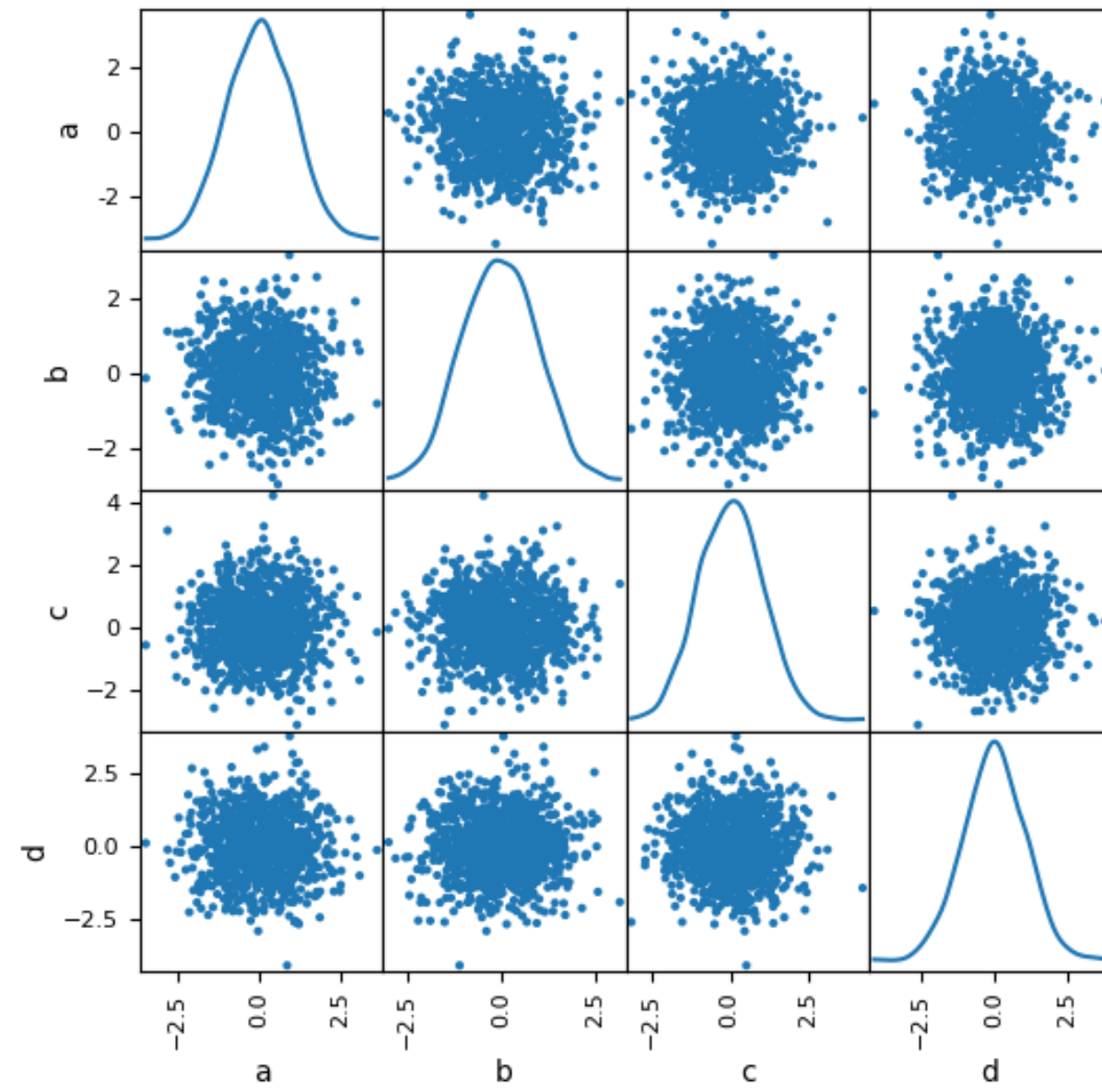
```
1 >>> from pandas.plotting import scatter_matrix
2 >>> scatter_matrix(df, alpha=0.2, figsize=(6, 6), diagonal="kde");
```




Note: Matplotlib (and thus pandas) allows you to regulate the transparency of a graph plot using the alpha attribute. By default, alpha=1 (not transparent).

