

OOP - Python

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Elemental Concepts- Algorithm

Where did everything start?



The word algorithm comes from the nickname of a 9th century Persian mathematician, Al-Khwarizmi, who was recognized for enunciating step by step the rules for basic mathematical operations with decimals (addition, subtraction, multiplication and division).

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Elemental Concepts- Algorithm

In mathematics and computer science, an algorithm is a finite sequence of instructions, which are well-defined and can be implemented in a computer. Typically, these instructions are used to solve a type of problem or perform a calculation.

Elemental Concepts- Algorithm

Objective: to calculate the average age of workers in an office.

Sequence of steps:

Step 1: Collect the age of member 1

Step 2: Collect the age of member 2

Step 3: Collect the age of member 3

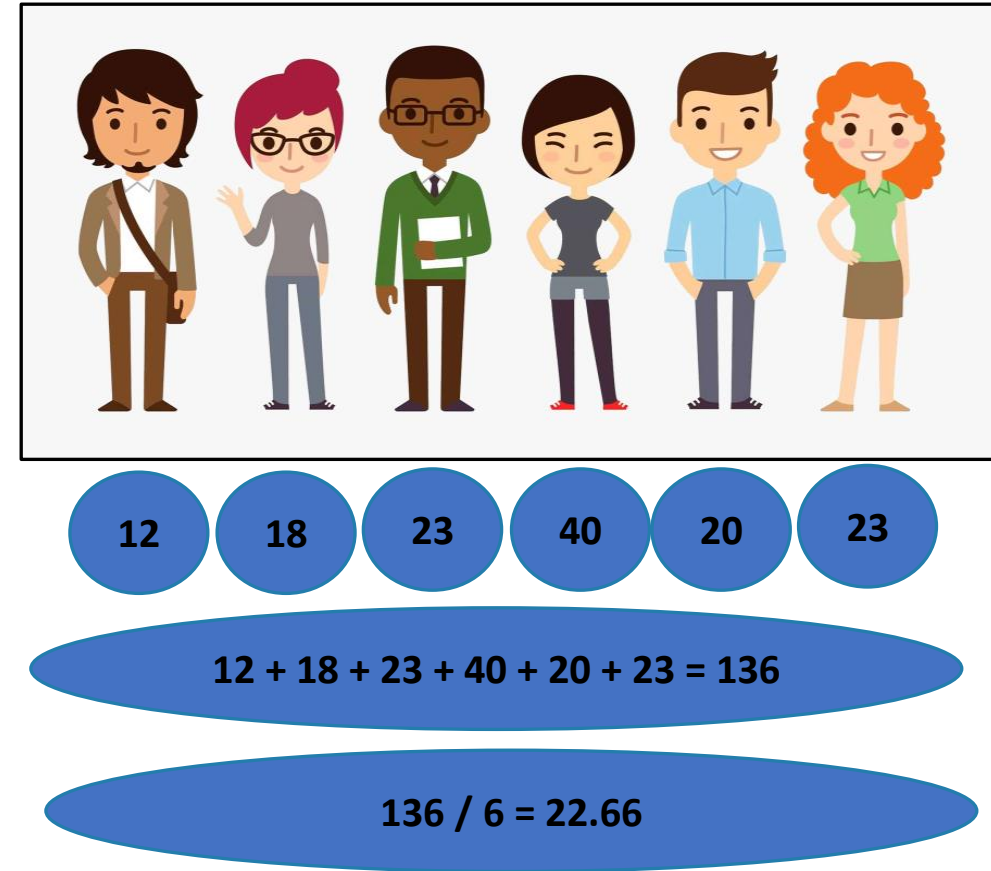
Step 4: Collect the age of member 4

Step 5: Collect the age of member 5

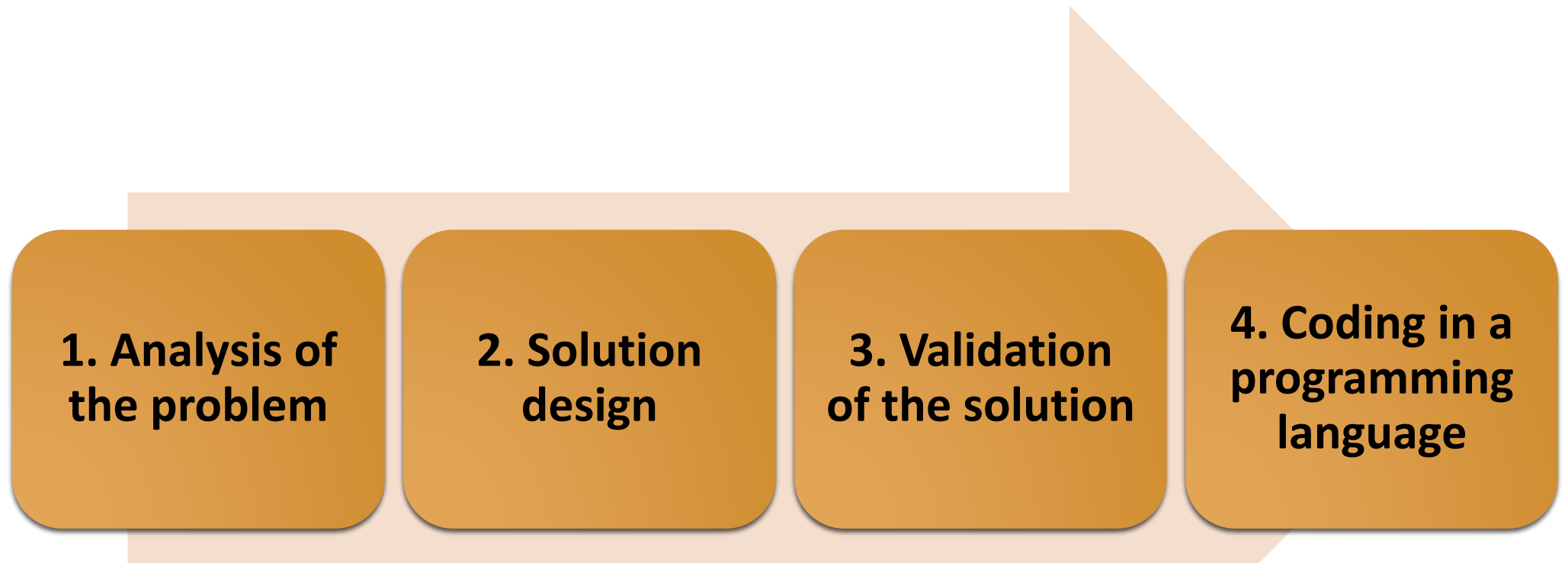
Step 6: Collect the age of member 6

Step 7: Add the age of members 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6

Step 8: Divide the total of the previous sum by 6



Methodology of working with algorithms



1. Analysis to design an algorithm

Ask the following questions:

What is the objective sought?

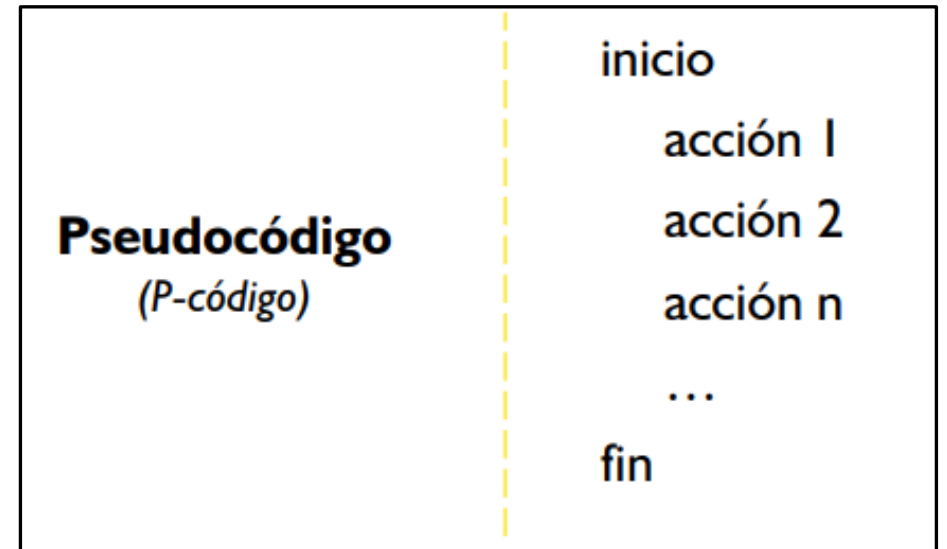
What is the input data?

What calculations/processes should be carried out?

What is the output data?

2. Solution design

- **Objective:** to calculate the average age of workers in an office.
- **Entry data:** member age 1, member age 2, member age 3, member age 4, member age 5, and member age 6.
- **Processes / calculations:** add the ages of members 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. And divide the total by 6.
- **Output data:** average age of the 6 members.



3. Validation of the solution

- To validate the solution of an algorithm, desktop tests (which do not require the use of computers) can be performed. Or tests can also be performed on computers, for which it is necessary to have the algorithm coded in a programming language.
- Manual validation (desktop test):

Determine the final values of the variables assuming that you have the following instructions:

age1 = 19

age2 = 34

total = age1 + age2

totalRare = total - age1

	Age1	age2	total	totalRare
1	19			
2	19	34		
3	19	34	53	
4	19	34	53	34

4. Coding in a programming language

```
public class Main
{
    public Main()
    {
        int edad1 = 12;
        int edad2 = 18;
        int edad3 = 23;
        int edad4 = 40;
        int edad5 = 20;
        int edad6 = 23;

        int suma = edad1+edad2+edad3+edad4+edad5+edad6;

        int total = suma/6;

        System.out.println("El promedio es: "+total);
    }
}
```

 Blue!: Ventana de Terminal - figures

Opciones

El promedio es: 22

Hardware

In general a computer contains the following hardware components:

A central processing unit (CPU)

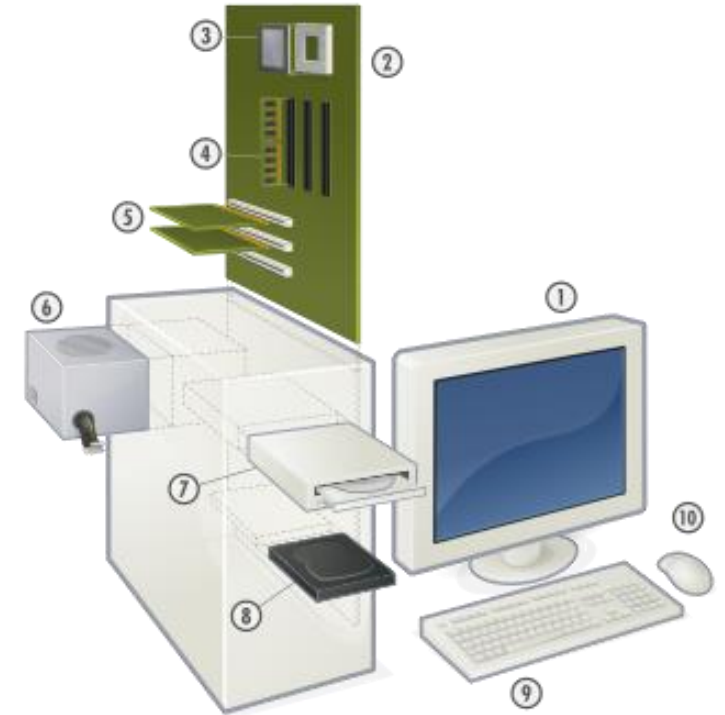
Memory

Storage devices (such as disks and CDs)

Input devices (such as mouse and keyboard)

Output devices (such as monitors and printers)

Communication devices (such as network cards).



Memory

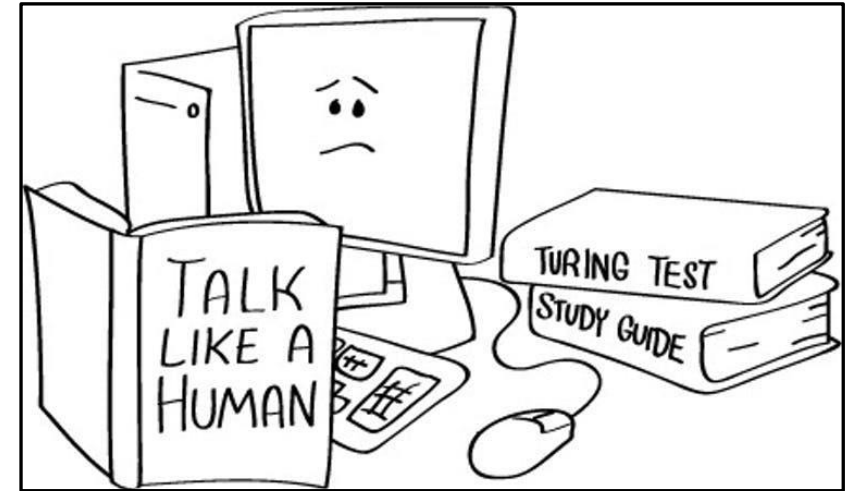
- A computer's memory consists of an ordered sequence of bytes for storing programs as well as the data the program is working with.
- You can think of memory as the working area of the computer for running a program.
- A program and its data must be moved to the computer's memory before the CPU can execute them.

Memory address	Memory content	
.	.	
.	.	
.	.	
2000	01000011	Encoding for character 'C'
2001	01110010	Encoding for character 'r'
2002	01100101	Encoding for character 'e'
2003	01110111	Encoding for character 'w'
2004	00000011	Decimal number 3
.	.	

Programming languages

**What are programming languages?
Why are they necessary?**

- Computers do not understand human languages, so programs must be written in a language that a computer can use.
- There are hundreds of programming languages, and they were developed to make the programming process easier for people. However, all programs must eventually become instructions that computers can execute.



