Python for Informatics

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LESSON 3

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"The wheel has come full circle."

William Shakespeare

- In our previous two lessons, we looked at variables and data types, and learned how these can be used to perform simple computations.
- While storing a value in a variable is useful since it allows us to come back to that variable and retrieve that value at a latter time, it is the updating of a variable—the changing of its value—that yields the full power of a variable.
- It is through the varying of their values that variables fully realize themselves.



- Because the updating of variables is such a common yet powerful activity, there are idiomatic syntactic structures that facillitate it.
- Assignment operations are paired with other operations.

$$x = 0$$

$$x = x + 1$$

$$print(x)$$

$$1$$

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- x = x + 1 is a simple way of incrementing the value of x.
- The syntax can be simplified even further, by employing a short-hand notation:

$$x += 1$$

• Because this short-hand version requires less typing, it is generally preferred.

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Our other binary operators follow suit:

$$x = 1$$

$$x *= 1$$

$$x /= 1$$

$$x \% = 1$$

• The right operand doesn't need to be 1.

$$x += 5$$

$$x += y$$

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- The ability to update a variable with a new value is powerful.
- While updating a variable once is powerful, updating a variable multiple times is especially powerful.
- Imagine performing a mind-numbingly tedious task. Doing it once is bad, twice... cruel, thrice... maddening,... a thousand times!...
- These are circumstances for which the massive number-crunching power of our computers brilliantly shines.

print('done!')

Try this...
 n = 0
 while n < 1000:
 n += 1

- Now, try it again, but instead of 1,000 make it 10,000 (don't forget to reset n to zero).
- Continue to add an extra zero until you finally notice a time delay.
- On my computer, I finally notice a slight delay with a value of 1,000,000. It isn't until 10,000,000 that the delay is significant!

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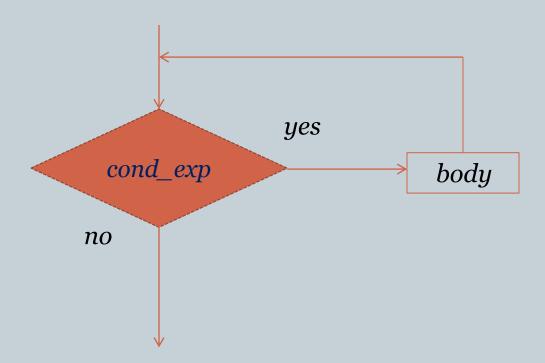
• Let us look at the general syntax:

while conditional_expression: update_control_variable

- The **conditional_expression** is an expression that evaluates to either **True** or **False**.
- If the *conditional_expression* evaluates to *True*, then the body of the *while* is executed, and the program flow loops back to the top of the while statement.
- The *conditional_expression* will be evaluated again, and the body will be executed again if the *conditional_expression* evaluates to *True*.
- This process of evaluation/execution will repeat or iterate until such time that the *conditional_expression* evaluates to *False*.
- When the *conditional_expression* evaluates to *False*, the body will be skipped, and the program flow will drop down and continue past the while statement.

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• Here is a flow chart visualization of the while loop:



• Each execution of the loop is called an iteration.

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Consider this:

```
m = 0
n = 1000
while n > 0:
m -= 1
```

- Under what condition would this loop stop iterating?
- The control variable *n* is not modified in any way that would allow the loop to stop iterating.
- A loop that never stops iterating like this is called an *infinite loop*.
- Go ahead and try this code. You'll need to either restart the Kernel, or restart Canopy.



- Sometimes an infinite loop can serve as a convenience, when you don't know exactly how many iterations you want your loop to make.
- An *infinite loop* combined with a *break* statement can be an elegant solution:

```
while True:
    line = raw_input('> ')
    if line == 'Ni!':
        break
    print line
print('Oh, what sad times are these when passing
ruffians can say Ni at will to old ladies.')
```



• Note, however, that this code could be written to not rely upon a **break** statement.

```
line = "
while line != 'Ni!':
    print line
    line = raw_input('> ')
print('Oh, what sad times are these when passing
ruffians can say Ni at will to old ladies.')
```

- As a general rule, you should be sparing in the use of break statements.
- **break** statements force your code to skip and jump in a manner that can be confusing and error prone.
- If at all, only consider using **breaks** when the code is clear and well-contained.



