

Learn Python with Jupyter



Serena Bonaretti
www.learnpythonwithjupyter.com

Dear coder,

Thanks for your interest in *Learn Python with Jupyter*! I hope it will help you learn computational thinking and coding in Python!

The writing of *Learn Python with Jupyter* is a **work in progress**. I release a new chapter every 4-6 weeks, as I write the book around working hours. That is why it is taking a bit of time.

Learn Python with Jupyter is **open and free** and it will remain open and free. Upon completion of the book, I might publish a printed copy. That would have a (low) cost to cover printing and distribution.

You can find some information about the **construction** of *Learn Python with Jupyter* in this Jupyter Blog post: <https://blog.jupyter.org/introducing-learn-python-with-jupyter-11214f152159>. I will write more extensively about linguistic, pedagogical, and psychological aspects behind *Learn Python with Jupyter* in a future post.

If you have any comments or questions, please **email me** at serena@learnpythonwithjupyter.com, and I will be happy to reply.

Thank you for learning with me,

Serena

Learn Python with Jupyter

Serena Bonaretti

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www.learnpythonwithjupyter.com

Eccoci nuovamente insieme per imparare a leggere e a scrivere.
Io direi, però, di più: per imparare a conoscere meglio il mondo e noi stessi.

*Here we are again together to learn how to read and write.
Actually, I would go further: to learn to better understand the world and ourselves.*

—Alberto Manzi, Non è mai troppo tardi, *It's never too late*

Simple is better than complex.

—Tim Peters, The Zen of Python

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About this book

What will I learn in this book? In this book, you will learn to code in Python using Jupyter Notebook. Even more importantly, you will develop computational thinking, which is the way we think when coding.

What makes this book different? The topic progression in this book is designed according to computational thinking development while focusing on syntax and strategies, rather than listing disconnected language characteristics with isolated examples.

Is this book for me? If you have never coded before, if you are following online courses or videos but feel you can't quite grasp them, or if you need to better structure your Python and coding knowledge, this book is for you. Also, if you are training to become a scientist but are not very strong in coding, if you are transitioning to the Python/Jupyter environment from another programming language, or if you are a teacher looking for material, this book can be for you.

How is this book structured? The book is divided in 11 parts. The first part introduces the computational environment—that is, the Jupyter/Python environment. The following ten parts cover computational thinking and Python syntax. Each part contains two to five chapters, for a total of thirty-eight chapters.

How are chapters structured? Each chapter starts with one or more coding examples embedded in narrative and enriched with detailed explanations. In addition, each contains several theoretical and coding exercises. And they all finish with a recap to summarize the chapter's main concepts, and a "in more depth" section, with coding strategies or curiosities.

Why is code embedded in narratives? Stories provide context and allow long-term memorization. They are extensively used in learning foreign languages. And, in many respects, a programming language is a foreign language.

Why is there code pronunciation? When we code, we pronounce or mumble code within ourselves, and occasionally aloud with a colleague. Although coding has a strong vocal component, there is no defined standard for code pronunciation. The pronunciation proposed in this book is the optimized result of hours of one-on-one interaction with students of various mother tongues.

What kinds of exercises are in the book? In this book, you will find both theory exercises and coding exercises. Theory exercises are meant to strengthen code comprehension and syntax precision. Coding exercises are meant to make you practice and thus learn by doing.

What is on the website? On www.learnpythonwithjupyter.com, you can find Jupyter Notebooks associated with each chapter, so you can test and experiment while learning. You can also find a community, with solutions to both theory and coding exercises. You can ask questions and propose alternative solutions, to deepen your knowledge.

How do I use this book? Start with the first part, *Getting ready*, to install and learn the computational environment. Then, proceed with the chapters. For each chapter, download the corresponding notebook at www.learnpythonwithjupyter.com. Make sure you understand the syntax, play with

the code, and do the theoretical exercises. Read the recap and the “in more depth” sections, which will give you useful hints. Finally, do the coding exercises and compare your solutions with the ones you find in the community. Obviously, looking at a solution before completing an exercise weakens your chance of learning. If you do not understand questions or solutions, ask in the community. Take your time to solve each exercise. Missing the understanding of one chapter might compromise your understanding of the chapters that follow it.

How is the language used in this book? The language is colloquial and simple—but precise. There are clear definitions and careful explanations. I directly talk to you, but I use *we* when explaining syntax. We are in this together! Also, I use the first person when I want to share some hints I learned along the way.

INTRODUCTION

In this part, we will briefly talk about coding environments, language syntax, and computational thinking. If you are eager to start coding, just skip it and come back later!

What do we need to learn when learning coding?

Coding is a lot about telling a computer what to do. We, human beings, need to write commands that computers understand, and to do so, we need to learn to think differently. We have to start from scratch and master a new way of communicating, made of *concise* and *logical* instructions. Practically speaking, we have to learn at least three things: a coding environment, language syntax, and computational thinking. Let's see what these are!

A **coding environment** is a program where we can write and execute code. There are several environments to code in Python. In this book, we will use the Jupyter/Python environment, which since its release in 2015 has become used increasingly both in industry and academia (Figure 1.1). It allows integrating code with narrative, and it is ideal for creating reports, draft code, and learning to code. Other very common coding environments are the integrated development environments (IDEs). For Python, popular IDEs are PyCharm, Visual Studio, and Spyder (Figure 1.2). IDEs typically embed various components, such as a script editor, a variable environment panel, and a console wherein code is tested and executed. In Chapter 32, you will get familiar with one of them, Spyder, which is commonly used for scientific coding. And finally, the most basic environment is the Python IDLE, which is included in the Python installation. It consists of a shell—which looks very similar to a terminal—where one can type and execute commands (Figure 1.3).

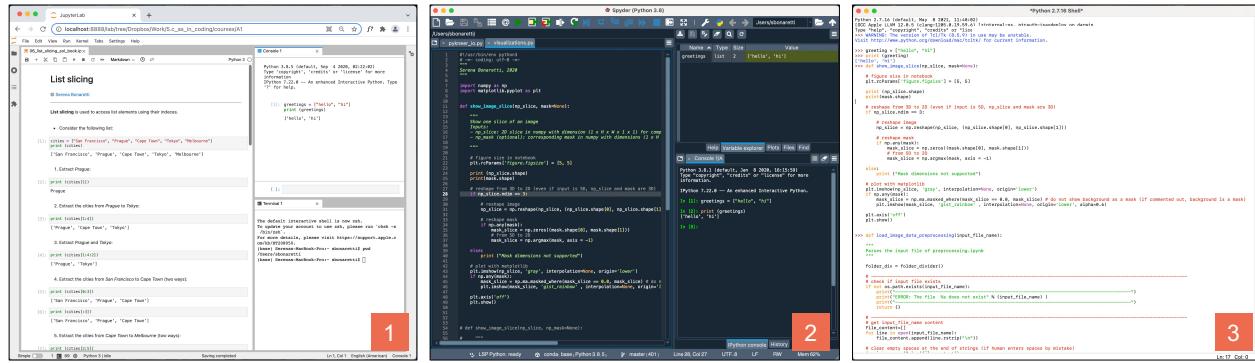


Figure 1. Three IDEs to code in Python: (1) the Jupyter environment, (2) Spyder, and (3) the Python IDLE.

A **language syntax** is a set of rules defining how to write commands. You are already very familiar with at least one syntax, which is your native language syntax. In your mother tongue, you know words, punctuation, and how to arrange these elements in sentences to create paragraphs and entire texts. In coding, the pattern is similar. We have to know data types and operators, as well as how to arrange them in `if/else` constructs and loops to create functions and classes. In Table 1, you can see a schematic summary of elements and syntax you will learn in this book. Don't worry if you do not understand most of it—everything will become more and more clear as we progress through the book.

Data types (words)	Operators (punctuations)	Constructs and loops (sentences)	Unit of code (paragraphs)	Software (texts)
string, list, integer, float, Boolean, tuple, dictionary, set	assignment, membership, arithmetic, comparison, logical	if/else construct, for loop, while loop	functions	classes (object- oriented pro- gramming)

Table 1. Components of a programming language, from the most basic (left) to the most complex (right). In the column titles, the words in between parentheses show the parallelism with natural language syntax.

Finally, **computational thinking** is the way we think when coding. Every time we approach a new subject, we need to learn *how to think* in that subject and develop specific skills. Some of the abilities you will develop in this book are:

- *Creating algorithms*, which means conceiving and implementing a series of sequential instructions to solve a problem
- *Divide and conquer*, which consists of decomposing problems in sub-problems, and then combining the sub-problem solutions to obtain the main problem solution
- *Pattern recognition*, which means recognizing in a new problem features of a previously solved problem so that you can apply a similar solution
- *Solution generalization*, which consists of generalizing solutions from specific cases to broader situations

As is the case for any subject, developing a way of thinking comes with studying and exercising. Thus, thinking computationally comes with learning syntax and practicing coding. We will start building these abilities in Chapter 1. In the next part, *Getting ready*, you will download, install, and learn how to use the Jupyter/Python environment.

The Jupyter/Python environment

An easy way to think about the Jupyter/Python environment is to consider it as a Russian doll—those wooden dolls of decreasing size nested one inside another (Figure 2). The largest doll is **JupyterLab**, which is a web-based environment in which we can open, organize, and work on files of various types. In JupyterLab, there is **Jupyter Notebook**, which is a web-based application where we can write code with narrative. Jupyter Notebook supports several programming languages, one of which is **Python**. And finally, Python is enriched by an extraordinary amount of **modules** and **packages** that allow us to add useful functionalities to code. Let's install the Jupyter/Python environment and see how it works!

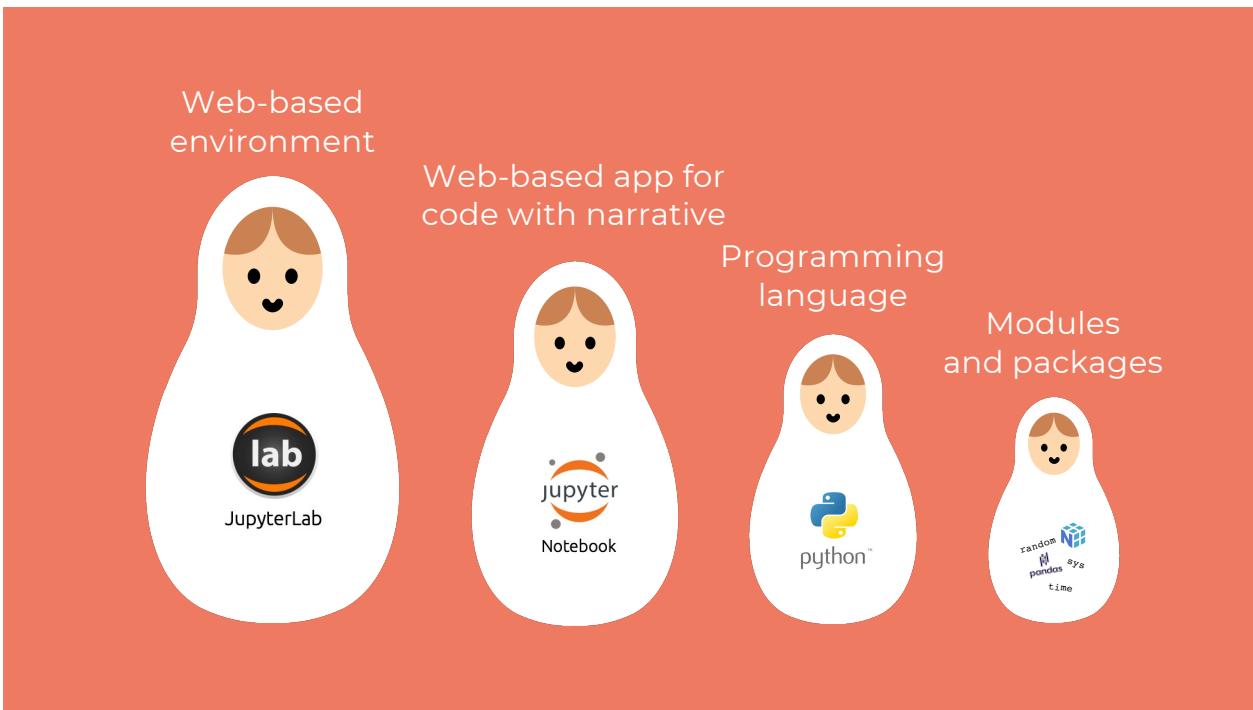


Figure 2. The Jupyter/Python environment represented as a Russian doll, where each component is included in the previous one.

Installing the Jupyter/Python environment

You can install JupyterLab, Jupyter Notebook, Python, and its scientific packages all at once through Anaconda, a commonly used distribution for scientific computing. Go to the Anaconda website, <https://www.anaconda.com/products/individual>, and click *download*. It might take a few minutes. Once downloaded, install Anaconda like any other software: click *next* when required, and leave the default options (unless you have specific requirements). The installation might take a few minutes too. When Anaconda is installed, open the Anaconda Navigator by double-clicking its icon, which looks like the one in Figure 3, box 1. Once opened, you will see all the software contained in Anaconda, including JupyterLab (Figure 3, box 2), Jupyter Notebook (Figure 3, box 3), and Spyder

(Figure 3, box 4). In this book, we will code in Python using JupyterLab as a working environment. So let's learn how to use it!

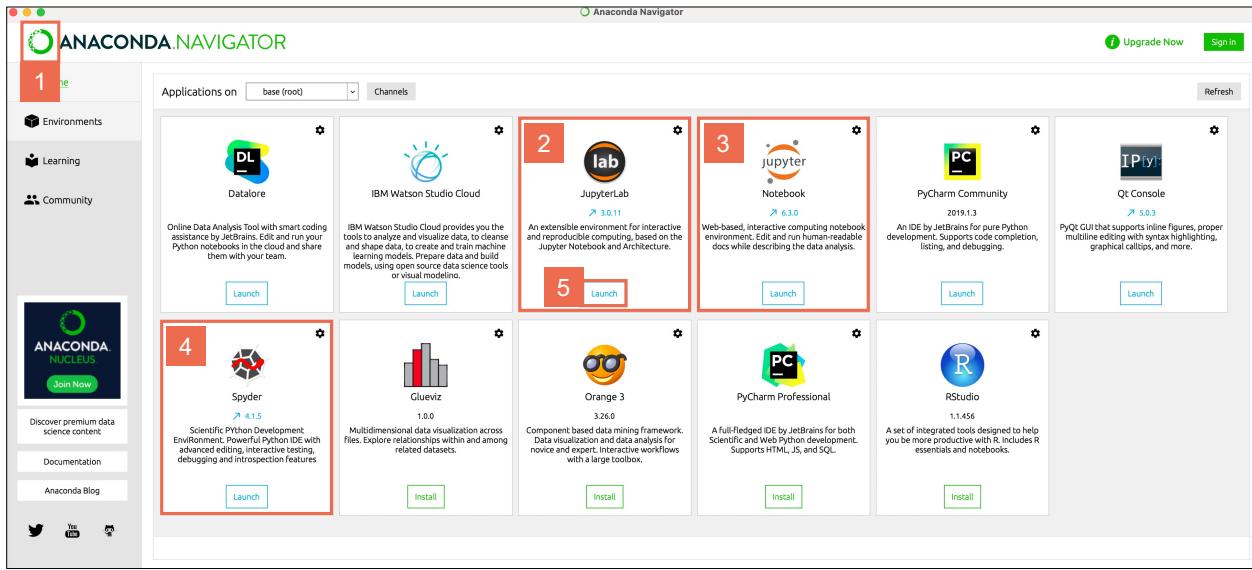


Figure 3. Anaconda interface: (1) icon, (2) JupyterLab, (3) Jupyter Notebook, (4) Spyder, and (5) JupyterLab launch button.

JupyterLab

JupyterLab is an environment where we can code in an organized and efficient way. Open it by clicking the *Launch* button in the JupyterLab panel in Anaconda (Figure 3, box 5). You will see something similar to Figure 4. Below are the most relevant features of JupyterLab and some suggestions on how best to use it.

- *JupyterLab is a web-based environment.* When you launch JupyterLab, the first thing you'll notice is that it starts in the browser. However, its address contains *localhost* (Figure 4, box 1), which means that you are actually working *locally*, that is, on your computer. In other words, you do *not* need to be connected to the internet to use JupyterLab.
- *Top bar* (Figure 4, box 2). The items in the top bar, such as *File*, *Edit*, *View*, etc., are quite intuitive and similar to many other software. We will describe the most relevant items throughout the book, but go ahead and start exploring them! For now, just notice that when clicking some top bar buttons (for example, *File*), some of the items that appear might be light gray because they are disabled (for example, *Save As..*). This is because they refer to Jupyter Notebook, which we will open in the next section. Finally, a fun feature of JupyterLab is that you can set a dark theme. If you want that, go to *Settings*, then *JupyterLab themes*, and click on *JupyterLab Dark*.
- *Browsing and opening files.* On the left side of JupyterLab, you can find a panel with some vertical tabs (Figure 4, box 3). The first tab contains an icon representing a folder, and, for now, we will focus only on this one. The folder tab opens a panel on its right, which contains a few features. The first is a top bar (Figure 4, box 4), containing a symbol, +, which allows us to start a launcher (Figure 4, box 7); an icon representing a folder containing a +, to create a new folder; a vertical

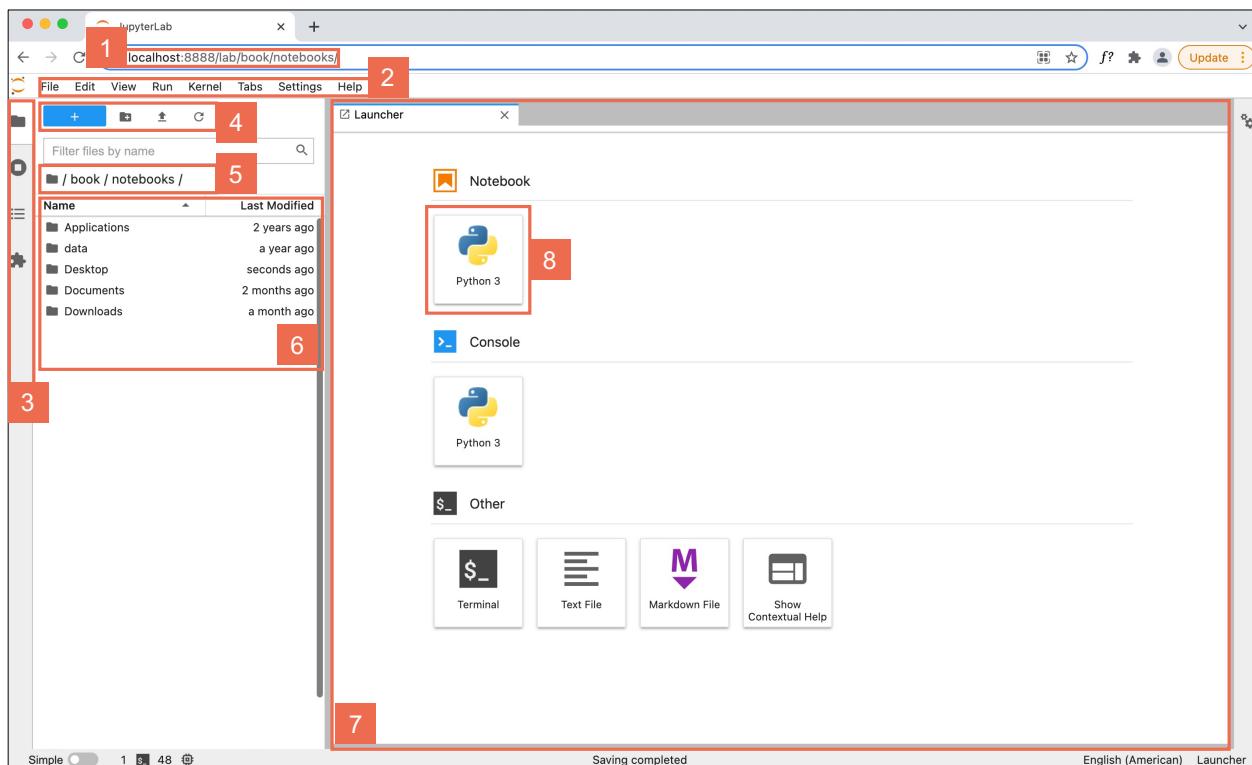


Figure 4. JupyterLab interface, containing: (1) local URL, (2) top bar, (3) lateral tabs, (4) folder browser top bar, (5) folder browser, (6) folder content, (7) launcher, and (8) Jupyter Notebook launch button.

arrow pointing up, to upload a new file; and a circular arrow, to refresh the content of the current directory—in coding, we often say **directory** instead of *folder*. Right below, there is a box to search for files. Then, there is the path of the **working directory** (Figure 4, box 5)—that is, the folder where we are currently opening and saving files. And below, there is a list of the directory content (Figure 4, box 6). In JupyterLab, you can open an *existing* file only from this panel, and not by double-clicking the file in your computer folder. Therefore, you need to know how to navigate folders from JupyterLab. To go back to a previous folder, click on a folder name in Figure 4, box 5 (for example, to go back to the previous folder in this screenshot, you would click on *book*). To go into a sub-folder—a folder in the current folder—just double-click on the sub-folder listed in the folder panel (Figure 4, box 6). Last thing: when clicking on the folder icon (Figure 4, box 3), the whole file browser panel toggles out, meaning it disappears. When re-clicking, the whole panel toggles back in, so it reappears. Toggling out can be convenient if you have a small screen.

- **Launching tools.** The launcher is the place where you can open *new* notebooks, consoles, terminals, text files, etc. (Figure 4, box 7). As an alternative, you can open new files and tools from the top bar (Figure 4, box 2) by clicking on *File*, then *New*, and then selecting the file type you want. It's time to open a Jupyter Notebook!

Jupyter Notebook

To open a Jupyter Notebook, go to the launcher and click the Notebook icon (Figure 4, box 8). A new Notebook opens in the launcher area (Figure 5, box 2), and it is visible as *Untitled.ipynb* in the browser panel (Figure 5, box 1). Notebooks have the extension *.ipynb*, which stands for interactive python notebook. To give the Notebook an appropriate name, right-click on *Untitled.ipynb* in the browser panel (Figure 5, box 1). Then, click *Rename*, and change it to any name you want—for example, *practicing_cells.ipynb*. As you might have noticed, by right-clicking on the file name, you can perform several other actions, such as delete, cut, copy, duplicate, and more.

Let's now focus on a Notebook content. A Jupyter Notebook is essentially a file containing a sequence of **cells**, that is, grey rectangles like the ones you see in Figure 5, box 4. Each cell can contain code or narrative, as we will see in a bit. The **blue bar** on the left side of a cell (Figure 5, box 5) indicates that the current cell is the **active cell**. In the presence of multiple cells, we can make a cell active by clicking on the square brackets [] on the cell left side. When a cell is active, we can perform several operations in various ways, either by keyboard commands or via the Notebook top bar (Figure 5, box 3, enlarged in Figure 6), the JupyterLab top bar (Figure 4, box 2), or by right-clicking *in* the cell! This might sound redundant, but it is conceived to help coders with different habits—some prefer using keyboard commands, others prefer clicking on the screen—conveniently perform the cell operations they need. If there are too many options for you, then just choose one way and stick to that! Below are some useful cell operations and some of the possible ways to perform them.

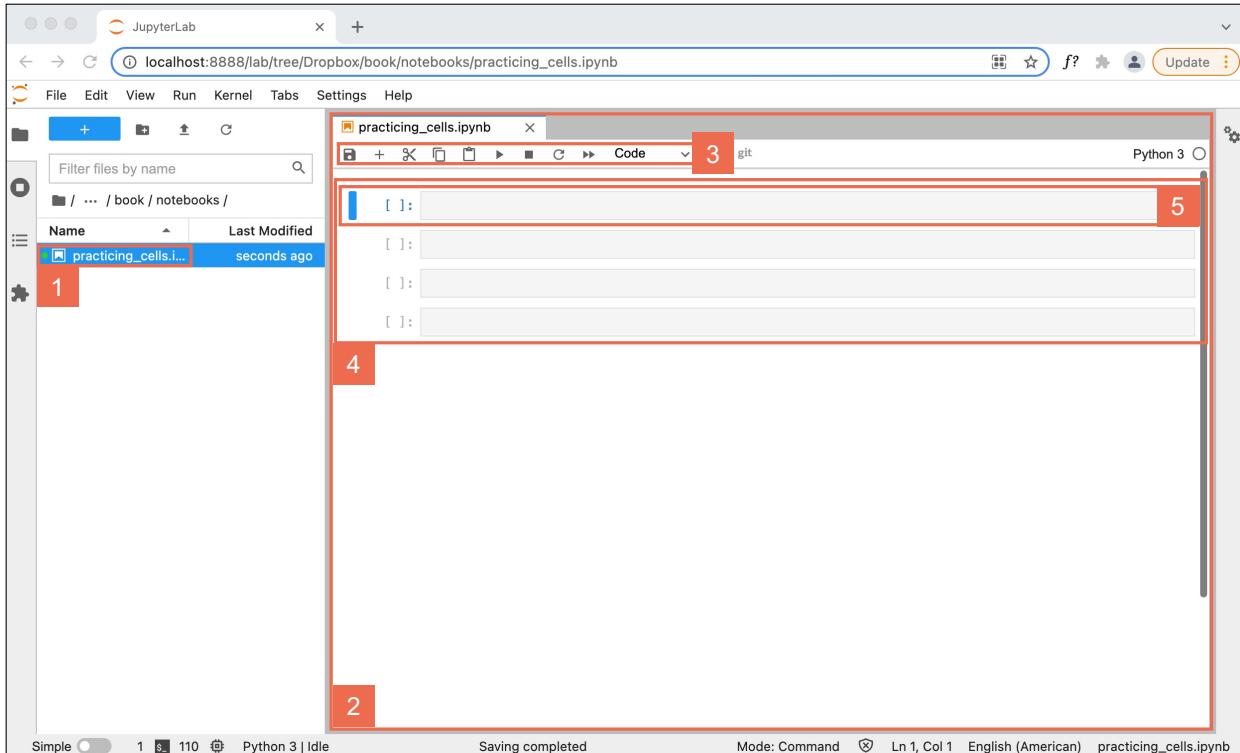


Figure 5. A Jupyter Notebook opened in JupyterLab. (1) Notebook in the folder browser, (2) Jupyter Notebook, (3) Jupyter Notebook top bar, (4) cells, (5) currently active cell.

- *Creating a cell:* To create a new cell below the active cell, press *B*, for *below*, or the plus button in the Notebook top bar (Figure 6, item 2). The newly created cell becomes the active cell. We can also create a new cell above the active cell by pressing *A*, for *above* (there is no corresponding top bar button).
- *Deleting a cell:* To delete the active cell, press *D* twice, or click on the scissor button (Figure 6, item 3).
- *Copying a cell:* To copy the active cell, first press *C* and then *V* (without *command* or *control*!), or item 4 to copy, and then item 5 to paste (Figure 6).
- *Undoing or redoing cell operations:* To undo a cell operation (for example, if you have deleted a cell by mistake), press *Z*, or in JupyterLab top bar (Figure 4, box 2), go to *Edit*, and then *Undo cell operation*. Similarly, to redo a cell operation, simultaneously press *shift* and *Z*, or in JupyterLab top bar, go to *Edit* and then *Redo cell operation*.
- *Moving cells:* Left-click on the square brackets [] of the active cell, and while holding down the mouse button, move the cell up or down. When you reach the position you want to move the cell to, release. As an alternative, you can go to *Edit* in the JupyterLab top bar (Figure 4, box 2) and then click on *Move Cells Up* or *Move Cells Downs*.
- *Add line numbers.* Line numbers are very useful when coding—you’ll come to realize this starting in Chapter 1. To add line numbers, go to *View* in the JupyterLab top bar (Figure 4, box 2), and then click *Show Line Numbers*.
- *Other operations.* You can split or merge cells, enable or disable scrolling for output, etc. by going to the JupyterLab top bar (Figure 4, box 2), and then see the options in *Edit*, or by right-clicking in a cell and browsing the options that appear. Just explore them!



Figure 6. Jupyter Notebook top bar: (1) save Notebook, (2) add cell, (3) cut cell, (4) copy cell, (5) paste cell, (6) run cell, (7) interrupt kernel, (8) restart kernel, (9) restart kernel and run whole Notebook, and (10) define cell as code or markdown.

What about the remaining buttons in Figure 6? The first button representing a floppy disk—yes, once upon a time we saved data on floppy disks!—is to save the Notebook. The buttons 6 to 9 are used to execute code, and you will learn how to use them in Chapter 1 (button 6) and Chapter 7 (buttons 7 to 9).

And finally, time to talk about cell content! As we mentioned before, a cell can contain two things: code or narrative. By default, Jupyter Notebook cells are *code* cells. To transform a cell into a *text* cell, press *M* on the keyboard, or click the drop-down menu in the Jupyter Notebook top bar (Figure 6, item 10), and select **Markdown**. **Markdown** is a simplified version of HTML, the coding language used to create websites. This is why the Jupyter environment is web-based: to use the rich features of web browsers! Writing the narrative in a Notebook is fundamental to embedding code into explanations that make workflows easy to understand. You can learn how to write in Markdown in the

“in more depth” session in Chapter 32. And last but not least, cells can contain **code**. The remainder of the book will be about that! So, it’s time to start coding, but before doing that, one last bit: you need to download the Jupyter Notebooks associated with this book.

Downloading the book material

Throughout the rest of the book, you will find 38 chapters. For each chapter, there is a Jupyter Notebook, whose file name includes the corresponding chapter number. Each Notebook contains the examples discussed in the text so that you can practice and understand while reading. Download the Notebooks at www.learnpythonwithjupyter.com. I highly recommend that you save the Notebooks in a *new folder*—not in the *Download* folder—so that you don’t mix them up with other files you download for other purposes. If you feel like going a step further, I really recommend that you create this folder in a *cloud service*, so that you do not lose your files in case your computer breaks or has issues (yes, computers are machines and they break!). As for cloud services, you can use Google Drive (<https://www.google.com/drive>), Dropbox (<https://www.dropbox.com>), or any others that you prefer. Using these tools is very easy. Download the program that installs the system on your computer. After the installation, you will see a new folder. Just create the folder that is going to contain the Notebooks in the newly created cloud folder, and all your files will always be automatically synchronized and saved.

Finally, in each chapter of the book, you will find coding exercises. I recommend that you create a separate folder called *Exercises*, or something similar, and inside this folder, create a Jupyter Notebook for the exercises of each book chapter. Creating Notebooks yourself will strengthen your organizational skills and will allow you to become even more familiar with the Jupyter/Python environment.

At this point, we are really ready. Let’s start coding!

PART 1

CREATING THE BASICS

It's time to start coding! In this part, you will learn the basic elements that we will use throughout the whole book. You will learn about strings — that is, a data type that contains text — and the concatenation operation, used to combine strings. You will also learn how to ask questions and how to print out information. And most importantly, you will learn what a variable is. Let's get started!

1. Text, questions, and art

Strings, `input()`, and `print()`

Programming languages are written languages, and the core of written communication is *text*. How is *text* represented in Python? How can we ask a question to a person? And how can we provide information to a person? To answer these questions, let's open Jupyter Notebook 1 and start!

1. Writing text: Strings

In coding, we use the word *string* to refer to *text*. We can define strings as follows:

Strings are text in between quotes

Let's look at the two examples below. On the left side, we see the code as it is in Jupyter Notebook 1. On the right side, we see how to pronounce the code. Let's read the code out loud:

[:]	1	"This is a string"	This is a string
[:]	1	'Everything you write between quotes is a string'	Everything you write between quotes is a string

Now let's consider the following statements. Are they true or false?

True or false?

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. A string contains text | T | F |
| 2. A string is in green in Jupyter Notebook | T | F |
| 3. Quotes can be either single or double | T | F |

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's analyze the code above in detail! In each cell, there is a *string*. As we can see, a string is just some text in between quotes. By *text*, we mean any **character** we can type on the keyboard: letters, numbers, symbols, and even the space! Quotes can be **double quotes** " ", like in the top example, or **single quotes** ' ', like in the bottom example. Quotes that start a string are called **opening** quotes, whereas quotes that end a string are called **closing** quotes. When writing a string in Python, we can use either double or single quotes; we just have to make sure we do not mix them up. In other words, if we start writing a string with an opening *double* quote, we must finish the string with a closing *double* quote. Similarly, if we start writing a string with an opening *single* quote, we must finish the string with a closing *single* quote. *Strings* are a Python **data type**, which means that they are one of the core parts of the Python language (see Table 1 at page 4). In Jupyter Notebook, Python strings are in red.

Let's run the first cell. **Running a cell** means **executing the code** in that cell. In the Notebook, position the mouse anywhere inside the cell. If you haven't done it already, click the mouse left button. The cursor will become a blinking vertical bar. Then, move to the keyboard. If you are on a MacOS, press *shift* and *return* at the same time. If you are on a Windows, press *shift* and *enter* at the same time (if not explicitly written on any key, *enter* is the key on the right side of the keyboard depicting an angled arrow). As an alternative, you can click the *start* button in the Jupyter Notebook top bar (Figure 6, icon 6, at page 9).

This is how the first cell looks when we run it:

```
[1]: 1 "This is a string" This is a string  
'This is a string'
```

When we run a cell, two things occur. First, a number appears in between the square brackets on the left side of the cell. In this case, the number is 1 because this is the first cell we ran. Second, we execute the code. In this case, we get to see the content of the cell; that is, 'This is a string'. Jupyter Notebook shows the string in between single quotes, even when the string is written in between double quotes. As mentioned above, single and double quotes are equivalent.