Language Types - I

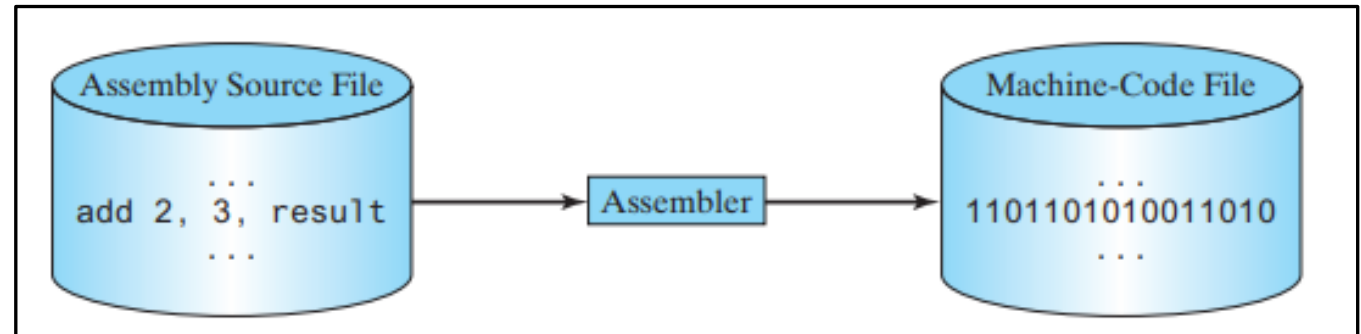
Machine language

It is the native language of a computer. Which is made in the form of binary code.



Assembly Language

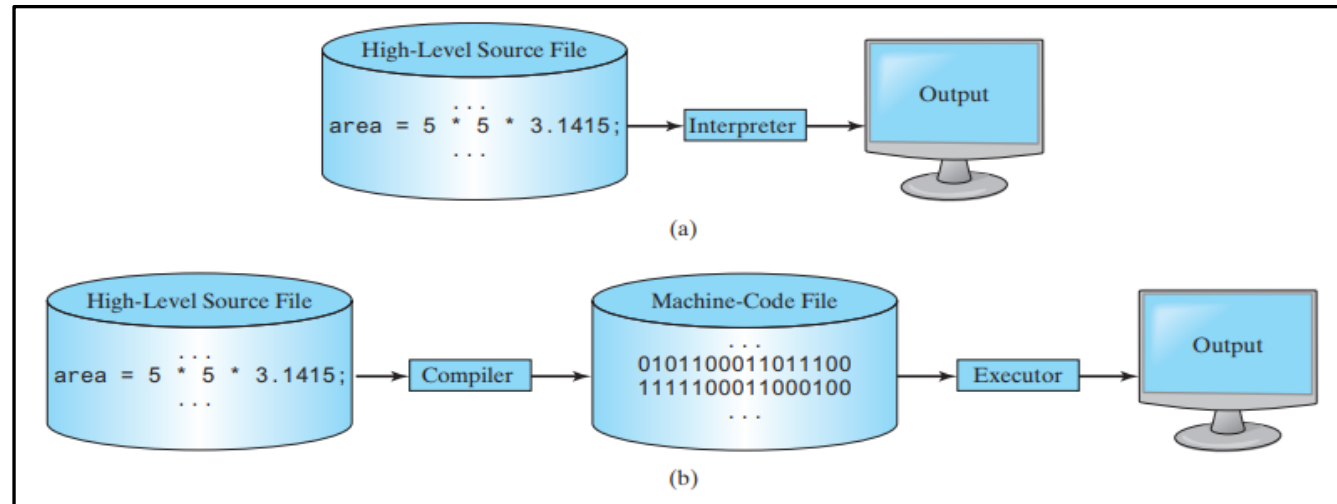
Programming at the tip of ones and zeros is very tedious, therefore at the beginning of the computer age, the assembly language was invented. assembly language uses short descriptive words to represent a set of machine instructions



Language Types - II

High-level language

In the 1950s, a new generation of programming languages known as "high-level languages" emerged. These languages are platform-independent, meaning that you can write a program in a high-level language and run it on different types of machines. High-level languages are similar to the "English" language, and are easier to learn and use.



Python



Python is a very powerful and flexible general-purpose programming language, as well as simple and easy to learn, and was created in the early nineties by Guido van Rossum in the Netherlands. It is a high-level language, which allows you to easily process all kinds of data structures, both numerical and text. It is free software, and is implemented on all common platforms and operating systems.

Python



The features of the Python programming language are summarized below:
It is an **interpreted**, uncompiled language that uses **dynamic**, strongly **typed typing** (the value type does not change suddenly).

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It is cross-platform, which is advantageous for making its source code executable between various operating systems.

It is a multiparadigm programming language, which supports various programming paradigms such as object orientation, structured, imperative programming and, to a lesser extent, functional programming.

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It is cross-platform, which is advantageous for making its source code executable between various operating systems.

In Python, code formatting (e.g., indentation) is structural.

Python - Advantages



- **Simplified and fast:** This language greatly simplifies programming and "makes you adapt to a programming language mode, Python proposes a pattern". It's a great language for scripting, if you require something fast (in the sense of language execution), with a few lines it's already solved.
- **Elegant and flexible:** The language gives you many tools, if you want lists of various types of data, you do not need to declare each type of data. It's such flexible language you don't care so much about details.
- **Healthy and productive programming:** Programming in Python becomes a very healthy style of programming: it is simple to learn, directed to the perfect rules, it makes you dependent on improving, complying with the rules, the use of lines, variables. " It is also a language that was made with productivity in mind, that is, Python makes you more productive, allows you to deliver in the times that require me.

Python - Advantages



- **Tidy and clean:** The order that Python maintains, is what its users like the most, it is very readable, any other programmer can read it and work on the program written in Python. The modules are well organized, unlike other languages.
- **Portable:** It is a very portable language (either on Mac, Linux or Windows) compared to other languages. The philosophy of batteries included, are the libraries that you need most to the day to day programming, they are already inside the interpreter, you do not have the need to install them additionally with in other languages.
- **Community:** Something very important for the development of a language is the community, the Python community itself takes care of the language and almost all updates are made in a democratic way.

Python – Download and installation



To be able to use Python you have to have it installed on your computer.

There are different ways to do this, but we recommend that you use Anaconda, a Python distribution that incorporates many tools.

Simply choose the version that corresponds to your operating system and install it by following the instructions. Also, make sure you choose the version that comes with Python 3 and not Python 2.



<https://www.anaconda.com/>

Python – Descarga e instalación



<https://www.anaconda.com/>

The Anaconda distribution includes many popular tools such as the **lpython console**, **Jupyter Notebook**, and **Spyder IDE**.

Anaconda comes with a package manager called conda, which makes it easy to install and update additional tools (libraries).

lpython is an enhanced interactive Python interpreter.

Jupyter Notebook is an open source web application that allows you to create and share documents that allow you to easily create documents that combine code, graphics and narrative text.

Spyder is an Integrated Development Environment (IDE) that allows you to write Python scripts and interact with Python software from a single interface.

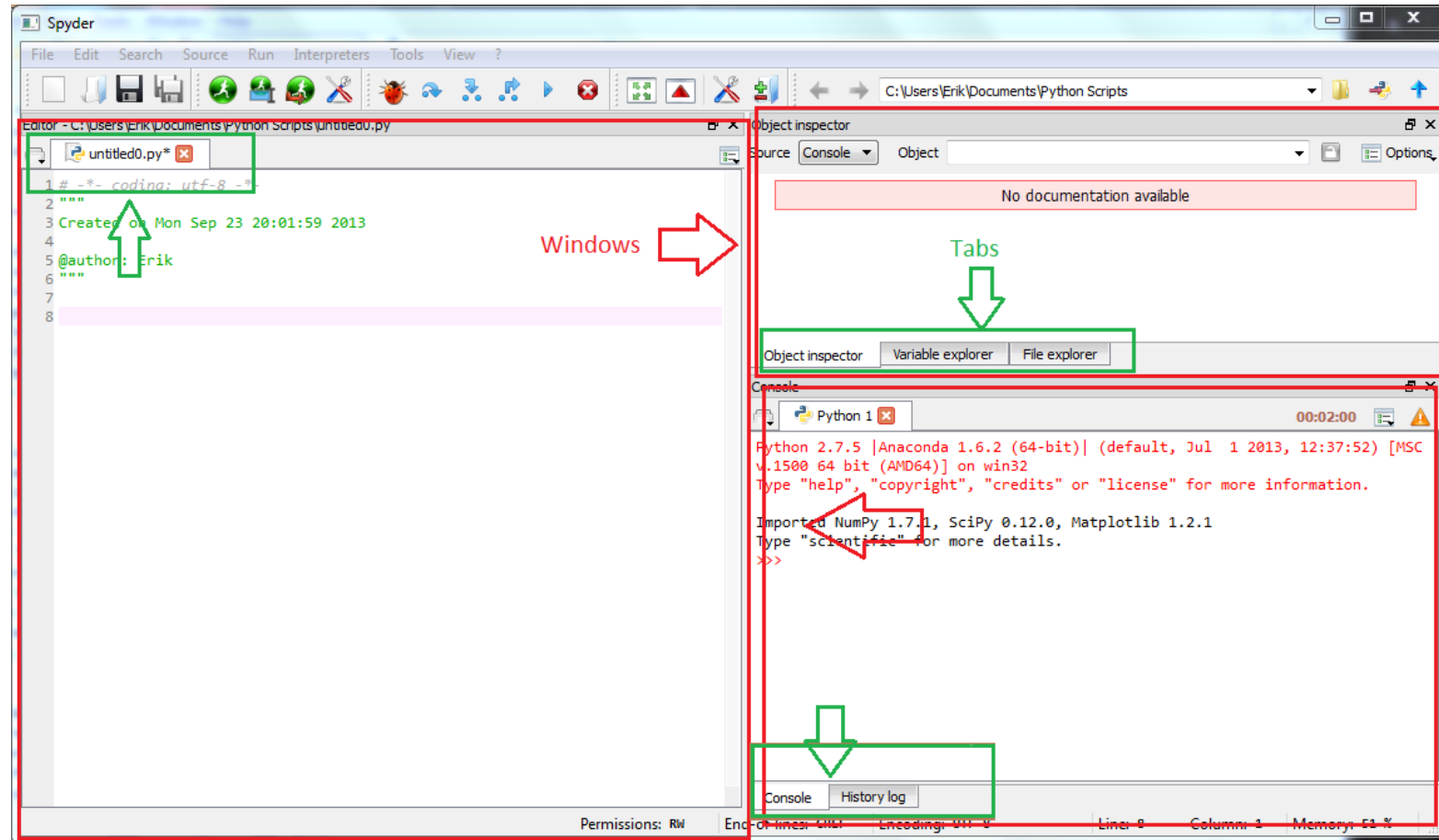
Python – Download and installation



Spyder has advanced editing, interactive testing, debugging and introspection, and a numerical computing environment. Thanks to the support of IPython and popular Python libraries such as Numpy, Scipy or matplotlib (interactive 2D / 3D plotting). Spyder (formerly Pydee) is an open-source, cross-platform integrated development environment (IDE) for scientific programming in the Python language.



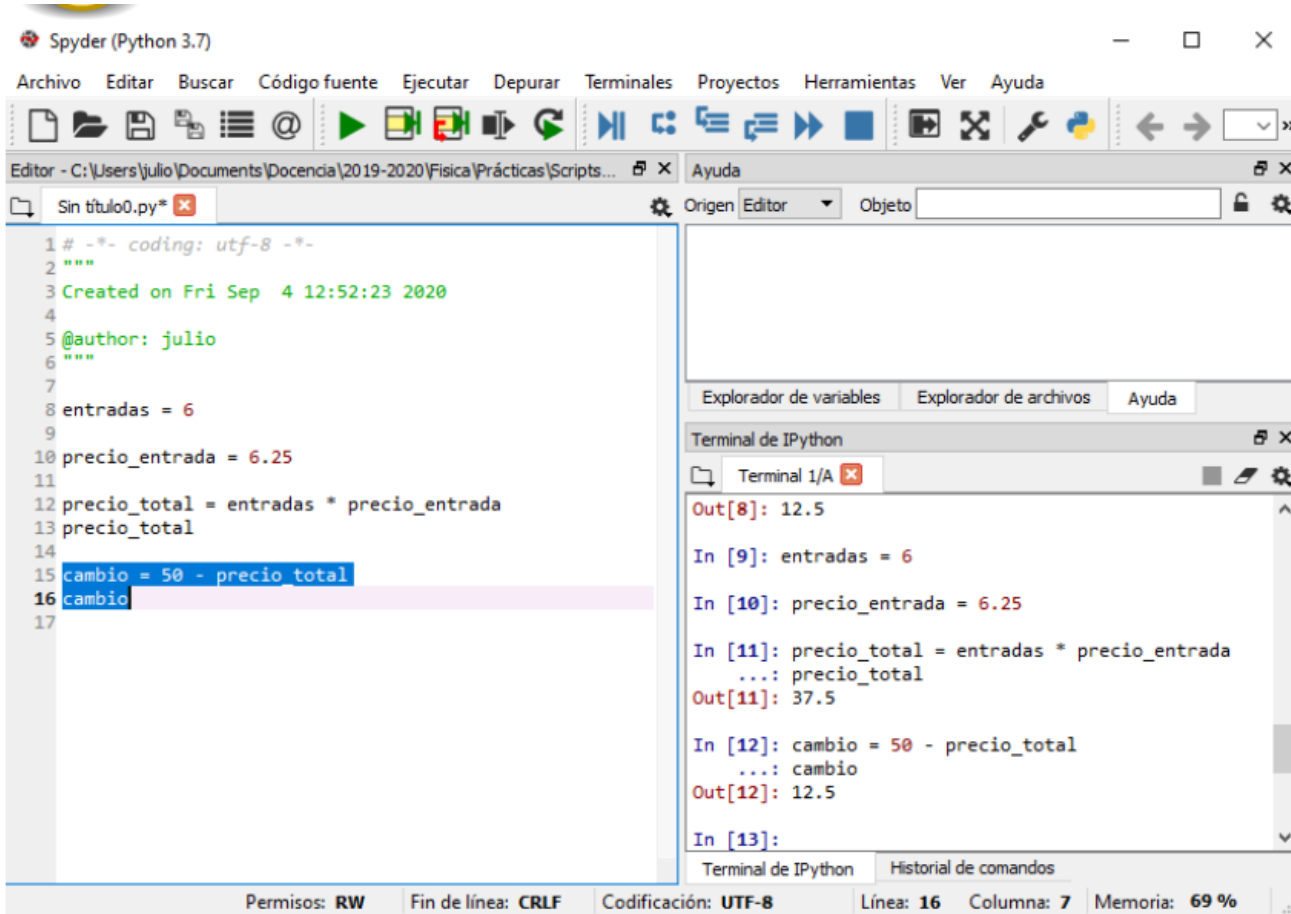
Spyder interface



Example 1

- A family, made up of 4 children and a married couple, goes to the movies. If each ticket is worth €6.25, how much do they have to pay? If the mother hands over a €50 bill to pay for the tickets, how much will they have to pay back?