- The *continue* statement is another way of redirecting program flow within a loop.
- With *continue*, the program flow stays within the loop, but skips any remaining statements between the *continue* statement and the end of the loop.
- Whereas *break* forces an exit from the loop, the *continue* forces skipping to the next iteration of the loop.

```
while True:
    line = raw_input('> ')
    if line[o] == '#':
        continue
    if line == 'done':
        break
    print line
print 'Done'
```

Definite vs. Indefinite Loops



- The *while* loop is an example of an *indefinite loop*.
- The number of iterations performed by a while loop depends upon a condition (the evaluation of a boolean True/False expression).
- The while loop is indefinite because we cannot know *a priori* how many times the loop will iterate.
- The *for* loop is an example of a *definite loop*.
- The *for* loop is used to *iterate through an entire set of items*.
- If you need to process each item within a set, the for loop is preferred, as it precludes the possibility of erroneously skipping any item within the set.

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Here's an example of the for loop at work:

Graham Chapman is hilarious!
John Cleese is hilarious!
Terry Gilliam is hilarious!
Eric Idle is hilarious!
Terry Jones is hilarious!
Michael Palin is hilarious!
A flying circus!

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 Note that comedian is the iteration variable within the loop.

• The value of *comedian* is guaranteed to be that of each successive item with the set being iterated over.

Common Looping Practices



- Common steps or operations that are typically performed as part of a loop construct include:
 - o Initializing one or more variables before the loop begins.
 - Performing an operation or computation upon each item within the loop body, and perhaps modifying variables.
 - Making use of the resulting values of your variables, after completion of the loop.

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 Here's a loop that counts the number of items in a list:

```
count = 0
for cur_num in [5, 82, 35, 8, 27, 19]:
    count += 1
print('The number of items is ' + count)
```

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 Here's a loop that totals the number of items in a list:

```
total = 0
for cur_num in [5, 82, 35, 8, 27, 19]:
    total += cur_num
    print('The total is ' + total)
```

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 Here's a loop that finds the largest value within a list:

```
maximum = None
for cur_num in [5, 82, 35, 8, 27, 19]:
   if maximum is None or cur_num > maximum :
      maximum = cur_num
   print('The maximum value is ' + str(maximum))
```

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 Here's a loop that finds the smallest value within a list:

```
minimum = None
for cur_num in [5, 82, 35, 8, 27, 19]:
   if minimum is None or cur_num < minimum:
        minimum = cur_num
   print('The minimum value is ' + str(minimum))</pre>
```

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 Here's a loop that finds the smallest value within a list:

```
minimum = None
for cur_num in [5, 82, 35, 8, 27, 19]:
   if minimum is None or cur_num < minimum:
        minimum = cur_num
   print('The minimum value is ' + str(minimum))</pre>
```



- The previous loop examples demonstrate typical forms of applying loop-based operations.
- With the exception of the total counting example, you would not need to use those code snippets, because there are built-in functions that already perform the same task:

```
sum([5, 82, 35, 8, 27, 19])
176

max([5, 82, 35, 8, 27, 19])
82

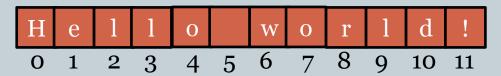
min([5, 82, 35, 8, 27, 19])
5
```



- A String is a sequence of characters.
- Imagine a series of beads with a character carved into each one. By sliding them onto a string, you create a necklace.



• Syntactically, each character can be referenced by means of an integer index value.

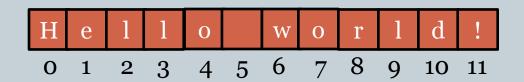


greeting = 'Hello world!'
print(greeting[6])

W

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• The built-in len function, allows us to get the length of any given string.



```
greeting = 'Hello world!'
print(len(greeting))
12
```

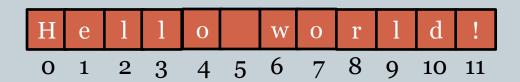
(26)

• Note that the last character in a string is always at the position of len(...) - 1.

```
greeting = 'Hello world!'
print(greeting[len(greeting) - 1])
!
```

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 Referring to a position that is beyond the end of the string results in an IndexError.



greeting = 'Hello world!'
print(greeting[len(greeting)])
IndexError: string index out of range

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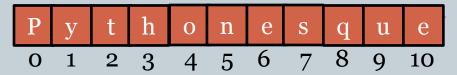
Just as with any kind of sequence, it is often useful to process a string one item (i.e. character) at a time.

```
H e l l o w o r l d !
```

```
greeting = 'Hello world!'
index = 0
while index < len(greeting):
    letter = greeting[index]
    print(letter)
    index += 1
H
e
l</pre>
```

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• A *slice* is a substring denoted by *s[n:m]*, where for string *s*, a string of characters is returned beginning at position *n* and extending up to but not including position *m*.



```
word = 'Pythonesque'
print(word[o:6])
Python
```

print(word[4:7])
one



- Strings are immutable! Therefore, as much as you might want to, you cannot change them.
- You can, however, create new strings.