Let's run the second cell. Like before, left-click anywhere inside the cell. Then, press *shift* and *return* if on MacOS, or *shift* and *enter* if on Windows, or click the *start* button in the Jupyter Notebook top bar. Here is what we get:

```
[2]: 1 'Everything you write between quotes is a  
      string'  
      Everything you write between quotes  
      is a string  
'Everything you write between quotes is a string'
```

Two things occurred again. First, the number 2 appeared in between the square brackets on the left side of the cell, showing that this is the second cell we ran. As is becoming clear, the **number on the left side between square brackets** indicates the **order of execution** of the cells. Second, we can see the string contained in the cell: 'Everything you write between quotes is a string'.

2. Asking questions: `input()`

In all programming languages there are ways to ask questions to a person, whom we usually call the **user**. This is a very important feature because it allows the interaction between a computer and a human being. What does this mean? Let's look at the code! Read the two cells below out loud (pronunciation on the right):

```
[]: 1 input ("What's your name?") input what's your name?  
[]: 1 input ("Where are you from?") input where are you from?
```

What does the code inside the cells do? Get a first hint by solving the following exercise.

Match the sentence halves

1. What's your name? is
2. `input()` is a built-in function and
3. When running a cell containing `input()`
4. A built-in function is always followed

- a. it is colored green
- b. by round brackets
- c. a string
- d. we can answer a question



Computational thinking and syntax

Let's understand how these lines of code work! Let's run the first cell. We will get a text box:

```
[*]: 1 input ("What's your name?")           input what's your name?  
What's your name? 
```

Type your name in the rectangle (I will write mine!):

```
[*]: 1 input ("What's your name?")           input what's your name?  
What's your name?  Serena
```

And now press *return* or *enter* on the keyboard. You will see the following (you will see your name, of course!):

```
[3]: 1 input ("What's your name?")           input what's your name?  
What's your name? Serena  
'Serena'
```

A few key things have happened here! First, the number on the left side of the cell turned to 3 as expected. But while answering the question, instead of the number 3, there was a **star symbol (*)**. This indicates that a cell has started to run but has not finished yet. To complete the cell run and execute the code, we have to press *return* or *enter* after typing the answer. If the cell run is not completed, the code in the cell does not get executed, and in addition, we will not be able to run the following cells. Now, let's look at the code. We know that "What's your name?" is a string, because it is text in between quotes and it is colored red. What about `input()`? `input()` allows us to ask a question to a user. In Jupyter Notebook, `input()` creates a text box (a white rectangle) where we can insert some text. `input()` performs a specific task and is called a *built-in function*.

A built-in function is a command that performs a specific task

We can recognize if a code element is a built-in function by two characteristics. First, in Jupyter Notebook built-in functions are always *green*. Second, built-in functions are always followed by **parentheses ()**. In this book, instead of parentheses, we will call them **round brackets**, to differentiate from other types of brackets that we will encounter in the chapters that follow. In between the round brackets, we often write an **argument**, which for `input()` is a string containing the question we want to ask. *Built-in functions* are very useful, as they contain code written by the creators of a programming language to facilitate ease-of-use when coding.

Let's run the next cell:

```
[*]: 1 input ("Where are you from?")
```

Where are you from?

input where are you from?

Similarly to before, now enter your country of origin in the text box (I will type mine!):

```
[*]: 1 input ("Where are you from?")
```

Where are you from? Italy

input where are you from?

Now press *return* or *enter* on the keyboard. You will see an output similar to the following (you will see your country of origin!):

```
[4]: 1 input ("Where are you from?")
```

Where are you from? Italy

'Italy'

input where are you from?

What happened here is similar to the previous cell. Let's summarize it: the number on the left of the cell turned to 4 because this is the fourth cell we ran. The *built-in function* `input()` created a text box in Jupyter Notebook in which we could answer the question contained in the string we gave as an argument. Too concise? Let's try again: when we run the cell, the *built-in function* `input()` shows us the question, which we put in between the round brackets as a string, and it creates a text box in which we can type the answer. After typing the answer, we press *return* or *enter* to complete the code execution.

At this point we can ask ourselves: where do we see `input()` in action in everyday life? Every time we are asked to type something on a device, there is a function similar to `input()` behind it! For example, this is the case when we write our names to open a new account, enter the amount we want to withdraw from an ATM, or fill out an online form.

Finally, it is important to mention that when we write code, we *wear two hats* – that is, we have two roles: we are at the same time programmer and user! When writing code, we wear the *programmer hat*: we create code to perform a task, design code structure, and define user messages. When testing code, we wear the *user hat*: we check whether the code does what expected, is easy to use, and whether the user interaction is pleasant. When coding, we switch hats continuously!

3. ASCII art: `print()`

We now know how to ask a question to a user, but how do we provide them a piece of information? We use the *built-in function* `print()`! There are several ways to learn about `print()`, and the following one is indeed a lot of fun. It involves a type of digital art called ASCII art, by which images can be created using the symbols on a keyboard. Let's have a look at the following cell:

```
[]: 1 print ("/\_\\" )
```

```
2 print (">^,^< ")
```

```
3 print (" / \ ")
```

```
4 print ("(____)___")
```

What are we going to print to the screen? The answer is straightforward, but before running the cell, let's quickly analyze the code by completing the following exercise.

True or false?

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. <code>print()</code> is a string | T | F |
| 2. <code>print()</code> can have a string as an argument | T | F |
| 3. In coding, we print row by row | T | F |

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's finally run the cell. Here is what we get:

```
[5]: 1 print ("/\_/\ ")
      2 print (">^.^< ")
      3 print (" / \ ")
      4 print ("(____)___")
/\_/
>^.^<
 / \
(____)___
```

The little cat we created using keyboard symbols gets displayed to the screen. To do so, we used a new built-in function: `print()`. **`print()` displays on screen the argument** we provide – in this case a *string*. You might ask: But when we ran the cells 1 and 2, we could see the content of the *strings*; why do we need `print()`? The fact that we could see the strings from cells 1 and 2 is a feature of Jupyter Notebook. After running a cell, Jupyter Notebook displays the content of the last line but not that of the previous lines. If we delete the `print()` function from the code in cell 5, it will display only the very last *string*:

```
[5]: 1 "/\_/\ "
      2 ">^.^< "
      3 " / \ "
      4 "(____)___"
'(____)___'
```

There are a few more things to point out by observing the code in cell 5. In a Jupyter Notebook cell, we can write several lines of code. The lines will get executed **sequentially**. In other words, when we run a cell, Python first executes line number 1, then line number 2, and so on, until the last line of the cell is reached. In addition, in a string, **spaces matter**. Spaces are *characters*, so a space is an element of a *string* and it takes its own place. However, spaces do not matter between code elements. For example, the two lines below are equivalent:

```
[5]: 1 print("(____)___")
      2 print(" (____)___")
      3 '(____)___'
      4 '(____)___'
```

When writing code with some repetition, it is good practice to keep some **parallelism** between the lines of code. Compare the code written in cell 5 as we did above,

```
[1]: 1 print ("/\_/\\" )
      2 print (">^.^< ")
      3 print (" / \ ")
      4 print ("(____)___")
```

to the same code written without aligning closing quotes and closing round brackets, as below:

```
[1]: 1 print ("/\_/\\" )
      2 print (">^.^< ")
      3 print (" / \ ")
      4 print ("(____)___")
```

We can see that in the second case the code looks somehow more confusing. Instead, when we align quotes, brackets, and other symbols — as you will see in the following chapters — we create code that is more **readable** and **less prone to errors**. We will also talk quite a bit about tricks to minimize the amount of possible errors that we might introduce in code.

One more question before the recap: where do we see the function `print()` in action in everyday life? Every time we see a message on a device! For example: ‘Registration completed’, or ‘Thank you for your purchase’, or ‘Logout successful’. In the underlying code, there is a function similar to `print()`!

Recap

- The type **string** is text in between quotes
- **input()** is a *built-in function* to ask a user to enter a value
- **print()** is a *built-in function* to display a value to screen

Our fingers have memory

When learning to code, it is very important to **type every single command**, resisting the temptation of copying/pasting. Typing helps us **memorize** commands in at least two ways. First, when typing a command we mentally spell it, so we repeat it in our minds, and thus we memorize it. Second, our fingers can memorize typing patterns. For example, when typing `print()`, our fingers will automatically remember to type the round brackets right after `print`. Similarly to a pianist who does not look at the keyboard but at the sheet music while playing, we want to look not at the keyboard but at the screen while coding. This way of typing is called **touch typing** (or blind typing). It helps us be faster and **minimize the amount of errors** we make because we do not have to keep moving our eyes between the keyboard and the screen. How can we learn *touch typing*? It is very easy; it just requires some practice. The idea is that each finger presses some specific keys of the keyboard, as in the figure in the next page. We position the left index finger on the letter F and the right index finger on the letter J — the two little bumps on these keys define the starting point. The remaining fingers will go on the keys

in the same row. For the left hand, the middle finger will go on the letter D, the ring finger on S, and the small finger on A. Similarly, for the right hand, the middle finger will go on the letter K, the ring finger on L, and the small finger on the semicolon. What about the letters G and H that are in between? When needed, the left index finger will move from F to G, and the right index finger from J to H. The fingers will then move upward and downward for the other letters, maintaining the same reciprocal positions.

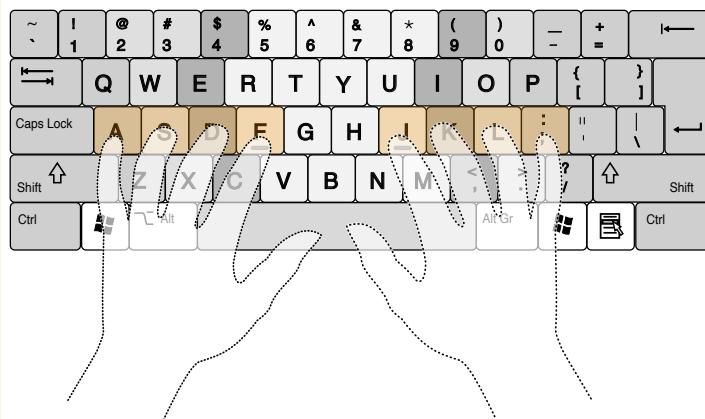


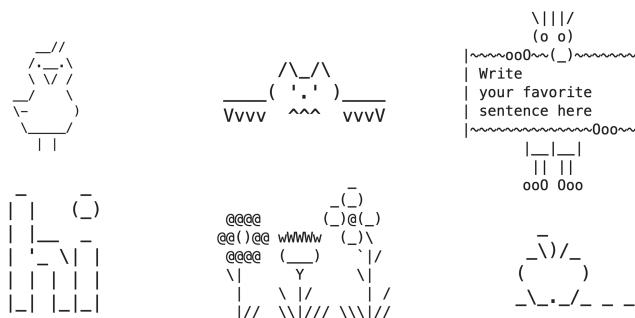
Figure modified from <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=9666341>.
By Cy21 - Own work, CC BY-SA 3.0.

There are plenty of websites to learn touch typing in a fun way, such as www.typing.com and www.typingclub.com. They are free, and creating an account is not compulsory. They provide gradual exercises starting from typing single letters, to syllables, to words, up to whole sentences. Give it a try?

Ready for some coding exercises? Create a new Notebook and solve the following exercises below. If you do not remember how to create a new Notebook or new cells, have a look at pages 8 and 9.

Let's code!

1. *Writing strings.* Write a string using *double quotes*. Then, run the cell and observe what happens. Then write a string using *single quotes*. Run the cell and observe what happens.
2. *Asking questions.* Write two questions using the *built-in function* `input()` and then answer them.
3. *ASCII art.* Reproduce at least one of the following pieces of ASCII art:



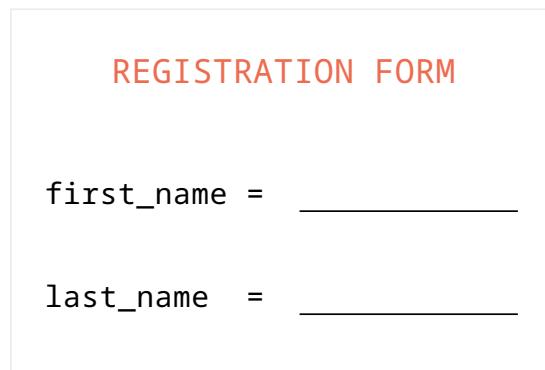
2. Events and favorites

Variables, assignment, and string concatenation

Let's continue building our basics by learning about *variables* and *string concatenation*. What are they? Let's find out together using Notebook number 2! Read the example below aloud and try to understand what the code does:

1. Organizing an event

- You are organizing an event, and you have created the following registration form for the participants:



The image shows a template for a registration form. At the top center, it says "REGISTRATION FORM". Below that, there are two lines for input: "first_name = _____" and "last_name = _____".

Registration form for the event participants.

- The first participant comes in and you fill out the form:

```
[1]: 1 first_name = "Fernando"           first name is assigned Fernando  
      2 last_name = "Pérez"               last name is assigned Pérez
```

- Then you print out what you entered in the registration form:

```
[2]: 1 print(first_name)                print first_name  
      2 print(last_name)                 print last_name
```

What does the code in these cells do? Let's get some hints by completing the following exercise.

True or false?

1. The command `first_name = "Fernando"` assigns the string "Fernando" to the variable `first_name` T F
2. The command `print(first_name)` will print out Fernando T F
3. The command `print(last_name)` will print out `last_name` T F

Computational thinking and syntax

Any guesses about what happens? Let's run the first cell:

```
[1]: 1 first_name = "Fernando"
      2 last_name = "Pérez"           first name is assigned Fernando
                                         last name is assigned Pérez
```

At line 1 we create a **variable** called `first_name`. To the variable `first_name` we **assign** the string "Fernando", which is the **value**. Similarly, at line 2 we create a variable called `last_name`, to which we assign the string "Pérez" as a value. In general, we can assign any value to a variable. For example, we can register our second guest, Guido van Rossum, by writing:

```
[1]: 1 first_name = "Guido"
      2 last_name = "van Rossum"       first name is assigned Guido
                                         last name is assigned van Rossum
```

As you can see, the **variable** names remain the same (`first_name` and `last_name`), whereas the assigned **values** can be different ("Fernando" or "Guido", "Pérez" or "van Rossum"). We can define variables as follows:

A variable is a label assigned to a value

In Python, variables are *lowercase*. When composed of multiple words, these are connected by *underscore*, like in `first_name`. In Jupyter Notebook, variables are *black*. The symbol `=` is called **assignment operator**. This has nothing to do with the *equals* we learned in math! *equals* has a different symbol in coding, which we will see in Chapter 9. In coding we use the symbol `=` to **assign a value to a variable**, and we pronounce it as *is assigned*. This is a very important concept to remember, and it's one of the most counter-intuitive! Symbols are colored *purple* in Jupyter Notebook.

Let's now run the second cell:

```
[2]: 1 print (first_name)
      2 print (last_name)           print first_name
                                    print last_name
                                         Fernando
                                         Pérez
```

As you might expect, at line 1 we print to the screen the **value** assigned to the variable `first_name`, which is Fernando. At line 2 we print the value assigned to the variable `last_name`, which is Pérez. Who is Fernando Pérez? The creator of Jupyter Notebook! And Guido van Rossum? The creator of Python!

2. Favorites

Time to put together what we have learned so far! Let's read the following code:

```
[1]: 1 name = input ("What's your name?")           name is assigned input what's your name?
[2]: 1 favorite_food = input ("What's your         favorite_food is assigned input what's
                           favorite food?")          your favorite food?
```

```
[1]: 1 print ("Hi! My name is " + name)
      2 print ("My favorite food is " +
      favorite_food)
      2 print (name + "'s favorite food is " +
      favorite_food)
```

```
print Hi! My name is concatenated with
name
print My favorite food is concatenated
with favorite_food
print name concatenated with 's favorite
food is concatenated with favorite_food
```

What happens in this code? Let's get some hints by completing the following exercise!

True or false?

1. The answer to the question *What's your name?* is assigned to the variable name T F
2. The question *What's your favorite food?* is asked before the question *What's your favorite name?* T F
3. If the answer to the first question is *Terry* and the answer to the second question is *mango*, then the third print will show *Terry's favorite food is pizza* T F
4. The symbol + can combine a string and a variable containing a string T F

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's run the first cell:

```
[3]: 1 name = input ("What's your name?")
      What's your name? Serena
```

name is assigned input what's your name?

The name we enter in the text box will be assigned to the variable name.

Let's run the second cell:

```
[4]: 1 favorite_food = input ("What's your
      favorite food?")
      What's your favorite food? pasta
```

favorite_food is assigned input what's
your favorite food?

Similarly to the above example, what we enter in the text box will be assigned to the variable favorite_food.

Let's now run the last cell of this Notebook. What do we expect the prints to be?

```
[5]: 1 print ("Hi! My name is " + name)
      2 print ("My favorite food is " +
      favorite_food)
      2 print (name + "'s favorite food is " +
      favorite_food)
```

```
Hi! My name is Serena
My favorite food is pasta
Serena's favorite food is pasta
```

```
print Hi! My name is concatenated with
name
print My favorite food is concatenated
with favorite_food
print name concatenated with 's favorite
food is concatenated with favorite_food
```

At line 1, we print out the union of the string "Hi! My name is " and the value assigned to the variable name. When dealing with strings, the symbol + is called a **concatenation symbol**, not plus! Concatenating simply means *chaining together*. + allows us to **merge strings**, and we can pronounce it as *concatenated with*.

We have now learned the very basics on which we will build our coding skills and knowledge. Now let's take just a few minutes to complete the following exercise, which will help us summarize clearly the syntax we have learned so far!

Fill in the gaps

Fill in the gaps by inserting what each word is and its color in Jupyter Notebook. See the example in the first sentence:

1. `input()` is a _____ built-in function _____ and is colored _____ green _____ .
2. Also `print()` is a _____ and is colored _____ .
3. `name` is a _____ and is colored _____ .
4. "My favorite food is" is a _____ and is colored _____ .
5. `=` is the _____ and is colored _____ .
6. `+` is the _____ and is colored _____ too.

Recap

- In coding, we assign **values to variables**
- The symbol `=` is the **assignment operator** (and not the *equals* symbol!), and it can be pronounced *is assigned*
- The symbol `+` is the **concatenation symbol** when dealing with strings (and not the *plus* symbol!), and it can be pronounced *concatenated with*

Dealing with `NameError` and `SyntaxError`

When we write code, we inevitably make mistakes, and we get error messages. Getting error messages is *normal* when coding. It's important to learn how to read error messages so that we can fix errors quickly and keep coding. There are different kinds of errors, and we'll learn how to fix them over the course of the book. This is an example of an error:

```

-----
NameError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-6-a0c307bd3f14> in <module>
----> 1 print ("Hi! My name is " + ame )
      2 print ("My favorite food is " +  favorite_food )
      3 print ( name + "'s favorite food is " + favorite_food )

NameError: name 'ame' is not defined

```

When encountering an error, we have to perform two steps:

1. **Read the last line of the message**, which tells us what type of errors we have made
2. **Look for the green arrow**, which shows us the line where the error is.

In this case we are dealing with a **Name error**. The last line of the message says: `NameError: name 'ame' is not defined`. This is a very common error message. It means that there is not variable 'ame' in your code. This error message usually pops up in two cases: when we misspell a variable name, or when we have not run a previous Jupyter Notebook cell containing the initialization (or creation) of the variable. In this example we have misspelled the variable 'name'. This variable is present at lines 1 and 3. Which line should we look at? The arrow pointing at line number 1 shows us that the error is at line 1, where we can see that we typed 'ame' instead of 'name'. So we can correct the typo, rerun the cell, and quickly move on with coding! Another very common error message is the following:

```
File "<ipython-input-1-daed5bd3b17e>" , line 1
    print ("Hi! My name is " name)
               ^
SyntaxError: invalid syntax
```

In this case we have made a **syntax error**. The last line of the message says: `SyntaxError: invalid syntax`, which means that we have forgotten some symbol or punctuation. Where is the error? For syntax errors, we look at two lines in the message: at the end of the very first line, we see that we made the error at line 1; after the line of code, we see a hat symbol ^ that shows us the part of the command where there is something missing.

Ready to exercise? Let's go!

Let's code!

1. *At the gym.* You are the manager of a gym and you have to register a new person. What variables would you create? Write three variables, assign a value to each of them (make sure they are strings!), and print them out.
2. *At a bookstore.* You are the owner of a bookstore and you want to create a book catalog. You start with the first book: *Code Girls* by Liza Mundy. You create two variables, *book title* and *author*, assign them the actual title and author, and print them out. Then, pick a book of your choice, create the two variables again, assign the corresponding values, and print them out.
3. *Where are you from?* Ask a person what country they come from and where they live. Then print out three sentences like in cell 5 of the code in this chapter.
4. *What's your favorite song?* Ask a person their favorite song and favorite singer. Then print out three sentences like in cell 5 of the code in this chapter.

PART 2

INTRODUCTION TO LISTS AND IF/ELSE CONSTRUCTS

In this part, you will learn about lists, which are simply lists of elements of various types—for example, strings. You will also learn how to manipulate them, that is, how to add, remove, or replace one or more elements. And finally, you will learn if/else constructs, which allow for executing code based on conditions. Ready? Let's go!

3. In a bookstore

Lists and if... in... / else...

What does a list look like? And how do we use if/else conditions? To answer these questions, let's open Jupyter Notebook 3 and begin! Read the following example aloud and try to understand it:

- You are the owner of a bookstore. On the programming shelf there are:

```
[1]: 1 books = ["Learn Python", "Python for all", "Intro  
      to Python"]  
     2 print (books)
```

books is assigned Learn Python,
Python for all, Intro to Python
print books

- A new customer comes in, and you ask what book she wants:

```
[1]: 1 wanted_book = input("Hi! What book would you like  
      to buy?")  
     2 print (wanted_book)
```

wanted book is assigned input Hi!
What book would you like to buy?
print wanted book

- You check if you have the book, and you reply accordingly:

```
[1]: 1 if wanted_book in books:  
     2     print ("Yes, we sell it!")  
     3 else:  
     4     print ("Sorry, we do not sell that book")
```

if wanted book in books
print Yes, we sell it!
else
print Sorry, we do not sell that
book

What does the code above do? Get some hints by completing the following exercise.

True or false?

1. On the programming shelf there are 2 books T F
2. If the customer wants a book that is in the programming shelf, you print: Yes, we sell it! T F
3. The if/else block allows us to execute commands based on conditions T F

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's analyze the code line by line, starting with the first cell:

```
[1]: 1 books = ["Learn Python", "Python for all", "Intro  
      to Python"]  
     2 print (books)  
['Learn Python', 'Python for all', 'Intro to Python']
```

books is assigned Learn Python,
Python for all, Intro to Python
print books

On line 1 there is a variable called books, to which we assign a sequence of elements of type string: "Learn Python", "Python for all", and "Intro to Python". The elements are separated by commas and they are in between *square brackets*. A variable with this syntax is called **list**. In our code, books is a *variable of type list* whose elements are of type string. In other words, we can say that

books is a list of strings. A list is defined as follows:

A **list** is a sequence of **elements** separated by commas ,
and in between square brackets []

As its name says, a list is literally a list of elements, similar to a shopping list or a to-do list. It can contain elements of various types, such as strings, numbers, etc. For now, we will consider only lists of strings.

Let's run the second cell:

```
[2]: 1 wanted_book = input("Hi! What book would you like  
      to buy?")  
2 print (wanted_book)  
Hi! What book would you like to buy? Learn Python  
Learn Python
```

wanted book is assigned input Hi!
What book would you like to buy?
print wanted book

You are now familiar with the code in this cell. Briefly summarized, on line 1 we created a variable called wanted_book, which contains the user's answer to the question: Hi! What book would you like to buy? Then, on line 2, we printed the value contained in the variable wanted_book.

Let's run the third cell:

```
[3]: 1 if wanted_book in books:  
2     print ("Yes, we sell it!")  
3 else:  
4     print ("Sorry, we do not sell that book")  
Yes, we sell it!
```

if wanted book in books
print "Yes, we sell it!"
else
print "Sorry, we do not sell that book"

Here, we finally meet the if/else construct. Let's learn how it works by starting from lines 1 and 2. These lines say if wanted_book, which is "Learn Python", is in books, which is ["Learn Python", "Python for all", "Intro to Python"] (line 1), print "Yes, we sell it!" (line 2). In line 1, we check whether the value assigned to the variable wanted_book is one of the elements of the list books. If that is the case, then we move to line 2 and print out a positive answer to the user.

What if wanted_book is not in the list? Let's rerun cell 2 and enter a book that is not in the list:

```
[4]: 1 wanted_book = input("Hi! What book would you like  
      to buy?")  
2 print (wanted_book)  
Hi! What book would you like to buy? Basic Python  
Basic Python
```

wanted book is assigned input Hi!
What book would you like to buy?
print wanted book

In this case, what do you expect when running the cell below? Let's run it:

```
[5]: 1 if wanted_book in books:  
2     print ("Yes, we sell it!")  
3 else:  
4     print ("Sorry, we do not sell that book")  
Sorry, we do not sell that book
```

if wanted book in books
print Yes, we sell it!
else
print Sorry, we do not sell that book

We start again from line 1, where we read `wanted_book`, which now is "Basic Python", is in `books`, which is `["Learn Python", "Python for all", "Intro to Python"]`. But this time, "Basic Python" is not in the list `books`. So we skip line 2, go directly to line 3—where there is `else`—and proceed to line 4, where we print the string "Sorry, we do not sell that book".

As you can deduce from the example above, in an if/else construct, code is executed depending on the **truthfulness of a condition**. If the condition in the `if` line is met, or true, we execute the underlying code. Otherwise, if the condition in the `if` line is not met, or false, then we execute the code under `else`. Therefore, we can define the if/else construct as follows:

An **if/else construct** checks whether a condition is true or false,
and executes code accordingly:

if the condition is met, the code under the `if` condition is executed;
if the condition is not met, the code under `else` is executed.

Let's now focus on the syntax. An if/else construct is composed of four parts, explained below:

- **if condition** (line 1) contains a condition that determines code execution. It is made up of three components: (1) the **keyword if**, colored *bold green* in Jupyter Notebook, (2) the condition itself, and (3) the punctuation mark colon :
- **Statement** (line 2) contains the code that gets executed if the condition at line 1 is met
- **else** (line 3) implicitly contains the alternative to the condition on line 1. This line is always composed of the **keyword else** followed by the colon :
- **Statement** (line 4) contains the code that gets executed if the condition at line 1 is not met

Note: `else` and its following statements are not mandatory. There are cases when we do not want to do anything if the conditions are not met. Some examples of this scenario are provided in the following chapters.

Before concluding, let's zoom even more into these lines and focus on two more aspects: membership conditions and indentation. In coding, we can use various types of conditions, and you will see these throughout the book. In this case, we have a **membership condition**: `wanted_book` in `books` (line 1), where we check whether a variable contains one of the elements of a list. In a membership condition, we write: (1) variable name, (2) `in`, and (3) the list in which we want to find the element. `in` is a **membership operator**. In Jupyter Notebook, this is colored *bold green*, like keywords. In general, make sure not to confuse keywords, in *bold green*, with built-in functions, in *fainter green*.

Finally, notice that the statements under the `if` condition (line 2) and under the `else` (line 4) are always indented, which means shifted toward the right. An **indentation** consists of 4 spaces, or 1 tab. In Jupyter Notebook, when pressing enter or return after writing the `if` or `else` lines, the cursor is always automatically placed at the right indented position. Under an `if` or an `else` condition, we can write as many commands as we want, but they must be indented correctly to be executed.

Complete the table

Up to this point, you have already learned quite a lot of syntax. Complete the following table by using the example in the first row to summarize the syntax you know so far.

Code element	What it is	What it does
books	A variable of type list	It contains a sequence of strings
wanted_book		
"Learn Python"		
if		
in		
else		
=		
+		
input()		
print()		

Recap

- **Lists** are a Python *type* that contain a sequence of elements (for example, strings) separated by commas , and in between square brackets []
- The **if/else construct** allows us to execute code based on conditions
- The **membership operator in** verifies whether an element is in a list
- In Python, we use **indentation** for statements below if or else

Let's give variables meaningful names!

One of the fundamental criteria when writing code is **readability**. It is important to write code that is easy to read both for our future selves and for others. One of the ways to make code readable is to create **meaningful variable name**. As an example, let's consider the code we analyzed in this chapter. On line 1 of cell 2 we created the variable wanted_book:

```
[2]: 1 wanted_book = input("Hi! What book would you like  
to buy?") answer is assigned input  
Hi! What book would you  
like to buy?
```

Instead of wanted_book, we could have named the variable answer:

```
[2]: 1 answer = input("Hi! What book would you like to  
buy?") answer is assigned input  
Hi! What book would you  
like to buy?
```

The name `answer` is logically consistent because this variable contains the answer to the question "Hi! What book would you like to buy?". However, `answer` is not the best choice because it is a very generic variable name. Variable names should be **pertinent**, representing the information they contain. Consider having 10 `input()` commands in the code. What do we call the corresponding variables? We don't want to call them `answer_1`, `answer_2`, ..., `answer_10`; it would be hard to remember what we assigned to `answer_7`, for example. Or, if we later decide to reshuffle some questions, then we will have to rename the variables to make sure the numbers increase consistently. This would generate a lot of confusion and increase the possibility of errors.

Back to the previous example, the name `answer` would also not be meaningful in the following line of code from cell 3:

```
[3]: 1 if answer in books: if answer in books
```

It does not make much sense to look for an answer in a list of books! But it makes more sense to look for a wanted book in a list of books:

```
[3]: 1 if wanted_book in books: if wanted book in books
```

Let's code!

For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to that presented in this chapter.

1. *In an art gallery.* You are the owner of an art gallery. Write a list of some paintings you sell. A new customer comes in, and you ask what painting she wants to buy. You check whether you have that painting and reply accordingly.
2. *In a travel agency.* You are the owner of a travel agency. Write a list of some travel destinations you sell tickets for. A new customer comes in, and you ask where he wants to go. You check whether you offer that travel destination and reply accordingly.
3. *In a chemical lab.* You are the manager of a lab. On a shelf there some jars containing chemicals. Write a list containing the names of the chemicals. One of the lab members comes to you and you ask what chemical she wants. You check in your system whether you have that chemical and reply accordingly.
4. *In a tea room.* You are the owner of a tea room. Write a list of teas you offer. A new customer comes in, and you ask what tea he wants. You check on the menu whether you serve that tea and reply accordingly.

4. Grocery shopping

List methods: `.append()` and `.remove()`

What are methods? And what do `.append()` and `.remove()` do? To answer this questions, open Jupyter Notebook 4 and follow along. Let's start with the following example:

- You are going to a grocery store where you have to buy some food:

```
[1]: 1 shopping_list = ["carrots", "chocolate", "olives"] shopping list is assigned
      carrots, chocolate, olives
      2 print (shopping_list) print shopping list
```

- Right before leaving home, you ask yourself if you have to buy something else. If the item is not in the list, you add it:

```
[1]: 1 new_item = input ("What else do I have to buy?")
      2 if new_item in shopping_list:
      3     print (new_item + " is/are already in the
            shopping list")
      4
      5     print (shopping_list)
      6 else:
      7     shopping_list.append(new_item)
      8     print (shopping_list)
```

new item is assigned input What
else do I have to buy?
if new item in shopping list
print new item concatenated with
is/are already in the shopping
list
print shopping list
else
shopping list dot **append** new item
print shopping list

- Finally, you ask yourself if you have to remove an item. If so, you remove the item from the list:

```
[1]: 1 item_to_remove = input ("What do I have to
      remove?")
      2 if item_to_remove in shopping list:
      3
      4     shopping_list.remove(item_to_remove)
      5
      6     print (shopping_list)
      7 else:
      8     print (item_to_remove + " is/are not in the
            shopping list")
      9
      10    print (shopping_list)
```

item to remove is assigned input
what do I have to remove?
if item to remove in shopping
list
shopping list dot **remove** item to
remove
print shopping list
else
print item to remove concatenated
with is/are not in the shopping
list
print shopping list

To get a better idea of what happens in this code, match the sentence halves in the following exercise.

Match the sentence halves

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The variable <code>shopping_list</code> contains 2. If the new item is not in the shopping list 3. If the item to remove is in the shopping list 4. The method <code>.append()</code> allows us 5. The method <code>.remove()</code> allows us | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. we remove it from the shopping list b. to remove an element from a list c. "carrots", "chocolate", and "olives" d. we add it to the shopping list e. to add an element at the end of a list |
|---|--|

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's dig into the code by running the first cell:

```
[1]: 1 shopping_list = ["carrots", "chocolate", "olives"]
      2 print (shopping_list)
      ['carrots', 'chocolate', 'olives']
```

shopping list is assigned
carrots, chocolate, olives
print shopping list

We start with a list called `shopping_list`, which contains three strings: "carrots", "chocolate", and "olives" (line 1). Then, we print the shopping list to the screen (line 2).

What does `.append()` do? Let's run the second cell:

```
[2]: 1 new_item = input ("What else do I have to buy?")
      2 if new_item in shopping_list:
      3     print (new_item + " is/are already in the
             shopping list")
      4     print (shopping_list)
      5 else:
      6     shopping_list.append(new_item)
      7     print (shopping_list)
```

new item is assigned input What
else do I have to buy?
if new item in shopping list
print new item concatenated with
is/are already in the shopping
list
print shopping list
else
shopping list dot append new item
print shopping list

What else do I have to buy? carrots
carrots is/are already in the shopping list
['carrots', 'chocolate', 'olives']

In this cell, we ask the user to input a new item to buy, and the answer is saved in the variable `new_item` (line 1). Then, we act according to the value contained in `new_item`. If `new_item` is already in `shopping_list` (line 2), we print out a message saying that the item is already in the shopping list (line 3). To make the message more precise, we concatenate the string in `new_item` with the string "is/are already in the shopping list". Then, we print out the shopping list to check that the item is actually in the list (line 4).