Example 1



The screenshot shows the Spyder Python IDE interface. The main editor window displays a Python script named 'Sin título0.py' with the following code:

```
1 # -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
2 """
3 Created on Fri Sep  4 12:52:23 2020
4
5 @author: julio
6 """
7
8 entradas = 6
9
10 precio_entrada = 6.25
11
12 precio_total = entradas * precio_entrada
13 precio_total
14
15 cambio = 50 - precio_total
16 cambio
17
```

The IPython terminal on the right shows the execution of the script:

```
Out[8]: 12.5
In [9]: entradas = 6
In [10]: precio_entrada = 6.25
In [11]: precio_total = entradas * precio_entrada
...: precio_total
Out[11]: 37.5
In [12]: cambio = 50 - precio_total
...: cambio
Out[12]: 12.5
In [13]:
```

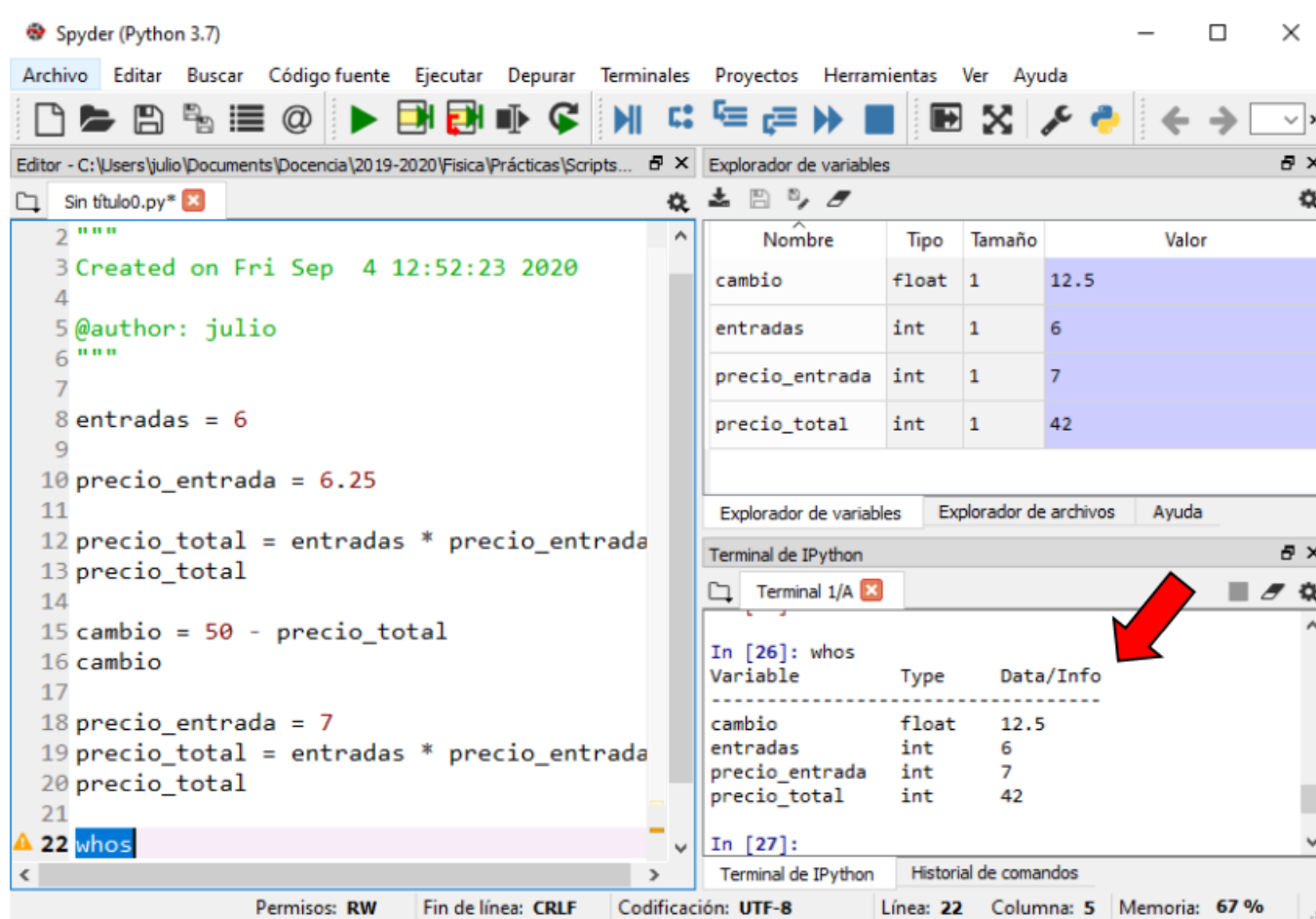
The status bar at the bottom indicates: Permisos: RW, Fin de línea: CRLF, Codificación: UTF-8, Línea: 16, Columna: 7, Memoria: 69 %.

We can store the information in objects (inputs, precio_entrada, etc.). Once the values are assigned (using =), we can work with the name of the objects. Objects play the role of variables.

The objects

There are many types of objects we can work with. For example, numbers in Python are strongly related to mathematical numbers, but are subject to the limitations of numerical representation in computers. Python distinguishes between integers, floating-point numbers, and complex numbers (more examples later):

Object Identification I



The screenshot shows the Spyder Python IDE interface. The main editor displays a Python script with the following code:

```
2 """  
3 Created on Fri Sep 4 12:52:23 2020  
4  
5 @author: julio  
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7  
8 entradas = 6  
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10 precio_entrada = 6.25  
11  
12 precio_total = entradas * precio_entrada  
13 precio_total  
14  
15 cambio = 50 - precio_total  
16 cambio  
17  
18 precio_entrada = 7  
19 precio_total = entradas * precio_entrada  
20 precio_total  
21  
22 whos
```

The Variable Explorer (Explorador de variables) is open on the right, showing a table of variables:

Nombre	Tipo	Tamaño	Valor
cambio	float	1	12.5
entradas	int	1	6
precio_entrada	int	1	7
precio_total	int	1	42

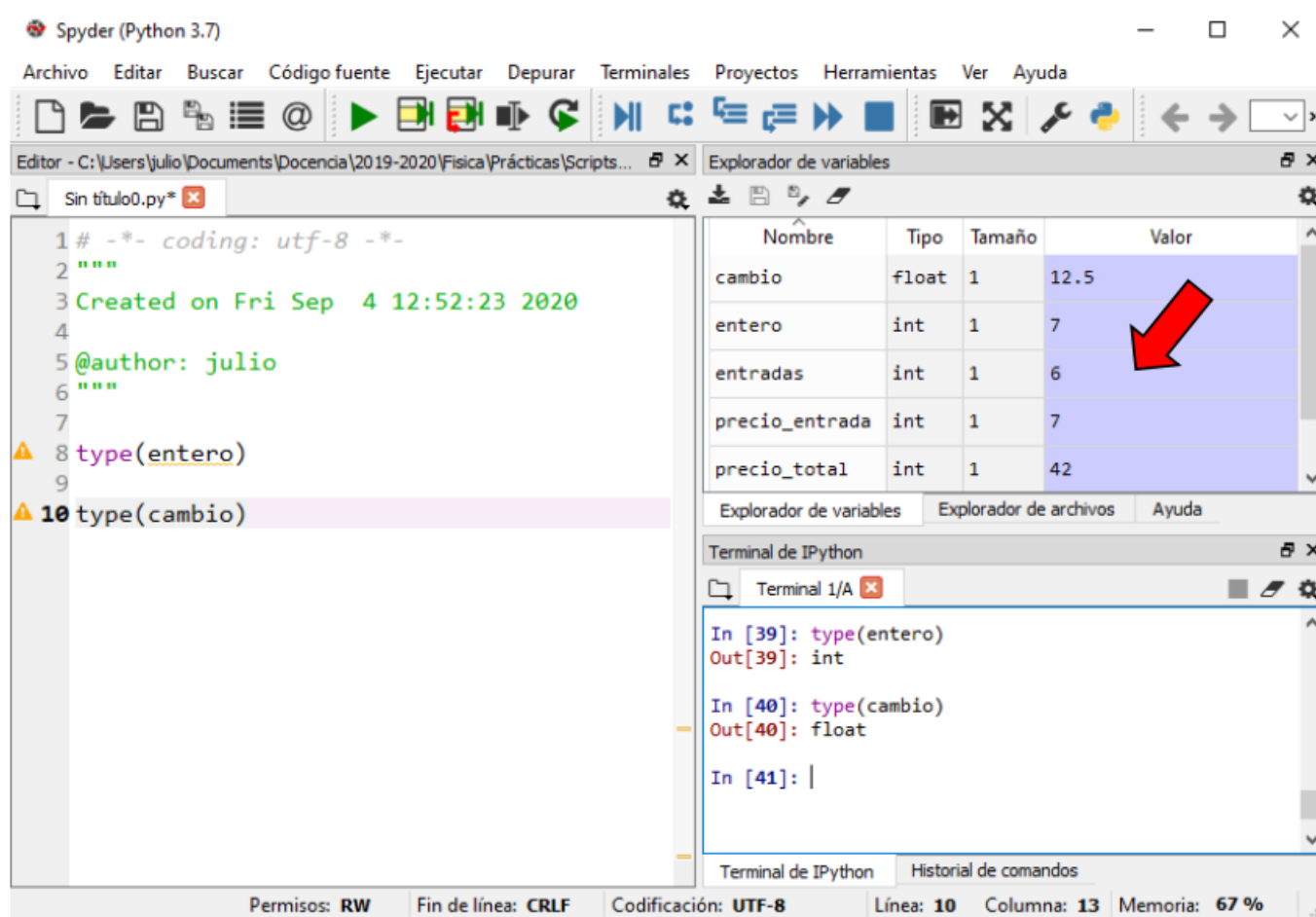
The IPython terminal at the bottom shows the output of the `whos` command:

```
In [26]: whos  
Variable      Type      Data/Info  
-----  
cambio        float     12.5  
entradas      int       6  
precio_entrada int       7  
precio_total  int       42  
  
In [27]:
```

A red arrow points from the `whos` command in the terminal to the Variable Explorer table.

If we do not remember the names of the variables (or their value), we can consult it in the Variable Explorer (just above the console). Likewise, we can also use the `whos` function, which returns in the console a table similar to the one that appears in the Variable Explorer.

Object Identification II



The screenshot displays the Spyder Python IDE interface. The main code editor on the left contains a Python script with a docstring and two function calls: `type(entero)` and `type(cambio)`. The Variable Explorer on the right shows a table of variables in the current namespace. A red arrow points to the `cambio` variable, which is of type `float` with a value of `12.5`. The IPython terminal at the bottom shows the output of the `type` function calls: `int` for `entero` and `float` for `cambio`.

Nombre	Tipo	Tamaño	Valor
cambio	float	1	12.5
entero	int	1	7
entradas	int	1	6
precio_entrada	int	1	7
precio_total	int	1	42

```
In [39]: type(entero)
Out[39]: int

In [40]: type(cambio)
Out[40]: float

In [41]: |
```

The Variable Explorer also displays the type of the different objects. Even so, if we wanted to remember it without going to the browser, we can use the `type` function.

Basic Elements – Strings

In the handling of text, the use of strings (sequence) or also called 'strings' is made

```
s = 'abc'
```

Its use is wide and can be reinforced with different methods and functions.

How could we know the number of characters within a string?

Basic Elements – Strings

The `len(string)` function allows us to know the number of characters.

```
len("abc") 3
```

It is important to know how we can extract the characters within the strings either to explore their content or to process it and use it later. To do this, indexing will be used

Basic Elements – Strings

frase = 'Curso de Python'

C	u	r	s	o		d	e		P	y	t	h	o	n
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14

Note that when an object of type string is created, it is stored in small memory positions always starting with the zero position, up to the size of the string, in this case up to 14, having a total of 15 characters.

Basic Elements – Strings

frase = 'Curso de Python'

<i>C</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>o</i>		<i>d</i>	<i>e</i>		<i>P</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>n</i>
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14

Now, from the index (position of the characters) we can perform data extraction (split). Note that in Python, the index starts at 0 and the last element will always be -1 of the total size (len -1)

Basic Elements – Strings

Syntax: [start:stop:step]

```
s = "abcdefgh"
```

```
s[3:6] "def", just like s[3:6:1]
```

```
s[3:6:2] Delivery "df"
```

```
s[:] delivery "abcdefgh", as well as s[0:len(s):1]
```

```
s[::-1] delivery "hgfedcba",
```

```
like s[-1:-len(s):-1]
```

```
s[4:1:-2] delivery "ec"
```

Basic Elements – Strings

Exercise 1.

From the following string `Clase de Strings en Python, 25 de enero '`, extract the following using indexing:

- `Strings`
- `Python`
- `25`
- `enero`
- `esalC`
- `'oeee 2,otPn git deaC'`

Basic Elements – Strings

Strings have different methods associated with their data type. Among many, we can highlight:

count()	Returns the number of times a character is repeated in the string	upper()	Capitalize the entire string
find	Searches for a substring or character within the character string	lower()	Set the entire string to lowercase
replace(str1,str2)	Replace one substring with another	capitalize()	Capitalize the entire first
		title()	Capitalize the entire first character of each word

<https://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#string-methods>

Basic Elements – Strings

The ASCII Table gathers the first 127 bits is common to all Western languages. The rest are language-specific. numeric that corresponds to the selected character.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
0													□			
16																
32	sp	!	"	#	\$	%	&	'	()	*	+	,	-	.	/
48	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	:	;	<	=	>	?
64	@	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O
80	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	[\]	^	_
96	`	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o
112	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z	{		}	~	
128	€		,	f	//	...	†	‡	^	%	Š	<	œ		ž	
144		\	/	“	”	•	—	—		™	š	>	œ		ž	ÿ
160		ı	ç	£	¤	¥	ı	§	¨	©	ª	«	¬	-	®	¯
176	°	±	²	³	´	µ	¶	·	,	¹	º	»	¼	½	¾	¿
192	À	Á	Â	Ã	Ä	Å	Æ	Ç	È	É	Ê	Ë	Ì	Í	Î	Ï
208	Ð	Ñ	Ò	Ó	Ô	Õ	Ö	×	Ø	Ù	Ú	Û	Ü	Ý	Þ	ß
224	à	á	â	ã	ä	å	æ	ç	è	é	ê	ë	ì	í	î	ï
240	ð	ñ	ò	ó	ô	õ	ö	÷	ø	ù	ú	û	ü	ý	þ	ÿ

Basic Elements – Strings

The "ord(character)" function indicates the numeric ASCII code that corresponds to the selected character.