Same code without transparency

```
1 >>> scatter_matrix(df, alpha=1, figsize=(6, 6), diagonal="kde");
```



Scikit learn: Machine learning in python

 [Install](#) [User Guide](#) [API](#) [Examples](#) [More ▾](#) [Go](#)

scikit-learn

Machine Learning in Python

[Getting Started](#) [Release Highlights for 1.0](#) [GitHub](#)

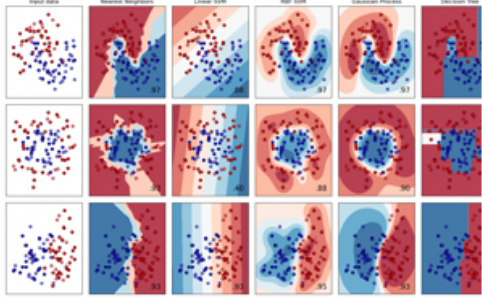
- Simple and efficient tools for predictive data analysis
- Accessible to everybody, and reusable in various contexts
- Built on NumPy, SciPy, and matplotlib
- Open source, commercially usable - BSD license

Classification

Identifying which category an object belongs to.

Applications: Spam detection, image recognition.

Algorithms: [SVM](#), [nearest neighbors](#), [random forest](#), and [more...](#)



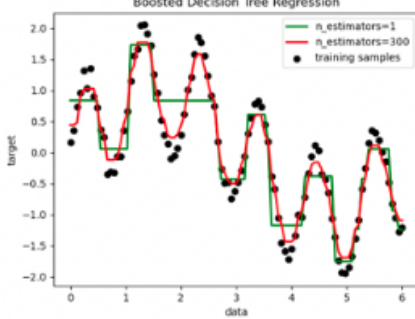
Examples

Regression

Predicting a continuous-valued attribute associated with an object.

Applications: Drug response, Stock prices.

Algorithms: [SVR](#), [nearest neighbors](#), [random forest](#), and [more...](#)



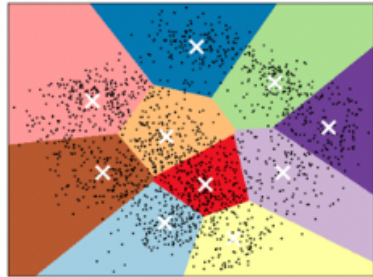
Examples

Clustering

Automatic grouping of similar objects into sets.

Applications: Customer segmentation, Grouping experiment outcomes

Algorithms: [k-Means](#), [spectral clustering](#), [mean-shift](#), and [more...](#)



Examples

Dimensionality reduction

Reducing the number of random variables to consider.

Model selection

Comparing, validating and choosing parameters and models.

Preprocessing

Feature extraction and normalization.

Questions?

Quiz: What is computed here and what is `j`?

```
1 X = np.linspace(1,2,1000)
2 Y = np.log10(X)
3 j = np.argmin(Y)
```


Quiz: Extracting the location of the minimum

```
1 In [1]: import numpy as np
2 In [2]: X = np.linspace(1,2,1000)
3 In [3]: X
4 Out[3]:
5 array([1.          , 1.001001   , 1.002002   , 1.003003   , 1.004004   ,
6        1.00500501, 1.00600601, ...,
7
8 In [3]: Y = np.log10(X)          # Vectorized logarithm of base 10.
9      ...: j = np.argmin(Y)       # Index of the minimum value
10 In [4]: j
11 Out[4]: 0
```

Quiz: What is the result?

```
1 In [1]: data = np.array([[2,np.nan],[3, 0],[4,1]])  
2 In [2]: np.nanmean(data,axis=0)
```

Mean along columns, while omitting nans

```
1 In [1]: data = np.array([[2,np.nan],[3, 0],[4,1]])      # Notice: missing data
2 In [2]: np.nanmean(data,axis=0)
3 Out[2]: array([3.0,  0.5  ])
```

Note: $(2+3+4)/3 = 3$ and $(0+1)/2 = 0.5$. Denominator is automatically adjusted to the number of non-nan items!

Note:

```
1 In [3]: data.mean(axis=0)
2 Out[3]: array([3.,      nan])
```

Entries of `np.nan` is very useful if you have missing data in some table (dataframe/array). The `np.nanX` functions then make sure that missing data are handled correctly.

Today's summary

- .gitignore, readme.md, markup, reproducible environments, project structure
- functional tools: ``lambda``, ``map``, ``reduce``, ``filter``
- important libraries: scipy, pandas, and scikit-learn

Try out the commands in the python shell/notebooks! Practice is key.

After lunch:

- 3rd in person quiz!
- Monday 13 - 15: exercises working on v5 of your project
- Monday 15:15 - 16: my office hours at SV 2811