What if the item is *not* in the shopping list? Let's rerun the cell and enter an item that is not in the list:

```
[3]: 1 new_item = input ("What else do I have to buy?")  
2 if new_item in shopping_list:  
3     print (new_item + " is/are already in the  
        shopping list")  
4     print (shopping_list)  
5 else:  
6     shopping_list.append(new_item)  
7     print (shopping_list)  
What else do I have to buy? apples  
['carrots', 'chocolate', 'olives', 'apples']
```

new item is assigned input What
else do I have to buy?
if new item in shopping list
print new item concatenated with
is/are already in the shopping
list
print shopping list
else
shopping list dot append new item
print shopping list

This time, we entered *apples* in the text box created by `input()` (line 1). Because *apples* is not in the shopping list (line 2), we skip the commands at lines 3 and 4 and jump directly to the `else` (line 5) to execute the commands below. We add the new item to the list (line 6), and we print out the list to check whether we added the element correctly (line 7).

How do we add a new element to a list? Let's have a closer look at line 6. Here, the method `.append()` adds the element `new_item` to the `shopping_list`. Note that `.append()` always **adds an element at the end of a list**. As we said, `.append()` is a method. But what is a method? A preliminary definition (we'll redefine it when we talk about object-oriented programming, at the end of the book) is as follows:

A **method** is a built-in function for a specific variable type

You can recognize that methods are functions because they are followed by round brackets. However, a method has its own syntax, which is composed of four elements: (1) variable name, (2) dot, (3) method name, and (4) round brackets. In the round brackets, there can be an **argument**, such as `new_item` in this case. Different data types have different methods. For example, `.append()` can be used for lists but not for strings. Lists have a total of eleven methods, and we will learn all of them throughout this book. Methods are colored *blue* in Jupyter Notebook.

Finally, what does `.remove()` do? Let's run the last cell:

```
[4]: 1 item_to_remove = input ("What do I have to
      remove?")
2 if item_to_remove in shopping_list:
3     shopping_list.remove(item_to_remove)
4     print (shopping_list)
5 else:
6     print (item_to_remove + " is/are not in the
      shopping list")
7     print (shopping_list)
What do I have to remove? olives
['carrots', 'chocolate', 'apples']
```

item to remove is assigned input
what do I have to remove?
if item to remove in shopping
list
shopping list dot remove item to
remove
print shopping list
else
print item to remove concatenated
with is/are not in the shopping
list
print shopping list

This time, we ask the user what item they want to remove (line 1). If the item to remove is in the shopping list (line 2), then we remove the item (line 3) and print out the resulting list (line 4). How do we remove an item? We use `.remove()`, which is the list method **to remove an item from a list**. The syntax is the same as for `.append()` and any other method: list name followed by dot, method name, and round brackets, which can contain an argument. As an argument, `.remove()` takes the element to be removed from the list.

What if we answer the question "What do I have to remove?" with an element that is not in the list? Let's have a look:

```
[5]: 1 item_to_remove = input ("What do I have to
      remove?")
2 if item_to_remove in shopping_list:
3     shopping_list.remove(item_to_remove)
4     print (shopping_list)
5 else:
6     print (item_to_remove + " is/are not in the
      shopping list")
7     print (shopping_list)
What do I have to remove? grapes
grapes is/are not in the list
['carrots', 'chocolate', 'apples']
```

item to remove is assigned input
what do I have to remove?
if item to remove in shopping
list
shopping list dot remove item to
remove
print shopping list
else
print item to remove concatenated
with is/are not in the shopping
list
print shopping list

In the text box created by `input()`, we entered *grapes* (line 1), which is not in `shopping_list` (line 2). Therefore, we skip lines 3 and 4 and jump to the `else` at line 5. There, we print out a message saying that `item_to_remove` is not in the shopping list (line 6) and print out the shopping list for final check (line 7).

Complete the table

In Python, we use a lot of punctuation marks. Sum up what you have seen so far by completing the following table, using the example in row 1.

Punctuation symbol	What it's called	What it does
' ' or ""	Single quotes or double quotes	They contain a strings
()		
[]		
:		
,		
.		

Recap

- The method `.append()` **adds an element** at the *end* of a list
- The method `.remove()` **removes an element** from a list

Why do we print so much?

When coding, it is important to **keep control of variable's values**. And particularly when learning to code, every time we create or modify a variable, it's important to make sure the code does what it is intended to do. Printing is an easy way to check that variable modifications correspond to our intentions. As an example, consider the code in cell 4, and let's focus on the `if` condition and its statements (lines 2–4). Let's rewrite it without the printing command:

<pre>[4]: 1 item_to_remove = input ("What do I have to remove?") 2 if item_to_remove in shopping_list: 3 shopping_list.remove(item_to_remove)</pre>	<pre>item to remove is assigned input what do I have to remove? if item to remove in shopping list shopping list dot remove item to remove</pre>
<pre>What do I have to remove? olives</pre>	

How do we know that the code actually worked correctly? That is, how do we know whether 'olives' was actually removed from `shopping_list`? We can assume that it happened, but we cannot be sure until we see it with our eyes. So, we need to print. Let's rewrite the

code by adding `print()` back to line 4:

<pre>[4]: 1 item_to_remove = input ("What do I have to remove?") 2 if item_to_remove in shopping_list: 3 shopping_list.remove(item_to_remove) 4 print (shopping_list)</pre>	<pre>item to remove is assigned input what do I have to remove? if item to remove in shopping list shopping list dot remove item to remove print shopping list</pre>
<pre>What do I have to remove? olives ['carrots', 'chocolate', 'apples']</pre>	

Because we printed, we can make sure that 'olives' is not in the `shopping_list`. Therefore, our code accomplished what we intended. Always print extensively when coding; you can always remove the `print()` function later on.

Let's code!

1. For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to the one presented in this chapter.
 - a. *Organizing an event.* You are organizing an event. Write a list of what you need to buy. Then ask your co-organizer what else you have to buy. If the item is not in the list, add it. Finally, ask your co-organizer if there is anything you need to remove from the list. If so, remove the item from the list.
 - b. *Favorite cities.* Write a list containing names of cities. Ask a friend their favorite city. If the city is not in the list, add it. Then, ask your friend if they do not like one of the cities you listed. If so, remove the city from your list.
2. *Shoe store.* You are the owner of a shoe store, and you have to place a new order for the next summer season. You go to the storage room, and you create a list of the remaining shoes: sneakers, boots, ballerinas. You know that in summer your customers will want sandals, so you add them to the list. However, they are not going to buy boots, so you remove them from the list. After you get the new supplies, a new customer comes in. You ask what shoes he wants to try, and he replies that he'd like to try sandals. You check in your list and reply accordingly. Then you ask if he wants to have a look at something else, and he replies that he'd like to try boots. You check in your list again and reply accordingly.
3. *Currency exchange office.* You work at a currency exchange office. The available currencies are Euros, Canadian Dollars, and Yen, whereas the Swiss Franc is unavailable, so you will have to order it. Create a list of available currencies and a list of currencies to order. A new customer comes in; you ask what currency she wants. After she replies, you check in the list of available currencies. If the currency she wants is available, you tell her that you have it, remove the currency from the list of available currencies, and add the currency to the list of currencies to order. If the currency she wants is not available, you tell her that you do not have that currency, and add the currency to the list of currencies to order.

5. Customizing the burger menu

List methods: .index(), .pop(), and .insert()

Let's learn three more list methods: `.index()`, `.pop()`, and `.insert()`. Open Jupyter Notebook 5, and read the following example aloud.

- You are at a food court, ready to order. Today's menu includes a burger, a side dish, and a drink:

```
[]: 1 todays_menu = ["burger", "salad", "coke"]          today's menu is assigned burger, salad,  
2 print (todays_menu)                                coke  
                                                print today's menu
```

- You are happy with burger and coke, but you want to change the side dish from *salad* to *fries*. To do so, you:

1. Look at the position of the side dish in the menu:

```
[]: 1 side_dish_index = todays_menu.index("salad")      side dish index is assigned today's  
2 print (side_dish_index)                            menu dot index of salad  
                                                print side dish index
```

2. Remove *salad* from the side dish position:

```
[]: 1 todays_menu.pop(side_dish_index)      today's menu dot pop side_dish_index  
2 print (todays_menu)                      print today's menu
```

3. Add *fries* to the side dish position:

```
[]: 1 todays_menu.insert(side_dish_index, "fries")    today's menu dot insert at side dish  
2 print (todays_menu)                            index fries  
                                                print today's menu
```

What happens in this code? Get some hints by completing the following exercise.

True or false?

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. The method <code>.index()</code> gives us the position of an element in a list | T | F |
| 2. The position of <i>salad</i> is 2 | T | F |
| 3. We remove the element in position <code>side_dish_index</code> and insert a new element in the same position | T | F |
| 4. <code>.index()</code> , <code>.pop()</code> , and <code>.insert()</code> are three string methods | T | F |

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's analyze the details of the code! Let's run the first cell:

```
[1]: 1 todays_menu = ["burger", "salad", "coke"]
      2 print (todays_menu)
          ['burger', 'salad', 'coke']
```

today's menu is assigned burger, salad, coke
print today's menu

We create a list called `todays_menu` containing three elements of type string—"burger", "salad", and "coke" (line 1)—and we print it out (line 2).

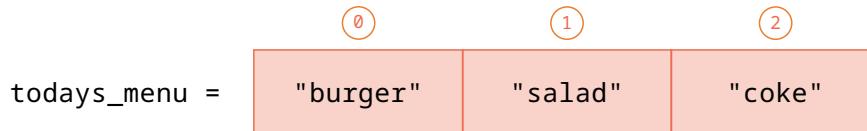
In the second cell, we meet the new list method `.index()`. What does it do? Let's run the cell:

```
[2]: 1 side_dish_index = todays_menu.index("salad")
      2 print (side_dish_index)
          1
```

side dish index is assigned today's menu dot index of salad
print side dish index

The method `.index()` looks for the element "salad" in the list `todays_menu` and tells us its position. More technically, we say that `.index()` **takes the argument** "salad" and **returns** its index. The position of "salad" is then assigned to the variable `side_dish_index` (line 1), which we print out (line 2). Note that in coding, we use the two synonyms **index** and **position** interchangeably.

Why is "salad" in position 1 and not 2? This is because in Python we count elements starting **from 0**, as you can see in the figure below: "burger" is in position 0, "salad" in position 1, and "coke" in position 2.



Representation of the list `todays_menu`: each square is a list element, and the number above is the corresponding index.

Finally, note that an element position is a number. In Python, zero, positive, and negative whole numbers are called **integers**, abbreviated as **int**. In our example, the variable `side_dish_index` contains the number 1, and it is of **type integer**.

Let's discover what `.pop()` does by running the next cell:

```
[3]: 1 todays_menu.pop(side_dish_index)
      2 print (todays_menu)
          ['burger', 'coke']
```

today's menu dot pop side_dish_index
print today's menu

The method `.pop()` removes the element in position `side_dish_index` from the list `todays_menu`. In other words, `.pop()` takes `side_dish_index` as an argument and **removes the element at that index**, which is "salad". In the previous chapter, we saw another method that deletes an element from a list: `.remove()`. What is the difference between the two methods? The method `.remove()` deletes an element of a certain *value*, whereas `.pop()` deletes an element *in a specific position*.

And finally, let's learn the method `.insert()`. Let's run the last cell:

```
[4]: 1 todays_menu.insert(side_dish_index, "fries") today's menu dot insert at side dish
      2 print (todays_menu) index fries
          ['burger', 'fries', 'coke'] print today's menu
```

The method `.insert()` allows us to **add an element at a specific index**. It takes two arguments: (1) the *index* where we want to insert the new element and (2) the *value* of the new element. In this case, we want to insert at position `side_dish_index`, which is position 1, the string "fries". Similarly, in the previous chapter we saw another method to add an element to a list: `.append()`. What's the difference? The method `.append()` adds an element *at the end* of a list, whereas `.insert()` adds an element in a specific position of a list.

Finally, when dealing with lists, we must always be aware of that **each element has a position**. In some cases, it is more convenient to work directly on the elements and use methods like `.append()` and `.remove()`. In other cases, it is more appropriate to work on elements' positions, so we use methods such as `.index()`, `.pop()`, and `.insert()`. Note that `.append()`, `.remove()`, `.pop()`, and `.insert()` modify the list. On the other side, `.index()` gives us some information about the list, and we can save this information in a separate variable. Lastly, `.append()`, `.remove()`, `.index()`, and `.pop()` take only one argument, whereas `.insert()` takes two arguments, which are position and new element.

Complete the table

So far you have learned five list methods. Summarize what they do by completing the following table.

List method	What it does
<code>.append()</code>	
<code>.remove()</code>	
<code>.index()</code>	
<code>.pop()</code>	
<code>.insert()</code>	

Recap

- The method `.index()` returns the **position of an element** in a list
- The method `.pop()` **removes an element in a certain position** from a list
- The method `.insert()` **adds an element in a certain position** to a list
- **Indices** (or positions) of elements start from 0 and increase in increments of one unit; they are of type **integer**

We code in English!

During a coffee break, a colleague once told me, "Isn't it crazy that when English speaking people code, they actually do it in their own mother tongue? I mean, when they say `if`, they actually mean `if`!" I had never thought about it. For me, an Italian mother tongue, `if` was just a keyword composed of two symbols. Reading `if book in books` or `ab book in books` was exactly the same. I had learned to look at keywords and variable names as abstract symbols with no intrinsic meaning; they were just entities with a specific function. After that conversation, I mentally translated keywords and variable names into my mother tongue, and everything acquired much more meaning and made so much more sense! I grasped the importance of variable names (they actually have a meaning in English!), and thus, I started writing commands like `if book in books`, instead of `if variable_1 in list_1`. Now, when I code, I mainly think in English. But that translation process helped me acquire more awareness and make my code much more readable. In Chapters 4 and 5, we learned five list methods. Their names actually have a meaning in English. `Remove`, `insert`, and `index` are pretty straightforward. To remember that `append` adds new elements at the end of a list, one can think of the appendix of a book, which is always at the end, or of the appendix in the intestine, which is somewhere at the end of the abdomen. To remember `pop`, one can think of making popcorn, like little explosions, that here remove elements from a certain position. Whether English is your native tongue or not, remember that we code in English!

Let's code!

1. For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to that presented in this chapter:
 - a. *Getting a new bike.* You go to a bike store to buy your new bike. There you find a bike you like: it is blue, electric, and has gears. Write a list with these characteristics. You are happy with the bike being electric and having gears, but you would like to change its color. To do so, you (1) look at the position of the `blue` color in the bike option list, (2) remove the `blue` color, and (3) add the color you want.
 - b. *Ordering a T-shirt online.* You are ordering a new T-shirt online. You find a T-shirt you like, which is red, with a round neck, and with a print `add your text here`. Write a list with these characteristics. Now you want to add your own text to the T-shirt. To do so, you (1) look at the position of `add your text here`, (2) remove `add your text here`, and (3) add the text you want to be printed on your T-shirt. After completing the exercise, can you think of an alternative way to change the T-shirt print?
2. *Steve Jobs.* Given the following list:

```
steve_jobs = ["somebody", "learn", "use", "a computer", "it teaches us"]
```

Find out a famous quote by Steve Jobs by doing the following:

- a. Add the new string "think" at the end of the list.
- b. Add "should" in position 1.

- c. Add "how to" in position 3. Then also add it in position 7.
 - d. Replace "use" with "program".
 - e. Add "because" after "a computer".
 - f. Replace "somebody" with "everybody".
 - g. Add " - Steve Jobs" at the end.
3. *Grace Hopper*. Do you know why we say *debugging* in coding? Let's find out! Given the following list:

```
grace_hopper = ["In 1946", "a moth", "caused", "a malfunction", "in an early",
"electromechanical", "computer"]
```

Modify it by doing the following:

- a. Replace "In 1946" with "From then on".
- b. Add "we said" after "computer".
- c. Remove the string in position 5(6th element) and add "with a" in the same position.
- d. Remove the string in position 3(4th element).
- e. Substitute (or replace) "a moth" with "when anything".
- f. Remove "in an early".
- g. Add "it had bugs in it" at the end of the list.
- h. Substitute "caused" with "went wrong".
- i. Add " - Grace Hopper" at the end of the list.

6. Traveling around the world

List slicing

In the previous two chapters, you learned five methods to manipulate lists: `.append()`, `.remove()`, `.index()`, `.pop()`, and `.insert()`. These list methods are very convenient and easy to remember; however, they can make code quite cumbersome. In Python, there is an alternative and more compact way to change, add, and remove list elements, which you will see in the next chapter. This alternative method is based on *slicing*; therefore, in this chapter, we will focus on this topic. Ready to get to know everything about slicing? Open Jupyter Notebook 6 and follow along! First of all, what is slicing?

Slicing means accessing list elements through their indices

If you have a sweet tooth, the word “slicing” immediately reminds you of a slice of cake. And in fact, there is quite a similarity between slicing a cake and slicing a list! In the first case, you “extract” one or more cake slices for your guests—and yourself! In the second case, you extract one or more list elements for subsequent lines of code.

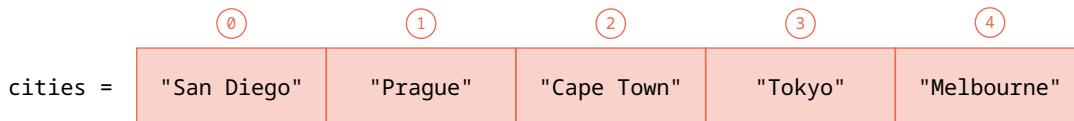
- Let's meet the list we will slice:

```
[1]: 1 cities = ["San Diego", "Prague", "Cape Town", "Tokyo",
      "Melbourne"]
      2 print(cities)
      ['San Diego', 'Prague', 'Cape Town', 'Tokyo', 'Melbourne']
```

cities is assigned San
Diego, Prague, Cape
Town, Tokyo, Melbourne
print cities

In this cell, there is a list called `cities` containing five strings: "San Diego", "Prague", "Cape Town", "Tokyo", and "Melbourne" (line 1), and we print it out (line 2).

How are we going to slice `cities`? The **syntax** for slicing is very easy. It consists of the **list name followed by opening and closing square brackets**, like this: `cities[]`. In between the square brackets, we write the **positions of the elements** we want to slice. For this reason, it's crucial to be aware of the positions of each element within a list. In the list `cities`, the elements have the following positions:



Representation of the list `cities`: each square is a list element,
and the number above is the corresponding index.

Now, how do we write element positions in between the square brackets? There are various rules depending on how many elements we want to slice, where they are, and in which direction we want to extract them. We are going to learn all these rules in the coming pages.

A last note before starting: to better learn about slicing, I suggest this method. Every time you read a slicing task (for example: Slice "Prague"), cover the following code with a piece of paper. Try to guess the code, and compare your guess with the solution. Then carefully read the explanation. Make sure you fully understand the current example before proceeding to the next one. Enough words, time to slice!

1. Slice "Prague":

```
[2]: 1 print (cities[1])          print cities in position one  
      'Prague'
```

In this cell, we slice (or access) "Prague", which is in position 1, and we print it. As you can see, when we slice **one single element** from a list, we write the position of the element itself in between the square brackets. Thus, we can summarize this syntax as **list_name[element_position]**, and we can read it as *list name in position element position*.

Note: For simplicity, in this example and those that follow, we just print the sliced elements. However, one could assign a sliced element to a variable, like this:

```
[2]: 1 sliced_city = cities[1]          sliced_city is assigned cities in position  
      2 print (sliced_city)           one  
      'Prague'
```

We will assign sliced list elements to variables in the following chapters. For now, let's focus on understanding how slicing works!

2. Slice the cities from "Prague" to "Tokyo":

```
[3]: 1 print (cities[1:4])          print cities in positions from one to four  
      ['Prague', 'Cape Town', 'Tokyo']
```

In this cell, we slice and print three consecutive elements—"Prague", "Cape Town", and "Tokyo"—that are at positions 1, 2, and 3, respectively. In between the square brackets, we write two numbers, separated by a colon :. The first number is the position of the *first* element we want to slice, and we call it **start**. In this case, the start is 1, which corresponds to "Prague". The second number is the position of the *last* element we want to slice, to which we must add 1. We call it **stop**. The stop always follows the **plus one rule**, which simply says that **we must add 1 to the position of the last element we want to slice** (you can learn the reasoning behind this rule in the *in more depth* section at the end of this chapter). In this example, the position of the last element ("Tokyo") is 3, to which we must add 1 because of the plus one rule, so the stop is 4. We can summarize the syntax to slice consecutive elements as **list_name[start:stop]**, and we can read it as *list name in positions from start to stop*.

3. Slice "Prague" and "Tokyo":

```
[4]: 1 print (cities[1:4:2])          print cities in positions from one to four  
      ['Prague', 'Tokyo']           with a step of two
```

In this case, we want to slice and print two non-consecutive elements—"Prague" and "Tokyo"—which are at positions 1 and 3, respectively. In the code above, you might recognize that 1 is the start, 4 is the stop (because of the plus-one rule), and 2? That is the **step!** As you can see, "Tokyo" is positioned 2 steps after "Prague": there is 1 step from "Prague" to "Cape Town", and 1 step from "Cape Town" to "Tokyo", for a total of 2 steps. Therefore, the syntax to slice **non-consecutive elements** is an extension of the rule we saw in the example above: `list_name[start:stop:step]`, which you can read as *list name from start to stop with step*. We can call it the **three-s rule**, where the three s's are the initials of `start`, `stop`, and `step`, respectively.

The most convenient aspect of the three-s rule is that we can simplify it in several situations. For example, you might wonder: why didn't we write the step in the example 2, where we sliced the cities from "Prague" to "Tokyo"? Because **when elements are consecutive, the step is 1**—"Cape Town" is 1 step after "Prague", and "Tokyo" is 1 step after "Cape Town"—and when the step is 1 we can simply omit it. Obviously, we could have written the code specifying the step as follows:

[3]:	1 print (cities[1:4:1])	print cities in positions from <code>one</code> to <code>four</code> with a step of <code>one</code>
	['Prague', 'Cape Town', 'Tokyo']	

However, adding the step here is a redundancy, so we simply avoid it.

4. Slice the cities from "San Diego" to "Cape Town":

[5]:	1 print (cities[0:3])	print cities in positions from <code>zero</code> to <code>three</code>
	['San Diego', 'Prague', 'Cape Town']	

Here we have to slice consecutive elements. So, we specify the start, which is `0` for "San Diego", and the stop, which is `3` for "Cape Town", but we can omit the step because it is `1`. Interestingly, in this case we can simplify the three-s rule even more! Because the **start** coincides with the **first element of the list**, we can simply omit it:

[6]:	1 print (cities[:3])	print cities from the beginning of the list to position <code>three</code>
	['San Diego', 'Prague', 'Cape Town']	

5. Slice the cities from "Cape Town" to "Melbourne":

[7]:	1 print (cities[2:5])	print cities in positions from <code>two</code> to <code>five</code>
	['Cape Town', 'Tokyo', 'Melbourne']	

Again, we have to slice consecutive elements. Therefore, we specify the start, which is `2` for "Cape Town", and the stop, which is `5` (because of the plus-one rule) for "Melbourne", but we omit the step because it is `1`. And once more, we can simplify the three-s rule! How? The **stop** coincides with the **last element of the list**, so we can just omit it:

[8]:	1 print (cities[2:])	print cities from position <code>two</code> to the end of the list
	['Cape Town', 'Tokyo', 'Melbourne']	

So far, we have seen the three-s rule applied in its entirety (example 3), and without start (example 4), stop (example 5), and step (example 2). How else can we simplify it? Let's look at the following example. How do you think the code will look?

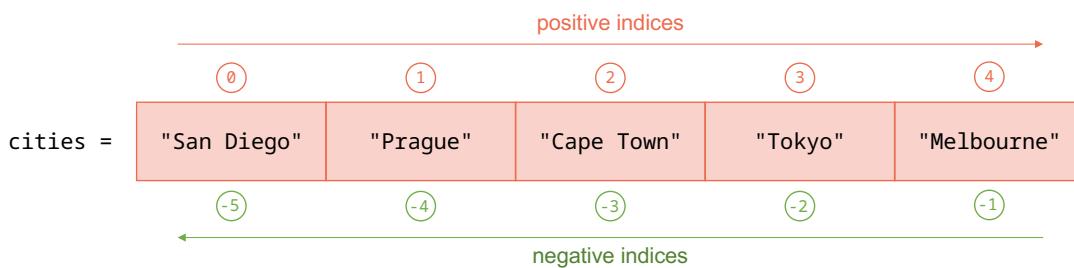
6. Slice "San Diego", "Cape Town", and "Melbourne":

[9]:	1 print (cities[0:5:2])	print cities in positions from zero to five with a step of two
	['San Diego', 'Cape Town', 'Melbourne']	

This time, the elements to slice are not consecutive. We start at 0, which is the position of "San Diego", we stop at 5 (because of the plus-one rule) for "Melbourne", and we specify the step, which is 2, because we are slicing every second element. However, as you might have guessed, because the start coincides with the beginning of the list, and the stop coincides with the last element of the list, we can omit both, and rewrite the code above as follows:

[10]:	1 print (cities[::-2])	print cities from the beginning to the end of the list with a step of two
	'San Diego', 'Cape Town', 'Melbourne']	

You have now mastered the three-s rule and learned how to simplify it. How else can we play with it? Let's look at this further representation of the list `cities`:



In a list, indices can be positive (from left to right) or negative (from right to left).

In Python, each element of a list can be identified by a positive or a negative index. We use **positive indices** when we consider elements **from left to right** and **negative indices** when we consider elements **from right to left**. Positive indices start from 0 and increase of 1 unit (0, 1, 2, etc.). Negative indices start from -1 and decrease of 1 unit (-1, -2, -3, etc.). Note that negative indices do not start from 0 to avoid ambiguity: the element in position 0 is always the first element of the list starting from the left side. When are negative indices convenient? For example, when we are dealing with a very long list. In that case, it would be tedious to count through all elements starting from 0. So we can just count backwards starting from the last element!

How do we use negative indices in slicing? Let's have a look!

7. Slice "Melbourne":

[11]:	1 print (cities[4])	print cities in positions 4
	Melbourne	

In this example, we extracted "Melbourne" as we learned in example 1: by writing its **positive index**, which is 4, in between the square brackets. However, "Melbourne" is the last element of the list; therefore, it is much more convenient to use its **negative index** to slice it, like this:

[12]: 1 print (cities[-1])	print cities in position minus one Melbourne
----------------------------	---

The advantage of using the negative index is that we do not need to count through all the list elements to get to know the position of "Melbourne". Since "Melbourne" is the last element of the list, we can just write -1. This saves us time and eliminates possible errors due to miscounting.

8. Slice all the cities from "Prague" to "Tokyo" using *negative* indices:

[13]: 1 print (cities[-4:-1])	print cities in positions from minus four to minus one ['Prague', 'Cape Town', 'Tokyo']
-------------------------------	--

This is in an alternative to example 2. There, we extracted the cities from "Prague" to "Tokyo" using positive indices, whereas here we want to use negative indices. It might look intimidating, but the reasoning is always the same. The first element we want to extract is Prague, which is in position -4, therefore the start is -4. The last element we want to extract is Tokyo, which is in position -2, thus the stop is -1 because of the *plus one* rule. Like in the previous example, using negative indices can be very convenient when extracting elements from the end of a long list.

In this example, we saw how to use negative indices for the start and the stop. What about the step? A **negative step** allows us **to slice elements in reverse order**, which means from the right to the left. Negative steps can be used with both positive or negative start and stop. This might sound confusing, but we'll clarify it the next three examples. Slicing in reverse order is a very powerful feature, and it's the last thing you need to know to master slicing. Let's have a look!

9. Slice all the cities from "Tokyo" to "Prague" using *positive* indices (reverse order):

[14]: 1 print (cities[3:0:-1])	print cities in positions from three to zero with a step of minus one ['Tokyo', 'Cape Town', 'Prague']
--------------------------------	---

When slicing—and coding, in general—it is extremely important to be aware of the result we expect. When slicing in reverse order, having the result in mind can really avoid confusion. So, let's start from there. We want to print out "Tokyo", "Cape Town", and "Prague". The first element is "Tokyo", which is in position 3, so the start is 3. The last element is "Prague", which is in position 1. When we slice in reverse order, instead of the plus-one rule, we have to use the **minus one rule**, which says that **we must subtract 1 from the position of the last element we want to slice**. Why? This is very intuitive. As we know, for the stop, we always want to take the next position. When slicing in direct order, the next position is on the *right* side of the last element. Therefore, we add 1 to its index. On the other side, when slicing in reverse order, the next position is on the *left* side of the last element. Therefore, we subtract 1 from its index. Now, back to our example. The last element is "Prague", which is in position 1. And because of the minus one rule, the stop is 0. Finally, we need to define the step. Because the elements are consecutive, the step should be 1, but because we are going in reverse order, we have to put a minus in front of it, so the step becomes -1.

In summary, when slicing in reverse order, we have to: (1) make sure we have the first and the last elements clearly in our minds, (2) apply the minus one rule to the stop, and (3) use a negative step.

Let's raise the bar even more now! Look at the next example.

10. Slice all the cities from "Tokyo" to "Prague" using *negative* indices (*reverse order*):

[15]: 1 print (cities[-2:-5:-1])	print cities in positions from minus two to minus five with a step of minus one
['Tokyo', 'Cape Town', 'Prague']	

When using negative indices for the start and the stop, the rules are exactly the same as when using positive indices. The first element we want to slice is "Tokyo", which is in position -2, so the start is -2. The last element is "Prague", which is in position -4. Because of the minus one rule, we have to subtract 1 from -4, therefore the stop is -5. And finally, because we are slicing consecutive elements in reverse order, the step is -1. As you can now imagine, using negative indices can be very convenient when slicing elements at the end of a very long list in reverse order.

11. Slice all the cities (*in reverse order*):

[16]: 1 print (cities[::-1])	print from the beginning of the list to the end of the list with a step of minus 1
['Melbourne', 'Tokyo', 'Cape Town', 'Prague', 'San Diego']	

The first element to slice is "Melbourne", which is the last element of the list. Therefore, we can omit the start. The last element to slices is "San Diego", which is the first element of the list. Therefore, we can omit the stop too. We just must write the step, which is -1 because we are slicing consecutive elements in reverse order. Easy to remember!

Last note. Learning slicing might feel overwhelming at first because of all the rules, the use of positive and negative indices, and thinking of lists in direct and reverse order. However, learning slicing properly is fundamental not only because it is often used in coding, but also because it allows you to exercise your brain and strengthen your logical thinking. Take your time to learn the rules and do the exercises below. You will greatly benefit from it in the following chapters!

Complete the table

Complete the following table to create an overview of slicing in your own words:

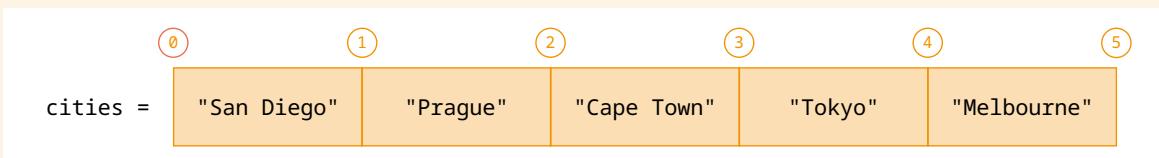
Slicing syntax	What it does
list_name[index]	
list_name[start:stop:step]	
list_name[:stop:step]	
list_name[start::step]	
list_name[start:stop]	
list_name[negative_index]	
list_name[::-negative_step]	
list_name[:::-1]	

Recap

- To slice *one element*, we use the rule: `list_name[element_position]`
- To slice *multiple elements*, we use the **three-s rule**: `list_name[start:stop:step]`, where:
 - We can omit: *start* when we slice from the first element of a list; *stop* when we slice to the last element of a list; and *step* when we slice consecutive elements of a list
 - The *stop* follows the **plus one rule** when slicing from left to right (*direct order*), and the **minus one rule** when slicing from right to left (*reverse order*)
- The values of *element_position*, *start*, *stop*, and *step* can be:
 - *Positive*: when considering elements from left to right (*direct order*)
 - *Negative*: when considering elements from right to left (*reverse order*)
- *Negative steps* are used to invert lists

Why the plus one rule?

So far, we have learned that each list element is associated with an index or position. However, in Python, each element is actually considered between two positions, as represented in this figure:



List representation where each element is in between indices.

Let's re-consider example 2, where we extracted the cities from "Prague" to "Tokyo":

[3]:	1 <code>print (cities[1:4])</code>	<code>print cities in positions from one to four</code>
		<code>['Prague', 'Cape Town', 'Tokyo']</code>

Using the representation above, we can see that the start is 1 because that is the index that precedes "Prague", the first element to slice. And the stop is 4 because that is the index that follows "Tokyo", the last element to slice.

For many people, considering elements in-between indices is pretty straightforward. For other people, considering that elements have one single index—as we have done so far—is easier. My recommendation is to pick one representation and stick to that. In this book, we will continue to represent list elements with one single index.

Let's code!