The function "chr(value)" displays the character that is associated with the specified ASCII value:

```
>>> ord('a')
```

```
97
```

```
>>> ord('ñ')
```

```
241
```

```
>>> chr(254)
```

```
'p'
```

```
>>> chr(64)
```

```
'@'
```

Selection structures – I

- So far we have seen that programs run in an order that we define when encoding each line. In our case, the order of execution usually starts from within a method called "main".
- Regardless of the data we enter (or that we ask the user for on the screen), the order (control flow) is the same.
- This means that we do not have a different answer or a different order when different inputs or values are entered.
- But what if we can define a different order, depending on the inputs of the users, or the values of certain variables.



Selection structures – II

- In this case we could, for example: (i) execute the program in a normal order, if the value of a radius is greater than zero, or (ii) execute another path if the value of the radius is less than zero.
- To be able to give our code this ability. We need to use "selection structures".



Comparison operators

- How do I know if a radius is: (i) greater than 0, (ii) equal to 0, or (iii) less than 0?.
- Python provides six relationship operators (also known as comparison operators). Let's look at the following table and find the result assuming that the value of the variable "radius" is equal to 5.

TABLE 3.1 Relational Operators

<i>Operator</i>	<i>Mathematics Symbol</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Example (radius is 5)</i>	<i>Result</i>
<	<	Less than	radius < 0	<input type="checkbox"/>
<=	≤	Less than or equal to	radius <= 0	<input type="checkbox"/>
>	>	Greater than	radius > 0	<input type="checkbox"/>
>=	≥	Greater than or equal to	radius >= 0	<input type="checkbox"/>
==	=	Equal to	radius == 0	<input type="checkbox"/>
!=	≠	Not equal to	radius != 0	<input type="checkbox"/>

Estructura if-then

It is the most basic of the selection structures.

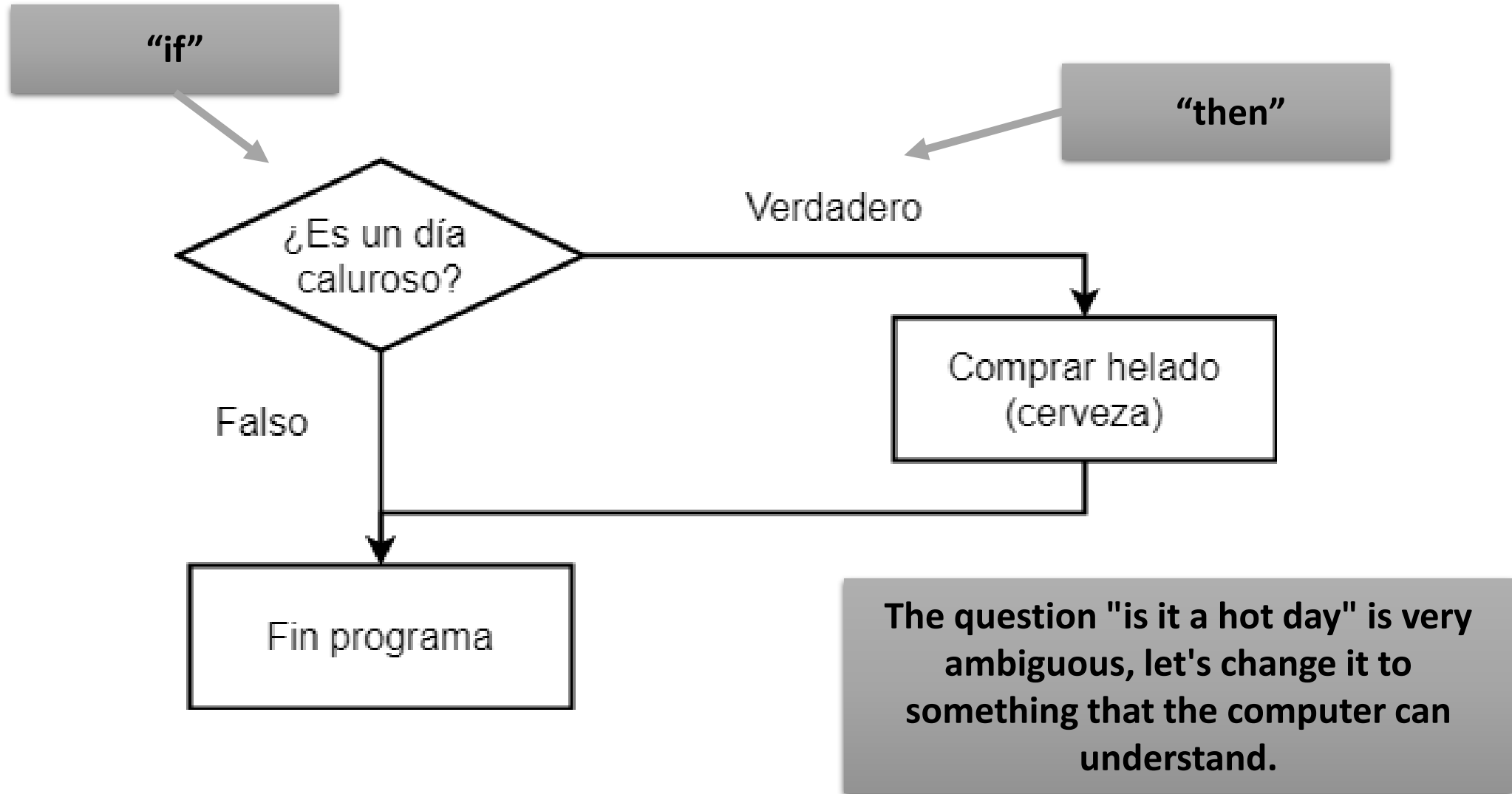
Its operation is as follows:

If a particular condition is true, then the "then" portion is executed; otherwise, the "then" portion is not executed.

Example:

Similar to natural languages where you can say: Is it a hot day?
So, I buy an ice cream (a beer).

Estructura if-then – II



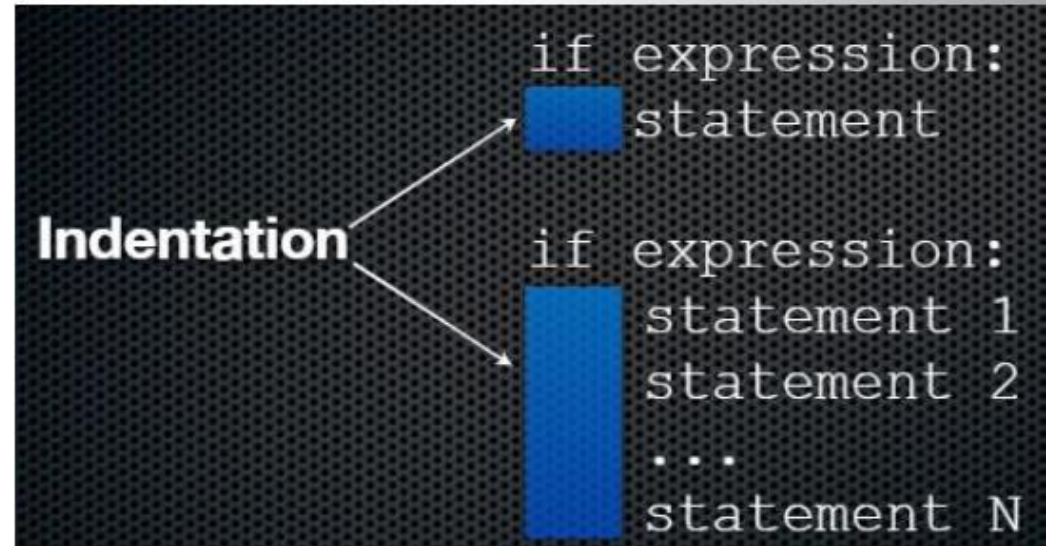
Pseudo-Code ice cream example

Pseudo-code program

```
Read temp
If temp > 27 then
    Print "Buy ice cream (beer)"
Print "End of program"
```

Sintax Python

- The tab is the space that tells the program what is or is not part of the If condition.
- All expressions that are indented will be included within this condition.



The diagram shows two examples of Python code with indentation. The word "Indentation" is written in white on the left. Two white arrows point from it to two code snippets. The top snippet shows a single line of code: `if expression: statement`, with a blue rectangular highlight under the word `statement`. The bottom snippet shows a block of code: `if expression: statement 1 statement 2 ... statement N`, with a blue rectangular highlight under the entire block of indented statements.

```
if expression:
    statement
```

Indentation

```
if expression:
    statement 1
    statement 2
    ...
    statement N
```


Python Code

Structure If-then-else

- The If-then structure is very necessary to change the flow control of a program (offer several paths).
- However, what happens if the program is required to do something in both alternatives: true case and false case.
- Example: if the total number of approved credits is greater than or equal to 120, the person graduates; otherwise he does not graduate.

Pseudo-Code example

Pseudo-code program

Read credits

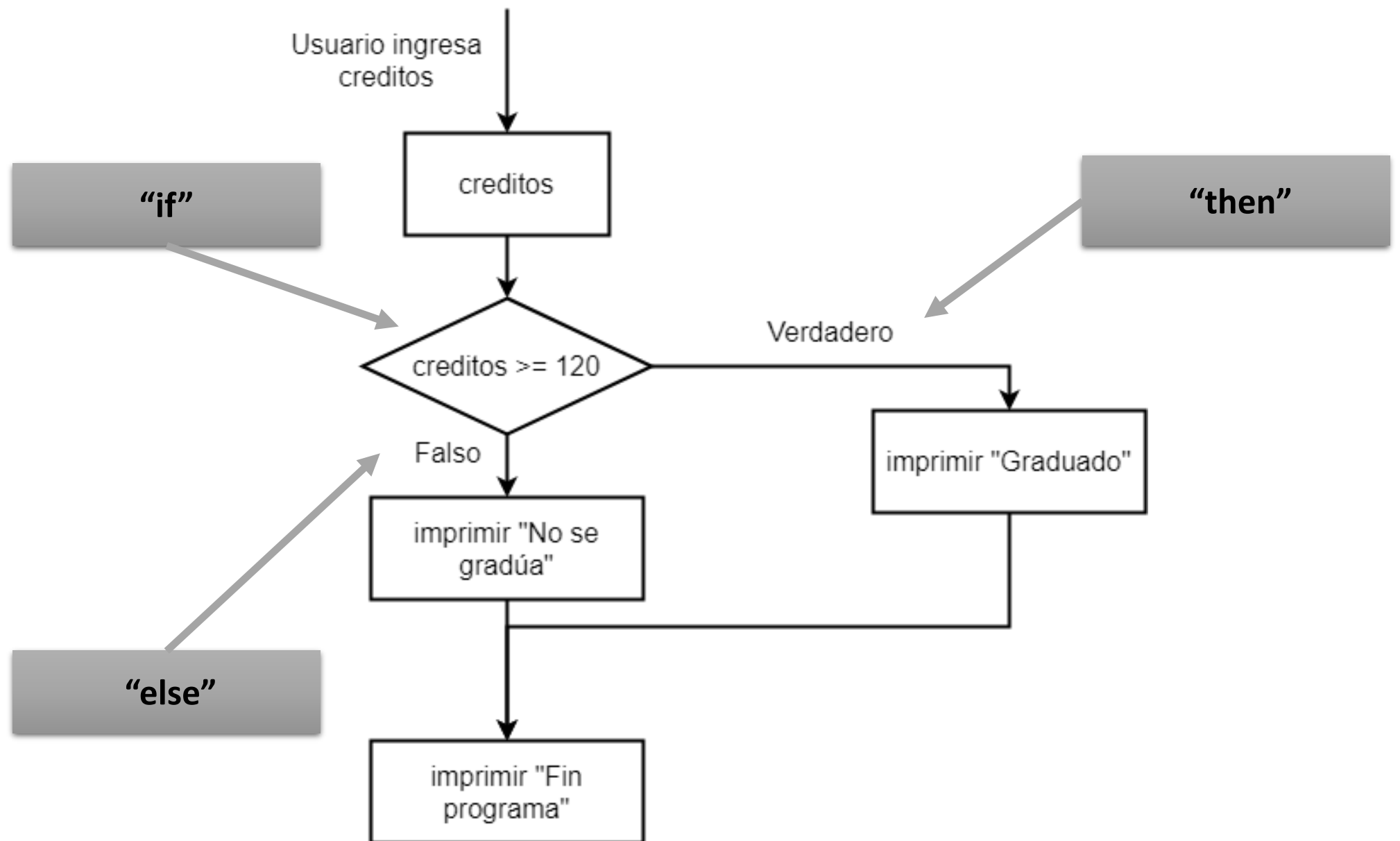
If credits \geq 120 Then

 Print "Graduated"

But

 Print "Not graduating"