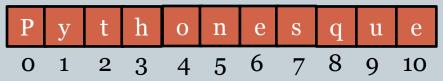
```
Incorrect - attempting to modify an existing string...
  word = 'Pythonesque'
  word[o] = 'M'
  TypeError: 'str' object does not support item assignment
```

Correct – creating a new string... word = 'M' + word[1:11]

word = 'M' + word[1:11]
print(word)
Mythonesque

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• Counting across a string. Here's an example of performing a count of the number of 'e's in a string.



```
word = 'Pythonesque'
count = 0
for letter in word :
   if letter == 'e':
      count += 1
print('There are ' + str(count) + ' \'e\'s ' + 'in the word. ')
```

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• The *in* operator takes two string operands and returns true if the left string is found as a substring within the right operand.



word = 'Pythonesque'
'on' in word
True

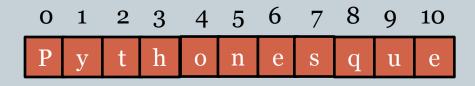
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The comparison operators allow us to compare two strings.

```
if word == 'Pythonesque':
    print('Ni!')
Ni!
```

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The comparison operators allow us to compare two strings.



word > 'Python' True

'King Arthur' < word True

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• In Python, all uppercase characters are lexigraphically less than (or to the left of) all lowercase characters.

'Zymurgy' < 'aardvark' True

• To account for this we can convert to a common format by using the *lower()* or *upper()* string functions.

'Zymurgy'.lower() < 'aardvark'.lower() False



- Python strings are actually objects.
- An object is a binding together of data and executable code.
- The idea is to keep data and the functions that operate upon that data close together.
- The binding of data and functions (or behavior) is accomplished by means of *encapsulation*.
- *Encapsulation* effectively creates a skin around the data and its related functions—this is what grants objects their objectness.

- The functions that belong to objects are called methods.
- The term method comes from the classical perspective of object-oriented programming wherein objects are said to send *messages* to each other.
- When an object receives a message, the method is the way that it responds to that given message.
- By the way, in Python everything is actually an object—even ints and floats are objects!

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• By using the type function, we can determine what type or class of object we have.

```
s = 'aardvark'
type(s)
str
```

• The *dir* function lists the methods that belong to an object.

```
dir(s)
['__add ',
 'capitalize',
 'format',
```

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 Seeing that capitalize() is a string method, we can learn more about it by asking for help.

help(str.capitalize)
Help on method_descriptor:

capitalize(...)
S.capitalize() -> string
Return a copy of the string S with only its first character capitalized.

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To see how it works, we can call or invoke it.
 s.capitalize()
 'Aardvark'

- Note that objects are invoked by putting a dot after the object reference, and then specifying the method name.
- This syntactic use of a dot to invoke a method is called *dot notation*.

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Now let's invoke the find() method.

```
s = 'shrubbery'
s.find('r')
s.find('r', 3)
s.find('er', 2)
```

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An important "clean-up" method is strip().

```
s = ' shrubbery '
s = s.strip()
print(s[0:5])
shrub
```

• *rstrip()* is a similar method, but it only strips at the end, and it lets you specify a non-whitespace character to strip out.

```
s = '*****shrubbery*****'
s = s.rstrip('*')
print(s)
****shrubbery
```

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• **startswith()** is also a convenient method.

s = 'dead parrot' s.startswith('dead') True

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We often use a series of operations to parse data.

```
s = 'http://www.stpacossecondchancedogrescue.org/user/login'
start_pos = s.find('://') + 3
end_pos = s.find('/', start_pos)
home_page = s[start_pos:end_pos]
print(home_page)
www.stpacossecondchancedogrescue.org
```

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 Note that by refactoring our code, we can make it clearer and more reusable.

```
target_start_str = '://'
target_end_str = '/'
s = 'http://www.stpacossecondchancedogrescue.org/user/login'
start_pos = s.find(target_start_str) + len(target_start_str)
end_pos = s.find(target_end_str, start_pos)
home_page = s[start_pos:end_pos]
print(home_page)
www.stpacossecondchancedogrescue.org
```

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• The format operator, %, allows us to construct formatted strings by means of *string interpolation*.

```
s = '%s. Go on. Off you go.' \
% (raw_input('What... is your favourite colour?'))
print(s)
```

- The format operator has two operands, where the first is the string that contains one or more format sequences.
- Each format sequence is a place holder for the string being constructed.
- The second operand is a tuple (comma delimited value sequence) containing the values that will be inserted into the successive place holders.



- The various format sequences are based upon the type of value they are holding a place for.
- The format sequences for decimal, floating point, and string are, respectively:

%d

%**g**

%S