1. *Fruits and veggies.* Given the following list:

```
fruits_and_veggies = ["peppers", "apricots", "carrots", "apples", "zucchini",
"grapes", "cabbage", "oranges", "asparagus", "pears"]
```

Use slicing to extract:

- a. The produce between apples and grapes (included)
- b. All the vegetables
- c. All the fruits
- d. The vegetables between carrots and asparagus (included)
- e. The fruits between apples and oranges (included)

2. *Clothes, stationery, and electronics.* Given the following list:

```
objects = ["mobile", "t_shirt", "pencil", "laptop", "hat", "ruler", "tv", "pants",
"pen"]
```

Use slicing to extract:

- a. All the clothes
- b. All the stationery
- c. All the electronics
- d. The second and the last stationery items
- e. The first and the last electronics items
- f. The first and the second clothing items

3. *Interior design.* Given the following list: `interior_design = ["sofa", "curtain", "lamp", "table", "carpet", "plant", "armchair", "blanket", "vase"]`

Use slicing to extract the following elements in *direct* order (from left to right), once using *positive* indices and once using *negative* indices:

- a. All furniture
- b. All textiles
- c. All decorative elements
- d. The pieces composed of 5 letters (count them by hand, no coding required)

4. *Botanic garden.* Given the following list:

```
botanic_garden = ["tulip", "pine", "poppy", "palm", "rose", "oak", "daisy",
"eucalyptus"]
```

Use slicing to extract the following elements, once in *direct* order (from left to right) and once in *inverse* order (from right to left):

- a. All flowers
- b. All trees
- c. All flowers and trees starting with p (find them by hand, no coding required)
- d. "pine", "rose", and "eucalyptus"
- e. All flowers and trees

5. *Travel agency.* You are the owner of a travel agency and these are the destinations you offer:

```
destinations = ["Boston", "Madrid", "Shanghai", "Cairo", "Mexico City", "Copenhagen",  
"Seoul", "Casablanca", "Lima", "Vienna", "Bangkok", "Nairobi", "Buenos Aires",  
"Athens", "Manila", "Cape Town"]
```

You also have a list containing additional destinations you want to offer in the future:

```
future_destinations = ["Tunis"]
```

- a. A new customer comes in and you ask where he would like to go. He replies: Berlin. You check whether Berlin is part of the destination list. If Berlin is part of the list, you say that you sell tickets for Berlin. If Berlin is not part of the destination list, you: (1) tell the customer that you do not sell tickets for Berlin; (2) tell him what European cities are in the destination list; and (3) add Berlin to the list of future destinations.
- b. Because tickets for Berlin are not available, your customer is now thinking about going to Asia. So you tell him the destinations in Asia. He tells you that he forgot the last two Asian places you mentioned; so you tell them again. Then, he says he would have enjoyed going to Hong Kong. But Hong Kong is not an available destination, so you add it to the list of future destinations.
- c. Now you ask your customer if he is interested in going to the American continent, and he replies: Toronto. You check whether Toronto is part of the list. Similarly to what you did for Berlin, if Toronto is part of the list, you say that you sell tickets for Toronto. If Toronto is not part of the destination list, you: (1) tell your customer that you do not sell tickets for Toronto, (2) tell him what cities on the American continent are in the destination list, and (3) add Toronto to the list of future destinations.
- d. The customer is still undecided. You think he might be interested in a trip to Africa, so you tell him all the destinations in Africa. He finally tells you that he wants to go to Cape Town! So you replace Cape Town from the list of destinations with Tunis from the list of future destinations, and remove Tunis from the future destination list.
- e. The customer is finally gone, and you want to create a flyer with all the destinations you offer. To do so, you add the three new future destinations to the list of current destinations (in what order?), and you print out the destinations you offer for each continent. While doing so, you notice that Africa only has four destinations. So you add one African destination to the destination list before printing out the African destinations. And, finally, you close the shop, go home, and enjoy your evening after a hard day of work!

7. Senses, planets, and a house

Changing, adding, and removing list elements using slicing

Now that you know everything about slicing, let's see how to use it to manipulate lists—that is, how to change, add, or remove list elements. Download and open Jupyter Notebook number 7 from www.learnpythonwithjupyter.com and follow along. Similarly to the previous chapter, cover the code in these pages with a sheet of paper. First, try to guess the commands to execute, and then compare with the code below. Don't forget to read the code aloud!

1. Senses

Let's first learn how to **change list elements** using **slicing** and **assignment**.

- Let's start with the following list:

```
[1]: 1  senses = ["eyes", "nose", "ears", "tongue",
      "skin"]
      2  print (senses)
          ['eyes', 'nose', 'ears', 'tongue', 'skin']
```

senses is assigned eyes, nose, ears, tongue, skin
print senses

The list `senses` contains five strings: "eyes", "nose", "ears", "tongue", and "skin" (line 1), and we print it out (line 2).

- Replace "nose" with "smell":

```
[2]: 1  senses[1] = "smell"
      2  print (senses)
          ['eyes', 'smell', 'ears', 'tongue', 'skin']
```

senses in position one is assigned smell
print senses

To change **one list element**, we assign the new value to the list sliced in the element's position. In this case, the element we want to replace—"nose"—is in position 1. So, we slice the list in position 1, and we assign the new string "smell" (line 1). Then, we print the list to check whether the change is correct (line 2).

At this point, you might ask: Why do I have to learn list manipulation using slicing when I already know how to do it with methods? For at least three reasons! First reason: to **reduce the possibility of errors**. The code at line 1 is an alternative to the code we learned in Chapter 5, where we used three methods to replace an element, that is:

```
[1]: 1  nose_index = senses.index("nose")
      2  senses.pop(nose_index)
      3  senses.insert(nose_index, "smell")
```

nose index is assigned senses dot index of nose
senses dot pop nose index
senses dot insert at position nose index smell

By using slicing, we reduce the number of commands from 3 to 1, and we do not need to create an extra variable—`nose_index`. By writing less code, we minimize the possibility of making errors! Second reason: **slicing makes code writing faster**. Imagine you have to replace 4 elements. With

slicing, you would have to write just 4 lines of code; instead, with list methods, the number of lines required would be 12! And finally, the third reason: transitioning from list methods to list slicing allows us to shift from a more concrete to a more **abstract way of thinking**. As you know, when using list methods, we use a *coding* language that is more similar to a *natural* language. Method names, in fact, are words in the English vocabulary, such as *remove*, *insert*, etc. Instead, when slicing, we use numbers—which represent element positions—and thus we use (numerical) symbols in place of words. As you can see, we are building more and more the abstract thinking that coding requires. So let's keep going!

- Replace "tongue" and "skin" with "taste" and "touch":

```
[3]: 1  senses[3:5] = ["taste", "touch"]
      2  print(senses)
['eyes', 'smell', 'ears', 'taste', 'touch']
```

senses in positions from `three` to `five`
`is assigned taste, touch`
`print` `senses`

To change **several elements** in a list, first we slice the elements we want to substitute, and then we assign them a list containing the new values. In this case, we want to replace two elements, so we slice using the three-s rule. The start is the position of "tongue", which is 3, and the stop is the position of "skin", which is 4, but it becomes 5 because of the plus one rule. The step is 1, so we can omit it. To the sliced list, we assign a list containing the new elements, which are the strings "taste" and "touch" (line 1). Finally, we print the list to make sure that the change occurred correctly (line 2).

- Replace "eyes" and "ears" with "sight" and "hearing":

```
[4]: 1  senses[0:3:2] = ["sight", "hearing"]
      2  print(senses)
['sight', 'smell', 'hearing', 'taste', 'touch']
```

senses in positions from `zero` to `three`
`with a step of two` `is assigned sight,`
`hearing`
`print` `senses`

Like in the previous example, we want to replace several elements. So, we begin by slicing the list. The start is the position of "eyes", which is `0` (and can be omitted). The stop is the position of "ears", which is `2`, but it becomes `3` because of the plus one rule. The two elements are not consecutive, thus we have to write the step, which is `2`. Finally, we assign the list containing the two strings we want to add: "sight" and "hearing". Note that the two elements we want to replace are not consecutive, but Python takes care of placing "sight" and "hearing" in the right positions (line 1). At the end, we print the final list to check the changes we made (line 2).

2. Planets

To add new elements to a list, we can use **slicing combined with list concatenation and assignment**. How? Let's have a look at the following examples!

- Let's start with the following list:

```
[5]: 1 planets = ["Mercury", "Mars", "Earth", "Neptune"]
      2 print (planets)
      ['Mercury', 'Mars', 'Earth', 'Neptune']
```

planets is assigned Mercury,
Mars, Earth, Neptune
print planets

We begin with the list planets, which contains four strings: "Mercury", "Mars", "Earth", and "Neptune" (line 1), and we print it out (line 2).

- Add "Jupiter" at the end of the list:

```
[6]: 1 planets = planets + ["Jupiter"]
      2 print (planets)
      ['Mercury', 'Mars', 'Earth', 'Neptune', 'Jupiter']
```

planets is assigned planets
concatenated with Jupiter
print planets

To add **an element at the end of a list**, we (1) embed it in a list, (2) concatenate it to the original list, and (3) assign the result to the original list. It's less complicated than it sounds! Let's start from the far right of line 1. We take the new element "Jupiter"—which is a string—and we enclose it in square brackets to transform it into a list: ["Jupiter"]. Why do we need to change "Jupiter" data type? Because we want to add it to the list planets using concatenation. And, as in string concatenation, we can concatenate only strings with strings; in **list concatenation**, we can concatenate only **lists with lists**. Note that list concatenation works the same way as string concatenation. Finally, we **assign the result of the operation to the original list** planets to actually change it. It is common to say that we **reassign** the result to the original list. This whole operation constitutes an alternative to the method `.append()`. Finally, we print out the modified list to check the correctness of our code (line 2).

You may have realized that in this example there is no slicing! This is because it's a special case, where we add an element at the end of a list—it would be similar if we added an element at the beginning of a list. We could write `planets[0:4] + ["Jupiter"]`, where `planets[0:4]` slices all the elements in the list, but that would be redundant. Let's see slicing in action in the next two examples!

- Add "Venus" between "Mars" and "Earth":

```
[7]: 1 planets = planets[0:2] + ["Venus"] + planets[2:5]
      2 print (planets)
      ['Mercury', 'Mars', 'Venus', 'Earth', 'Neptune',
       'Jupiter']
```

planets is assigned planets from
zero to two concatenated with
venus concatenated with planets
from two to five
print planets

In this case, we want to add an element **in the middle** of a list. To do so, we (1) split the list in two segments at the position where we want to insert the new element, (2) insert the new element as a list by concatenating it with the two list segments, and (3) assign the result to the original list. Like before, it's easier than it sounds! We want to split the list between "Mars" and "Earth". So, the first list segment will contain "Mercury" and "Mars". Thus, we slice planets starting from position 0, corresponding to "Mercury", and stopping in position 2 for the plus one rule; "Mars" is in position 1.

The second list segment will contain "Earth", "Neptune", and "Jupiter". So, we slice starting from position 2, corresponding to "Earth", and stopping in position 5 for the plus one rule; "Jupiter" is in position 4. In between the two list segments, we concatenate a new list containing the string "Venus"—like before, we have to change "Venus" from a string to a list. We conclude the operation by assigning the concatenation result to the original list. As you may have realized, this line is an alternative to the method `.insert()` (line 1). Finally, we print out the obtained list to check the correctness of the operation (line 2).

A nice way to think about the whole procedure is to consider a list like a **toy train**, where each list element is a car. When we want to insert a new car, for example a restaurant car, we split the train into two parts in the position where we want the new car to be. Then, we add the first part of the train to the left side of the restaurant car, and the second part of the train to the right side of the restaurant car. Thus, we obtain our modified train!

- Add "Uranus" and "Saturn" between "Neptune" and "Jupiter":

```
[8]: 1 planets = planets[:5] + ["Uranus", "Saturn"] + planets[5:]
      2 print (planets)
      ['Mercury', 'Mars', 'Venus', 'Earth', 'Neptune',
       'Uranus', 'Saturn', 'Jupiter']
```

planets is assigned planets from the beginning of the list to position five concatenated with Uranus, Saturn concatenated with planets from position five to the end of the list
print planets

To insert **several consecutive elements in the middle of a list**, we use the same approach as the one above. We slice the first part of the list `planets` from the beginning (start omitted) to 5, which corresponds to the position of "Neptune" plus 1. Then, we concatenate the two new elements "Uranus" and "Saturn" embedded in a list. Finally, we concatenate the remaining part of the list `planets`, starting from the position of "Jupiter", which is 5, and stopping at the end of the list (stop omitted). As you'll probably notice, when we want to insert several consecutive elements in the middle of a list, we just **embed all the elements in a list** (line 1). Finally, we print out the modified list to check whether we added the new elements correctly (line 2).

Now a trick! We saw that the start of the first list segment and the stop of the second list segment are omitted. In addition, you may have noticed that the stop of the first list segment coincides with the start of the second list segment—they are both 5. This is because of the plus one rule applied to the stop of the first list segment. Therefore, when adding new elements using slicing, we can **just count the stop of the first list segment**. That will coincide with the start of the second list segment. The remaining start and stop can be omitted!

An important note before continuing: in the past three examples, we started analyzing code from the right side of the assignment symbol. Focusing on that side is quite common because it is where we define variable changes and operations. Sometimes, we can even start writing code on the right side of the assignment symbol, and then type the appropriate variable name on the left side. It's very common to start **analyzing or writing code backwards!**

3. A house

To **delete** list elements, we can use the **keyword del** combined with **list slicing**. This is very easy. Let's have a look!

- Consider the following list:

```
[9]: 1 house = ["kitchen", "dining room", "living room",
           "bedroom", "bathroom", "garden", "balcony",
           "terrace"]
      2 print (house)
      ['kitchen', 'dining room', 'living room', 'bedroom',
       'bathroom', 'garden', 'balcony', 'terrace']
```

house is assigned kitchen, dining room, living room, bedroom, bathroom, garden, balcony, terrace
print house

We start with a list called house containing 8 strings (line 1), and we print it out (line 2).

- Delete "dining room":

```
[10]: 1 del house[1]
      2 print (house)
      ['kitchen', 'living room', 'bedroom', 'bathroom',
       'garden', 'balcony', 'terrace']
```

del house in position one
print house

To **delete one element** in a list, we can use **del** followed by the list sliced at the position of the element we want to delete. In this case, we want to remove the string "dining room", which is in position 1, so we write the keyword **del** followed by **house[1]**. **del** is a **keyword** that allows us to **delete a variable or some elements in a variable**—in this case, some elements in a list. Like the other keywords we have seen so far—for example, **if** and **else**—**del** is written in *bold green* in Jupyter Notebook. As you may have realized, using **del** and slicing is an alternative to using the list methods **.pop()** or **.remove()** (line 1). After removing the element, we print out the list for checking (line 2).

- Delete "garden" and "balcony":

```
[11]: 1 del house[4:6]
      2 print (house)
      ['kitchen', 'living room', 'bedroom', 'bathroom',
       'terrace']
```

del house in positions from four to six
print house

To **delete consecutive elements** from a list, we use the same syntax as above: we write the keyword **del** followed by the list sliced at the positions of the elements we want to delete. In this example, the start is the position of "garden", which is 4, and the stop is the position of "balcony", which is 5, and it becomes 6 because of the plus one rule (line 1). Then we print out the reduced list (line 2).

- Delete "kitchen", "bedroom" and "terrace":

```
[12]: 1 del house[::2]
      2 print (house)
      ['living room', 'bathroom']
```

del house in positions from the beginning to the end of the list with a step of two
print house

To **delete non-consecutive elements** in a list, we use the same procedure as the one above: we write the keyword `del`, followed by the list sliced at the positions of the elements we want to remove. In this example, the start corresponds to "kitchen", which is the first element of the list, so we can omit it. The stop corresponds to "terrace", which is the last element in the list, so we can omit it as well. And the step is 2 because we want to delete every second element (line 1). Finally, we print the remaining list (line 2).

- Delete "house":

```
[13]: 1 del house
        2 print (house)

-----  

NameError      Traceback (most recent call last)
<ipython-input-13-ef0756c89224> in <module>
      1 del house
      ----> 2 print (house)
NameError: name 'house' is not defined
```

Finally, we want to delete the whole house! So we write the keyword `del` followed by the variable name `house` (line 1). This time, we get an error when we print out the list `house`. It's a *Name Error*, telling us that the variable does not exist anymore (line 2). This is a good error, telling us that we succeeded in our aim: we deleted the *whole* variable `house`!

Complete the table

In the previous four chapters, you learned how to manipulate lists using methods or slicing. Complete the table below to compare the two different techniques:

<i>List operation</i>	<i>List methods</i>	<i>List slicing</i>
Adding an element at the beginning of a list		
Adding an element in the middle of a list		
Adding an element at the end of a list		
Changing an element in a list		
Deleting an element in a list		

- What is different if you want to add, change, or delete *several* elements? Write your answer here:
-
-

Recap

- To change list elements, we can use slicing and assignment
- To add list elements, we can combine slicing, concatenation, and assignment
- To delete list elements, we can use the keyword `del` and slicing

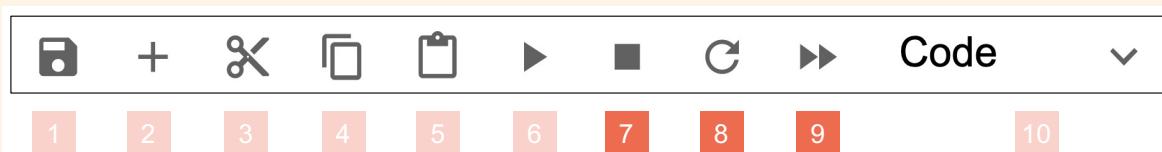
What is a Jupyter Notebook kernel?

The kernel is the component of Jupyter Notebook that executes code. When we run a cell, the kernel tells Python to execute computations and save variables. Every Notebook has its own kernel. And when we open a Notebook, a new kernel is automatically created and is ready to execute code. Now you may ask: Why do we care about the kernel? Because sometimes we need to interrupt it or restart it to continue running code. Let's see what this means.

Interrupting the kernel. Consider two cells containing code. In the first cell, we ask a question using the function `input()`. In the second cell, we print the variable containing the answer. We want to execute the code, so we run the first cell. On the left side, we get the star symbol between the square brackets, indicating that the code is being executed. But before entering the answer, we mistakenly run the second cell! Now the second cell also gets the star symbol between the square brackets on the left side, like this:

```
[*]: 1 name = input ("What's your name?")
      name is assigned input what's your
      name?
      What's your name? 
[*]: 1 print (name) print name
```

In this case, the situation is frozen and no code gets executed! So we need to interrupt the kernel. To do that, we can either go to the JupyterLab top bar, then to *Kernel*, and then *Interrupt Kernel*, or we can go to the Jupyter Notebook top bar and press the interrupt kernel button—that is, item 7 in the figure below (modified from the *Getting ready* part):



Jupyter Notebook top bar: (1) save Notebook, (2) add cell, (3) cut cell, (4) copy cell, (5) paste cell, (6) run cell, (7) interrupt kernel, (8) restart kernel, (9) restart kernel and run whole Notebook, and (10) define cell as code or markdown.

After interrupting the kernel, the star symbols in between square brackets disappear, and we can run each cell again.

Restarting the kernel. Consider the list house from this chapter. Let's say that we want to delete the element "dining room", as we did in one of the examples above. But, by mistake, we type the wrong slicing index—that is, `0` instead of `1`—deleting "kitchen" in place of "dining room",

like this:

[9]:	1 house = ["kitchen", "dining room", "living room", "bedroom", "bathroom", "garden", "balcony", "terrace"]	house is assigned kitchen, dining room, living room, bedroom, bathroom, garden, balcony, terrace,
[10]:	1 del house[0] 2 print (house) ['dining room', 'living room', 'bedroom', 'bathroom', 'garden', 'balcony', 'terrace']	del house in position zero print house

We want to restore the original variable house and rerun the corrected version of our code—`del house[1]`—to obtain the correct result. How do we go back? By restarting the kernel! To do that, we can either go to the JupyterLab top bar, then *Kernel*, and then *Restart Kernel*; or we can go to the Jupyter Notebook top bar and press the curved arrow (item 8 in the figure above). Then, we can rerun the cells of the Notebook. As an alternative, we can restart the kernel and rerun all Notebook cells at once by going to the JupyterLab top bar, then *Kernel*, and then *Restart Kernel and Run all Cells*, or to the Jupyter Notebook top bar and pressing the symbol with two arrow tips (item 9 in the figure above). You may ask: do I really have to restart the kernel every time I make a mistake? Not really. In this case, one could just rerun the first cell to bring the variable house back to its original value, and rerun the second cell with the corrected code. However, when dealing with multiple variables, or if we make several mistakes for a single variable, it is good practice to reset the kernel and start from scratch.

Let's code!

1. *Stephanie Shirley*. Do you know the story of Stephanie Shirley? Let's see what she did! Given the following list:

```
stefanie_shirley = ["In 1962", "Stephanie Shirley", "founded", "a software company",  
"employing", "only women", "working from home"]
```

Do the following using *list slicing*:

- Replace "founded" with "thrived"
- Remove the element in position 0 (first element)
- Replace "employing" with "transferred ownership"
- Add "and over the years" between "thrived" and "a software company"
- Replace "only women" with "to her staff"
- Insert "gradually" in position 4 (fifth element)
- Replace "a software company" with "she"
- Add "70 millionaires" at the end of the list
- Remove "Stephanie Shirley"
- Replace "working from home" with creating"
- Insert "The business" at the beginning of the list

Then, redo the same using *list methods*.

2. *Tim Berners-Lee.* What did Tim Berners-Lee invent? Let's find it out! Given the following list:

```
tim_barberslee = ["Tim Berners-Lee", "invented", "the World Wide Web", "in 1989",
"at CERN in Geneva", "info.cern.ch", "was", "the address of",
"the world's first website and Web server"]
```

Do the following using *list slicing*:

- a. Remove "info.cern.ch"
- b. Replace "was" with "consists of"
- c. Remove the element in position 1 (second element)
- d. Add "all over the world" at the end of the list
- e. Replace "the world's first website and Web server" with "about 75 million servers"
- f. Remove the element in position 0 (first element)
- g. Replace "in 1989" with "Nowadays"
- h. Remove the element in position 0 (first element)
- i. Replace "at CERN in Geneva" with "it is estimated that"
- j. Add "the internet" in position 2 (third element)
- k. Remove the element in position 4 (fifth element)

Then, redo the same using *list methods*.

3. *Alan Turing.* What happened thanks to Alan Turing's contributions? Let's discover it! Given the following list:

```
alan_turing = ["Turing", "created", "an electromechanical machine", "to crack",
"the Nazi Navy's", "Enigma Code"]
```

Do the following using *list slicing*:

- a. Replace "the Nazi Navy's" with "shortened the war"
- b. Insert "by two years" in position 5 (sixth element)
- c. Replace "an electromechanical machine" with "his contribution"
- d. Add "saving millions of lives" to the end
- e. Replace "created" with "that"
- f. Remove "to crack"
- g. Replace "Turing" with "It is estimated"
- h. Remove the element in position 5 (sixth element)

Then, redo the same using *list methods*.

PART 3

INTRODUCTION TO THE FOR LOOP

In this part, you will learn about the *for* loop, which is one of the two loops in coding—the other is the *while* loop. We will learn its syntax and how to use it to search elements in a list, modify a list, and automatically create new lists. Let's go!

8. My friends' favorite dishes

for... in range()

The **for loop** is one of the most important constructs in coding because it allows us to **repeatedly execute commands**. What does this mean and how does it work? Time to open Jupyter Notebook 8 and answer these questions! Read the following example out loud and try to understand it:

- Here are a list of my friends and a list of their favorite dishes:

```
[1]: 1 friends = ["Geetha", "Luca", "Daisy", "Juhan"]  
      2 dishes = ["sushi", "burgers", "tacos", "pizza"]
```

friends is assigned Geetha, Luca, Daisy, Juhan
dishes is assigned sushi, burgers, tacos, pizza

- These are all my friends:

```
[1]: 1 print ("My friends' names are:")  
      2 print (friends)
```

print My friends' names are:
print friends

- These are my friends one by one:

```
[1]: 1 for index in range (0,4):  
      2     print ("index:" + str(index))  
      3     print ("friend:" + friends[index])
```

for index in range from zero to four
print index: concatenated with string of index
print friend: concatenated with friends in position index

- These are all their favorite dishes:

```
[1]: 1 print ("Their favorite dishes are:")  
      2 print (dishes)
```

print Their favorite dishes are:
print dishes

- These are their favorite dishes one by one:

```
[1]: 1 for index in range (0,4):  
      2     print ("index:" + str(index))  
      3     print ("dish:" + dishes[index])
```

for index in range from zero to four
print index: concatenated with string of index
print dish: concatenated with dishes in position index

- These are my friends, with their favorite dishes one by one:

```
[1]: 1 for index in range (0,4):  
      2     print ("My friend " + friends[index] +  
                  "'s favorite dish is " + dishes[index])
```

for index in range from zero to four
print My friend concatenated with friends in position index concatenated with 's favorite dish is concatenated with dishes in position index

Get some hints about what the code does by completing the next exercise.

Match the sentence halves

1. The for loop allows us
 2. The variable index
 3. In the first loop, the variable index
 4. The built-in function `range()` determines
 5. The built-in function `range()` can take
- 
- a. a *start* and a *stop* as an argument
 - b. how many times commands are repeated
 - c. to repeat the indented commands
 - d. changes value at each loop
 - e. is assigned the value 0

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's start by running the first cell:

```
[1]: 1 friends = ["Geetha", "Luca", "Daisy", "Juhan"]
      2 dishes = ["sushi", "burgers", "tacos", "pizza"]
```

friends is assigned Geetha, Luca, Daisy, Juhan
dishes is assigned sushi, burgers, tacos, pizza

There are two lists—friends and dishes—and each contains four strings.

Let's run the second cell:

```
[2]: 1 print ("My friends' names are:")
      2 print (friends)
```

My friends' names are:
['Geetha', 'Luca', 'Daisy', 'Juhan']

```
print My friends' names are:
print friends
```

We print out the string `My friends' names are:` (line 1) and the content of the list `friends` (line 2).

Let's now run the third cell, which contains the first for loop:

```
[3]: 1 for index in range (0,4):
      2     print("index:" + str(index))
      3     print("friend:" + friends[index])
```

index: 0
friend: Geetha
index: 1
friend: Luca
index: 2
friend: Daisy
index: 3
friend: Juhan

```
for index in range from zero to four
print index: concatenated with
string of index
print friend: concatenated with
friends in position index
```

The code prints the position and the value of each list element by repeating lines 2 and 3 four times. How does this happen? Let's start from line 1, which is the **header** of the for loop. It consists of five components:

- **for**: The keyword starting a for loop. Like all keywords, it is bold green in Jupyter Notebook.
- **index**: A variable that is assigned a different value at each loop iteration (we'll talk more about this in a bit).
- **in**: A membership operator, the same that you learned in the construct `if...in/else` in Chapter 3.

- `range()`: A built-in Python function. You can recognize this as a function because it is followed by round brackets and is colored green in Jupyter Notebook—like `input()` and `print()`. We'll talk more about `range()` in a bit too.
- `:`: that is, the colon punctuation.

To better understand what this line does, let's begin from the built-in function `range()`. It takes two arguments: `0` and `4`. They are two integers that we can call—guess what?—start and stop! So, what does `range()` do? Create a separate cell in the notebook, and then write and run the following code:

[4]:	1	list(range(0,4))	list of range from zero to four
		[0, 1, 2, 3]	

The built-in function `range()` returns a sequence of integers spanning from the start (included) to the stop (excluded because of the plus one rule). In this example, the integers go from `0` to `3`, and—guess what again?—they correspond to the indices of the elements of the list `friends!` Why is there `list()`? This is another built-in function that we write here for a proper print out. Don't worry too much about it for now. Let's focus on understanding the for loop!

What do we do with the list of integers created by `range()`? We assign them to the variable `index!` At each code repetition—or **loop**, or **iteration**—`index` is subsequently assigned a number created by `range()`. That is, in the first loop, `index` is assigned `0`; in the second loop, `index` is assigned `1`; and so on. We could call the variable `index` any name—for example, `loop_id`, `iteration_number`. However, it is convention to call it `index`, so we will adopt it. Now, what can we do with the variable `index`? At least two things!

First, we can print `index` to keep track of which loop is getting executed, like we do at line 2. In the first loop, `index` is assigned `0`, so we print "index: 0". In the second loop, `index` is assigned `1`, so we print "index: 1"—and so on. Why is `str()` here? Because we can concatenate only strings with strings, and `index` is an integer! So, we need to change the variable type of `index` from integer to string. And to do that, we can use the built-in function `str()`, which transforms a variable into a string.

Second, we can use `index` to automatically slice list elements one by one. As you now know, `index` changes at every iteration, and it can be assigned values that go from the beginning of a list—that is, `0`—to the end of a list—in this case `3`. Let's look at line 3 of the cell above. In the first loop, when `index` is assigned `0`, `friends[index]` is the same as `friends[0]`—that is, "Geetha". In the second loop, when `index` is assigned `1`, `friends[index]` is the same as `friends[1]`, i.e., "Luca". And so on.

The lines below the header—in this example, lines 2 and 3—are called the **body** of the for loop. They are always **indented**, and there can be as many as we want. They get executed for a number of times determined by the sequence of numbers created by the function `range()`.

Before moving to the next cell, let's summarize what the code at cell 3 does. We have to go through the three lines of code for a total of four times, like this:

- In the first iteration, `index` is assigned `0` (line 1), so we print `index: 0` (line 2), and then `friends` in position `index`—which is `0`—and thus `friend: Geetha` (line 3).
- In the second iteration, `index` is assigned `1` (line 1), so we print `index: 1` (line 2), and then `friends` in position `index`—which is `1`—and therefore `friend: Luca` (line 3).
- In the third iteration, `index` is assigned `2` (line 1), so we print `index: 2` (line 2), and then `friends` in position `index`—which is `2`—and therefore `friend: Daisy` (line 3).
- In the fourth iteration, `index` is assigned `3` (line 1), so we print `index: 3` (line 2), and then `friends` in position `index`—which is `3`—and therefore `friend: Juhan` (line 3).

Being aware of what happens at each loop is fundamental to make sure that our code does what we expect. Any time you are uncertain about what is happening in a for loop, **think about your code line by line and iteration by iteration**, like we did right above. If the code is particularly complicated, you can also **create a table**, where you can keep track of each line at each iteration, like this:

Loop	<code>for index in range(0,4):</code>	<code>print("index:"+str(index))</code>	<code>print("friend:"+friends[index])</code>
First	<code>index = 0</code>	<code>index: 0</code>	<code>friend: friends[0] → Geetha</code>
Second	<code>index = 1</code>	<code>index: 1</code>	<code>friend: friends[1] → Luca</code>
Third	<code>index = 2</code>	<code>index: 2</code>	<code>friend: friends[2] → Daisy</code>
Fourth	<code>index = 3</code>	<code>index: 3</code>	<code>friend: friends[3] → Juhan</code>

Before going to the next cell, let's define the for loop:

A **for loop** is the repetition of a group of commands for a **determined** number of times.

This definition summarizes the two main features of a for loop.

1. We execute the **lines of code that are in the body** of the for loop several times
2. The **number of times is known** and is determined by a sequence of numbers created by the built-in function `range()`

Let's continue with cell 4:

```
[4]: 1 print ("Their favorite dishes are:")
      2 print (dishes)
      Their favorite dishes are:
      ['sushi', 'burgers', 'tacos', 'pizza']
```

```
print Their favorite dishes are:
print dishes
```

We print out the string `Their favorite dishes are:` (line 1) and the content of the list `dishes` (line 2).

Let's run cell 5, which contains another for loop:

<pre>[5]: 1 for index in range (0,4): 2 print("index:" + str(index)) 3 print("dish:" + dishes[index])</pre>	<pre>for index in range from 0 to 4 print index: concatenated with string of index print dish: concatenated with dishes in position index</pre>
<pre>index: 0 friend: sushi index: 1 friend: burgers index: 2 friend: tacos index: 3 friend: pizza</pre>	

The header is the same as that of the for loop we met at cell 3, including the start and the stop of the built-in function `range()`. Also, line 2—where we print the index value at each iteration—is the same. However, at line 3 we print out the dish names one by one. Once again, let's go through the code one iteration at a time:

- In the first iteration, `index` is assigned `0` (line 1), so we print `index: 0` (line 2), and then we print `dishes` in position `index`—which is `0`—and thus `dish: sushi` (line 3)
- In the second iteration, `index` is assigned `1` (line 1), so we print `index: 1` (line 2), and then we print `dishes` in position `index`—which is `1`—and thus `burgers` (line 3)
- In the third iteration, `index` is assigned `2` (line 1), so we print `index: 2` (line 2), and then we print `dishes` in position `index`—which is `2`—and thus `tacos` (line 3)
- In the fourth iteration, `index` is assigned `3` (line 1), so we print `index: 3` (line 2), and then we print `dishes` in position `index`—which is `3`—and thus `pizza` (line 3).

Finally, let's run the last cell:

<pre>[6]: 1 for index in range (0,4): 2 print ("My friend " + friends[index] + "'s favorite dish is " + dishes[index])</pre>	<pre>for index in range from zero to four print My friend concatenated with friends in position index concatenated with 's favorite dish is concatenated with dishes in position index</pre>
<pre>My friend Geetha's favorite dish is sushi My friend Luca's favorite dish is burgers My friend Daisy's favorite dish is tacos My friend Juhani's favorite dish is pizza</pre>	

Once again, there is a for loop. The header is the same as that in the two previous examples: we create a sequence of integers that go from `0` to `3`, and we assign them to the variable `index`, one by one at each iteration (line 1). Just one note: beyond the start and the stop, the built-in function `range()` can also take a step as an argument, like so:

<pre>[6]: 1 for index in range (0,4,1):</pre>	<pre>for index in range from zero to four with a step of one</pre>
--	--

As for the start and the stop, the step also works exactly the same way as it does in slicing (Chapter 6). In these examples, we omitted the step because it is `1`—that is, we take all the elements of the

list. You will play with different step values in the coding exercises at the end of this chapter.

Finally, the body of the for loop is constituted of one line of code, where we print out a sentence composed of four parts, concatenated to each other. The first and the third parts are two strings—"My friend " and "'s favorite dish is ". The second and the fourth parts are the elements of the lists friends and dishes sliced at position index (line 2). As you'll notice, we can use index to **simultaneously slice several lists of the same length at the same position** within one for loop.