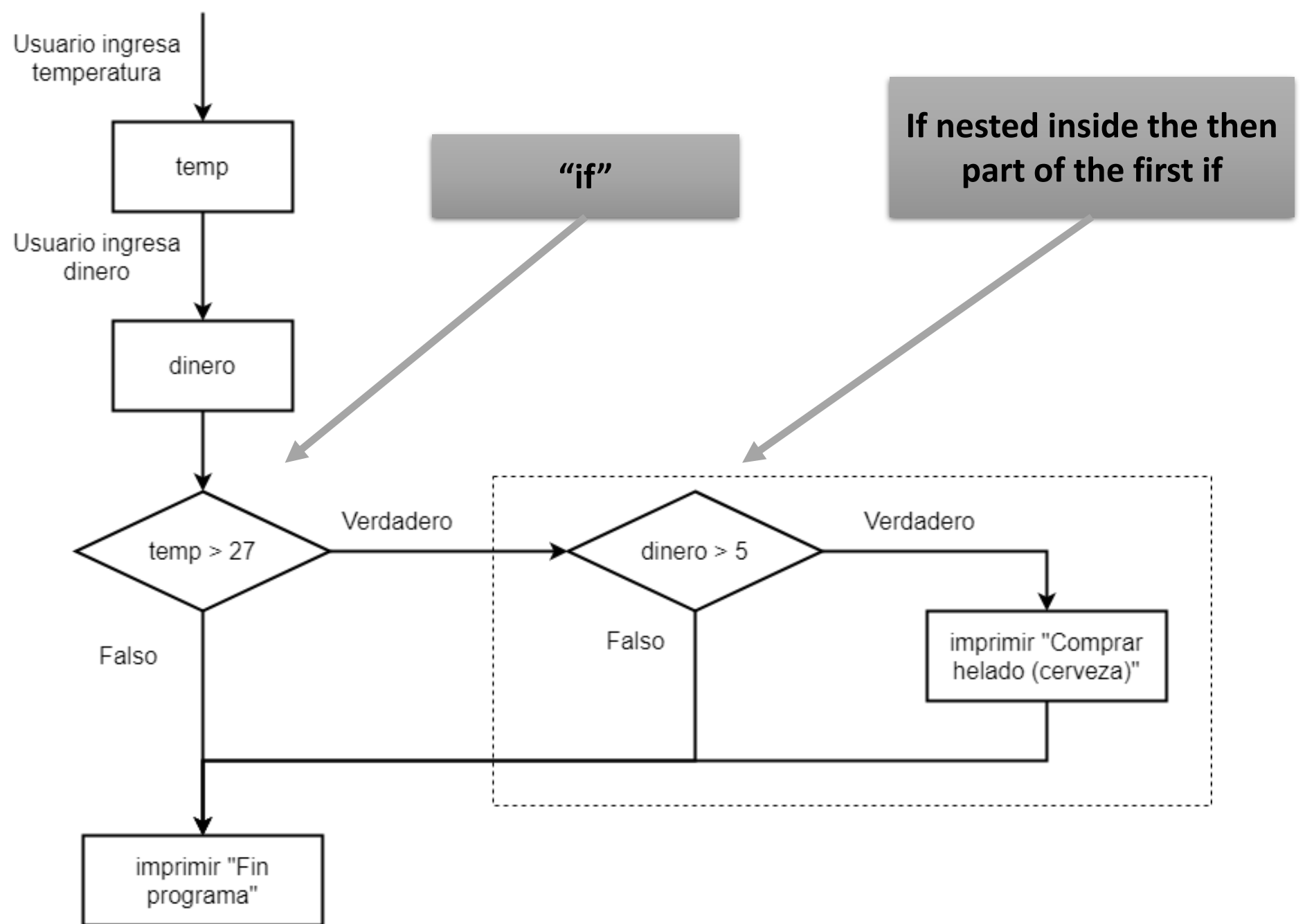
Print "End of program"



Nested if

It is also possible to contain ifs, within other ifs. Let's look at the following example





Logical operators

- In many cases, nested ifs can be "summarized" by using logical operators.
- Logical operators are used for Boolean algebra operations, that is, to describe logical relationships, expressed as true or false.
- Java provides three fundamental logical operators, called: "and" (&&), "or" (||), and "not" (!).
- Let's see how to use them to reduce the number of lines of code in the previous example.

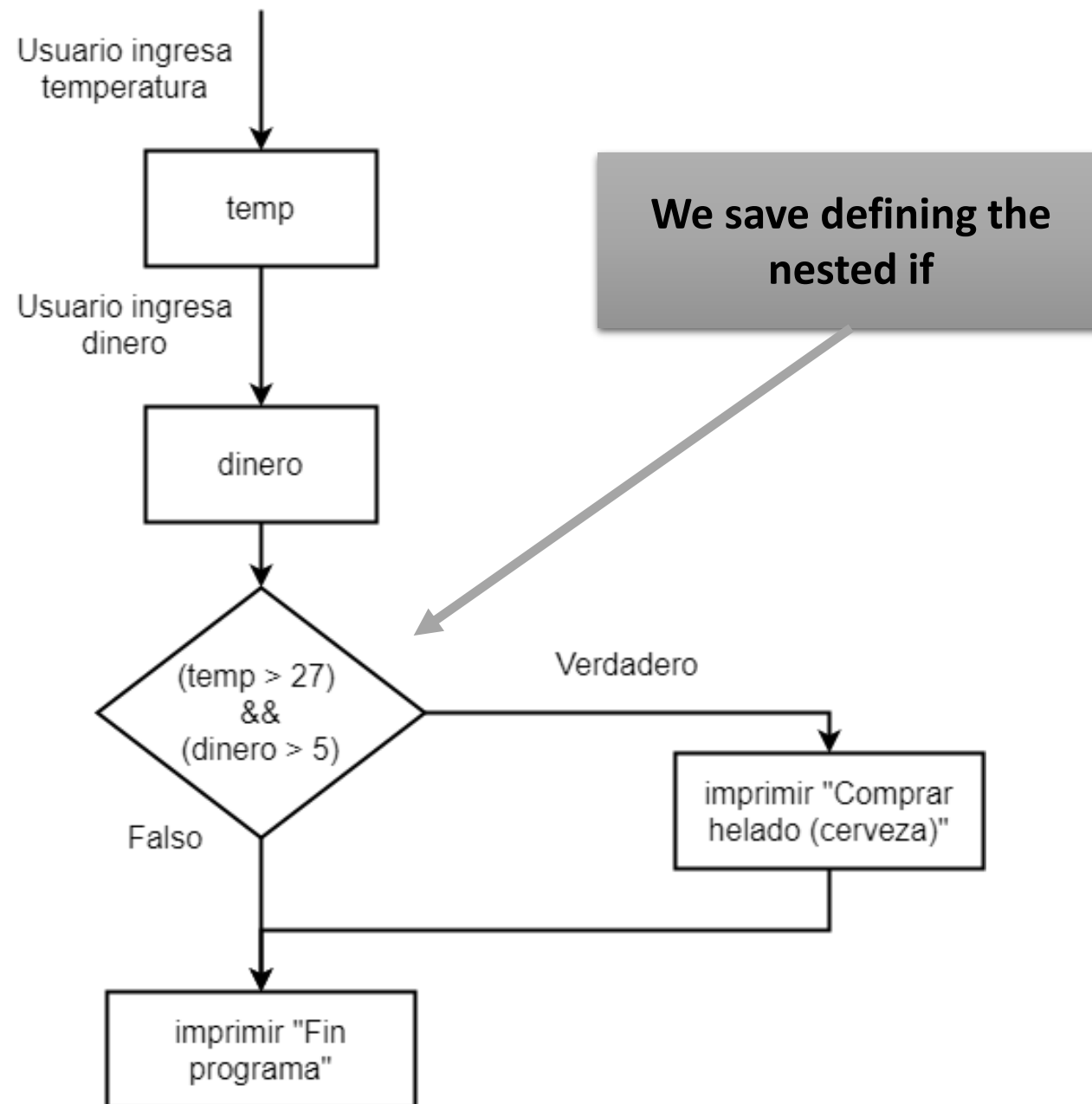


Table of truth

Table 3.2 Truth table for the and operation

c	d	c and d
F	F	F
F	T	F
T	F	F
T	T	T

Table 3.3 Truth table for the or operation

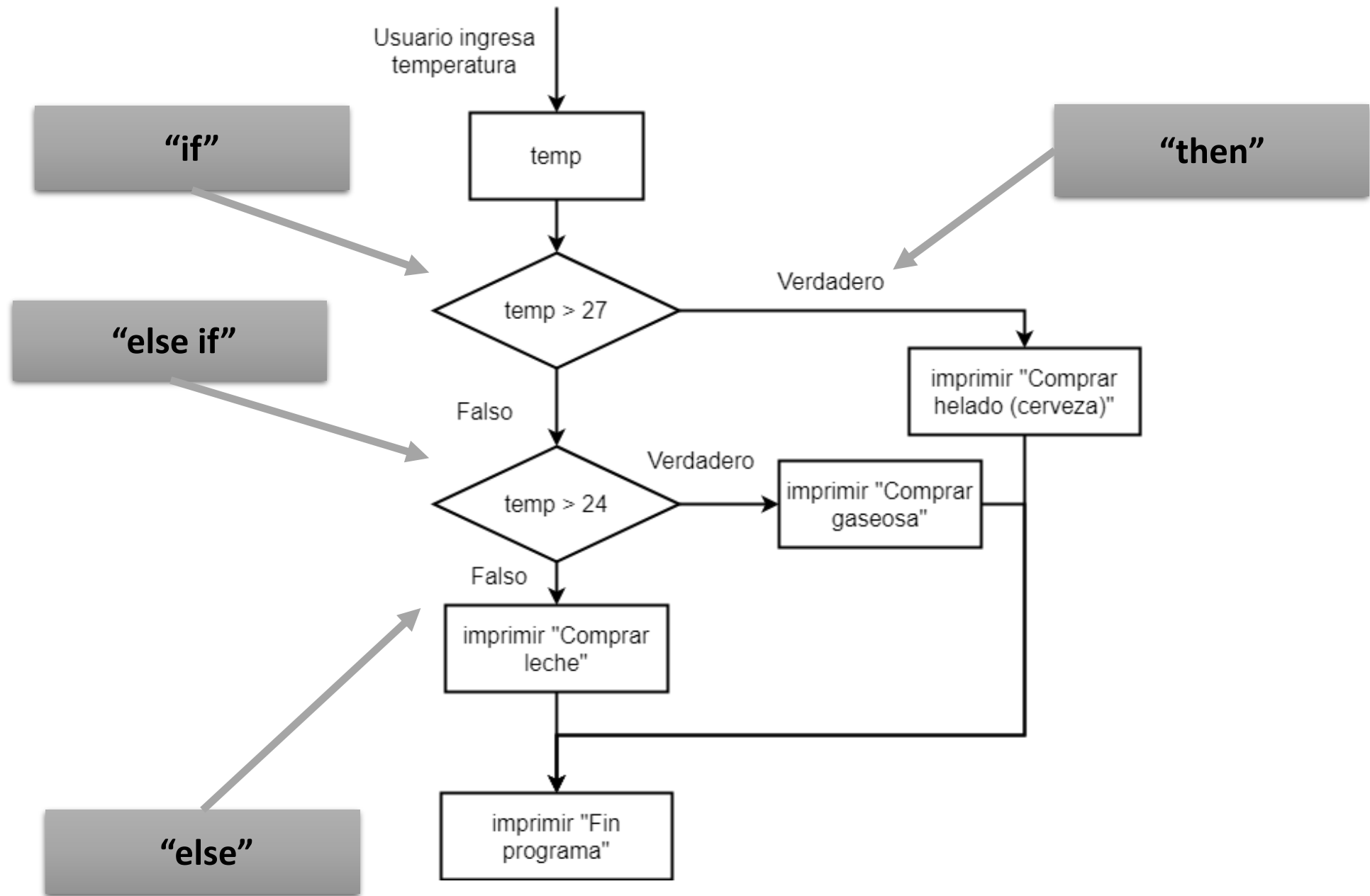
a	c	a or c
F	F	F
F	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T

Table 3.4 Truth table for the not operation

c	not c
F	T
T	F

Structure If-then-else if-...

- The If-then-else if-... structure It allows us to offer multiple paths depending on multiple checks.
- The else if is used to add a new condition in case the previous condition is not met (is false).
- An if statement can include any number of else if blocks.
- "else if" means (otherwise, if ...).
- At most, a single else if is executed, and that else if will be executed only if all of the above conditions were evaluated as false.
- Example: if the temperature is higher than 27 we buy ice cream (beer); otherwise, if the temperature is higher than 24 we buy soda; Otherwise, we buy milk.



Exercise 2

Prompt the user for a password and verify that it has the following characters

First capital letter

At least one numeric digit

At least one of these symbols: @"\$%&

At least 10 digits

Basic Elements II – Lists

Similar to a string that can store a group of characters, an array can be used to store a group of numbers of type int or double.

Arrays can not only store numbers, but can also be used to store a group of strings, objects, and even other arrays.

The arrangements are extremely useful for:

- Group data.

- Reduce the definition of variables.

- Among others.

Basic Elements II – Lists

- Suppose you want to store the value of 100 whole numbers (ages 100 people).
- With what has been seen so far, we would have to define 100 int variables, and store in each of them the value of each age of each person.
- With an array or Lists in Python, we can define a single variable, which has a size of 100, and store in it all 100 ages.

Basic Elements II – Lists

- Mutable and organized set of elements.
- It is declared and represented by enclosing the members in square brackets.
- The items in a list are variable, and you can add and remove items at any time.
- Its elements can be modified.
- Range of elements: 0 to length-1
- May have repeated items

Basic Elements II – Lists

$a = [0.056, 38.65, -6.09, 1.267, -51.2]$

Representación interna:

a	0.056	38.65	-6.09	1.267	-51.2
	0	1	2	3	4

Basic elements II – Lists – Functions and methods

- `lista.index(elem)` - Returns the position of the item in the list. If it is not, an exception is thrown.
- `list[i]` - Access the item at position `i`.
- `elem in list` - Determines whether or not an item is in the list.
- `lista.count(elem)` - Number of times an item appears in the list.

Basic elements II – Lists – Functions and methods

- `len(list)` - returns the size of the list (num. elements).
- `list.append(element)` - Adds an element at the end of the list.
- `L1.extend(L2)` - Adds to L1 all elements of L2.
- `list1 + list2` - produces a list with the items of both.
- `list.insert(pos,elem)` - inserts an element into a position.
- `lista.remove(elem)` - Deletes the first appearance of the element.
- `lista.sort()` - Sorts the list
- `lista.reverse()` - Reverses the order of the items in the list
- `lista.pop()` - Deletes and returns the last item
- `+` (concatenate) and `*` (repeat): Ex. `list1 = list2 * 3`

Basic elements II – Lists – Slicing

- As in Strings, it is a shorthand way to obtain subsequences from sequences
- Existing
- Syntax: sequence [start:end:break]
- If start is not specified, it is understood from 0, if no end is specified,
- is understood until the end of the sequence
- Examples:

```
preposiciones = ['a', 'ante', 'bajo', 'cabe', 'con', 'contra', 'de', 'desde', 'en']
a = preposiciones [1:5] # copia de la posicion 1 a la 4
a=['ante', 'bajo', 'cabe', 'con']
b = preposiciones [4:] # copia de la posicion 4 al final
b=['con', 'contra', 'de', 'desde', 'en']
c = preposiciones [:3] # copia de la posicion 0 a la 2
c=['a', 'ante', 'bajo']
d = preposiciones [:] # hace un duplicado
```

Exercise 1

From the list

```
L1=['abc', 123, [456, 'd', 'e', 'f', [7, 8, 9],['g','h','i']], 10, 'j', 'k'],
```

create

```
L2=[['abc', 456, 7], 'def', [8, 9], 'g', 'h', [10, 'j', 'k']]
```

Using Indexing Methods (Slicing)

Basic Elements II – Dictionaries

- A data structure with no order between elements, and in which access is determined by a unique key that is associated with each value.
- The key is often a text string, although it can be any of Python's immutable types.
- Key types: boolean, integer, float, tuple, string ...
- Dictionaries are mutable: you can add, delete, and change their items

Basic Elements II – Dictionaries

- To create a dictionary, square brackets ({}) are used around comma-separated key:value pairs.
- The simplest dictionary is a `var dict = {}` which contains no key or value at all:

- Example

`my_dict = {}` *empty dictionary*

`grades = {'Ana': 'B', 'John': 'A+', 'Denise': 'A', 'Katy': 'A'}`

↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑
key1 val1 key2 val2 key3 val3 key4 val4

Basic elements II – Dictionaries - Operations

- Add an element: simply refer to the item by its key and assign it a value.
- If the key was already in the dictionary, the existing value is replaced with the new one, if the key is new, it is added to the dictionary with its value.
- Impossible to err by specifying an out-of-range index.
- Delete an item: use `from`. Example: `del bierce['dia']`
- Restart by deleting all items: `clear`. Example: `bierce.clear()`
- Key membership: `in`. Example: `'Ana' in grades` (example above)
- Number of elements: `len(dictionary)`
- Replica: `new dictionary = dictionary.copy()`

Basic elements II – Dictionaries - Operations

- Key list: `keys`. Example: `grades.keys()`
- Returns an object of type `dict keys`, which is an iterable form of list. You can convert to list with `list()`.
- List of values: `values`. Example: `grades.values()`
- Returns an object of type `dict values`, an iterable form of list. Example: `for item in x.values(): print item`
- List of items: like values and keys, it is iterable: `dictionary.items()`

Basic elements II

list

vs

dict

- **ordered** sequence of elements
- look up elements by an integer index
- indices have an **order**
- index is an **integer**

- **matches** “keys” to “values”
- look up one item by another item
- **no order** is guaranteed
- key can be any **immutable** type

Basic Elements II – Cycles

- Suppose you are asked to display the message "Welcome to Python" 100 times.
- How do we solve it with what we have seen so far?
- `print("Welcome to Python")`
- `print("Welcome to Python")`
- `print("Welcome to Python")`
- `print("Welcome to Python")`
- ...

Basic Elements II – Cycles

- Fortunately, Python provides structures called "loops".
- Loops allow you to control how many times an operation is performed, or a sequence of operations.
- Using a loop, the computer can be told to display a text a hundred times without having to encode "the print statement" a hundred times. Let's see an example:
- `for i in range(100):`
- `print("Welcome to Python")`

Initialization

inicialización
variable de control

Test

$i = 0$

condición sobre
variable de control

Falso

Verdadero

cuerpo del bucle

cambio en la variable
de control

imprimir "Fin
programa"

Change

$i < 100$

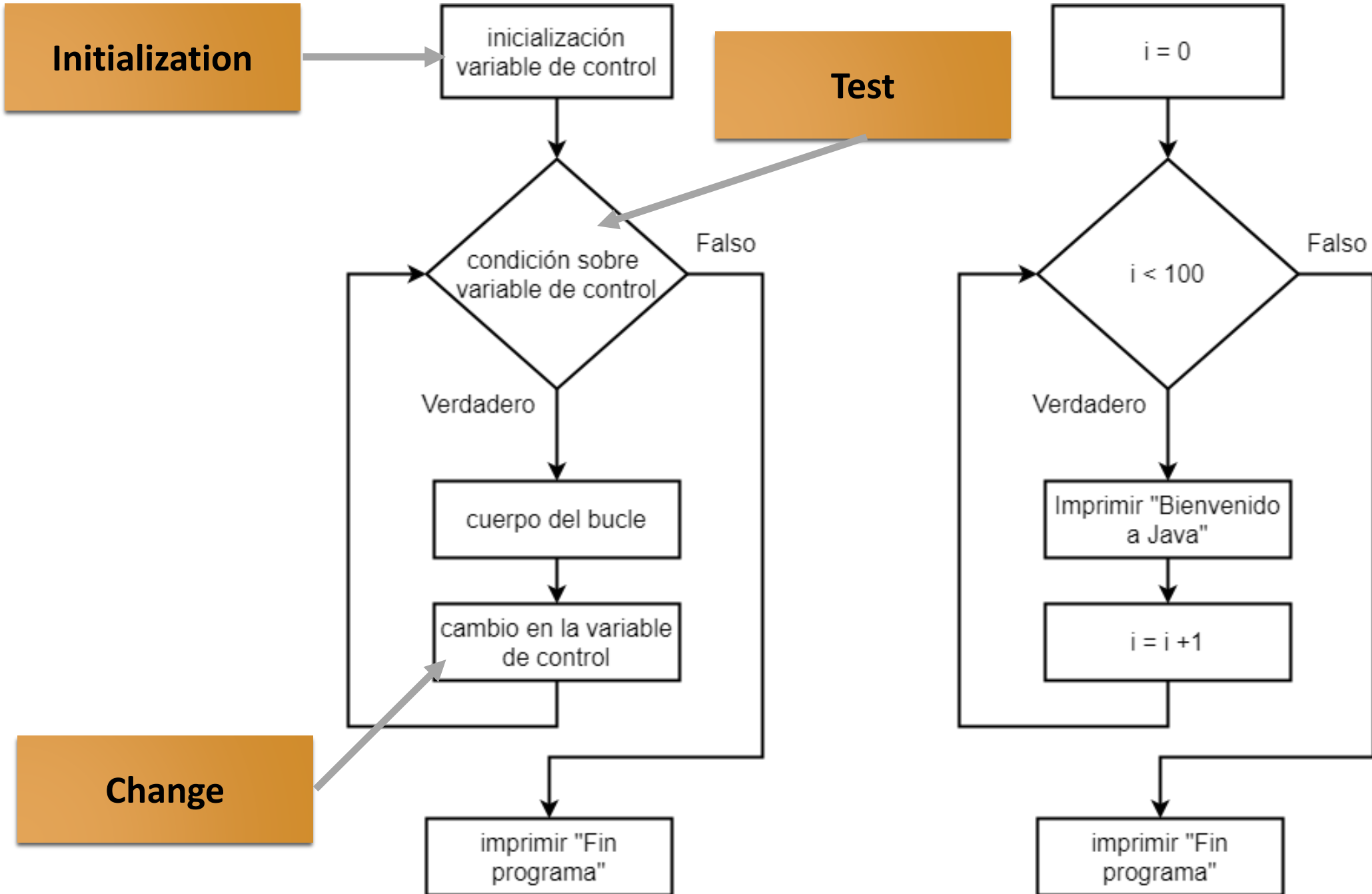
Falso

Verdadero

Imprimir "Bienvenido
a Java"

$i = i + 1$

imprimir "Fin
programa"



Basic Elements II – Cycles

- In Python we will have two types of cycles: For and While. The syntax for each is as follows:

```
for <variable> in range(<some_num>):  
    <expression>  
    <expression>
```

```
while<condition>:  
    <expression>  
    <expression>
```


Elementos básicos II – Ciclo for

For the range(start,stop,step):

start = 0 and step = 1 (optional) by default and stop -1 to end the cycle.

```
for i in range(10): # For each number in the range of 0 to 10 do what is bellow
    print('i is equal to', i)
my_list = [1, 3, 5, 7, 9] # Create a list of numbers

for i in my_list: # For each element in the variable my_list do what is bellow
    value = i * 2
    print('value',value)
```



Indentation

Elementos básicos II – Ciclo for

Visualize each step:

<https://pythontutor.com/python-debugger.html#mode=edit>

Python Tutor: Visualize code in [Python](#), [JavaScript](#), [C](#), [C++](#), and [Java](#)

The screenshot displays the Python Tutor debugger interface. At the top, it says "Python 3.6" with a link to "known limitations". The code being executed is a for loop:

```
1 for i in range(10):  
2     print('valor de i :', i)
```

 A green arrow points to line 2, indicating it is the current step. A red arrow points to line 1, indicating it is the next line to execute. Below the code, there is a legend: a green arrow for "line that just executed" and a red arrow for "next line to execute". A progress bar shows the current step is 9 of 21. Navigation buttons include "<< First", "< Prev", "Next >", and "Last >>". Below the progress bar, it says "Step 9 of 21". At the bottom, it says "Visualized with pythontutor.com", "NEW: [subscribe](#) to our YouTube", and "[Move and hide objects](#)". On the right side, there is a "Print output" box showing the output of the first four iterations:

```
valor de i : 0  
valor de i : 1  
valor de i : 2  
valor de i : 3
```

 Below the print output, there are two tabs: "Frames" and "Objects". The "Frames" tab is active, showing a "Global frame" with the variable `i` set to `3`.

Basic elements II – While cycle

A while loop executes instructions repeatedly while the condition is true.

```
initialization-variable-control  
while (condition-variable-control) {  
    body of the while  
    change-variable-control  
}
```

It evaluates <condition> (Boolean), if it <condition> is True, executes all the steps inside the while block. Evaluate <condition> again and repeat until <condition> False

Basic elements II – While cycle

A while loop executes instructions repeatedly while the condition is true.

```
count = 10

while count > 0: # While the variable count is greater than 0 do what is bellow
    print('count', count)
    count = count - 1
```

It evaluates <condition> (Boolean), if it <condition> is True, executes all the steps inside the while block. Evaluate <condition> again and repeat until <condition> False

Basic Elements II – Cycles

for VS while LOOPS

for loops

- **know** number of iterations
- can **end early** via `break`
- uses a **counter**
- **can rewrite** a `for` loop using a `while` loop

while loops

- **unbounded** number of iterations
- can **end early** via `break`
- can use a **counter but must initialize** before loop and increment it inside loop
- **may not be able to rewrite** a `while` loop using a `for` loop

Exercises

Using While and For cycles

print odd numbers from 1 to 19

Print even numbers 20 through 2.

Exercises*

- Develop code that prompts the user for a word.
- If the word is "sum", ask the user for two numbers and then add them up (print the result on the screen).
- If the word is "subtract", ask the user for two numbers and then subtract them (print the result on the screen).
- If the word is "square", ask the user for a number and then find the square (print the result on the screen).
- If the word is "exit", finish the execution.

Nested cycles

- Like conditionals, cycles can also be nested.
- Even a cycle can be nested inside a conditional, and vice versa.
- When nesting a cycle within another cycle, certain aspects must be considered.
- Let's look at the following example.

Nested cycles

```
1 i = 1
2 while(i<=3):
3     j=1
4     while(j<=2):
5         print('valor i: ', i, 'valor de j: ', j)
6         j+=1
7     i+=1
8 print('fin')
```

Nested cycles

- Perform the above code but with for cycles

Nested cycles

- *Each iteration must have its own control variable.*
- *if you use the same control variable for nested cycles you will most likely end up with infinite loops*

Functions

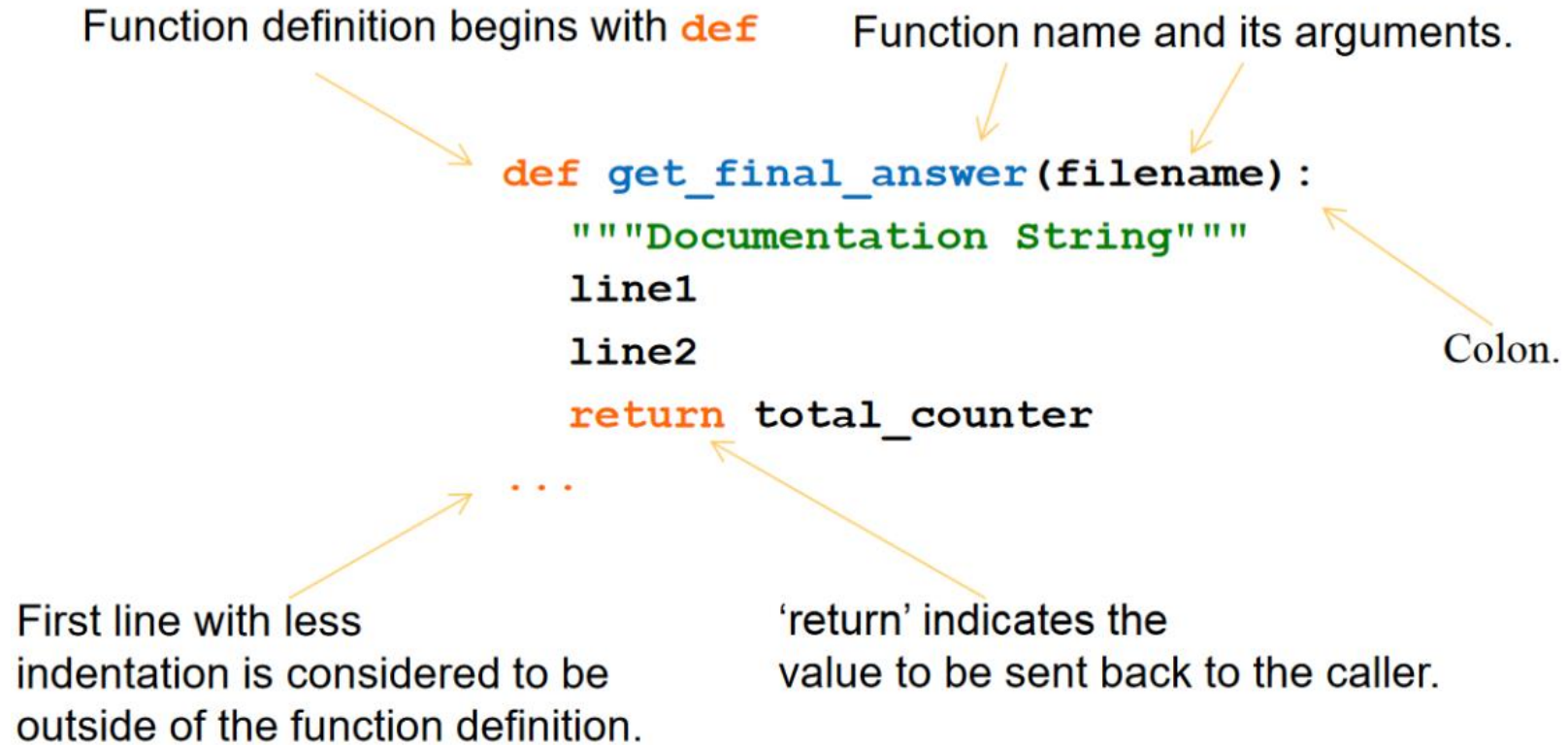
Typing the same instructions multiple times can be tedious. One solution is to join the instructions into a function that behaves like functions in mathematics: giving input arguments yields an answer or output.