Fill in the gaps

Complete the following sentences to summarize the for loop syntax and functionality in your own words:

1. A for loop is _____.
2. A for loop header is _____.
3. A for loop body is _____.
4. `for` is a _____ and is colored _____ in Jupyter Notebook.
5. `index` is a _____ and is colored _____ in Jupyter Notebook. It is assigned _____.
6. `range()` is a _____ and is colored _____ in Jupyter Notebook. It can take three arguments: _____, _____, and _____. It returns _____.
7. An iteration or loop is _____.

Recap

- A for loop is the repetition of commands for a defined number of times
- When the for loop is used to slice a list, the number of times coincides with the list length
- The generic syntax of a for loop header is: `for index in range(start, stop, step):`
- The body of a for loop is indented and can contain as many lines of code as needed
- `range()` is a built-in Python function that creates a sequence of integers spanning from the start (included) to the stop (excluded)
- `str()` is a built-in Python function that converts a variable into a string

Dealing with IndexError and IndentationError

When executing a for loop, we might encounter two errors: index errors and indentation errors. Let's see why they happen and how to fix them!

Index error. Let's modify the example in cell 3 by changing the stop to 5 (instead of 4). When we run the cell, we get the following error.

```
[3]: 1 for index in range (0,5):
      2     print("index:" + str(index))
      3     print("friend:" + friends[index])
      index: 0
      friend: Geetha
      index: 1
      friend: Luca
      index: 2
      friend: Daisy
      index: 3
      friend: Juhan
      index: 4
      -----
      IndexError      Traceback (most recent call last)
      <ipython-input-13-ef0756c89224> in <module>
          1 for index in range (0,5):
          2     print ("index: " + str(index))
      ----> 3     print ("friend: " + friends[index])
      IndexError: list index out of range
```

Let's decipher the error message. As you know from Chapter 2, we start reading from the last line, which informs us about the type of error: `IndexError: list index out of range`. This means that we are **trying to slice a list in a position that does not exist**. Where do we do this? Let's look for the arrow. It points to line 3, where we slice `friends` in position `index`. What's the value of `index`? From the last line of the printouts, we can see that `index` is 4. Thus, we are trying to slice the list `friends` in position 4, which does not exist. Fixing this error is easy: we just correct the stop in `range()` to 4.

IndentationError. The indentation error is very easy to recognize and fix. Let's look into this example:

```
[3]: 1 for index in range (0,4):
      2     print("index:" + str(index))
      File"/var/ipykernel_54813/8597.py" , line 2
          print ("index: " + str(index))
          ^
      IndentationError: expected an indented block
```

Again, we start reading from the last line of the error message, which says: `IndentationError: expected an indented block`. This means that we **did not indent a line of code**. Where? The message says line 2 at the end of its first line. The fix is straightforward: we just indent line 2. A last note: Jupyter Notebook (and other editors) help us avoid the indentation error by positioning the cursor correctly when we press `enter` after a

line terminated by a colon (:)—that is, after a for loop header, an if or else condition, a while loop header (Chapter 17), a function definition (Chapter 28), or a class definition (Chapter 35).

Let's code!

1. For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to that presented in this chapter.
 - a. *Capitals of the world.* Write two lists, one containing countries of the world and the other containing their capital cities. First, print out all the countries as a list and all the countries one by one. Then, print out all the cities as a list and all the cities one by one. Finally, print out each country with its capital.
 - b. *Animals of the world.* Write two lists, one containing animals of the world and one containing the continents (or countries) where they live. First, print out all the animals as a list and all the animals one by one. Then, print out all the continents as a list and all the continents one by one. Finally, print out each animal with the continent where it lives.

2. *Mountains and rivers.* Given the following list:

```
mountains_rivers = ["everest", "mississippi", "yosemite", "nile", "mont blanc",  
"amazon"]
```

Print:

- a. All elements as a list
- b. All elements one by one using a for loop
- c. Mountains using slicing
- d. Mountains one by one using a for loop (tip: remember that range() can have three arguments: start, stop, step)
- e. Rivers using slicing
- f. Rivers one by one using a for loop (what start do you use?)
- g. All elements in reverse order using slicing
- h. All elements in reverse order, one by one, using a for loop (what start, stop, and step do you use?)

3. *Wild animals.* Given the following list:

```
wild_animals = ["eagle", "bear", "parrot", "tiger", "pelican", "coyote"]
```

Print:

- a. All animals as a list
- b. All animals one by one using a for loop
- c. Mammals using slicing
- d. Mammals one by one using a for loop
- e. Birds using slicing
- f. Birds one by one using a for loop (what start do you use?)
- g. All animals in reverse order using slicing
- h. All animals, one by one, in reverse order using a for loop

9. At the zoo

For loop with if... ==... / else...

Can we combine for loops and if/else constructs? Yes! How? Open Jupyter Notebook 9 and follow along. Read the following example aloud, and try to understand how it works:

- You are at the zoo and you write down a list of some animals you see:

```
[1]: 1 animals = ["giraffe", "penguin",
              "dolphin"]
      2 print (animals)
```

animals is assigned giraffe, penguin, dolphin
print animals

- Then you print out the animals one by one:

```
[1]: 1 # for each position in the list
      2 for i in range (0, len(animals)):
          3     print ("--- Beginning of loop ---")
          4     # print each element and its position
          5     print ("The element in position " +
              str(i) + " is " + animals[i])
```

for each position in the list
for i in range from zero to len of animals
print beginning of loop
print each element and its position
print the element in position concatenated
with string of i concatenated with is
concatenated with animals in position i

- You really wanted to see a penguin:

```
[1]: 1 wanted_to_see = "penguin"
```

wanted to see is assigned penguin

- Once home, you tell your friend the animals you saw, specifying which one you really wanted to see:

```
[1]: 1 # for each position in the list
      2 for i in range (0, len(animals)):
          3     # if the current animal is
          4     # what you really wanted to see
          5     if animals[i] == wanted_to_see:
              6         # print out that that's the animal
              7         # you really wanted to see
              8         print ("I saw a " + animals[i] +
                  " and I really wanted to see it!")
          9     else:
              10        # just print out what you saw
              11        print ("I saw a " + animals[i])
```

for each position in the list
for i in range from zero to len of animals
if the current animal is what you really
wanted to see
if animals in position i equals wanted to
see
print out that that's the animal you
really wanted to see
print I saw a concatenated with animals in
position i concatenated with and I really
wanted to see it!
else:
just print out what you saw
print I saw a concatenated with animals in
position i

What's happening in this code? Get some hints by completing the following exercise.

True or false?

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. We can include a condition in a for loop using an if/else construct | T | F |
| 2. The built-in function <code>len()</code> returns the number of elements in a list | T | F |
| 3. The hash symbol <code>#</code> starts a new line of code | T | F |
| 4. The <code>==</code> symbol checks whether two variables are different | T | F |

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's start by running the first cell:

```
[1]: 1 animals = ["giraffe", "penguin",
              "dolphin"]
      2 print (animals)
      ['giraffe', 'penguin', 'dolphin']
```

animals is assigned giraffe, penguin, dolphin
print animals

We consider a list called `animals` containing three strings: "giraffe", "penguin", and "dolphin" (line 1), and we print it out (line 2).

Let's run the second cell:

```
[2]: 1 # for each position in the list
      2 for i in range (0, len(animals)):
          3     print ("--- Beginning of loop ---")
          4     # print each element and its position
          5     print ("The element in position " +
                  str(i) + " is " + animals[i])
      --- Beginning of loop ---
      The element in position 0 is giraffe
      --- Beginning of loop ---
      The element in position 1 is penguin
      --- Beginning of loop ---
      The element in position 2 is dolphin
```

for each position in the list
`for i in range` from zero to `len` of `animals`
print beginning of loop
print each element and its position
print the element in position concatenated with string of i concatenated with is concatenated with animals in position i

We run the for loop three times, and each time we print out the lines 3 and 5. Let's dig into the code to understand it better! The header of the for loop at line 2 contains two changes from the syntax we saw in the previous chapter. First, we use the abbreviation `i` for the variable index. Shortening names of frequently used variables is common in coding because it reduces the amount of typing required. Some abbreviations become conventions—like in this case—so, from this point on we will use `i`. Second, instead of an integer, we use `len(animals)` as the stop in the built-in function `range()`. If we used an integer, then the stop would be 3, because the last element—"dolphin"—is in position 2, to which we add 1 for the plus one rule. But what if we added another element to the list? We would have to remember to modify the stop from 3 to 4. As you can imagine, this practice is very prone to error, as it's easy to forget to update the stop or miscount the last element position. Therefore, we do **not** want to hard-code the stop—that is, to explicitly write its value. We want to make it **dependent on the variable** we are dealing with so that we do not have to take care of possible variations. To do so, we use `len()`, which is a built-in function that **returns the length of a variable**—that is, 3 for the list `animals`. We can use this trick because **the length of a list is always**

one unit more than the index of the last element; therefore, it coincides with the stop. From this point on, we will not need to count to find the stop—`len()` will do it for us!

Let's analyze the body of the for loop. At line 3, we print a string stating that we are at the beginning of a loop. It is meant to be **visually different** to make the printouts of each iteration **easy to identify**. Beyond *Beginning of loop*, we could use sentences like *New iteration*, *New loop*, etc. To increase the visibility, we can also use symbols before and/or after the text—such as dashes (---) in this example. Alternatives can be arrows (-->), tildes (~~~), or any other character on the keyboard. At line 5, we print out each element and its position in a sentence composed of four parts concatenated to each other. The first and the third parts—"The element in position " and " is"—are two hard-coded strings. The second element is the index of the current loop. It's an integer, so we use the built-in function `str()` to convert it into a string. Finally, the last element (`animals[i]`) is a string, containing a list element sliced in a different position `i` at each iteration—that is, "giraffe", "penguin", or "dolphin".

Finally, lines 1 and 4 start with the **hash symbol (#)** and are followed by text. These lines are called **comments**. What are they? Let's give a definition:

Comments are code descriptions or explanations.

Comments are a **fundamental component** of coding. They can contain **descriptions** of the code, or **explanations** about why we made a certain coding choice, or any other **information** that is relevant to understand the code they refer to. Comments are in light green in Jupyter Notebook, and they are above and aligned with the line/s they explain. For example, the comment at line 4 refers to the code at line 5, so it is indented and aligned with line 5. You might wonder why we write comments. For at least two reasons. First reason: **to make code readable** for us and others. When reading old code, we rarely remember why we wrote what we wrote—yes, even if we wrote it ourselves! Similarly, when we read somebody else's code, it is often hard to understand what they did and why, if the code is not well commented. Second reason: **to keep track of what we are doing**. When writing code, we sometimes concentrate on small details and lose the big picture. In these cases, we can end up asking ourselves: why am I writing this again? Using comments to outline code can help us keep track of the steps we have to **implement**—that is, to write. Finally, how do we write useful comments? That's simple: **use precise language**. Writing `#` here is a for loop does not add any information to code because a loop is clearly visible. It is more meaningful to describe what the for loop does and why; for example, `# using a for loop to browse a list and print out its elements one by one`. Also, don't take any line of code for granted. It's really so easy to forget why we wrote that line of code that way! In general, remember that **comments are written for human beings**, not for Python. As a matter of fact, Python skips comments when it reads our code. Try to add an hash front of a line of code yourself: Python is not going to execute it!

Let's run the next cell:

```
[3]: 1 wanted_to_see = "penguin" wanted to see is assigned penguin
```

We create a variable called `wanted_to_see` to which we assign the string "penguin".

Let's run the last cell:

```
[4]: 1 # for each position in the list
2 for i in range (0, len(animals)):
3     # if the current animal is
4     # what you really wanted to see
5     if animals[i] == wanted_to_see:
6
7         # print out that that's the animal
8         # you really wanted to see
9         print ("I saw a " + animals[i] +
10            " and I really wanted to see it!")
11
12    else:
13        # just print out that you saw it
14        print ("I saw a " + animals[i])
15
16I saw a giraffe
17I saw a penguin and I really wanted to see it!
18I saw a dolphin
```

for each position in the list
for i in range from zero to len of animals
if the current animal is what you really
wanted to see
if animals in position i equals wanted to
see
print out that that's the animal you
really wanted to see
print I saw a concatenated with animals in
position i concatenated with and I really
wanted to see it!
else:
just print out that you saw it
print I saw a concatenated with animals in
position i

Once more, we use the for loop to browse the list elements. But this time, **we apply a condition to each element**. Let's analyze line by line. The header of the for loop is the same as the one in cell 2. Then, at line 4, we start an if/else construct. It is similar to the one we learned in Chapter 3: it's composed of an if condition (line 4), a statement (line 6), an else (line 7), and another statement (line 9). However, the condition after the keyword if is different. In Chapter 3, we checked if an element was in a list by using the membership operator in. In this case, we check if the values assigned to two variables animals[i] and wanted_to_see are equal. To do so, we write (1) the keyword if; (2) the first variable, that is, animals[i]; (3) the comparison operator ==, and (4) the second variable, that is, wanted_to_see. The **comparison operator ==** is pronounced *equals* or *is equal to*. Note that **== is very different from =**. The symbol == is a **comparison operator** and is used in conditions to check if the values assigned to two variables are the same. The symbol = is the assignment operator, and it is used to assign a value to a variable.

To make sure that what this code does is clear, let's go through the for loop step-by-step:

- In the first loop: at line 2, i is assigned 0. At line 4, we check if animals in position i—where i is 0, so animals[0] is "giraffe"—is equal to the value assigned to the variable wanted_to_see, which is "penguin". Because "giraffe" is not equal to "penguin", we skip the statement under the if at line 6, and we jump directly to the statement under the else, which is at line 9. There, we print "I saw a giraffe"
- In the second loop: at line 2, i is assigned 1. At line 4, we check again if animals in position i—where i is 1, so animals[1] is "penguin"—is equal to the value assigned to the variable wanted_to_see. In this case, the values of the two variables animals[i] and wanted_to_see are equal, so we execute the statement under the if condition (line 6), where we print "I saw a penguin and I really wanted to see it!"
- Finally, in the third loop: at line 2, i is assigned 2. At line 4, we check once more if animals in position i—where i is 2, thus animals[2] is "dolphin"—is equal to the value assigned to the variable wanted_to_see, which is "penguin". Because "dolphin" is not equal to "penguin", we skip

the statement at line 6, and we jump directly to the statement under the else, which is at line 9. There, we print "I saw a dolphin".

Complete the table

In coding there is a lot of jargon—that is, technical words or expressions that are typically used, but whose meaning is not always clear. Have you familiarized yourself with the jargon introduced so far? Complete the table by writing the meaning of the following expressions:

Expression	Meaning
To run a cell (Chapter 1)	
To write readable code (Chapter 3)	
The function takes one argument (Chapter 5)	
The function returns an integer (Chapter 5)	
To reassign to a variable (Chapter 7)	
The element is hard-coded (Chapter 8)	
To comment code (Chapter 9)	
To hard-code (Chapter 9)	
To implement code (Chapter 9)	

Recap

- In a for loop, the variable index is commonly abbreviated with `i`
- The built-in function `len()` returns the length of a variable
- We can use the if/else construct in a for loop
- We can use the comparison operator `==` (*equals* or *is equal to*) in an if condition
- Comments start with the hash symbol `#`, and they are descriptions or explanations

Dealing with TypeError

Type error is common when we try to concatenate variables of different types. Let's look at this example, modified from cell 2 in this chapter:

<pre>[2]: 1 # for each position in the list 2 for i in range (0, len(animals)): 3 print ("--- Beginning of loop ---") 4 # print each element and its position 5 print ("The element in position " + i + " is " + animals[i])</pre>	<pre>for each position in the list for i in range from zero to len of animals print beginning of loop print each element and its position print the element in position concatenated with i concatenated with is concatenated with animals in position i</pre>
<pre>--- Beginning of loop ---</pre> <hr style="border-top: 1px dashed red;"/>	
<pre>TypeError Traceback (most recent call last) <ipython-input-5-db98c59ed681> in <module> 3 print ("--- Beginning of loop ---") 4 # print each element and its position ----> 5 print ("The element in position " + i + " is " + animals [i]) TypeError: can only concatenate str (not "int") to str</pre>	

The last line of the error message says `TypeError: can only concatenate str (not "int") to str`. It means that somewhere in our code we are trying to concatenate an integer with one or more strings. Where? The green arrow points to line 5, where there are three concatenations. As mentioned in the text above, the components are "The element in position" and " is ", which are two hard-coded strings; the list element `animals[i]`—that is, "giraffe", "penguin", or "dolphin"—which is a string, too; and the variable `i`, which is an integer between 0 and 2. So `i` is the issue! Solving the error is very easy: we just transform `i` into a string with the built-in function `str()`, like this: `str(i)`.

Let's look at another example, modified from Chapter 7:

<pre>[6]: 1 planets = planets + "Jupyter" 2 print (planets)</pre>	<pre>planets is assigned planets concatenated with jupyter print planets</pre>
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed red;"/>	
<pre>TypeError Traceback (most recent call last) <ipython-input-5-db98c59ed681> in <module> ----> 1 planets = planets + "Jupyter" 2 print (planets) TypeError: can only concatenate list (not "str") to list</pre>	

This time, the last line of the error message says: `TypeError: can only concatenate list (not "str") with list`. We are trying to concatenate a string to a list. Where? The green arrow points to line 1. Around the concatenation symbol, there are `planets`—which is a list—

and "Jupyter"—which is a string! Correcting this error is easy: we simply transform "Jupyter" into a list by embedding it in between square brackets, like this: ["Jupyter"]. When getting a type error, remember to **analyze the type of each variable** located in the line of code where the error occurs. Also, remember that we can only concatenate lists with lists, and strings with strings!

Let's code!

Note: Starting from this chapter, write code comments wherever pertinent.

1. For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to that presented in this chapter:
 - a. **Sports.** Write a list of sports you like, and print them out one by one. What is your favorite sport? Create a variable for it. Finally, print out all sports one by one, specifying if they are your favorite sports.
 - b. **An astronaut's next destination.** You are an astronaut and you write down the list of the planets of the solar system: Mercury, Mars, Venus, Earth, Neptune, Uranus, Saturn, Jupiter. Print out the planets one by one. Then, create a variable for your next destination. Finally, print out all the planets, specifying if they are your next destination.

2. **Months.** Given the following list:

```
months = ["February", "July", "January", "August", "December", "June"]
```

Print out the names of winter months using a for loop. Then, print out the names of summer months using a for loop. Choose a month you like and assign it to a variable. Print out all the months one by one, specifying if the current month is your favorite. Finally, what alternative way could you use to check if your favorite month is in the list?

3. **Mary K. Keller.** Given the following list:

```
mary_k_keller = ['a nun', 'She was also', 'in Computer Science.',  
'to receive a Ph.D.', 'American woman', 'the first', 'was', 'Mary K. Keller']
```

Print out all the elements in reverse order, first using slicing, and then using a for loop. Then, consider the following variable: name = 'Mary K. Keller'. Check if this variable is in the list in two ways: first, using the if/else construct; and then, using the if/else construct in a for loop. What are the differences between the two methods?

10. Where are my gloves?

For loop for searching

When combined with lists, a for loop is typically used for at least three operations: searching elements, changing elements, and creating new lists, as you will learn in the next three chapters. In this chapter, we will start with learning how to use the for loop to search elements in a list. Ready? Open Jupyter Notebook 10 and follow along. Cover the code after each task with a piece of paper, and try to guess the answer. Then compare and read the explanation. Let's get started!

- Who doesn't have a messy drawer? Here is ours! It contains some accessories:

```
[1]: 1 accessories = ["belt", "hat", "gloves",
                     "sunglasses", "ring"]
2 print (accessories)
['belt', 'hat', 'gloves', 'sunglasses', 'ring']
```

```
accessories is assigned belt, hat,
gloves, sunglasses, ring
print accessories
```

We start with the list accessories composed of 5 strings (line 1), and we print it out (line 2).

- Print all accessories one by one, as well as their positions in the list. Use a sentence like *The element x is in position y*:

```
[2]: 1 # for each position in the list
2 for i in range (len(accessories)):
3     # print each element and its position
4     print ("The element " + accessories[i] +
           " is in position" + str(i))
```

```
for each position in the list
for i in range len of accessories
print each element and its position
print The element concatenated
with accessories in position i
concatenated with is in position
concatenated with string of i
```

```
The element belt is in position 0
The element hat is in position 1
The element gloves is in position 2
The element sunglasses is in position 3
The element ring is in position 4
```

We warm up by using a for loop to print each list element and its position, as we learned in Chapters 8 and 9. The syntax of the for loop is the same as we saw previously, with one last simplification in the header: we **omit the start**. When the start is 0—that is, the beginning of the list—we don't need to write it. Can we also omit the stop when it coincides with the end of the list? Not really: the built-in function `range()` would not know where to stop creating consecutive integers (if you need to refresh your memory that `range()` creates a list of integers, see cell 4 on page 63). Finally, note that we keep commenting each command to increase code readability.

Now it's time to look for items in the drawer. How do we do it? To search list elements, we have to (1) create a **for loop to browse all elements** of a list and (2) **use an if/else construct** to check if the current element has the characteristics we want, like we did at cell 4 of Chapter 9. In general, we can search for elements based on various conditions. In the previous chapters, we searched if elements are present in a list (Chapter 3) and for elements equal to a given variable (Chapter 9). In this chapter, we will search for elements with a certain length and in a certain list position. To do

that, we will use the **comparison operators**. Ready? Let's go!

- Print the accessory whose name is **composed of** 6 characters and its position in the list. Use a sentence like *The element x is in position y and it has n characters*:

```
[3]: 1 # for each position in the list
      2 for i in range (len(accessories)):
      3     # if the length of the element equals 6
      4
      5         if len(accessories[i]) == 6:
      6
      7             # print the element, its position,
      8             # and its number of characters
      9             print ("The element " + accessories[i] +
      10                " is in position" + str(i) +
      11                " and it has 6 characters")
```

for each position in the list
for i **in** range len of accessories
if the length of the element equals six
if len of accessories in position i
equals six
print the element, its position, and
its number of characters
print The element concatenated
with accessories in position i
concatenated with is in position
concatenated with string of i
concatenated with and it has six
characters

The element gloves is in position 2 and it has 6 characters

We want to find the list element composed of 6 characters. As mentioned above, we create a for loop to browse all elements in the list (line 2), and we write an if/else construct to evaluate if the current element—that is, accessories[i]—is composed of 6 characters (lines 4 and 6). How do we know how many characters a string has? The **number of characters coincides with the length of the string**; therefore, we can use the built-in function `len()`. Thus, in the if condition, we compare the length of the current element of the list—`len(accessories[i])`—to the number of characters we want—that is, 6. The comparison operator that we use is `==` (equals or is equal to), which checks if two values are identical, like you learned in Chapter 9 at cell 4. If the current element satisfies the condition, we print out the sentence at line 6, like we do for the element "gloves". What about the other elements? We do not want to do anything, so we simply omit the else part of the if/else construct. Note the comments on lines 1,3, and 5.

- Print the accessories whose names are composed of **less than** 6 characters:

```
[3]: 1 # for each position in the list
      2 for i in range (len(accessories)):
      3     # if the length of the element is less
      4     # than 6
      5         if len(accessories[i]) < 6:
      6
      7             # print the element, its position,
      8             # and its number of characters
      9             print ("The element " + accessories[i] +
      10                " is in position" + str(i) +
      11                " and it has less than 6 characters")
```

for each position in the list
for i **in** range len of accessories
if the length of the element is less
than six
if len of accessories in position i
less than 6
print the element, its position, and
its number of characters
print The element concatenated
with accessories in position i
concatenated with is in position
concatenated with string of i
concatenated with and it has less
than 6 characters

The element belt is in position 0 and it has less than 6 characters

The element hat is in position 1 and it has less than 6 characters

The element ring is in position 4 and it has less than 6 characters

The structure of the code is the same as that in example 1. What changes is the comparison operator, which is `<` and is pronounced *less than* (line 4). By using this operator, we check if the length of the current element is less than 6. For the elements composed of less than 6 characters, we print out the sentence at line 6—that is, for the strings "belt", "hat", and "ring".

3. Print the accessories whose name is composed of **more than 6** characters. Also, assign 6 to a variable:

<pre>[4]: 1 # defining the threshold 2 n_of_characters = 6 3 # for each position in the list 4 for i in range (len(accessories)): 5 # if the length of the element is greater 6 # if len(accessories[i]) > n_of_characters: 7 # print the element, its position, 8 # print ("The element " + accessories[i] + 9 " is in position" + str(i) + 10 " and it has more than " + 11 str(n_of_characters) + " characters")</pre>	<pre>defining the threshold n of characters is assigned six for each position in the list for i in range len of accessories if the length of the element is greater than the threshold if len of accessories in position i greater than n of characters print the element, its position, and its number of characters print The element concatenated with accessories in position i concatenated with is in position concatenated with string of i concatenated with and it has more than concatenated with string of n of characters concatenated with characters</pre>
<pre>The element sunglasses is in position 3 and it has more than 6 characters</pre>	

In this example, we add two novelties. The first is straightforward: we use the comparison operator `>`, which is pronounced *greater than* (line 6). In this case, only one string has more than 6 characters—that is, "sunglasses"—so we print out line 8 for that element.

The second novelty is the variable `n_of_characters` (line 2). It is assigned 6—that is, the threshold length above which we want to print list elements. Why do we create `n_of_characters` instead of simply using 6? Because we use it in two lines of code—in the condition (line 6) and in the print (line 8)—and this implies the possibility of errors. What if instead of considering 6 characters, we wanted to consider 4? We would have to modify the number both at lines 6 and 8, and we could forget to change in both places. Instead, by using the variable `n_of_characters`, we change the value in just one place (line 2). It is **good practice to create variables** containing values instead of hard-coding within a block of code. Variables are usually written **at the beginning of a block of code** so that they are easy to find, especially when the code is composed of several lines.

4. Print the accessories whose name is composed of a number of characters **different from 6**:

<pre>[6]: 1 # defining the threshold 2 n_of_characters = 6 3 # for each position in the list 4 for i in range (len(accessories)):</pre>	<pre>defining the threshold n of characters is assigned six for each position in the list for i in range len of accessories</pre>
---	---

```

5      # if the length of the element is not equal
6      # to the threshold
7      if len(accessories[i]) != n_of_characters:
8          # print the element, its position,
9          # and its number of characters
10         print ("The element " + accessories[i] +
11             " is in position" + str(i) +
12             " and it has a number of characters
13             different from " +
14             str(n_of_characters))

```

if the length of the element is not
equal to the threshold
if `len` of accessories in position *i*
not equal to `n_of_characters`
print the element, its position, and
its number of characters
`print` The element concatenated
with accessories in position *i*
concatenated with is in position
concatenated with string of *i*
concatenated with and it has a
number of characters different from
concatenated with string of `n_of`
characters

The element belt is in position 0 and it has a number of characters different from 6
The element hat is in position 1 and it has a number of characters different from 6
The element sunglasses is in position 3 and it has a number of characters different from 6
The element ring is in position 4 and it has a number of characters different from 6

The comparison operator for *different from* is `!=` and is pronounced **not equal to** (line 6). The structure of the code is the same as that above: we use the variable `n_of_characters` to avoid hard coding (line 2); we create a for loop to browse all list elements (line 4); we create an if condition to check what strings have lengths not equal to the threshold (line 6); and, finally, we print out a sentence for those elements that satisfy the condition (line 8)—that is, "belt", "hat", "sunglasses", and "ring". Before each command, we write a comment to explain what the command does (lines 1,3,5, and 7).

5. Print the accessories whose position is **less than or equal to** 2:

```

[6]: 1  # defining the threshold
2  position = 2
3  # for each position in the list
4  for i in range (len(accessories)):
5      # if the position of the element is less
6      # than or equal to the threshold
7      if i <= position:
8          # print the element, its position,
9          # and its position characteristic
10         print ("The element " + accessories[i] +
11             " is in position" + str(i) +
12             ", which is less than or equal to " +
13             str(position))

```

defining the threshold
position is assigned two
for each position in the list
for `i` **in** `range` `len` of accessories
if the position of the element is
less than or equal to the threshold
if `i` less than or equal to position
print the element, its position, and
its position characteristic
`print` The element concatenated
with accessories in position *i*
concatenated with is in position
concatenated with string of *i*
concatenated with which is less than
or equal to concatenated with string
of position

The element belt is in position 0, which is less than or equal to 2
The element hat is in position 1, which is less than or equal to 2
The element gloves is in position 2, which is less than or equal to 2

In this example, we introduce two novelties again. The first novelty is the comparison operator `<=`, which is pronounced **less than or equal to** (line 6). What is the difference between the two comparison operators `<=` (*less than or equal to*) and `<` (*less than*)? When using `<=`, we *include* the threshold—that is, we consider all the elements whose position is equal to 2 or less. When using `<`, we *exclude the threshold*—that is, we consider only the elements whose position is strictly less than 2.

The second novelty is that we want to search for elements based on their *position*. How do we do it? First, we create a variable called *position* to which we assign the threshold—that is, 2 (line 2). Then, we need to write the comparison. How do we know the position of each element? **In a for loop, the position of the current list element is *i*!** Remember the following from the previous chapters?

- In the first loop, *i* is assigned 0, thus *accessories[i]* is *accessories[0]*, which is "belt"
- In the second loop, *i* is assigned 1, thus *accessories[i]* is *accessories[1]*, which is "hat"
- In the third loop, *i* is assigned 2, thus...

Therefore, in the if condition, we compare the current element position *i* to the threshold position in the variable *position* (line 6). For all those elements whose position *i* is less than or equal to *position*, we print line 8—that is, for "belt", "hat", and "gloves".

6. Print the accessories whose position is **at least** 2:

[6]:	1 # defining the threshold 2 position = 2 3 # for each position in the list 4 for i in range (len(accessories)): 5 # if the position of the element is greater # than or equal to the threshold 6 if i >= position: 7 # print the element, its position, # and its position characteristic 8 print ("The element " + accessories[i] + " is in position " + str(i) + ", which is at least " + str(position))	defining the threshold position is assigned two for each position in the list for i in range len of accessories if the position of the element is greater than or equal to the threshold if i greater than or equal to position print the element, its position, and its position characteristic print The element concatenated with accessories in position i concatenated with is in position concatenated with string of i concatenated with which is at least concatenated with string of position
------	--	--

The element gloves is in position 2, which is at least 2
The element sunglasses is in position 3, which is at least 2
The element ring is in position 4, which is at least 2

In this last example, the code structure remains the same, but we use the comparison operator `>=`, pronounced **greater than or equal to** (line 6). Similarly to before, the difference between `>=` (*greater than or equal to*) and `>` (*greater than*) is that when using `>=`, we include the threshold, whereas when using `>`, we exclude the threshold. In this case, we print the sentence at line 8 for all the elements whose position is at least—that is, greater than or equal to—*position*, which are "gloves", "sunglasses", and "ring" (line 8).

Finally, a trick to remember the spelling of comparison operators composed of two symbols: the symbol `=` is always in the second position, as you'll notice for `!=` (example 4), `<=` (example 5), and `>=` (example 6).

Complete the table

In this chapter, you learned the six comparison operators. Sum up their characteristics in your own words in the table below:

Comparison operator	What it does	Pronunciation
==		
!=		
>		
>=		
<		
<=		

Insert into the right column

Up to now, you have learned several coding elements: data types, built-in functions, keywords, and list methods. Do you remember which is which? Insert the following elements into the right column:

string, else, input(), if, .remove(), print(), .index(), len(),
 str(), del, list, .append(), range(), for, .insert(), integer, .pop()

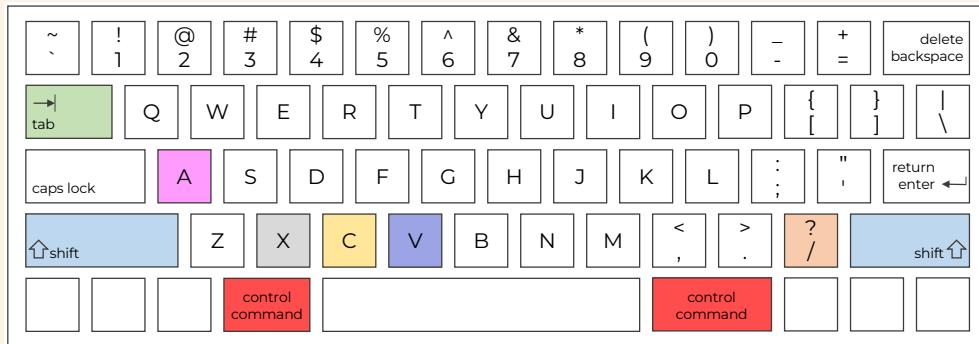
Data types	Built-in functions	Keywords	List methods

Recap

- We can use a for loop combined with an if/else construct to search for elements in a list
- It is good practice to create variables instead of hard-coded values in a block of code to reduce the possibility of errors. Variables are usually located at the beginning of a block of code
- In Python, there are six comparison operators: ==, !=, >, >=, <, <=

Let's use keyboard shortcuts!

While coding, it can be very practical to use keyboard shortcuts to minimize typing interruptions. Although it might sound like a bit of an exaggeration, using the mouse can really be distracting at times because it slows down the typing rhythm and interrupts the writing flow. Shortcuts, on the other hand, allow us to never leave the keyboard! They are **combinations of keys pressed simultaneously** that can perform various operations. Let's have a look at the most common ones. In the following examples, we will use the keys that are colored in the figure below.



Example of keyboard. The colored keys are commonly used for shortcuts.

In the following shortcut combinations, *control/command* means that you will have to press the key *control* if you are using a Windows operating system, or the key *command* if you are using a MacOS operating system (that is, one of the red keys in the figure above). In addition, the symbol + means that you have to press the listed keys simultaneously. What shortcuts do you know among the following ones?