A subroutine (also called a procedure, function, routine, method, or subprogram) is a piece of code within a larger program that performs a specific task and is relatively independent of the remaining code.

Functions - Features

- It has a unique name
- It has parameters (from 0 to n)
- Has documentation (optional but recommended)
- Has a body where instructions recur
- Can return something (or be an empty function)

Functions - Definition



Functions – Definition – Example

```
# This function sum a list of number e return it
def sum_numbers(numbers):
    count = 0
    for number in numbers:
        count = count + number
    return count
```

```
number_list = [2,4,6,8]
result = sum_numbers(number_list)
```

Functions – Exercise 1

- It implements a function that, given a temperature f in degrees Fahrenheit, returns the temperature in degrees Celsius c , that is, $c = 5(f - 32)/9$.

Functions – Exercise 2

- It implements a function called `area_rectangulo(base, height)` that returns the area of the rectangle from a base and a height. Calculates the area of a rectangle 15 base and 10 high.

Types of Functions - Return

```
In [1]: def repite_conretorno(caracter='-', repite=3):  
...:     return caracter * repite
```

```
In [2]: repite_conretorno()  
Out[2]: '---'
```

```
In [3]: x = repite_conretorno()
```

```
In [4]: x  
Out[4]: '---'
```



Cuando tenemos un return, podemos asignar el valor resultante a un nuevo objeto.

```
In [5]: def repite_sinretorno(caracter='-', repite=3):  
...:     print(caracter * repite)
```

```
In [6]: repite_sinretorno()  
---
```

```
In [7]: y = repite_sinretorno()  
---
```

```
In [8]: y
```



Si no tenemos un return, el objeto al que asignamos el valor resultante no guarda ningún valor.

Types of Functions - Arguments

```
In [1]: def area_triangulo(base, altura):  
...:     ''' Calcular el área de un triangulo'''  
...:     return base * altura / 2
```



Los dos parámetros son obligatorios. Si alguno falta habrá una excepción.

```
In [2]: area_triangulo(6, 4)  
Out[2]: 12.0
```

```
In [3]: area_triangulo(6)  
Traceback (most recent call last):
```


```
File "<ipython-input-3-4f014e311e94>", line 1, in <module>  
    area_triangulo(6)
```

```
TypeError: area_triangulo() missing 1 required positional argument:  
'altura'
```

Types of Functions - Arguments

```
In [1]: def cociente(num, denom):  
...:     ''' Calcular el cociente '''  
...:     return num / denom
```


```
In [2]: cociente(6, 3)  
Out[2]: 2.0
```



La llamada a la función se realiza explicitando el valor de las variables en el mismo orden de la definición.

```
In [3]: cociente(num = 6, denom = 3)  
Out[3]: 2.0
```

```
In [4]: cociente(denom = 3, num = 6)  
Out[4]: 2.0
```



Pero podemos modificar el orden de las variables en la llamada a la función si especificamos sus nombres.

Types of Functions - Arguments

```
In [1]: def distancia(*tramos):  
...:     ''' Suma distancia de tramos  
...:     total = 0  
...:     for distancia in tramos:  
...:         total = total + distancia  
...:     return total
```



El asterisco indica que cada vez podemos especificar un número distinto de valores.

```
In [2]: distancia(2,3)  
Out[2]: 5
```

```
In [3]: distancia(2,3,4)  
Out[3]: 9
```

```
In [4]: distancia(2,3,4,5)  
Out[4]: 14
```

Types of Functions - Arguments

```
In [1]: def pagar(importe, dto_aplicado = 5):  
...:     ''' La función aplica descuentos '''  
...:     return importe - (importe * dto_aplicado / 100)
```

Si no se indica otra cosa, el descuento aplicado será del 5%.



```
In [2]: pagar(1000)  
Out[2]: 950.0
```

```
In [3]: pagar(1000, 10)  
Out[3]: 900.0
```

Especificamos que el descuento aplicado será del 10%.



Types of Functions - Arguments

```
In [1]: def repite_caracter(caracter="-", repite=3):  
...:     return caracter * repite
```

En este caso todos los argumentos tienen valores por defecto.

```
In [2]: repite_caracter()  
Out[2]: '---'
```

```
In [3]: repite_caracter('.',30)  
Out[3]: '.....'
```

```
In [4]: repite_caracter(repite=10, caracter='*')  
Out[4]: '*****'
```

Types of Functions - Return

```
In [1]: def distancia2(*tramos):  
....:     ''' Suma distancia de tramos '''  
....:     total = 0  
....:     for distancia in tramos:  
....:         total = total + distancia  
....:     media = total / len(tramos)  
....:     return total, media
```

```
In [2]: distancia2(2,3,4)  
Out[2]: (9, 3.0)
```



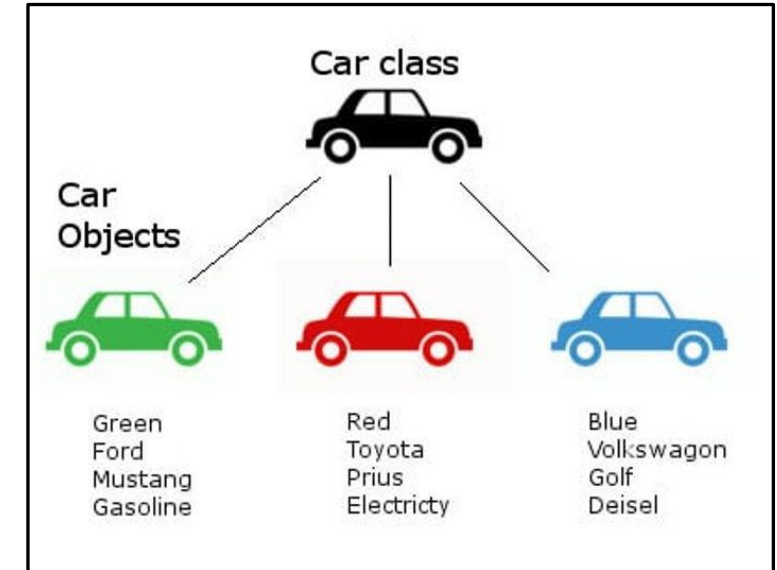
Devolvemos una tupla con dos valores: la suma de los tramos y la distancia media de los tramos.

Introduction to object-oriented programming

Object-oriented programming languages (OOP) are based on a grouping of objects of different classes that interact with each other and, together, get a program to fulfill its purpose. In this programming paradigm we try to emulate the functioning of the objects that surround us in real life. OOP is essentially a way to develop reusable software.

OOP – Features

- OOP organizes programs in a way that represents the interaction of things in the real world.
- In OOP, a program consists of a set of objects.
- In OOP, objects are abstractions of things in the real world.
- In OOP, each object is responsible for some tasks.
- In OOP, each object is an instance of a class.
- In OOP, classes can be organized into an inheritance hierarchy (see below).
- OO programming is a simulation of a model of the universe.



OOP – Features

- Abstraction: An element can be isolated from the rest of the elements and its context to focus interest on what it does and not on how it does it (black box).
- Modularity: A tool can be divided into smaller, independent, reusable parts called modules.
- Encapsulation: It consists of gathering all the possible elements of an entity at the same level of abstraction to increase cohesion, with the possibility of hiding the attributes of an object (in Python, they are only hidden in appearance).
- Inheritance: A class inherits the characteristics of a higher class to obtain similar objects. Both attributes and methods are inherited. The latter can be overwritten to suit the needs of the new class.
- Polymorphism: Similar behaviors, although associated with different objects, always follow the same patterns.

OOP – Objects

- OOP involves programming using objects. An object represents a real-world entity that can be clearly identified.
- For example: a student, a desk, a circle, a house, a car, any specific object.
- Each object has a unique identity, properties (attributes), and behaviors (methods).

OOP – Objects - Properties

Properties (attributes):

Represent data with values belonging to the object.

For example: a student object could have: name, age, gender, email, among others.

OOP – Objects - Behaviors

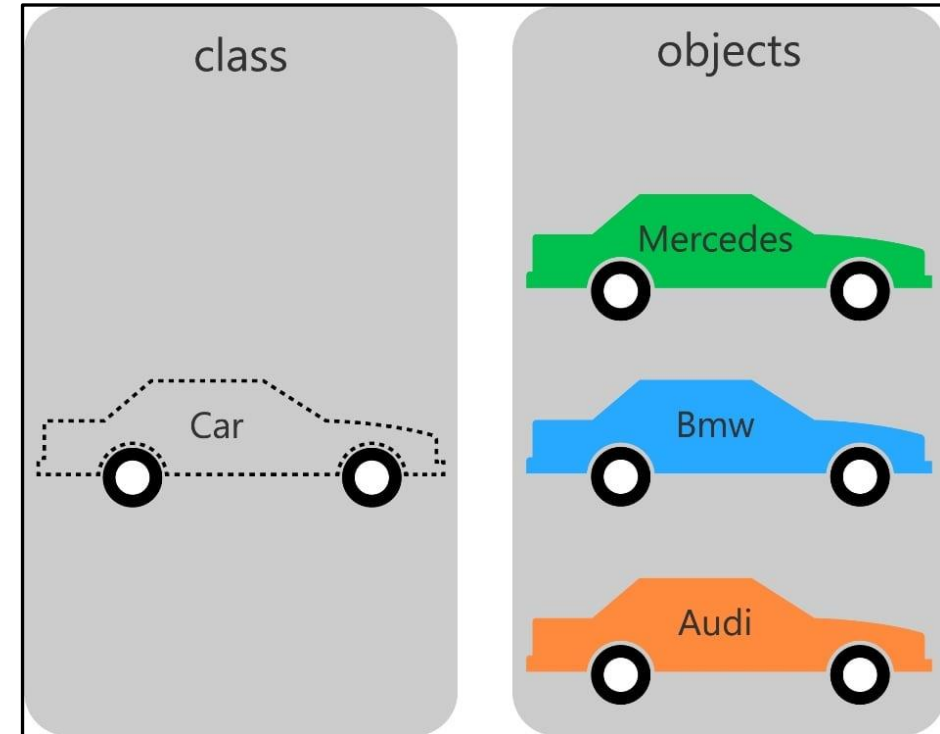
Behaviors (methods):

They represent actions or methods. Each object can invoke or execute different types of actions.

For example: a circle object could invoke methods such as `getArea()` – to get the area of the circle. Or `getPerimeter()` to get the perimeter.

OOP – Classes

- Objects of the same type are defined using a common class.
- A class is a template, model, or contract that defines what the attributes and methods of an object will be.
- An object is an instance of a class.
- A developer can create many instances of a class.
- Creating an instance is known as instantiation.

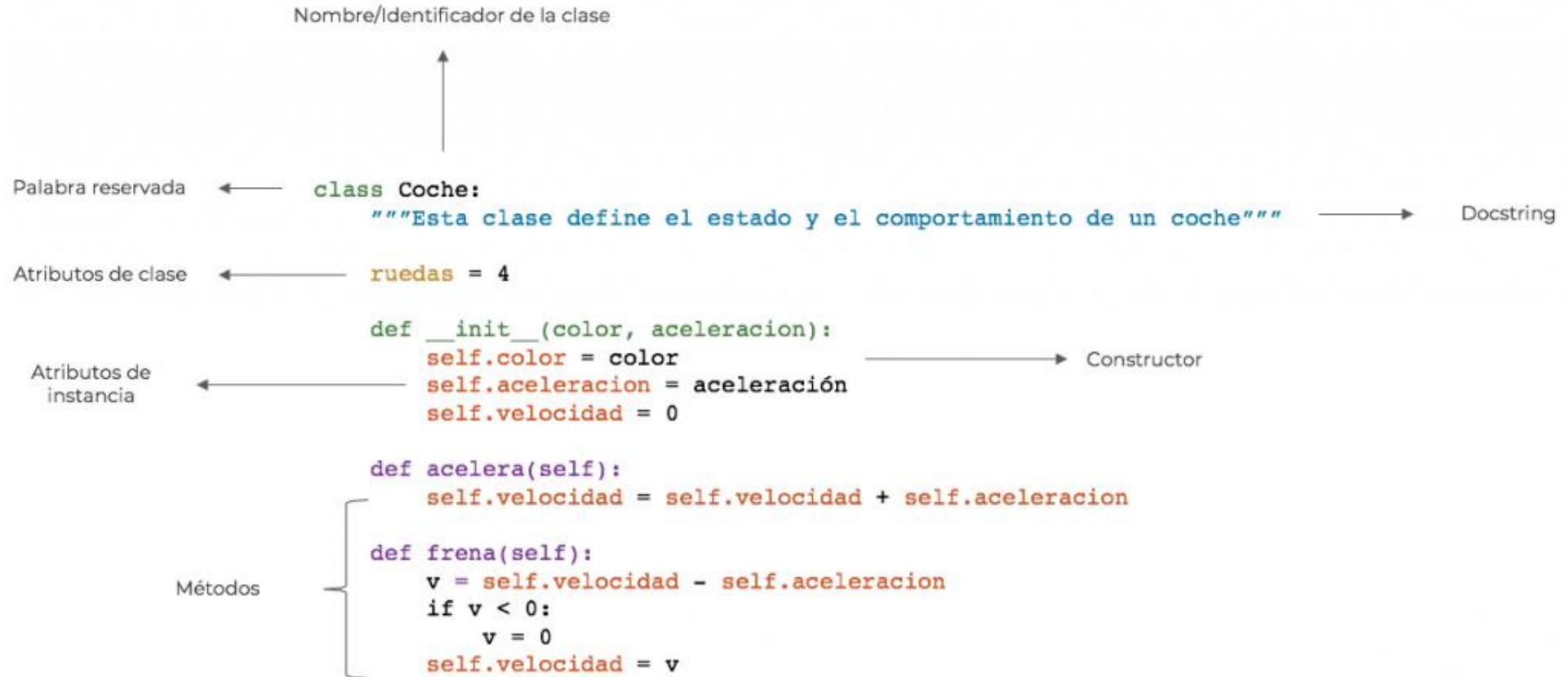


OOP – Classes - Definition

As function definitions begin with the `def` keyword, in Python, define a class using the *class* keyword. The first string is called docstring and has a brief description about the class. Although not mandatory, it is recommended.

As soon as we define a class, a new class object with the same name is created. This class object allows us to access the different attributes as well as to instantiate new objects of that class.