- *control/command + A* (red key + pink key): selects all the lines of code in a cell—the letter A stands for *all*
- *control/command + X* (red key + grey key): cuts selected lines of code
- *control/command + C* (red key + yellow key): copies selected lines of code
- *control/command + V* (red key + purple key): pastes selected lines of code
- *control/command + /* (red key + orange key): adds a # in front of the selected lines of code—that is, it comments them out. If the key combination is re-pressed, the # is removed, and the code is un-commented
- *tab* (green key): indents the selected lines of code—that is, it moves the lines four spaces towards right
- *shift + tab* (blue key + green key): outdents the selected lines of code—that is, it moves the lines four spaces towards the left

Note that these shortcuts can be used for *several* lines of code at once, thus speeding up the writing. Together with learning to type with ten fingers (see the in more depth session in Chapter 1), using shortcuts is an efficient way to write code faster and without interruptions!

Let's code!

1. *Seasons.* Given the following list:

```
seasons = ["spring", "summer", "fall", "winter"]
```

Print:

- All seasons whose names are composed of at least 5 characters
- All seasons whose names are composed of a number of characters that is equal to or less than 4
- All seasons whose position is less than 2
- All seasons whose position is at least 2

2. *Word search.* You are working for a magazine and you have just created a new word search game for your readers. Here are the words hidden in the game:

```
words = ["cards", "park", "pets", "football", "golf", "crosswords", "toys",
"exercise", "hobbies", "riding", "biking", "games", "reading", "movies",
>walking", "concerts"]
```

After the grid is completed:

- Create a variable called *title* containing the number of words to find, and then print it out (e.g., *Word search with 16 words*)
- Find words composed of 5 letters. More specifically, print out a title, which has to contain the number of letters of this word group, and the words
- Are there words with less than 5 characters? If so, for each word, print out a sentence containing the word itself, its position in the list, and its number of characters
- Similarly, are there words with more than 8 characters? If so, for each word, print out a sentence containing the word itself, its position in the list, and its number of characters
- What are the words in the second part of the list that have a number of characters different than 7? What's their position? And their number of characters?
- Finally, what are the words in the first fourth of the list that are composed of 4 characters? What's their position?

You can download the word search game for this exercise solution on the community website!

3. *Spelling competition.* Here are some words of the category musculoskeletal (msk) system that you have to memorize for the next spelling competition:

```
msk_words = ["ankle", "patella", "rib", "femur", "sternocleidomastoid", "tendon",
"sternum", "abdominal external oblique", "muscle", "scapula", "radius", "bone",
"vertebra", "ligament", "ulna", "skull", "clavicle"]
```

- How many words do you have to learn? Compute it and print it out
- What is the length of each word? (including spaces if any)
- Let's now group words based on their length. Here is a list of short words:

```
short = ["leg"]
```

Add all words with 6 characters or less to the list and print out the result. How many words are in the list?

- d. Here is a list of words of intermediate length:

```
intermediate = ["cartilage"]
```

Add all words with 7, 8, and 9 characters. Then print out the result. How many words are in the list?

- e. And finally, here is a list of long words:

```
long = ["pectoralis major"]
```

Add all the remaining words and print out the result. How many words are in the list?

11. Cleaning the mailing list

For loop to change list elements

Time to learn how to use the for loop to change list elements! Open Jupyter Notebook 11 and follow along. Don't forget to pay attention to code pronunciation. Let's go!

- You are responsible for a newsletter, and you have to send an email to the following addresses:

```
[1]: 1 emails = ["SARAH.BROWN@GMAIL.com",
           "Pablo.Hernandez@live.com",
           "LI.Min@hotmail.com"]
```

emails is assigned
SARAH.BROWN@GMAIL.com,
Pablo.Hernandez@live.com,
LI.Min@hotmail.com

- For the sake of consistency, you want all email addresses to be lowercase. So you change them:

```
[1]: 1 # for each position in the list
2 for i in range (len(emails)):
3
4     print ("-> Loop: " + str(i))
5
6     # print element before the change
7     print ("Before the change, the element in
8         position " + str(i) + " is " + emails[i])
9
10    # change element and reassign
11    emails[i] = emails[i].lower()
12
13    # print element after the change
14    print ("After the change, the element in
15        position " + str(i) + " is " + emails[i])
16
17    # print the modified list
18    print ("Now the list is: " + str(emails[i]))
```

for each position in the list
for i in range len of emails

print -> loop: concatenated with
string of i

print element before the change
print Before the change, the element
in position concatenated with string
of i concatenated with is concatenated
with emails in position i

change element and reassign
emails in position i is assigned
emails in position i dot lower

print element after the change
print After the change, the element in
position concatenated with string of i
concatenated with is concatenated with
emails in position i

print the modified list
print Now the list is: concatenated
with string of emails in position i

What's new in the code above? Get some hints by completing the following exercise.

True or false?

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. To change a list element, we need to reassign after the change | T | F |
| 2. The method .lower() is a list method | T | F |
| 3. The method .lower() changes a string to uppercase | T | F |
| 4. Comments and empty lines make code more readable | T | F |

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's run the first cell:

<pre>[1]: 1 emails = ["SARAH.BROWN@GMAIL.com", "Pablo.Hernandez@live.com", "LI.Min@hotmail.com"]</pre>	<pre>emails is assigned SARAH.BROWN@GMAIL.com, Pablo.Hernandez@live.com, LI.Min@hotmail.com</pre>
--	---

We consider a list composed of three strings, each corresponding to an email address (line 1).

Let's run the second cell:

<pre>[2]: 1 # for each position in the list 2 for i in range (len(emails)): 3 4 print ("-> Loop: " + str(i)) 5 6 # print element before the change 7 print ("Before the change, the element in position " + str(i) + " is " + emails[i]) 8 9 # change element and reassign 10 emails[i] = emails[i].lower() 11 12 # print element after the change 13 print ("After the change, the element in position " + str(i) + " is " + emails[i]) 14 15 # print the modified list 16 print ("Now the list is: " + str(emails))</pre>	<pre>for each position in the list for i in range to len of emails print -> loop: concatenated with string of i print element before the change print Before the change, the element in position concatenated with string of i concatenated with is concatenated with emails in position i change element and reassign emails in position i is assigned emails in position i dot lower print element after the change print After the change, the element in position concatenated with string of i concatenated with is concatenated with emails in position i print the modified list print Now the list is: concatenated with string of emails</pre>
<pre>-> Loop: 0 Before the change, the element in position 0 is: SARAH.BROWN@GMAIL.com After the change, the element in position 0 is: sarah.brown@gmail.com -> Loop: 1 Before the change, the element in position 0 is: Pablo.Hernandez@live.com After the change, the element in position 0 is: pablo.hernandez@live.com -> Loop: 2 Before the change, the element in position 0 is: LI.Min@hotmail.com After the change, the element in position 0 is: li.min@hotmail.com Now the list is: ['sarah.brown@gmail.com', 'pablo.hernandez@live.com', 'li.min@hotmail.com']</pre>	

We use a for loop to browse all the elements in the list (line 2). Within the for loop, there are four commands. Let's have a look at them one by one.

At line 3, we print a title for each iteration of the for loop, as we learned at cell 2 of Chapter 9. The title is composed of a symbol (i.e., \rightarrow) and the number of the current loop—represented by the variable *i*. The symbol makes the title easy to visually identify, and the loop number favors checking

what happens at each specific iteration.

At line 5, we print the current element (`emails[i]`) before the change, as it is in the list. This will be convenient for comparing the current element before and after the change.

At line 7, we change the current element. How do we do it? We take the current element `emails[i]`, and we change it to lowercase using the **string method** `.lower()`. You might remember that methods are functions for specific data types, they are colored blue in Jupyter Notebook, and their syntax is: (1) variable name, (2) dot, (3) method name, and (4) round brackets, in which there can be an argument (see page 32). How do we know that `.lower()` is a *string* method? Because `emails[i]` is a string! Python has at least four methods to change character cases:

- `.lower()` to change all characters of a string to lowercase
- `.upper()` to change all characters of a string to uppercase
- `.title()` to change the first character of a string to uppercase and all the remaining characters to lowercase
- `.capitalize()` to change the first character of each word in a string to uppercase, and all the remaining characters to lowercase

Finally, to actually change a list element, we need to **re-assign the changed element to itself**. In other words, we need to **overwrite the current element with its new version**. If we do not do that, then the list element will remain unchanged.

At line 9, we print out a sentence containing the modified element to check that the change actually occurred. For a double check, we can also compare this sentence with the sentence containing the element before the change, which we printed at line 5.

At line 10, we print out the new list. We need to transform the list `emails` to a string because of the concatenation. Thus, we use the built-in function `str()`, like we do for integers.

Finally, we use two techniques to increase code readability. First, we add comments before each major command to explain what the code does (lines 1, 6, 9, 12, and 15). Second, we add empty lines to visually separate units of thought corresponding to one or more commands, like we would do for paragraphs in a text (lines 3, 5, 8, 11, and 14).

Match the code

Given the following string:

```
greeting = "hElLo, How arE YoU?"
```

Connect each command with the correct output:

1. `print(greeting.lower())`
2. `print(greeting.upper())`
3. `print(greeting.title())`
4. `print(greeting.capitalize())`

- 
- a. 'HELLO, HOW ARE YOU?'
 - b. 'Hello, how are you?'
 - c. 'hello, how are you?'
 - d. 'Hello, How Are You?'

Recap

- To change list elements, we always need to reassign the changed element to itself
- String methods to change cases are: `.lower()`, `.upper()`, `.title()`, and `.capitalize()`.

In what list am I changing the element?

Sometimes, we have to change a list element before adding it to an existing list. This can create confusion about where to change the list element. Let's consider this example:

- Given the following list:

```
[1]: 1 sports = ["diving", "hiking"] sports is assigned diving, hiking
```

- Add the mountain sport to the following list, making sure the string is uppercase:

```
[2]: 1 mountain_sports = ["CLIMBING"] mountain_sports is assigned CLIMBING
```

We want to take the string "hiking" from the list `sports`, transform it into "HIKING", and add it to the list `mountain_sports`. Where do we change the string to uppercase? Let's have a look at these two cases.

Case 1: Changing the element both in the original list and in the new list.

Consider the following code:

<pre>[3]: 1 sports[1] = sports[1].upper() 2 mountain_sports.append(sports[1]) 3 print(sports) 4 print(mountain_sports)</pre>	<pre>sports in position 1 is assigned sports in position 1 dot upper mountain_sports dot append sports in position 1 print sports print mountain_sports</pre>
--	---

In this example, we first change the element in position 1 to uppercase (line 1), and then we append the changed element to the list `mountain_sports` (line 2). When we print out the two lists (lines 3 and 4), we see that the element "HIKING" is uppercase in both lists. As you can imagine, changing the element in the original list is not the best option because we might need the original list `sports` for further computations. How do we make "hiking" uppercase only in `mountain_sports`? Let's have a look at the next example.

Case 2: Changing the element only in the new list.

Consider the following code:

<pre>[3]: 1 current_sport = sports[1].upper() 2 mountain_sports.append(current_sport) 3 print(sports) 4 print(mountain_sports) ['diving', 'hiking'] ['CLIMBING', 'HIKING']</pre>	<pre>current_sport is assigned sports in position 1 dot upper mountain_sports dot append current_sport print sports print mountain_sports</pre>
--	---

In this example, we assign the transformed element—that is, 'HIKING', created with the command `sports[1].upper()`—to a new variable. This new variable is `current_sport`(line 1). Then, we append the variable `current_sport` to the list `mountain_sports` (line 2). When we print out both lists (lines 3 and 4), we see that "HIKING" is only in the list `mountain_sports`. We can call `current_sport` an **intermediary**, **auxiliary**, or **temporary** variable. Its role is to temporarily store a value that we will use in subsequent code. Although they are very convenient, temporary variables are generally not recommended because they occupy computer memory. Can we avoid using `current_sport`? Yes, let's have a look at this last example:

<pre>[3]: 1 mountain_sports.append(sports[1].upper()) 2 print(sports) 3 print(mountain_sports) ['diving', 'hiking'] ['CLIMBING', 'HIKING']</pre>	<pre>mountain_sports dot append sports in position 1 dot upper() print sports print mountain_sports</pre>
--	---

In this final example, there is a **nested command**, which is a command containing one or more commands, like in a Russian doll (line 1). To break down nested commands, we usually start from the inner command and move outwards. In this example, the inner command is `sports[1].upper()`, where we modify the string 'hiking' to be uppercase. The outer command is `mountain_sports.append()`, where we add the modified element—that is, 'HIKING'—to the list. As you can see, the inner command is what we assigned to the variable `current_sport` in the previous example. Therefore, we can avoid a temporary variable by directly substituting its content in a nested command. Finally, when we print out both lists (lines 2 and 3), we see that we changed "hiking" to uppercase only in the list `mountain_sports`.

Nested commands are a convenient way to write compact code. How many commands can we nest into each other? Theoretically, as many as we want! In practice, we want to keep nested commands to a minimum for a good balance between code efficiency and code readability.

Let's code!

1. For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to that presented in this chapter:

- Editing an article.* You work at a newspaper, and you have to edit a paper that has plenty of acronyms:

```
acronyms = ["asap", "faq", "fyi", "diy"]
```

All the acronyms are lowercase, so you change them to uppercase.

- Name tags.* You are organizing an event, and you have the following list of names:

```
names = ["JOHN", "geetha", "xiao", "LAURA"]
```

You want to print out nice name tags, so you capitalize all names.

2. *Colors.* Given the following list:

```
colors = ["yellow", "beige", "green", "red", "ultramarine", "coral", "lavender",  
"silver", "cyan", "blue", "black", "magenta", "gold", "pink", "scarlet", "brown"]
```

- How many colors are there? Compute it!
- Starting from the second element (position 1), change every third word to uppercase
- Starting from the third element (position 2), capitalize every third word
- Add all the colors of the first half of the list `colors` to the following list using a for loop, making sure they are lowercase:

```
some_colors = ["white"]
```

How many colors are there in `some_colors` now?

- Add all the colors of the second half of the list `colors` to the following list using slicing:

```
more_colors = ["purple"]
```

How many colors are there in `more_colors` now? Change them to uppercase.

3. *Camping.* Given the following list:

```
camping = ["tent", "adventure", "boots", "hiking", "hat", "nature", "path", "lake",  
"mountain_sports", "fire", "water bottle", "fishing", "national park", "beach",  
"compass", "forest", "trail", "sleeping bag"]
```

- How many elements are in there?
- Get all the words composed of less than (including) 6 letters and add them to the following list, capitalizing each word:

```
short_camping = ["Trip"]
```
- Slice every second word of the list `camping` starting from the first word (position 0) and assign them to a new variable called `some_camping_words`
- Capitalize each word of the strings in `some_camping_words` composed of a number of characters other than 4
- In `some_camping_words`, remove the first word (position 0) using a list method
- In `some_camping_words` remove "path" using a list method
- Are there more words in `short_camping` or `some_camping_words`? Use an if/else construct to print out which list has more words, as well as how many words they contain.

12. What a mess at the bookstore!

For loop to create new lists

Let's finally learn how to use a for loop to create new lists. Open Jupyter Notebook 12 and follow along. Once more, don't forget to read the code out loud!

- There were many customers in the shop today, and they mixed up the books whose authors' last names start with A and S:

```
[1]: 1 authors = ["Alcott", "Saint-Exupéry",
    "Arendt", "Sepulveda", "Shakespeare"]
```

authors is assigned Alcott, Saint-Exupéry
Arendt, Sepulveda, Shakespeare

- So you have to put the books whose authors' last name starts with A on one shelf, and the books whose authors' last name starts with S on another shelf:

```
[1]: 1 # initialize the variables as empty lists
2 shelf_a = []
3 shelf_s = []
4
5 # for each position in the list
6 for i in range (len(authors)):
7
8     # print out the current element
9     print ("The current author is: " +
10         authors[i])
11
12     # get the initial of the current author
13     author_initial = authors[i][0]
14
15     print ("The author's initial is: " +
16         author_initial)
17
18     # if the author's initial is A
19     if author_initial == "A":
20         # add the author to the shelf a
21         shelf_a.append(authors[i])
22         print ("The shelf A now contains: " +
23             str(shelf_a) + "\n")
24
25     # otherwise (author's initial is not A)
26     else:
27         # add the author to the shelf s
28         shelf_s = shelf_s + [authors[i]]
29
30         print ("The shelf S now contains: " +
31             str(shelf_s) + "\n")
```

initialize the variables as empty lists
shelf a is assigned an empty list
shelf s is assigned an empty list

for each position in the list
for i in range len of authors

print out the current element
print The current author is: concatenated
with authors in position i

get the initial of the current author
author initial is assigned authors in
position i in position zero
print The author's initial is:
concatenated with author_initial

if the author's initial is A
if author_initial equals A
add the author to the shelf a
shelf a dot append authors in position i
print The shelf A now contains:
concatenated with str of shelf a
concatenated with backslash n

otherwise (author's initial is not A)
else:
add the author to the shelf s
shelf s is assigned shelf_s concatenated
with authors in position i
print The shelf S now contains:
concatenated with str of shelf s
concatenated with backslash n

```

27 # print out the final shelves
28 print ("The authors on the shelf A are: " +
  str(shelf_a))
29 print ("The authors on the shelf S are: " +
  str(shelf_s))

```

```

print out the final shelves
print The authors on the shelf A are:
concatenated with str of shelf a
print The authors on the shelf S are:
concatenated with str of shelf s

```

What are the new concepts in this code? Complete the following exercise to get some hints.

True or false?

- | | |
|---|----------|
| 1. We initialize an empty list by assigning a pair of square brackets | T F |
| 2. We can compose several slicings in one command | T F |
| 3. The method <code>.append()</code> and list concatenation perform two different actions | T F |
| 4. The special character " <code>\n</code> " creates an empty line after a print | T F |

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's run the first cell:

```
[1]: 1 authors = ["Alcott", "Saint-Exupéry",
  "Arendt", "Sepulveda", "Shakespeare"]
```

```
authors is assigned Alcott, Saint-Exupéry
Arendt, Sepulveda, Shakespeare
```

The list `authors` is composed of five strings, each of them corresponding to the last name of a book author. The last names start with either A or S.

Let's run the second cell. The code is long, so we break it in pieces. Here are lines 1–3:

```
[2]: 1 # initialize the variables as empty lists
  2 shelf_a = []
  3 shelf_s = []
```

```
initialize the variables as empty lists
shelf a is assigned an empty list
shelf s is assigned an empty list
```

We create two new lists, `shelf_a` and `shelf_s`, to which we assign a pair of empty square brackets. Technically, we say that we **initialize two empty lists**—meaning that we create the two lists `shelf_a` and `shelf_s`, but they don't have any content yet. Why do we do that? We will answer this question when we analyze lines 18 and 24. So, let's keep going!

Let's analyze lines 5–9:

```

5 # for each position in the list
6 for i in range (len(authors)):
7
8     # print out the current element
9     print ("The current author is: " +
    authors[i])

```

```

for each position in the list
for i in range len of authors
print out the current element
print The current author is: concatenated
with authors in position i

```

We create a `for` loop to browse all the elements in the list `authors` (line 6), and we print out a sentence to keep track of the list element sliced at each iteration (line 9).

Let's continue with lines 11–13:

<pre> 11 # get the initial of the current author 12 author_initial = authors[i][0] 13 print ("The author's initial is: " + author_initial) </pre>	<pre> get the initial of the current author author initial is assigned authors in position i in position zero print The author's initial is: concatenated with author_initial </pre>
--	--

At each iteration, we obtain the initial of the current author (line 12), and we print it out (line 13). How do we get an author's initial? Let's focus on the right side of the assignment symbol—`authors[i][0]`—at line 12. There are two pairs of square brackets, indicating two consecutive slicings. To understand how this works, let's substitute the variables with their corresponding values. In the first loop, `i` is 0; thus, we get `authors[0][0]`. `authors[0]` is "Alcott", and "Alcott"[0] is "A". Similarly, in the second loop, `i` is 1, thus we get `authors[1][0]`. `authors[1]` is "Saint-Exupéry", and "Saint-Exupéry"[0] is "S". And so on. With the first pair of square brackets `[i]`, we slice a list obtaining a string, whereas with the second pair of square brackets `[0]`, we slice a string obtaining a character. In summary, when dealing with **several consecutive slicings, we execute one at the time, starting from the left**. Note that **string slicing works the same way as list slicing**.

Let's have a look at lines 15–25:

<pre> 15 # if the author's initial is A 16 if author_initial == "A": 17 # add the author to the shelf a 18 shelf_a.append(authors[i]) 19 print ("The shelf A now contains: " + str(shelf_a) + "\n") 20 21 # otherwise (author's initial is not A) 22 else: 23 # add the author to the shelf s 24 shelf_s = shelf_s + [authors[i]] 25 26 print ("The shelf S now contains: " + str(shelf_s) + "\n") </pre>	<pre> if the author's initial is A if author_initial equals A add the author to the shelf a shelf a dot append authors in position i print The shelf A now contains: concatenated with str of shelf a concatenated with backslash n otherwise (author's initial is not A) else: add the author to the shelf s shelf s is assigned shelf_s concatenated with authors in position i print The shelf S now contains: concatenated with str of shelf s concatenated with backslash n </pre>
---	--

We are still in the for loop whose header is at line 6, and we find an if/else construct. If the author's initial is equal to A (line 16), we append the current author `authors[i]` to the list `shelf_a` (line 18). Then, we print out the current status of `shelf_a` (line 19). If the author's initial is not A, then we go to the else (line 22), and we concatenate the current author `authors[i]` to the list `shelf_s` (line 24). Note that `authors[i]` is in between square brackets for type compatibility: `authors[i]` is a string, so it must be transformed into a list to be concatenated to the list `shelf_s` (we learned this at cell 6 of Chapter 7). Finally, we print the current status of `shelf_s` (line 25). Let's now look at a few more details.

At lines 18 and 24, we add an element to a list. In the first case, we use the list method `.append()`, whereas in the second case, we use concatenation. The two approaches perform exactly the same operation and can be used interchangeably.

At the end of the print commands at lines 19 and 24, you'll notice "`\n`". What's that? It's a **special**

character that creates an empty line after a print. The backslash \ tells Python to consider n not as a letter of the alphabet, but as a special character meaning *new line*. Printing an empty line is another way to increase code readability in a for loop, in addition to printing loop titles (see Chapter 9, cell 2). You will see more special characters in the “in more depth” section of Chapter 27.

Finally, we can answer the question we asked at lines 1–3: why do we need to initialize shelf_a and shelf_s as empty lists? Because it would be impossible to add new elements to a list that does not exist!

As a general rule, **when using a for loop to create and fill an empty list**, we have to:

1. Initialize an empty list before the for loop
2. Concatenate or append new elements within the for loop

Let's conclude with lines 27–29:

```
27 # print out the final shelves          print out the final shelves
28 print ("The authors on the shelf A are: " +    print The authors on the shelf A are:
      str(shelf_a)                      concatenated with str of shelf a
29 print ("The authors on the shelf S are: " +    print The authors on the shelf S are:
      str(shelf_s))                    concatenated with str of shelf s
```

Above, we print out the final versions of the created lists—shelf_a (line 28) and shelf_s (line 29). In both cases, we transform the list to a string using the built-in function str() to concatenate.

Finally, let's look at the printouts:

```
The current author is: Alcott
The author's initial is: A
The shelf A now contains: ['Alcott']

The current author is: Saint-Exupéry
The author's initial is: S
The shelf S now contains: ['Saint-Exupéry']

The current author is: Arendt
The author's initial is: A
The shelf A now contains: ['Alcott', 'Arendt']

The current author is: Sepulveda
The author's initial is: S
The shelf S now contains: ['Saint-Exupéry', 'Sepulveda']

The current author is: Shakespeare
The author's initial is: S
The shelf S now contains: ['Saint-Exupéry', 'Sepulveda', 'Shakespeare']

The authors on the shelf A are: ['Alcott', 'Arendt']
The authors on the shelf S are: ['Saint-Exupéry', 'Sepulveda', 'Shakespeare']
```

Each triplet of lines of code is printed during a for loop iteration. The first line is printed at line 9 (e.g., The current author is: Alcott), the second line is printed at line 13 (e.g., The author's initial is: A), and the third line is printed at line 19 if the author's initial is A (e.g., The shelf A

now contains: ['Alcott']), or at line 25 is the author's initial is S (e.g., The shelf S now contains: ['Saint-Exupéry']). After each group of 3 lines, there is an empty line because of "\n" at the end of the print commands at lines 19 and 25. The last two lines containing the final content of `shelf_a` and `shelf_s` come from the prints at lines 28 and 29.

Finally, the code contains several comments and empty lines between blocks of code to improve readability.

Match the code

Let's summarize what we learned about for loops! Given the following list:

```
hot_drinks = ["tea", "coffee", "hot chocolate"]
```

Connect each command with the correct output and the corresponding action:

- | | | |
|--|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. <pre>for i in range (len(hot_drinks)):
 print (hot_drinks[i])</pre> | a. ['TEA', 'coffee',
'hot chocolate'] | ★.create list elements |
| 2. <pre>for i in range (len(hot_drinks)):
 if hot_drinks[i][0] == "c":
 print (hot_drinks[i])</pre> | b. tea
coffee
hot chocolate | ♣.change list elements |
| 3. <pre>for i in range (len(hot_drinks)):
 if len(hot_drinks[i]) == 3:
 hot_drinks[i] = hot_drinks[i].upper()
 print (hot_drinks)</pre> | c. ['coffee', 'hot chocolate'] | ■.print list elements
one by one |
| 4. <pre>long_words = []
for i in range (len(hot_drinks)):
 if len(hot_drinks[i]) >= 6:
 long_words.append(hot_drinks[i])
 print (long_words)</pre> | d. coffee | ▲.find list elements |

Recap

- To create and fill a list in a for loop, we have to: (1) initialize an empty list *before* the for loop and (2) fill the list using `.append()` or list concatenation *in* the for loop
- String slicing works the same way as list slicing
- In multiple consecutive slicings, we execute one slicing at a time, starting from the left
- The special character "\n" creates an empty line after a print

Append or concatenate. Don't assign!

When creating a new list within a for loop, a common mistake is to assign a new element to the list instead of appending it or concatenating it. Let's see what this means with the following example. Here is the same list as the one used earlier in this chapter:

[1]:	<pre>1 authors = ["Alcott", "Saint-Exupéry", "Arendt", "Sepulveda", "Shakespeare"]</pre>	<code>authors</code> is assigned Alcott, Saint-Exupéry Arendt, Sepulveda, Shakespeare
------	---	---

Let's simplify the code by creating only the list containing author last names starting with A. To show how an error can occur, at line 10 we assign `authors[i]` to the new list `shelf_a`, instead of appending it (or concatenating it). What happens to `shelf_a` throughout the code?

[2]:	<pre>1 # initialize the variable 2 shelf_a = [] 3 # for each position in the list 4 for i in range (len(authors)): 5 # get the author's initial 6 author_initial = authors[i][0] 7 8 # if the author's initial is A 9 if author_initial == "A": 10 # add the author to the shelf a 11 shelf_a = authors[i] 12 13 print ("The shelf A now 14 "contains: " + str(shelf_a)) 15 # print out the final shelves 16 print ("The authors on the shelf A are: 17 " + str(shelf_a))</pre>	<code>initialize the variable</code> <code>shelf_a</code> is assigned an empty list <code>for each position in the list</code> <code>for i in range len</code> of <code>authors</code> <code>get the author's initial</code> <code>author_initial</code> is assigned <code>authors</code> in position <code>i</code> in position <code>zero</code> <code>if the author's initial is A</code> <code>if author_initial equals A</code> <code>add the author to the shelf a</code> <code>shelf_a</code> is assigned <code>authors</code> in position <code>i</code> <code>print The shelf A now contains:</code> <code>concatenated with str of shelf_a</code> <code>print out the final shelves</code> <code>print The authors on the shelf A are:</code> <code>concatenated with str of shelf_a</code>
	<pre>The shelf A now contains: Alcott The shelf A now contains: Arendt The authors on the shelf A are: Arendt</pre>	

Let's go through the for loop and focus on the names starting with A:

- When `i` is 0 (line 4), `author_initial` is "A" (line 6); the if condition is true (line 8), so we assign `authors[i]`—that is, "Alcott"—to `shelf_a` (line 10), and we print out `The shelf A now contains: Alcott` (line 11). With the assignment at line 10, we implicitly transform `shelf_a` from a list—which we initialized at line 2—into a string—because we assign it the string "Alcott".
- When `i` is 2 (line 4), `author_initial` is "A" (line 6); the if condition is true (line 8), we assign `authors[i]`—that is, "Arendt"—to `shelf_a` (line 10), and we print out: `The shelf A now contains: Arendt` (line 11). In this case, in the assignment at line 10, we overwrite the value "Alcott"—which we assigned in the previous loop—with the value "Arendt"; thus, `shelf_a` remains a string.

At line 13, we print the final version of `shelf_a`, which is a string with value "Arendt".

In conclusion, assigning a variable to a list (e.g., `shelf_a = authors[i]`) changes the type of the list itself to the variable type (e.g., `shelf_a` becomes a string). In addition, the value is

overwritten at each loop, and the final value is the one assigned in the last loop. Thus, the correct way to add elements to a list is either to append—e.g., `shelf_a.append(authors[i])`—or concatenate—e.g., `shelf_a = shelf_a + [authors[i]]`.

Let's code!

1. For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to that presented in this chapter.
 - a. *Selling electric cars.* You work at a famous car company, and you have to ship new electric cars that have just arrived. Your colleagues plated the cars destined to Spain and to Portugal, but they mixed them up:


```
e_cars = ["PT-754J", "ES-096L", "PT-536G", "FR-543H", "PT-653H"]
```

 Separate the two groups of cars according to their destinations.
 - b. *Teaching English verbs.* You are an English teacher for foreign students. Some of them have difficulties understanding when a present verb is conjugated in the third person singular (he/she/it), or in other persons (I/you/we/they). So you provide a list of verbs:


```
english_verbs = ["eat", "drink", "eats", "sleep", "drinks", "sleeps"]
```

 and you help your students separate the verbs between third person and other persons.

2. *Desserts.* Given the following list:

```
desserts = ["meringue", "apple pie", "clair", "rice pudding", "chocolate",
"english pudding", "cake", "icing"]
```

Get all the initials, change them to uppercase, and concatenate them in a new list. Then invert the list. What dessert do you get?

3. *Guess the jobs.* Given the following list:

```
jobs = ["photog", "bal", "mu", "inve", "ambas", "si", "ler", "stig", "rapher", "ci",
"ator", "ina", "an", "sador"]
```

Group strings composed of 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 letters in new lists. What jobs do you get? Make sure that the first letter of each job is uppercase.

4. *Art.* Given the following list:

```
art = ["apor", "refsscu", "atwat", "fetes", "erta", "jtylpt", "aprco", "srap",
"ruolo", "texture", "gitp", "puors"]
```

Create new lists for each of the following:

- If the string length is 4, then get two letters starting from the second (position 1)
- If the string length is 5, then get the third and fourth letters (positions 2 and 3)
- If the string length is at least 6, then get the last three letters

What art words do you get? Make sure all strings are uppercase!

PART 4

NUMBERS AND ALGORITHMS

In this part, you will learn how to perform arithmetic operations, play with random numbers, and implement your first algorithms. Ready? Let's go!

13. Implementing a calculator

Integers, floats, and arithmetic operations

In the previous chapters, you have developed quite a bit of computational thinking, so now you are ready for numbers, some easy math, and algorithms! There is a general misconception that in order to be good at coding one has to be very good at math. However, that's not necessarily true, as you will see in the coming chapters!

In this chapter, you will start becoming familiar with numbers in coding by implementing a calculator. To do that, you first need to learn arithmetic operators in Python and how to ask a user for a number. As in previous chapters, try first to solve the task by yourself and then compare your answer with the code below. You will find the code also in Jupyter Notebook 13. Let's start!

1. What are the arithmetic operations in Python?

In Python, there are 7 arithmetic operations. Let's quickly explore them one by one. Which ones do you already know, and which ones are new?

1. Addition:

```
[1]: 1 4 + 3          four plus three  
      7
```

To sum two numbers, we use the arithmetic operator `+`, pronounced *plus*. As you know, the same symbol `+` is used as a concatenation symbol when merging strings or lists; in that case, it is pronounced *concatenated with*.

2. Subtraction:

```
[2]: 1 6 - 2          six minus two  
      4
```

To subtract one number from another, we use the arithmetic operator `-`, pronounced *minus*.

3. Multiplication:

```
[3]: 1 6 * 5          six times five  
      30
```

To multiply two numbers, we use the multiplication operator `*`, which is pronounced *times*. Note that in Python (and in other programming languages), the multiplication symbol is different from the symbol used in paper-and-pencil computations, which can be the cross symbol `x` or the mid-line dot operator `.`.

4. Exponentiation:

```
[4]: 1 2 ** 3          two to the power of three  
      8
```

To calculate the power of a number, we use the exponentiation operator `**`, which is pronounced *to the power of*. The operation `2**3` corresponds to 2^3 in paper-and-pencil.

5. Division:

```
[5]: 4 10 / 5          ten divided by five  
      2.0
```

To divide a number by another number, we use a forward slash `/`, and we pronounce it *divided by*. Note that the result of a division is always a decimal number.

6. Floor division:

```
[6]: 5 7 // 4          seven floor division four  
      1
```

To execute a floor division, we use the operator `//`, composed of two forward slashes and pronounced *floor division*. A floor division is a division where the result is rounded to the **closest lower integer**. In this example, the result of the corresponding division `/` would be 1.75 , thus the result of the floor division is 1 , which is the closest lower integer to 1.75 . The word *floor* indicates that we round the result down, that is—using a metaphor—to the floor of a house.

7. Modulo:

```
[7]: 7 7 % 4          seven modulo four  
      3
```

To calculate a modulus, we use the operator `%`, which is pronounced *modulo*. This operation calculates a **reminder** (or modulus), which is the number needed to go back to the dividend after a floor division. For example, from cell 6 we know that the result of the floor division $7//4$ is 1 . If we multiply 1 (the result) times 4 (the divisor), we get 4 ($4 \times 1 = 4$). To get to 7 (the dividend), we need 3 , which is the modulus ($4+3=7$). Note that modulo is the name of the operator, while modulus is the name of the operation and a synonym for remainder. The modulus operation is used quite often in coding, as you will see in the next chapter.

To summarize, Python provides seven arithmetic operators:

- 1 for addition (`+`)
- 1 for subtraction (`-`)
- 2 for the “multiplication family”, which are multiplication (`*`) and exponentiation (`**`)
- 3 for the “division family”, which are division (`/`), floor division (`//`), and modulo (`%`)

Note that the division operators can provide *whole numbers* or *decimal numbers* as results, independently of the characteristics of dividend and divisor. Discover more nuance by solving the following exercise. Test your answers in Python!

True or false?

1. The result of a division is always a whole number (e.g., without decimals). For example, T F
the result of $11/5$ is the whole number 2
2. The result of $7//2$ is 3 , but the result of $-7//2$ is -4 . This is because the floor division T F
rounds to the closest lower integer
3. The result of $7.5 \% 3$ is 1.5 . Therefore, the result of a modulus operation can be a T F
decimal number

2. How do we ask a user to input a number?

When asking a user to input a number, it's important to be careful about variable types. Let's see what this means!

- Ask a user to input a number, assign it to a variable, and print out the variable:

```
[8]: 1 number = input("Insert a number:")
      2 print (number)
      Insert a number: 9
      9
```

number is assigned input Insert a number:
print number
9

We use the built-in function `input()` to ask the user to type a number, and we save the answer in the variable `number` (line 1). Then, we print out the variable value (line 2). What type do you expect the variable `number` to be? Let's find out!

- Check the type of the variable `number`:

```
[9]: 1 type (number)
      str
```

type number
str

To know the type of a variable, we use the built-in function `type()`, which **takes a variable as an input and returns its type**. In the printout, we see that the type of `number` is `str`, which is an abbreviation for string. But shouldn't 9 be an integer? Yes! However, `number` is a string because the built-in function `input()` **returns strings**, regardless of what a user types on a keyboard (characters, numbers, or symbols). To transform the value of `number` into an actual number that we can use in calculations, we have to transform its type from string to integer.

- Transform `number` into an integer, print it out, and check its type:

```
[10]: 1 number = int(number)
      2 print (number)
      3 type (number)
      9
      int
```

number is assigned int of number
print number
type number
9
int

The built-in function `int()` **takes a non-integer variable as an input and returns it as an integer**. Note that to actually transform a variable type, we need to **reassign** the output of the built-in function `int()` to the variable itself (line 1). At line 2, we print `number`, which is still 9. However, this time `number` is of type `int`, as we can see from `type(number)` at line 3. What if we want a decimal number? In that case, we have to transform the variable type into float!

- Transform `number` into a float, print it out, and check its type:

```
[11]: 1 number = float(number)
      2 print (number)
      3 type (number)
      9.0
      float
```

number is assigned float of number
print number
type number
9.0
float

The built-in function `float()` **takes a non-decimal variable as an input and returns it as a decimal**. Also in this case, we need to reassign the output of `float()` to the variable itself to actually change the data type (line 1). From the print at line 2, we see that the variable `number` is now `9.0`, that is, a

decimal number. And from the command at line 3, we can see that `number` is now of type float. Let's close the circle, and go back to the variable `number` being a string! How would you do that?

- Transform `number` back into a string, print it out, and check its type:

```
[12]: 1 number = str(number)
        2 print (number)
        3 type (number)
9.0
str
```

number is assigned str of number
print number
type number

To transform a variable into a string, we use the built-in function `str()`, which we learned in Chapter 8. Note that because we transform `number` into a string from a float (and not an integer), the value is now `9.0`—that is, it contains the decimal component.

Numerical variables can be of three types:

- **Integers** (whole numbers), used in computations
- **Floats** (decimal numbers), used in computations
- **Strings**, when we need numbers as text—for example, when concatenating them to strings

We finally know arithmetic operations in Python and how to ask a number to a user. So we are ready to create a calculator! Where do we start? From the user inputs! Let's find out the inputs in the following exercise.

Complete the sentences

Complete the following sentences with the inputs you need from a user to implement a calculator. If you are not sure, think about what you yourself enter when using a calculator:

1. The first input is _____ .
2. The second input is _____ .
3. The third input is _____ .

3. Let's create the calculator!

- Ask the user for the first input, which is the first number. What type should it be?

```
[13]: 1 first_number = input("Insert the first
        number:")
2 first_number = float(first_number)
3 type (first_number)
Insert the first number: 4
float
```

first_number is assigned input Insert the first number:
first_number is assigned float of first_number
type first number

We ask the user to input the first number using the built-in function `input()`, and we assign the user's choice to the variable `first_number` (line 1). Then, we need to transform the type of `first_number` from

a string into a numerical type to perform calculations. Which type do we choose: integer or float? If the user enters a whole number, we need to transform `first_number` into an integer. But what if the user enters a decimal number? Then, we need to transform `first_number` into a float! So we go for an inclusive solution, that is, transforming `first_number` into a float to comprehend both whole numbers and decimal numbers. Thus, we use the built-in function `float()`, and we reassign to the variable `first_number` (line 2). Finally, we print out `first_number`'s type to check that it's correct (line 3).

- Ask the user for the second input, which is the arithmetic operator:

<pre>[14]: 1 operator = input("Insert an arithmetic operator:") 2 type(operator)</pre>	<pre>operator is assigned input Insert an arithmetic operator: type operator</pre>
<pre>Insert the arithmetic operator: + str</pre>	

We ask the user for an arithmetic operator and we save the value in the variable `operator` (line 1). Because an arithmetic operator is a symbol, we keep it as a string, and we print out its type to check for correctness (line 2).

- Finally, ask the user for the third and final input, which is the second number. What type should it be?

<pre>[15]: 1 second_number = float(input("Insert the second number:")) 2 type(second_number)</pre>	<pre>second_number is assigned float of input Insert the second number: type second number</pre>
<pre>Insert the second number: 3 float</pre>	

As we did for `first_number`, we ask the user for the second number using the built-in function `input()`. Then, we need to transform the user's choice from string to float using the built-in function `float()`. Instead of using two separate commands like we did at cell 13 (lines 1 and 2), we **nest the two built-in functions one into the other**: we transform the user's choice into a float before assigning it to the variable `second_number` (line 1). Then, we print out the `second_number`'s type to make sure that it's a float (line 2).

- Let's write the core of the calculator! How would you do it? Try out some ideas before looking at the implementation below:

<pre>[16]: 1 if operator == "+": 2 result = first_number + second_number 3 4 elif operator == "-": 5 result = first_number - second_number 6 7 elif operator == "*": 8 result = first_number * second_number 9 10 elif operator == "**": 11 result = first_number ** second_number</pre>	<pre>if operator is equal to plus result is assigned first number plus second number elif operator is equal to minus result is assigned first number minus second number elif operator is equal to times result is assigned first number times second number elif operator is equal to to the power of result is assigned first number to the power of second number</pre>
--	--

```
9 elif operator == "/":
10     result = first_number / second_number

11 elif operator == "//":
12     result = first_number // second_number

13 elif operator == "%":
14     result = first_number % second_number

15 else:
16     print ("You didn't enter an
           arithmetic operator")

17 print (result)
7.0
```

elif operator is equal to divided by
result is assigned first number divided by
second number
elif operator is equal to floor division
result is assigned first number floor
division second number
elif operator is equal to modulo
result is assigned first number modulo
second number
else
print You didn't enter an arithmetic
operator

print result

The operation that our code will execute depends on the arithmetic operator entered by the user; thus, we need to take into account all possibilities. To do that, we create a long list of conditions for the arithmetic operator, with the corresponding calculations. We start by considering addition (lines 1 and 2). In the if condition, we check if the variable operator from cell 14 is equal to the symbol +. Because operator is a string, we need to consider the addition operator as a string as well, so we embed it in between quotes (i.e., "+") (line 1). In the subsequent statement, we calculate the sum between the two numerical variables (first_number and second_number) entered by the user, and we assign the result to the variable result (line 2). Then, we consider subtraction (lines 3 and 4). We structure the code as we did above: first, we write a condition where we check that the variable operator is equal to the string "-" (line 3); then, we execute the difference between the two numbers entered by the user, and we assign the result to the variable result (line 4).

As you might have noticed, the condition at line 3 started with the keyword **elif**, which is an abbreviation for **else if**. We use **elif** when we check **several conditions on one single variable**, which is operator in this case. We continue the code with a similar structure for the remaining arithmetic operations (lines 5–14). When using an if/elif/else construct, make sure to **always test code under all conditions**. To do that in our example, re-enter the variables first_number, operator, and second_number for each condition and make sure that what gets printed is the one you expected. We conclude the list of conditions with an else (line 15), which prints out a warning in case the user did not enter a valid arithmetic operator (line 16). Finally, we print out the variable result to check that our code is correct (line 17). Note that we print result at the end of the if/elif/else construct instead of after each statement (lines 2,4,6,8,10,12,14) to avoid redundancy.

- Finally, let's print out the result:

```
[17]: 1 print (str(first_number) + " " + operator
      + " " + str(second_number) + " = " +
      str(result))

      print str of first_number concatenated
           with space concatenated with operator
           concatenated with space concatenated with
           str of second_number concatenated with
           equals concatenated with str of result

4.0 + 3.0 = 7.0
```

We print the result, concatenating first_number, operator, second_number, and result. Note that we

convert the numerical variables into strings for the concatenation.

Finally, let's put it together our code to create a real calculator by merging all lines from the code above into one single cell. This will allow us to run only one cell (instead of multiple cells) when executing the code:

<pre>[18]: 1 # first input 2 first_number = float(input("Insert the 3 first number:")) 4 5 # operator 6 operator = input("Insert an arithmetic 7 operator:") 8 9 # second input 10 second_number = float(input("Insert the 11 second number:")) 12 13 # computations 14 if operator == "+": 15 result = first_number + second_number 16 17 elif operator == "-": 18 result = first_number - second_number 19 20 elif operator == "*": 21 result = first_number * second_number 22 23 elif operator == "**": 24 result = first_number ** second_number 25 26 elif operator == "/": 27 result = first_number / second_number 28 29 elif operator == "//": 30 result = first_number // second_number 31 32 elif operator == "%": 33 result = first_number % second_number 34 35 else: 36 print ("You didn't enter an 37 arithmetic operator") 38 39 # print the result 40 print (str(first_number) + " " + operator 41 + " " + str(second_number) + " = " + 42 str(result))</pre>	<pre>first input first_number is assigned float of input Insert the first number: operator operator is assigned input Insert an arithmetic operator: second input second_number is assigned float of input Insert the second number: computations if operator is equal to plus result is assigned first number plus second number elif operator is equal to minus result is assigned first number minus second number elif operator is equal to times result is assigned first number times second number elif operator is equal to to the power of result is assigned first number to the power of second number elif operator is equal to divided by result is assigned first number divided by second number elif operator is equal to floor division result is assigned first number floor division second number elif operator is equal to modulo result is assigned first number modulo second number else print You didn't enter an arithmetic operator print the result print str of first_number concatenated with space concatenated with operator concatenated with space concatenated with str of second_number concatenated with equals concatenated with str of result</pre>
--	--

When we merge code in one cell at the end of an implementation, we usually edit and clean it up for better readability. In this example, we directly transform `first_number` in a float by nesting the built-in function `input()` into the built-in function `float()` (line 2); we delete all the intermediate prints (i.e., we remove line 3 from cell 13, line 2 from cells 14 and 15, and line 17 from cell 16); and

we add comments (lines 1, 4, 7, 10, and 28) and lines spaces (lines 3, 6, 6, 27).

Complete the table

In this chapter, you learned the seven arithmetic operators. Sum up their characteristics in your own words in the table below:

Arithmetic operator	Operation	Pronunciation
+		
-		
*		
**		
/		
//		
%		

Recap

- There are seven arithmetic operators in Python: +, -, *, **, /, //, %
- Numbers can be represented by three data types: integers for whole numbers, floats for decimal numbers, and strings as text
- To transform a variable into an integer, we use the built-in function `int()`; to transform a variable into a float, we use the built-in function `float()`
- To check the type of a variable, we use the built-in function `type()`
- We use the keyword `elif` to check multiple conditions on the same variable

Solving arithmetic expressions

Arithmetic expressions are combinations of arithmetic operations. As we do in paper-and-pencil expressions, we execute operations in a specific order, which is summarized by the acronym BEDMAS. First, we perform operations between brackets, then we compute exponentiation, division, multiplication, addition, and subtraction. Here is an example:

```
[1]: 1 6 + 2 * 3      six plus two times three  
      12
```

First we execute the multiplication, followed by the addition. Thus, we first calculate $2 * 3$, which is 6, and then $6 + 6$, which is 12.

Here is another example:

[1]:	1 (6 + 2) * 3	open round bracket six plus two close round bracket times three
	24	

First, we execute the operation between round brackets $(6 + 2)$, which is 8, and then the multiplication $8 * 3$, which is 24. Note that brackets can only be round in coding.

Let's code!

1. *Math competition.* You are holding a math competition where participants have to choose among three envelopes and solve the arithmetic operation contained in the chosen envelope:
 - If the participant chooses envelope 1, she will have to solve: $(3 \times 5^2 \div 15) - (5 - 2^2)$
 - If the participant chooses envelope 2, she will have to solve: $-1 \times [(3 - 4 \times 7) \div 5] - 2^3 \times 24 \div 6$
 - If the participant chooses envelope 3, she will have to solve: $\frac{(36-3) \times 4}{(15-9) \div 3}$
 Compute the solutions.
2. *Geometry tutoring.* You are helping your neighbor's kid with some geometry exercises. He has to calculate the area and volume of a cylinder, and you want to test result correctness using Python. Ask the kid for cylinder radius and height. Then calculate area and volume of a cylinder using these formulas: $area = 2\pi r^2 + 2\pi r h$ and $volume = \pi r^2 h$. Hint: What is the value of π ? Assign it to a variable!

He also has to calculate surface and area of a cube of edge length $a = 4$. He does not have the right formulas, so you look for them on the internet. Write code to test whether his calculations are correct.
3. *What's the temperature out there?* You are traveling between Europe and North America, and you need to pack the right clothes. Write a temperature converter, knowing that the relation between Celsius and Fahrenheit degrees is $C = 5 \div 9 \times (F - 32)$. Answer these two questions:
 - The temperature in Miami is $75^\circ F$. What is the temperature in Celsius?
 - The temperature in Lisbon is $17^\circ C$. What is the temperature in Fahrenheit?

14. Playing with numbers

Common operations with lists of numbers

Lists of numbers are one of the most used data structures in coding. They follow the same rules as lists of strings—that is, we can use slicing and methods (e.g., `.append()`, `.remove()`, etc.) to manipulate them. In this chapter, we will explore some typical tasks performed with lists of numbers. Open Jupyter Notebook 14 and follow along. As we've done previously, try first to solve the task by yourself: start by defining the expected solution, outline the steps to reach it, and then write the code to solve it. When you are done, compare your implementation with the one proposed here.

1. Changing numbers based on conditions

One of the most common tasks in coding is changing numbers in a list based on some conditions. Let's have a look at this example!

- Given the following list of numbers:

```
[1]: 1 numbers = [12, 3, 15, 7, 18] numbers is assigned twelve, three, fifteen, seven, eighteen
```

We start with a list containing five integers.

- Subtract 1 from the numbers greater than or equal to 10, and add 2 to the numbers that are less than 10:

```
[2]: 1 # for each position in the list for i in range (len(numbers)): for each position in the list for i in range len of numbers

2     # if current number >= 10 if numbers[i] >= 10: if current number is greater than or equal to ten

3         # subtract 1 numbers[i] = numbers[i] - 1 numbers in position i is assigned numbers in position i minus one

4     # otherwise else: otherwise

5         # add 2 numbers[i] = numbers[i] + 2 add two

6     # print the final result print (numbers) numbers in position i is assigned numbers in position i plus two

7     [11, 5, 14, 9, 17] print the final result print numbers
```

We implement a for loop to browse all the elements of the list `numbers` (line 2). Then, we use an if/else construct to define a condition and compute accordingly. If the current number—that is, `numbers[i]`—is greater than 10 (line 4), we subtract 1, and we reassign the result to `numbers[i]` (line

6), similarly to what we saw in Chapter 11 (cell 2, line 10). If the current number is not greater than or equal to 10, we jump to the `else` (line 10). Then, we add 2 to the current number, and we reassign (line 12). Let's see how this works step by step:

- In the first loop, `i` is 0 (line 2). `numbers` in position 0 is 12, which is greater than 10 (line 4), so we subtract 1, obtaining 11, and we replace 12 with 11 by reassigning (line 7).
- In the second loop, `i` is 1 (line 2). `numbers` in position 1 is 3, which is not greater than or equal to 10 (line 4), so we jump to the `else` (line 10). There, we add 2 to 3, obtaining 5, and we replace 3 with 5 by reassigning (line 12).
- Etc.

Finally, we print the obtained list to check its correctness (line 12).

2. Separating numbers based on conditions

Another very common task with lists of numbers is to separate numbers into new lists based on given conditions. Let's see an example here!

- Given the following list of numbers:

[3]: 3	<code>numbers = [2, 10, 7, 5, 0, 9]</code>	<code>numbers</code> is assigned two, ten, seven, five, zero, nine
--------	--	--

We start with a list containing six integers.

- Separate the numbers into two different lists—one for odd numbers, and one for even numbers:

<pre>[4]: 1 # initialize the empty lists 2 even = [] 3 odd = [] 4 5 # for each position in the list 6 for i in range(len(numbers)): 7 8 # if the current number is even 9 if numbers[i] % 2 == 0: 10 # add it to the list even 11 even.append(numbers[i]) 12 # otherwise 13 else: 14 # add it to the list odd 15 odd.append(numbers[i]) 16 17 # check the final results 18 print (even) 19 print (odd)</pre>	<pre>initialize empty lists even is assigned an empty list odd is assigned an empty list for each position in the list for i in range len of numbers if the current number is even if numbers in position i modulo two equals zero add it to the list even even dot append numbers in position i otherwise else: add it to the list odd odd dot append numbers in position i check the final results print even print odd</pre>
<pre>[2,10,0] [7,5,9]</pre>	

We create two empty lists, one that will contain the even numbers (line 2) and one that will contain the odd numbers (line 3). To fill them up, we need a for loop together with the list method `.append()` (or with concatenation), as we learned in Chapter 13. Thus, we create a for loop that

browses all the list numbers one by one (line 6). Then, we use an if/else construct to determine whether each element of the list numbers will go to even or odd (lines 8–15). How do we **decide if a number is even or odd**? We know that even numbers are divisible by 2, whereas odd numbers are not. Thus, we can use the **modulo**, one of the seven arithmetic operators we learned in the previous chapter. When divided by 2, even numbers have a modulus (or remainder) equal to 0, whereas odd numbers don't (the remainder is 1!). Therefore, if the remainder of the current list number (e.g., `numbers[i]`) divided by 2 is 0 (line 9), then we append `numbers[i]` to the list `even` (line 11). Otherwise (line 13), we append `numbers[i]` to the list `odd` (line 15). Finally, we print the two lists to check the results (lines 18 and 19).

3. Finding the maximum of a list of numbers

A third very common task when dealing with lists of numbers is to find the maximum (or minimum) number in a list. Try to find the maximum of the list below by yourself, drafting and experimenting with code, before looking into the solution.

- Given the following list of numbers:

```
[5]: 3 numbers = [2, -5, 34, 70, 22] numbers is assigned two, minus five,  
      thirty-four, seventy, twenty-two
```

- Find the maximum number in the list:

```
[6]: 1 # initialize the maximum with the  
      first element of the list  
2 maximum = numbers[0]  
3  
4 # for each position in the list  
  starting from the second  
5 for i in range (1, len(numbers)):  
6  
7 # if the current number is greater  
  than the current maximum  
8     if numbers[i] > maximum:  
9         # assign the number to maximum  
10        maximum = numbers[i]  
11  
12 # print the maximum of the list  
13 print (maximum)  
70
```

initialize the maximum with the first element of the list
maximum is assigned numbers in position 0

for each position in the list starting from the second
for i in range one len of numbers

if the current number is greater than the current maximum
if numbers in position i is greater than maximum
assign the number to maximum
maximum is assigned numbers in position i

print the maximum of the list
print maximum

We create a variable called `maximum` that will contain the maximum number in the list, and we initialize it with the first number in the list, which is `numbers[0]` (line 1). Then, we employ a for loop starting from the second position to the last position of the elements in the list (line 5)—we do not start from 0 because it is not very meaningful to compare the value of `numbers[0]` (from the for loop) to itself (assigned to `maximum`). Then, we check if the current number is greater than the maximum (line 8). If so, we assign the number to the maximum (line 10). If not, we do not need to perform any action; therefore, we can skip the `else`. Finally, we print out the maximum (line 13). In other words, we

assign the first number of the list—that is, 2—to a variable that we call `maximum` (line 1). Then, we compare all the subsequent numbers of the list to the value of `maximum`, and if the list number is greater than `maximum`, we assign the list number to `maximum` (lines 5–10). When we look into each iteration, this is what happens:

- When `i` is 1, `numbers[1]` is -5, which is not greater than 2, so we don't do anything.
- When `i` is 2, `numbers[2]` is 34, which is greater than 2. Thus, 34 is the new maximum and we assign it to the variable `maximum`.
- When `i` is 3, `numbers[3]` is 70, which is greater than 34. Thus, 70 is the new maximum and we assign it to the variable `maximum`.
- When `i` is 4, `numbers[4]` is 22, which is not greater than 70, so we don't do anything. Since the for loop is over, the value of `maximum` is 70, as we found in the previous iteration.

Finally, why do we initialize the variable `maximum` with the first element of the list and not with a very small number? Consider the following example. Let's say we initialize `maximum` with a small number like -999993. However, the current list could be -999993, such as [-999998, -999996, -999994], so we won't be able to find the maximum of the list (i.e., -999994). When we look for a maximum, picking a specific number as the initial `maximum` does not allow us to generalize our code. We want to **compare the numbers within the list**.

True or false?

1. To change a number in a list, we need to reassign the new value to the same list position. T F
2. To calculate whether a number is divisible or multiple of another number, we used the arithmetic operation floor division. T F
3. To calculate the maximum of a number in a list, we compare the list numbers with each other. T F

Recap

When dealing with lists of numbers, some of the basic tasks are:

- Changing numbers in a list depending on conditions
- Separating numbers into new lists based on conditions
- Finding the maximum (or minimum) number in a list

Don't name variables with reserved words!

When naming variables, it's important not to use reserved words, that is, names of built-in functions or keywords. How do we know if a name is a reserved word? And what happens if we used it as a variable name? Consider the following example:

[1]:	1 len = 10 2 print (len)	len is assigned ten print len
------	-----------------------------	----------------------------------

We create a variable called `len` to which we assign the number ten. As you can see, the **variable name** is colored green, which means it is a **reserve word**—we know that `len()` is a Python built-in function, and that variable names are colored black (line 1). When we print the variable, we do not encounter any issue (line 2). However, if we want to calculate the length of a list in subsequent code, we get an error:

```
[2]: 1 numbers = [1, 2, 3]
      2 len (numbers)
      -----
      TypeError      Traceback (most recent call last)
      <ipython-input-5-db98c59ed681> in <module>
          1 numbers = [1, 2, 3]
      ----> 2 len (numbers)
      TypeError: 'int' object is not callable
```

numbers is assigned one, two,
three
`len` numbers

The error message says: 'int' object is not callable, which means that we want to use `len` as a function; instead, now `len` is an integer! In other words, by naming the variable `len` (cell 1, line 1), we overwrote the function `len` with an integer, and we cannot use it as a function anymore. To solve this issue, we have to restart the kernel, that is, we need to erase all variables and start from scratch (see the in more depth section in Chapter 7).

Let's code!

1. *Finding the minimum in a list of numbers.* Given the following list of numbers:

```
numbers = [78, -900, 356, -103, 0, -78]
```

find the minimum number in the list.

2. *Grouping numbers by position.* Given the following list of numbers:

```
numbers = [4, 25, 7, -8, 59, 63, -10, 74]
```

separate the numbers in odd positions from the numbers in even positions using a for loop.

3. *Number multiples.* Given the following list of numbers:

```
numbers = [20, 24, 69, 15, 100, 16, 40, 80, 33, 57, 2, 200]
```

create a list for the numbers that are multiples of 10, a list for the numbers that are multiples of 3, and a list for the remaining numbers. Finally, delete the list `numbers`.

4. *Longest and shortest string.* Given the following list of strings:

```
dogs = ["labrador", "chihuahua", "basset hound", "bernese shepherd", "poodle",
"cocker spaniel"]
```

find the longest and the shortest strings. Print out the two strings and their lengths.

5. *Summing numbers in a list.* Given the following list of numbers:

```
numbers = [3, 5, 2]
```

calculate the sum.

6. *Fibonacci sequence*. The Fibonacci sequence is a sequence of numbers where the current number is the sum of the two previous numbers. Write code that asks the user for a number n and prints out the Fibonacci sequence of n .

Hint: Start the sequence as [1,1]

Example:

- User input: 10
- Output: [1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55]

15. Fortune cookies

The Python module random

Let's continue our discovery of numbers in Python by learning how to generate random numbers. Randomness is quite useful in coding, for example to create games or in scientific simulations. Read the following example and try to understand it. You can play with the code in Notebook 15. Let's start!

- You are at a Chinese restaurant, and at the end of the meal, you get a fortune cookie. There are only three fortune cookies left. Each of them contains a message:

```
[1]: 1 fortune_cookies = ["The man on the top of the  
    mountain did not fall there", "If winter comes,  
    can spring be far behind?", "Land is always on  
    the mind of a flying bird"]
```

```
fortune_cookies is assigned The  
man on the top of the mountain did  
not fall there, If winter comes,  
can spring be far behind?, Land is  
always on the mind of a flying bird
```

- Which fortune cookie will you get? Let the computer decide! To do so, the computer needs a Python module called *random*:

```
[1]: 1 import random
```

```
import random
```

- Here is your message when the computer picks an index:

```
[1]: 1 # pick a message index  
2 message_index =  
    random.randint(0, len(fortune_cookies)-1)  
3 print(message_index)  
4  
5 # get the message  
6 message = fortune_cookies[message_index]  
7 print(message)
```

```
pick a message index  
message index is assigned random  
dot randint zero len of fortune  
cookies minus one  
print message index  
  
get the message  
message is assigned fortune  
cookies at message index  
print message
```

- And here is your message when the computer directly picks an element:

```
[1]: 1 # pick a message  
2 message = random.choice(fortune_cookies)  
3 print(message)
```

```
pick a message  
message is assigned random dot  
choice fortune cookies  
print message
```

True or false?

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. <code>import</code> is a function | T | F |
| 2. <code>random</code> is a Python module | T | F |
| 3. <code>.randint()</code> and <code>.choice()</code> are functions of the package <code>random</code> | T | F |
| 4. The arguments of the functions <code>.randint()</code> and <code>.choice()</code> are of type string | T | F |

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's begin by running the first cell:

```
[1]: 1 fortune_cookies = ["The man on the top of the
  mountain did not fall there", "If winter comes,
  can spring be far behind?", "Land is always on
  the mind of a flying bird"]
```

fortune_cookies is assigned The man on the top of the mountain did not fall there, If winter comes, can spring be far behind?, Land is always on the mind of a flying bird

The variable fortune_cookies is a list containing 3 strings.

Let's continue with the second cell:

```
[2]: 1 import random import random
```

We use the keyword **import** to import the module **random**. What does this mean? As you know, Python contains basic built-in functions, such as `print()`, `input()`, `len()`, `range()`, etc. However, when we code, we often need tools for recurrent tasks, such as generating random numbers, browsing directories, computing statistics, etc. For this reason, Python contains additional units called **modules**. We will talk about modules in greater detail in Chapter 32. For now, let's keep in mind this definition:

A module is a unit containing functions for a specific task

Because in Python there are plenty of modules—which could slow down our computer if imported all at once—we usually import only the module (or modules) that we are planning to use. To import a module, we use the keyword **import** followed by the **module name**.

Let's now run cell number 3:

```
[3]: 1 # pick a message index
 2 message_index =
      random.randint(0, len(fortune_cookies)-1)
 3 print(message_index)
 4
 5 # get the message
 6 message = fortune_cookies[message_index]
 7 print(message)
2
Land is always on the mind of a flying bird
```

pick a message index
message index is assigned random
dot randint zero len of fortune
cookies minus one
print message index

get the message
message is assigned fortune
cookies at message index
print message

The module `random` contains several functions, and in this cell we use `.randint()` (line 2). As you can see, the **syntax to call a module function** is as follows: **(1) module name; (2) dot; (3) function name; and (4) function inputs in between round brackets**. The function `.randint()` takes two integers as inputs—which we can call a and b (`.randint(a,b)`)—and returns a random number between them *included*—that is, a and b can be the generated random number. In our example, we want to pick a random number representing the index (or position) of an element in the list `fortune_cookies`. Thus, we could write `.randint(0,2)`. But what if we added or removed some strings to or from the list? We would have to manually change the endpoint b, and this could be prone to error! Similarly

to what we do for the stop in a for loop, we **parameterise** b, that is, we write b as a function of the length of a list. Thus, we type `len(fortune_cookies)`, from which we subtract 1 because list indexes start from zero (i.e., `len(fortune_cookies)` is 3, but the index of the last element is 2). After creating the random number, we assign it to `message_index`, and we print it (line 3). Finally, we slice the list `fortune_cookies` in position `message_index` to extract a string containing that we assign to the variable `message` (line 6) and print to the screen (line 7). One last note: try to run the cell several times. What happens? Every time `.randint()` returns a different number (0, 1, or 2), and thus we get a different fortune cookie message!

Let's have a look at the last cell:

```
[4]: 1 # pick a message
      2 message = random.choice(fortune_cookies)
      3 print(message)
The man on the top of the mountain did not fall there
```

pick a message
message is assigned random dot
choice fortune cookies
print message

In this case, we use another function from the module `random` called `.choice()`, which takes a list as an input and returns a randomly selected element of the list (line 2). Finally, we print the message (line 3).

What is the difference between `.choice()` and `.randint()`? When using `.choice()`, we do not know the *position* of the element the computer randomly selects, whereas when using `.randint()`, we know where the element is in the list.

Match the sentence halves

1. In `range(start, stop, step)`
 2. In `.randint(a,b)`
 3. The function `.randint(a,b)`
 4. The function `.choice(list)`
 5. The syntax to use a string or list method is
 6. The syntax to use a function from a module is
-
- a. module name, dot, function name()
 - b. returns a random element from a list
 - c. stop is excluded
 - d. variable name, dot, method name()
 - e. the endpoint b is included
 - f. returns a random integer between a and b (included)

Recap

- A module is a unit containing functions for a specific task.
- To import a module, we use the keyword `import`. Imports are usually written at the beginning of code, and only once.
- When calling a module function, we use the following syntax: `module_name.function_name()`
- `random` is a module to generate random numbers. It contains several functions, including:
 - `.randint(a,b)`: returns a random integer between the endpoints *a* and *b* (included)
 - `.choice(list_name)`: returns an element of a list

What if I don't use the index in a for loop?

As we know from the previous chapters, in a for loop, the variable *i* changes its value from the start to the stop (minus 1!) of the interval created by the function `range()`. Within the loop, we use *i* to either print out the current loop number (e.g., `print ("This is loop number " + str(i))`) or to automatically slice list elements (e.g., `print (friends[i])`). However, in some cases, we do not need *i*. Let's look at an example:

<pre>[1]: 1 import random 2 3 # repeat the commands 3 times (index not 4 # needed) 5 for _ in range (0,3): 6 7 # create a random number between 10 8 # and 20 9 random_number = random.randint(10,20) 10 11 # print the number 12 print ("The random number is" + 13 random_number) 14 15 The random numbers is: 14 16 The random numbers is: 17 17 The random numbers is: 12</pre>	<pre>import random repeat the commands 3 times (index not needed) for underscore in range from zero to three create a random number between ten and twenty random_number is assigned random dot randint ten twenty print the number print The random number is concatenated with random_number</pre>
--	--

We use a for loop to generate and print three random numbers (lines 4–8). As you can see, we use the for loop to repeat commands that do not contain *i*. In this case, it is a Python style convention to substitute *i* with an underscore (i.e., `_`) in the header of the for loop (line 4), to signal that we do not need an index in the loop. Using *i* in the loop header would not be an error, but it would decrease code readability for other Python coders.

Let's code!

1. For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to that presented in this chapter:
 - a. *Tossing a coin*. What are the possibilities when tossing a coin? Write them in a list. Then, toss the coin, once using `.randint()` and once using `.choice()`. What do you get?

- b. *Rolling dice.* What are the possibilities when rolling a die? Write them in a list. Then, roll the die, once using `.randint()` and once using `.choice()`. What numbers do you get? Finally, choose one method and roll the die three times. What numbers do you get?
2. *Ten random numbers.* Create a list of 10 random numbers between 0 and 100 using a for loop.
3. *Unique random numbers multiple of a number.* Create a list of 100 random numbers between 5 and 60. Divide them into two lists depending on whether they are a multiple of 4 or not. Then, create another list called `unique`, where you add unique multiples of 4 from the previous list. This means that, for example, that if 42 is present more than once, it will appear only once in `unique`. If the number is already present in `unique`, print out a sentence like: *The number x is already in unique.* How many unique multiples of 4 could you generate randomly?
4. *Playing with prime numbers.* Create a list of 150 random numbers between 50 and 100, and divide them into lists depending on whether they are multiple of the prime numbers 2, 3, 5, or 7 (a number can be added to more than one lists if it is multiple of several prime numbers). Then, sum up all the elements for each list separately (do not use built-in functions you might find online). Is each sum a multiple of the original prime number? That is, is the sum of all the multiples of 3 a multiple of 3 itself?