OOP – Classes - Definition



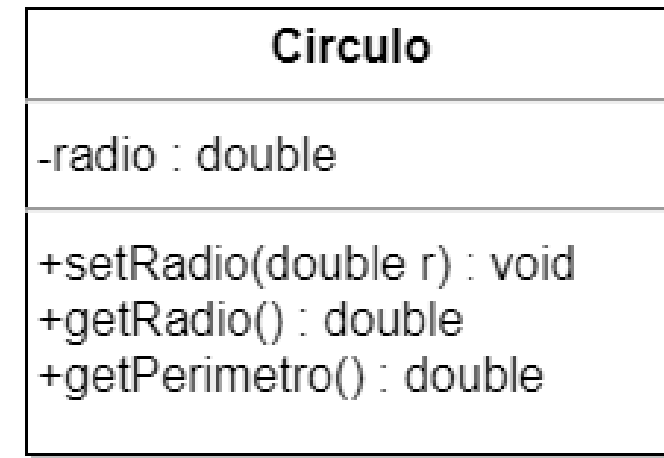
OOP – Classes – Class Diagrams (UML)

- Used to represent system classes.
- It allows you to get an overview of my application without having to go looking at 200 files or more.
- It allows you to graphically observe how the different classes of my system are related (see below).
- It allows you to establish a design of my application and present it to other colleagues or stakeholders.

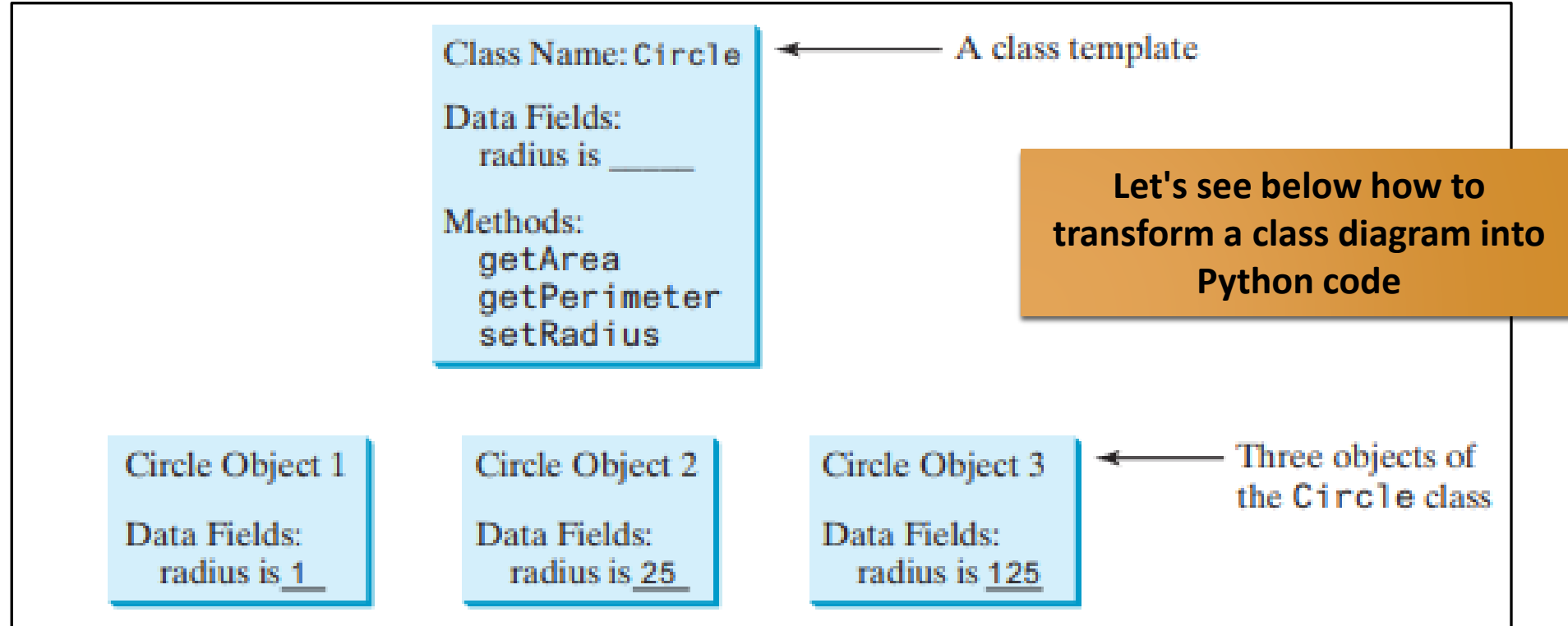
Circulo
-radio : double
+setRadio(double r) : void +getRadio() : double +getPerimetro() : double

OOP – Classes – Class Diagrams (UML)

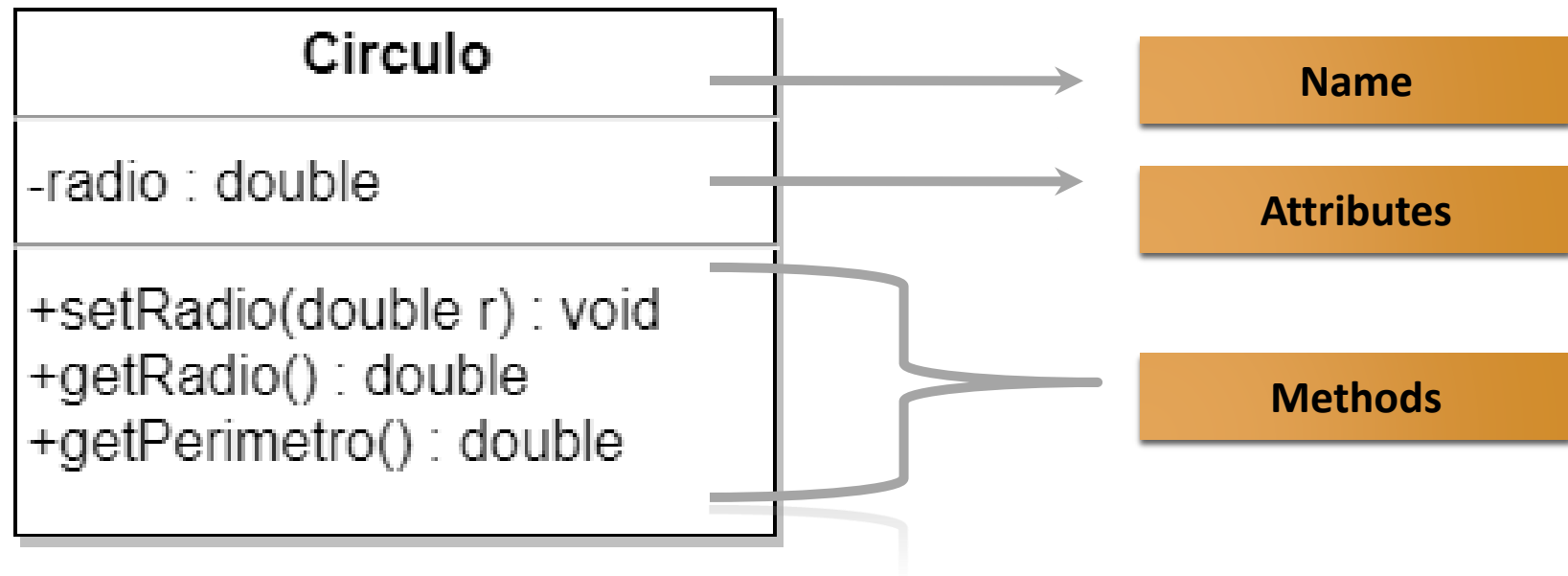
- In its simplest form, a class in UML is drawn as a rectangle divided into up to three sections.
- The top section contains the name of the class (centered and singular).
- The middle section contains the attributes or properties of the class: visibility attributename : type
- The final section contains methods that represent the behavior exhibited by the class: visibility nameMethod(parameters) : typeReturn
- Note: The attributes and operations sections are optional.



OOP – Classes – Class Diagrams (UML)



OOP – Classes – Class Diagrams (UML)



OOP – Objects - Creation

An object (instance) is an "example" of a class. When the class is defined, only the description of the object is defined. Therefore, no memory or storage is allocated.

We saw that the class object could be used to access different attributes. It can also be used to create new instances of objects (instantiation) of that class. The procedure for creating an object is similar to a function call.

```
ob = MyClass()
```

Exercise 1

Create 3 circles using the previous class, assign them a radius and display the perimeter

OOP - Builders

The `__init__` method or constructors are used to initialize the state of the object. Like methods, a constructor also contains a collection of declarations (i.e., statements) that are executed at the time of Object creation (an object of a class is instantiated.) The method is useful for doing any initialization. You want to do with your object.

OOP – `__init__` Builders

The `__init__` method or constructors are used to initialize the state of the object. Like methods, a constructor also contains a collection of declarations (i.e., statements) that are executed at the time of Object creation (an object of a class is instantiated.) The method is useful for doing any initialization. You want to do with your object.

OOP – Method `__init__`

The `__init__` method is used to initialize the state of the object. Like method declarations (i.e. creation of an object) it is useful for

```
# A Sample class with init method
class Person:

    # init method or constructor
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    # Sample Method
    def say_hi(self):
        print('Hello, my name is', self.name)

p = Person('Nikhil')
p.say_hi()
```

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OOP – Self Method

You may have noticed the proper parameter in the function definition within the class, but we call the method simply as `ob.func()` without any arguments.

This is because, whenever an object calls its method, the object itself is like the first argument. So, `ob.func()` translates to `MyClass.func(ob)`

OOP – Self Method

In general, calling a method with a list of n arguments is equivalent to calling the corresponding function with a list of arguments that is created by inserting the method object before the first argument.

For these reasons, the first argument of the function in class must be the object itself. This is conventionally called `self`.

OOP – Self Method

```
class Dog:

    # Class Variable
    animal = 'dog'

    # The init method or constructor
    def __init__(self, breed, color):

        # Instance Variable
        self.breed = breed
        self.color = color

# Objects of Dog class
Rodger = Dog("Pug", "brown")
Buzo = Dog("Bulldog", "black")

print('Rodger details:')
print('Rodger is a', Rodger.animal)
print('Breed: ', Rodger.breed)
print('Color: ', Rodger.color)

print('\nBuzo details:')
print('Buzo is a', Rodger.animal)
print('Breed: ', Buzo.breed)
print('Color: ', Buzo.color)

# Class variables can be accessed using class
# name also
print("\nAccessing class variable using class name")
print(Dog.animal)
```

```
# Class for Dog
class Dog:

    # Class Variable
    animal = 'dog'

    # The init method or constructor
    def __init__(self, breed):

        # Instance Variable
        self.breed = breed

    # Adds an instance variable
    def setColor(self, color):
        self.color = color

    # Retrieves instance variable
    def getColor(self):
        return self.color

# Driver Code
Rodger = Dog("pug")
Rodger.setColor("brown")
print(Rodger.getColor())
```

Exercise 1

Create a class called "Parrot" that uses an init method to Assign two attributes (name, age). In this class, there are two methods. to assign behavior to the Parrot object, the functions "sing" and "dance" prints the name of the Parrot and the actions it performs (if sing or dance)

OOP - INHERITANCE

Inheritance is a mechanism in object-oriented programming for creating new classes from pre-existing classes. Attributes and behaviors are taken (inherited) from old classes and modified to model a new situation.

The old class is called the base class and the one built from it is a derived class.

For example, from a Person class (which contains as attributes identification, name, surname) we can build the AlumnoFIUBA class that extends to Person and adds as an attribute the standard.

OOP - INHERITANCE

To indicate the name of the base class, put it in parentheses after the name of the class (instead of the expression object that we put previously; actually object is the name of the generic base class).

We define person:

```
class Persona(object):  
    "Clase que representa una persona."  
    def __init__(self, identificacion, nombre, apellido):  
        "Constructor de Persona"  
        self.identificacion = identificacion  
        self.nombre = nombre  
        self.apellido = apellido  
    def __str__(self):  
        return " %s: %s, %s" %  
            (str(self.identificacion), self.apellido, self.nombre)
```


OOP - INHERITANCE

Next, we define StudentFIUBA as derived from Person, in such a way that it initializes the new attribute, but in turn uses the initialization of Person for the attributes of the base class:

```
class AlumnoFIUBA(Persona):  
    "Clase que representa a un alumno de FIUBA."  
    def __init__(self, identificacion, nombre, apellido, padron)  
        "Constructor de AlumnoFIUBA"  
        # llamamos al constructor de Persona  
        Persona.__init__(self, identificacion, nombre, apellido)  
        # agregamos el nuevo atributo  
        self.padron = padron
```

Probamos la nueva clase:

```
>>> a = AlumnoFIUBA("DNI 35123456", "Damien", "Thorn", "98765")  
>>> print a
```

OOP - INHERITANCE

- We try again:

```
>>> a = AlumnoFIUBA("DNI 35123456", "Damien", "Thorn", "98765")  
>>> print a  
98765: Thorn, Damien
```

OOP - INHERITANCE

From a base class many derived classes can be built, just as we have derived students, we could derive teachers, employees, customers, suppliers, or whatever was necessary according to the application we are developing.

Polymorphism

And we come to the last concept that we will see in this course on object-oriented programming in Python.

Polymorphism is the ability of an entity to reference instances of different classes at run time.

Although this concept sounds strange to you right now, you will understand it with an example. Imagine that we have the following classes that represent animals:

Polymorphism

```
1. class Perro:
2.     def sonido(self):
3.         print('Guauuuuu!!!')
4.
5. class Gato:
6.     def sonido(self):
7.         print('Miaaauuuu!!!')
8.
9. class Vaca:
10.    def sonido(self):
11.        print('Múuuuuuuuu!!!')
```

Polymorphism

- All three classes implement a method called `sound()`. Now look at the following script:

```
1. def a_cantar(animales):  
2.     for animal in animales:  
3.         animal.sonido()  
4.  
5. if __name__ == '__main__':  
6.     perro = Perro()  
7.     gato = Gato()  
8.     gato_2 = Gato()  
9.     vaca = Vaca()  
10.    perro_2 = Perro()  
11.    granja = [perro, gato, vaca, gato_2, perro_2]  
12.    a_cantar(granja)
```

Polymorphism

A function called `a_cantar()` has been defined in it. The animal variable that is created within the function's for loop is polymorphic, since at run time it will refer to objects of the Dog, Cat, and Cow classes. When the `sound()` method is invoked, the corresponding method of the class to which each animal belongs shall be called.