16. Rock paper scissors

Introduction to algorithms

Everybody knows the game rock paper scissors! Kids in every corner of the world play this game originating at least 2,000 years ago in China¹. In this chapter, we will learn how to implement this game in Python. How would you do it? Write your ideas in the next exercise and try to write your own implementation. Then, have a look at the computational solution below, implemented also in Notebook 16.

Complete the sentences

Think about three steps you need to implement rock paper scissors and write them below. Consider that you will play against the computer: it will pick either paper, rock, or scissors, and you will do the same. Who wins?

1. _____ .
2. _____ .
3. _____ .

1. Computer pick

In the first step, the computer picks among paper, rock, and scissors. How? Let's have a look at the code below.

- Make the computer pick *rock*, *paper*, or *scissors*:

```
[1]: 1 import random
      2
      3 # list of game possibilities
      4 possibilities = ["rock", "paper", "scissors"]
      5
      6 # computer random pick
      7 computer_pick = random.choice(possibilities)
      8 print(computer_pick)
      rock
```

import random
list of game possibilities
possibilities is assigned rock, paper,
scissors

computer random pick
computer_pick is assigned random dot
choice possibilities
print computer pick

We import the package `random`, which we learned in the previous chapter (line 1). Then, we create a list containing the possible choices—that is, the three strings "rock", "paper" and "scissors" (line 4). We use the function `.choice()` from the package `random` to randomly pick an element from the list `possibilities`. Finally, we save the pick in the variable `computer_pick` (line 7) and we print it out (line 8). In this case, the `computer_pick` is `rock`.

¹https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rock_paper_scissors

2. Player choice

In the second step, it's the player's turn to choose among rock, paper, and scissors. Let's have a look below.

- Make the player choose among *rock*, *paper*, or *scissors*:

```
[2]: 1 # asking the player to make their choice
      2 player_choice = input ("Rock, paper, or
      3   scissors?")
      print(player_choice)
      rock, paper, or scissors? rock
      rock
```

asking the player to make their choice
player choice is assigned input rock,
paper, or scissors?
print player choice

We use the built-in function `input` to ask the player to choose among rock, paper, or scissors, and we save the choice in the variable `player_choice` (line 2). Then, we print it out as a check (line 3). In our example, the player chooses `rock`.

3. Determine who wins

It's time to determine who wins! How do we do it? The computer has three possible picks, and so does the player. Thus, there are nine possible scenarios. How do we code them without forgetting any? One option is to define three situations where the computer's pick is fixed and the player's choice varies. Let's see the implementation!

- If the computer picks *rock*:

```
[3]: 1 if computer_pick == "rock":
      2
      3     # compare to the player's choice
      4     if player_choice == "rock":
      5         print("Tie!")
      6     elif player_choice == "paper":
      7         print("You win!")
      8     else:
      9         print("The computer wins!")
      Tie!
```

if computer pick equals rock
compare to the player's choice
if player choice equals rock
print Tie!
elif player choice equals paper
print You win!
else:
print The computer wins!

We start with an `if` condition to check if the computer pick equals "`rock`" (line 1). Then we evaluate the player's choice. If the player's choice equals "`rock`" (line 4), then we print that it's a tie (line 5). If the player's choice equals "`paper`" (line 6), then we print that the player wins (line 7). Finally, in the remaining case—the player's choice is "`scissors`"—(line 8), we print that the computer wins (line 9). The code is very simple: an `if` condition containing an `if/elif/else` construct with prints in the statements. As you can see, we **print a message directly to the player**, not to the coder. You might remember that when we code, we alternate two hats: the coder hat or the player hat (see page 14). If we print "`The player wins`" (line 7), we tell the *coder* that the code works. But if we print `You win!`, we talk to the *player*, who is the person we are coding for! Think about when you play a computer game: what kind of messages do you get?

In an `if/elif/else` construct, it is important to **test all conditions**. We want to make sure that all statements execute correctly, as we mentioned when we implemented a calculator (Chapter 13).

What does testing mean exactly?

Testing means to **evaluate and verify** that the **code does what it is supposed** to do

How do we test the code in this example? We rerun cell 2—where we ask the player to choose among rock, paper, and scissors—two times: once entering paper and once entering scissors. After each run, we rerun cell 3 to check that the corresponding printout is correct. It is important to enter the strings in the same order as they appear in the conditions: first rock, then paper, and finally scissors. **Keeping the same order helps us make sure that we test all conditions**, without skipping any.

Sometimes testing is confused with **debugging**, but they are two very different concepts. You might have heard the word **debugging** many times. What is its exact meaning?

Debugging means **identifying and removing errors** from code

Debugging is a bit of a detective job. When we get error messages, or we do not obtain the result that we expect, we need to understand **where** the error is so that we can fix it. A very common way to debug is to **print** variables after every line of code, to check the value they are assigned. When the variable value is not the expected one, that's where the error happens! Once we have found the error, we can fix it, and then we can keep coding. To understand further why we use the word debugging, read the "in more depth" section at the end of this chapter.

Let's continue implementing rock paper scissors, looking at the second computer pick possibility.

- If the computer picks *paper*:

<pre>[4]: 1 if computer_pick == "paper": 2 3 # compare to the player's choice 4 if player_choice == "paper": 5 print("Tie!") 6 elif player_choice == "scissors": 7 print("You win!") 8 else: 9 print("The computer wins!")</pre>	<pre>if computer pick equals paper compare to the player's choice if player choice equals paper print Tie! elif player choice equals scissors print You win! else: print The computer wins!</pre>
--	--

The structure of the code is the same as in the previous cell: an **if** condition (line 1) containing an **if/elif/else** construct (lines 4–9). What changes are the terms of comparison—that is, the strings—in the conditions: we check if the computer picks "paper", and we change the conditions for the player according to the printed messages.

When we write code with a repetitive structure—like in our example—it is crucial to use **parallelism**. What is parallelism?

Parallelism means maintaining a **corresponding structure**
for subsequent lines or blocks of code

In our example, we can either keep the *conditions* in the same order—e.g., the first term of comparison is always "rock", the second is always "paper", and the third is always "scissors"—or we can keep the *statements* in the same order—that is, the first message is always "Tie!" (line 5 in both cells 3 and 4), the second is always "You win!" (line 7 in both cells), and the third is always "The computer wins!" (line 9 in both cells). Parallelism helps us remember to **list all conditions** in every construct, and it improves code **readability**.

Once more, let's not forget to **test all conditions**. We first have to make sure that the computer pick is paper. Since we have only three options, a simple way is to rerun cell 1 until we get what we need—that is, "paper". Then, we re-run cells 2 and 4 three times, each time entering the player choice and testing the corresponding print, **in the same order** as in the if/elif/else construct. In other words, first we enter "paper" at cell 2, and run cell 4 to test lines 4–5. Then, we enter "scissors" at cell 2, and run cell 4 testing lines 6–7. And finally, we enter "scissors" at cell 2, and run cell 4 to test lines 8–9.

Let's finally look into the third scenario.

- If the computer picks scissors:

```
[5]: 1 if computer_pick == "scissors"
2
3     # compare to the player's choice
4     if player_choice == "scissors":
5         print("Tie!")
6     elif player_choice == "rock":
7         print("You win!")
8     else:
9         print("The computer wins!")
```

```
if computer pick equals scissors
compare to the player's choice
if player choice equals scissors
print Tie!
elif player choice equals rock
print You win!
else:
print The computer wins!
```

Also in this last case, the code structure is similar: an if condition (line 1) nesting an if/elif/else construct (lines 4–9). We check if the computer picked "scissors" and if the player chose "scissors" (line 4), "rock" (line 6), or "paper" (the else in line 8). As in cell 4, we construct the conditions so that the print statements are **parallel** to the conditions in cell 3. Finally, once more, we want to make sure we **test the code**. Thus, first we re-run cell 1, making sure that the computer_pick is "scissors". Then, we re-run cells 2 and 5, subsequently entering and testing for "scissors", "rock", and "paper".

Note that we considered a **well-behaved player**, that is, a player that enters rock, paper, or scissors correctly, without any misspelling. We will assume that we are dealing with well-behaved players in all coming chapters to focus on coding syntax and thinking. We will learn to check for input correctness in Chapter 30.

At this point, the code is completed! As coders, we have taken care of the various parts of the code, writing and testing them. Now it's time to put all the code together for the player!

Merging the code

- Let's merge the code:

```
[6]:  
1 import random  
2  
3 # list of game possibilities  
4 possibilities = ["rock", "paper", "scissors"]  
5  
6 # computer random pick  
7 computer_pick = random.choice(possibilities)  
8  
9 # asking the player to make their choice  
10 player_choice = input ("Rock, paper, or  
11 scissors?")  
12  
13 # determine who wins  
14 # if the computer picks rock  
15 if computer_pick == "rock":  
16     # compare to the player's choice  
17     if player_choice == "rock":  
18         print("Tie!")  
19     elif player_choice == "paper":  
20         print("You win!")  
21     else:  
22         print("The computer wins!")  
23  
24 # if the computer picks paper  
25 if computer_pick == "paper":  
26     # compare to the player's choice  
27     if player_choice == "paper":  
28         print("Tie!")  
29     elif player_choice == "scissors":  
30         print("You win!")  
31     else:  
32         print("The computer wins!")  
33  
34 # if the computer picks scissors  
35 if computer_pick == "scissors":  
36     # compare to the player's choice  
37     if player_choice == "scissors":  
38         print("Tie!")  
39     elif player_choice == "rock":  
40         print("You win!")  
41     else:  
42         print("The computer wins!")  
43  
44 Rock, paper, or scissors? rock  
45 You win!
```

import random

list of game possibilities
possibilities is assigned rock, paper,
scissors
computer random pick
computer_pick is assigned random dot
choice possibilities

asking the player to make their choice
player choice is assigned input rock,
paper, or scissors?

determine who wins
if the computer picks rock
if computer pick equals rock
compare to the player's choice
if player choice equals rock
print Tie!
elif player choice equals paper
print You win!
else:
print The computer wins!

if the computer picks paper
if computer pick equals paper
compare to the player's choice
if player choice equals paper
print Tie!
elif player choice equals scissors
print You win!
else:
print The computer wins!

if the computer picks scissors
if computer pick equals scissors
compare to the player's choice
if player choice equals scissors
print Tie!
elif player choice equals rock
print You win!
else:
print The computer wins!

When merging code, we usually do some **editing to improve code use and readability**. In this case, we erased the print of computer_pick (which was in cell 1, line 8) because we do not want the player to know the computer choice in advance. Similarly, we delete the print of player_choice (which was in cell 2, line 3), as the player already sees their choice from the entry at line 9. Other

editing might include improving comments, making variable names more meaningful, restructuring parts of the code, etc.

Let's now zoom out and observe the procedure we use to implement the game. We first defined three steps (see the exercise *Complete the sentences*). Then, we implemented each step separately (see paragraphs 1. *Computer pick*, 2. *Player choice*, and 3. *Determine who wins*). Finally, we merged all the code together and edited it (see *Merging the code*). This way of approaching a task is called *divide and conquer*.

Divide and conquer means **dividing** a project into **sub-projects**, **solving** the sub-projects, and **combining the solutions** of the sub-projects to obtain the solution of the original project

In other words, there are three steps to solve a computational (but not strictly computational!) task:

1. Break the project into subprojects
2. Solve the subprojects separately
3. Merge the solutions of the subprojects to obtain the solution of the whole project

Last but not least, let's talk about algorithms! You have surely heard this word many times. What is an algorithm?

An algorithm is a **sequence of rigorous steps** to **execute and complete a task**

Algorithms are just procedures to solve tasks, problems, or assignments. They do not have to be complicated. They can actually be pretty simple. There are plenty of algorithms in everyday life! Think about the sequence of steps you make to brush your teeth: taking the toothpaste tube, opening and squeezing it, placing toothpaste on the toothbrush, etc. This is an algorithm! Or think about cooking recipes, especially printed recipes. At the top, there is a list of ingredients (e.g., 2 carrots, 3 onions), which are the variables (e.g., carrots = 2, onions = 3). Then, there is the execution of the recipe, that is, the steps to process the ingredients into the final dish. In programming, many algorithms have been developed in the past few decades. The most famous algorithms were designed to sort lists, find prime numbers, find elements in a list, etc. We will not look into them in this book, but you can find plenty of examples and explanations in more advanced books and on the internet.

Complete the table

In this chapter, you learned several more important concepts in coding. Write their definitions in your own words:

Concept	Definition
Testing	
Debugging	
Parallelism	
Divide and conquer	
Algorithm	

Recap

- An algorithms is a sequence of steps to execute a task
- When writing an algorithm (and code in general), we largely use parallelism, testing, debugging, and divide and conquer

Why do we say Debugging, Divide and conquer, and Algorithms?

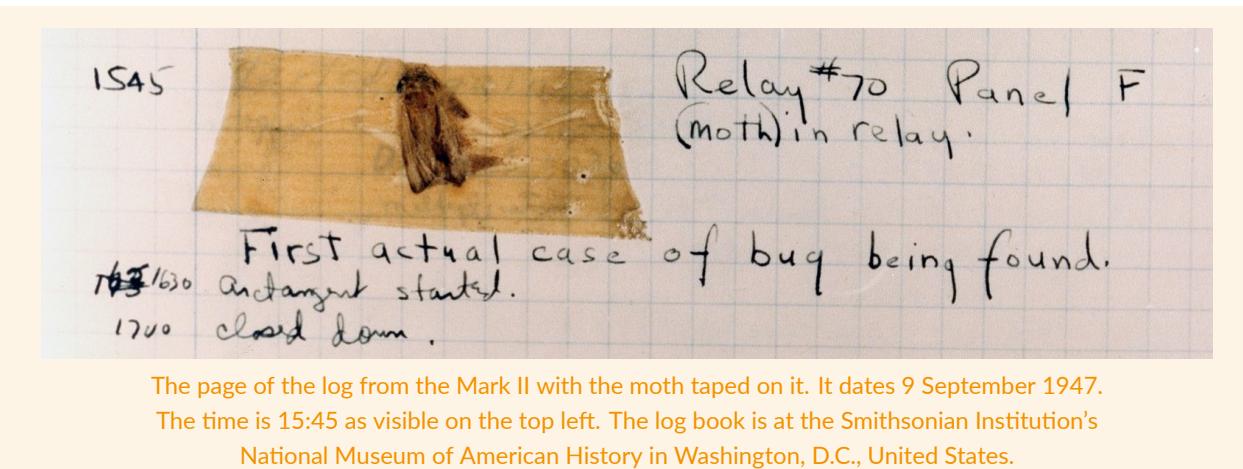
Do you know why we say *debugging*, *divide and conquer*, and *algorithms*? The term *debugging* originated in 1947, when a moth was found in a relay of Mark II computer at Harvard University, causing the computer to malfunction. The moth was then taped to a log sheet, with the annotation *Relay 70 Panel F (moth) in relay. First actual case of a bug being found* (see figure below). Although the word *debugging* is not mentioned in the annotation, it became popular thanks to Grace Hopper, who worked on the same computer^{a,b}. *Divide and conquer* is attributed to Philip II of Macedon, and it was reused by the Roman ruler Julius Caesar, the French emperor Napoleon, and many more^c. It refers to a military strategy where the invaders divide the enemy forces to defeat them more easily and conquer them as a whole. Finally, the term *algorithm* derives from al-Khwarizmi, the last name of Muhammad ibn Musa al-Khwarizmi, a 9th-century Persian mathematician and astronomer whose books were widely read in Europe in the late Middle Ages. He wrote a book on the Hindu–Arabic numeral system, which was translated into Latin in the 12th century. The latin manuscript starts with the phrase *Dixit Algorizmi* ("Thus spoke Al-Khwarizmi"), where "Algorizmi" was the translator's Latinization of Al-Khwarizmi's last name^d.

^a<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Debugging>

^bhttps://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grace_Hopper

^chttps://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Divide_and_rule

^d<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Algorithm>



The page of the log from the Mark II with the moth taped on it. It dates 9 September 1947.

The time is 15:45 as visible on the top left. The log book is at the Smithsonian Institution's National Museum of American History in Washington, D.C., United States.

Let's code!

1. *Trivia night!*. Trivia is a quiz game where players have to answer questions about various subjects. For this implementation of Trivia, prepare 3 questions and their corresponding answers for 3 different topics. Ask the player to pick a topic, and then ask a randomly picked question about that topic. Finally, tell the player whether the answer is correct. If not, print out the correct answer. Here are some hints:

- How do you organize your questions and answers? What Python data types do you use?
- What is the sequence of actions you need to perform? Write them down before coding. You can always update them while implementing
- How do you test that your code is correct?
- Remember to divide and conquer!

PART 5

THE WHILE LOOP AND CONDITIONS

In part 5, you will learn the last construct in coding: the while loop. You will also learn various types of conditions that you can use in while loops and if/elif/else statements. Let's go!

17. Do you want more candies?

The `while` loop

In coding, there are three constructs: `if/elif/else`, `for` loops, and `while` loops. You have now mastered the first two, and in this chapter, you will finally learn the `while` loop! Read the code below, and try to understand what it does. Follow along with notebook 17!

[]: 1 # initialize variable 2 number_of_candies = 0 3 4 # print the initial number of candies 5 print("You have " + str(number_of_candies) + " candies") 6 7 # ask if one wants a candy 8 answer = input ("Do you want a candy? (yes/no)") 9 10 # as long as the answer is yes 11 while answer == "yes": 12 13 # add a candy 14 number_of_candies += 1 15 16 # print the current number of candies 17 print("You have " + str(number_of_candies) + " candies") 18 19 # ask again if they want more candies 20 answer = input ("Do you want more candies? (yes/no)") 21 22 # print the final number of candies 23 print("You have a total of" str(number_of_candies) + " candies")	initialize variable number_of_candies is assigned zero print the initial number of candies print You have concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies ask if one wants a candy answer is assigned input Do you want a candy? (yes/no) as long as the answer is yes while answer equals yes: add a candy number_of_candies is incremented by one print the current number of candies print You have concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies ask again if they want more candies answer is assigned input Do you want more candies? (yes/no) print the final number of candies print You have a total of concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies
--	---

Complete the following exercise to start getting to know the syntax and functionality of the `while` loop!

True or false?

- | | |
|---|-----|
| 1. <code>while</code> is a variable | T F |
| 2. The <code>while</code> loop header contains a condition | T F |
| 3. The variable <code>answer</code> appears 2 times in the code | T F |
| 4. The variable <code>number_of_candies</code> increases by one unit at each loop | T F |
| 5. The <code>while</code> loop continues as long as the player inputs yes and stops when the player inputs no | T F |

Computational thinking and syntax

Let's run the cell, and let's analyze the code in two separate blocks. We'll start with the first block:

[1]:	1 # initialize variable 2 number_of_candies = 0 3 4 # print the initial number of candies 5 print("You have " + str(number_of_candies) + " candies")	initialize variable number_of_candies is assigned zero print the initial number of candies print You have concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies
------	---	--

We create a variable called `number_of_candies` and initialize it to 0 (line 2). This variable will keep count of the number of candies we want. It is a very important variable, and we will talk about it again when analyzing the second block of code. At line 5, we print out the number of candies we have, which is zero.

Let's look into the next block, which is the core of the whole code:

7 # ask if one wants a candy 8 answer = input ("Do you want a candy? (yes/no)") 9 10 # as long as the answer is yes 11 while answer == "yes": 12 13 # add a candy 14 number_of_candies += 1 15 16 # print the current number of candies 17 print("You have " + str(number_of_candies) + " candies") 18 19 # ask again if they want more candies 20 answer = input ("Do you want more candies? (yes/no)") 21 22 # print the final number of candies 23 print("You have a total of" + str(number_of_candies) + " candies")	ask if one wants a candy answer is assigned input Do you want a candy? (yes/no) as long as the answer is yes while answer equals yes: add a candy number_of_candies is incremented by one print the current number of candies print You have concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies ask again if they want more candies answer is assigned input Do you want more candies? (yes/no) print the final number of candies print You have a total of concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies
You have 0 candies Do you want a candy? (yes/no) yes You have 1 candies Do you want more candies? (yes/no) yes You have 2 candies Do you want more candies? (yes/no) no You have a total of 2 candies	

Let's see how the while loop works. We ask the player whether they want a candy, and we save the reply in the variable `answer` (line 8). Then, we continue with the while loop header, which says something like: as long as the variable `answer` is equal to yes, do the following (line 11): add a unit to the variable `number_of_candies` (line 14); print out the current number of candies (line 17), and ask

again the player if they want more candies (line 20). Then, we go back to the while loop header (line 11). If the answer at line 20 was yes, we'll do the same as above, that is: add a unit to the variable `number_of_candies` (line 14); print out the current number of candies (line 17), and ask again the player if they want more candies (line 20). Then, we will go back to the while loop header again (line 11). If the answer at line 20 was yes again, we will do the same as above once more, that is: add a unit to the variable `number_of_candies` (line 14), ... We'll keep doing this **as long as** the variable `answer` is equal to yes. What if the player answers no at line 20? When we go back to the while loop header (line 11), the condition is not valid anymore, because `answer` is not equal to yes! So the loop stops, and we go directly to the first line after the while loop body (line 23). There, we print out the total number of candies.

Let's now look into the syntax. The while loop starts with a **header** (line 11), which is composed of three parts: (1) the keyword `while`, (2) a condition, and (3) colon : (every construct header ends with a colon!). In this example, we check whether the value assigned to the variable `answer` equals the string "yes". We will see other kinds of conditions in the next chapter. After the header, there is the **body** of the while loop (lines 13–20). The body is **indented**, similarly to the `for` loop body and `if/elif/else` statements. Let's now focus our attention on two variables: `answer` and `number_of_candies`.

How many times do you see the variable `answer` and where? `answer` is in **three** different places: (1) **before** the while loop (line 8), (2) **in the condition** of the while loop, and (3) **in the body** of the while loop. Why do we need it three times? Before a while loop, we always have to initialize the variable contained in the condition of the while loop header; otherwise, we cannot evaluate the condition itself when the loop starts. In our example, we initialize `answer` with the first player's answer (line 8). Then, we have to check the condition involving the variable `answer`. In this case, we check if `answer` is equal to yes (line 11). Finally, we have to allow the variable to change (line 20), so that the loop can terminate; otherwise, the loop will keep going indefinitely. Sooner or later, we all forget this last part, and we get into an **infinite loop!** If that happens to you, just stop the cell (if it takes too long, restart the kernel!)

Let's finally look into the variable `number_of_candies`. How many times do you see it and where? `number_of_candies` is in **two** places: (1) **before** the while loop, where it is **initialized** (line 2), and (2) **in** the while loop, where it is **incremented** by one unit at every loop (line 14). The variable `number_of_candies` is generally called **counter** because it **keeps count of the number of loops**. The symbol `+=` is an **assignment symbol**, and we can pronounce it as *incremented by*. It is a compact way of writing `number_of_candies = number_of_candies + 1`. For any arithmetic operator, there is the associated assignment operator, that is, `-=` (*decrease by*), `*=` (*multiply by and reassign*), `/=` (*divide by and reassign*), etc. Note that in assignment operators, the symbol `=` is always in the second position, after an arithmetic operator.

What is the difference between a for loop and a while loop? In Chapter 8, we defined the while loop as follows:

A **for loop** is the repetition of a group of commands
for a **determined** number of times

In a **for loop**, we know exactly how many times we are going to run the commands in the loop body. Conversely, in a **while loop** we do not know how many times we are going to run the commands in the loop body because the duration of a while loop depends on the validity of the condition in the header. Let's define the while loop and summarize its characteristics:

A **while loop** is the repetition of a group of commands as long as a condition holds

A while loop stops when the condition in the header is not true anymore. We always have to give the variable in the condition the possibility to change so that the condition in the header can be false and the loop can stop. If the variable in the condition (answer in our example) cannot change in the while loop body, then we will get an infinite loop. Finally, to know how many times we run the loop, we can use a counter (number_of_candies in our example) to keep track of the number of iterations. The presence of a counter is not compulsory.

Insert into the right column

So far, you have learned several operators: arithmetic, assignment, and comparison operators. Insert each symbol in the right column:

+, ==, *=, <, /, *, <=, =, // =, /=, //, !=, -=, -, +=, >=, %=, **, %, **=, >

Recap

- A while loop is the repetition of a bunch of commands as long as a condition holds
- The variable in the condition must be initialized before the condition. It also has to change somewhere in the loop body so that the loop can stop when the condition does not hold anymore
- A while loop can have a counter. Counters keep track of the number of loops and must be initialized before the loop header
- When updating a variable with an arithmetic operation, we can use the corresponding assignment operator, that is, `+=`, `-=`, etc.

Writing code is like writing an email!

What steps do we do when writing an email? We start with recipient's address and email subject, then we continue with the salutation, the body of the email, greetings, and we finish with signature (an algorithm, isn't it?). Once we are done, we read the email again for a check. We correct some misspellings, and we quickly edit a few things here and there. Often, we go deeper: we reformulate some sentences or we completely rearrange some paragraphs. Without realizing it, we have gone through the email a couple of times! Now, think about the steps we make when writing code. First, we write the imports, the variables, and the implementation of an algorithm. Then we test it to see whether it works, and if not, we correct it. Once it finally works, we remove unused variables, compact some code lines, improve variable names, and clean comments. Like we do for emails, we look at our code circularly, that is, from top to bottom a couple of times, exactly like when we re-read an email. But for some reason, when we code, we often want the first draft to be the final implementation, and we get frustrated if this doesn't happen. When writing code, **consider the time you spend testing, debugging, and improving the code as part of the process**, not as some extra time that prevents you from doing something else! It's all part of the process!

Let's code!

1. For each of the following scenarios, create code similar to that presented in this chapter:
 - a. *Do you want more cookies?*
 - b. *Do you want less exercises?*
2. *At the cheese shop.* You own a cheese shop, and you sell slices of cheese at 50c each. A new customer comes in, and you ask if they want cheese. The customer is uncertain of how much cheese to buy, so after every slice, you ask again if they want another slice of cheese. As long as the customer says yes, then you add a slice of cheese, update the final price, and tell them the amount of slices of cheese and the price so far. How many slices of cheese did you sell? And what was the final price?
3. *Playing with numbers.* Given the following list: `numbers = [0]`, ask the player if you should add another number to the list. As long as the player says yes, add to the list the sum of the last

number you added and the counter of the current loop *Example:* If you run the while loop 7 times, you will get the following list: [0, 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 21, 28]

4. *Generating even numbers.* Given an empty list, ask the player if you should add another number to the list. As long as the player says yes, create a random number between 0 and 100, and if the number is even, then add it to the list. How many numbers did you generate? How many even? How many odd? What is the ratio between the amount of even and odd numbers you generated?

18. Animals, unique numbers, and sum

Various kinds of conditions

In the previous chapter, we saw only one kind of condition in a while loop—that is, that a variable is equal to "yes". Let's now take a look at three examples with other kinds of conditions. First, try to solve each task by yourself: read the requirements carefully, list the steps to execute, implement them one by one, and merge the code to the solution (divide and conquer!). This time, also try to take it one a step further: keep an eye on the processes that your mind goes through while solving the tasks. **You will often find recurring thinking patterns when coding.** Knowing and recognizing them will give you awareness and thus speed up your work. For each of the following examples, you will see a possible way to approach the coding task at hand. Maybe it will be similar to your thinking, or maybe it will be different. In any case, it will give you an idea of possible thinking pathways. You can play with the proposed solutions on Notebook 18. Enough talk—let's start coding!

1. Guess the animal!

- Given the following list:

```
1 animals = ["giraffe", "dolphin", "penguin"] animals is assigned giraffe, dolphin,  
penguin
```

- Create a game in which the computer randomly picks one of the three animals and the player has to guess the animal picked by the computer. Make sure that the player keeps playing until they guess the animal picked by the computer. At the end of the game, tell the player how many attempts it took to guess the animal.

The game has four requirements: (1) the computer randomly picks one of the three animals; (2) the player has to guess the animal picked by the computer; (3) the player keeps playing until they guess the animal picked by the computer; and (4) at the end of the game, tell the player how many attempts it took to guess the animal. Let's see how to implement each requirement!

- The computer randomly picks one of the three animals.* This is pretty straightforward:

<pre>1 import random 2 3 # computer pick 4 computer_pick = random.choice(animals) 5 print(computer_pick) dolphin</pre>	<pre>import random computer pick computer pick is assigned random dot choice animals print computer pick</pre>
--	---

We import the package `random` (line 1), and we use its function `.choice()` to make the computer pick a random element from the list `animals` (line 4). Then, we print `computer_pick` as a check (line 5).

2. The player has to guess the animal picked by the computer. This task is also easy:

```
1 # player guess
2 player_guess = input ("Guess the animal!
Choices: giraffe, dolphin, penguin:")
3
4 Guess the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin, penguin: giraffe
```

player guess
player guess is assigned input Guess
the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin,
penguin:
Guess the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin, penguin: giraffe

We use the function `input()` to ask the player to input their guess (line 2). We assume that the player's input is `giraffe`.

3. The player keeps playing until they guess the animal picked by the computer. The phrase "until they guess the animal" is equivalent to "as long as they guess the animal", which immediately suggests to us that we should use a while loop. What condition do we write in the header? Let's see:

```
1 # as long as the player's guess and the
2 # computer's pick are different
3 while player_guess != computer_pick:
4
5     # tell the player that the animal is
6     # not right
7     print("That's not the right animal!")
8
9     # ask the player to guess again
10    player_guess = input ("Try again! Guess
11        the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin,
12        penguin:")
13
14    # tell the player that they guessed the
15    # right animal
16    print("Well done! You guessed " +
17        computer_pick)
```

as long as the player's guess and the
computer's pick are different
while player guess is not equal to
computer pick:

tell the player that the animal is not
right
print That's not the right animal!

ask the player to guess again
player guess is assigned input Try
again! Guess the animal! Choices:
giraffe, dolphin, penguin:

tell the player that they guessed the
right animal
print Well done! You guessed
concatenated with computer pick

That's not the right animal!
Try again! Guess the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin, penguin: dolphin
Well done! You guessed dolphin

The loop must stop when the player guesses the animal, that is, until `player_guess` and `computer_pick` are the same. In general, **when a requirement defines the condition that stops a while loop**, we have to think the opposite way: **we need to find the condition that allows the while loop to keep going**. In our example, the loop must keep going as long as `player_guess` is *not* equal to `computer_pick` (line 2). In the loop body, we provide a feedback to the player saying that the animal they picked is not right (line 5), and we ask the player to guess the animal again (line 8) so that the while loop can continue. Finally, after the loop, we print out a message confirming that the player guessed the right animal (line 12).

4. At the end of the game, tell the player how many attempts it took to guess the animal. We definitely need a counter!

```
1 # initializing the counter
2 n_of_attempts = 1
3
```

initializing the counter
n of attempts is assigned one

```

4 # as long as the player's guess and the
  computer's pick are different
5 while player_guess != computer_pick:
6
7     # tell the player that the animal is
      not right
8     print("That's not the right animal!")
10    # print the numbers of attempts so far
11    print("Number of attempts so far: " +
          str(n_of_attempts))
12
13    # increase the number of attempts
14    n_of_attempts += 1
15
16    # ask the player to guess again
17    player_guess = input ("Try again! Guess
      the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin,
      penguin:")
18
19    # tell the player that they guessed the
      right animal
20    print("Well done! You guessed " +
          computer_pick + " at attempt number " +
          str(n_of_attempts))

```

That's not the right animal!
Number of attempts so far: 1
Try again! Guess the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin, penguin: dolphin
Well done! You guessed dolphin at attempt number 2

We create the counter `n_of_attempts` (line 2), and we initialize it to 1. Why 1 and not to 0? Because the player enters the first input *before* the while loop (see requirement 2. *The player has to guess the animal picked by the computer*), and that is the first attempt! Then, we tell the player the current number of attempts (line 11) and increase `n_of_attempts` by one unit at every loop (line 14). Finally, we include the total number of attempts to the last print (line 20).

After solving the four tasks, we can merge the code together! Here is the complete solution:

```

[1]: 1 import random
2
3 # computer pick
4 computer_pick = random.choice(animals)
5
6 # print(computer_pick)
7
8 # player guess
9 player_guess = input ("Guess the animal!
  Choices: giraffe, dolphin, penguin:")
10
11 # initializing the counter
12 n_of_attempts = 1

```

```

import random
computer pick
computer pick is assigned random dot
choice animals
print computer pick
computer pick
player guess is assigned input Guess
the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin,
penguin:
initializing the counter
n of attempts is assigned 1

```

```

13 # as long as the player's guess and the
   computer's pick are different
14 while player_guess != computer_pick:
15
16     # tell the player that the animal is
       not right
17     print("That's not the right animal!")
18
19     # print the numbers of attempts so far
20     print("Number of attempts so far: " +
           str(n_of_attempts))
21
22     # increase the number of attempts
23     n_of_attempts += 1
24
25     # ask the player to guess again
26     player_guess = input ("Try again! Guess
                           the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin,
                           penguin:")
27
28     # tell the player that they guessed the
       right animal
29     print("Well done! You guessed " +
           computer_pick)

```

Guess the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin, penguin: giraffe
 That's not the right animal!
 Number of attempts so far: 1
 Try again! Guess the animal! Choices: giraffe, dolphin, penguin: dolphin
 Well done! You guessed dolphin at attempt number 2

as long as the player's guess and the
 computer's pick are different
while player guess **is not equal to**
 computer pick:

 tell the player that the animal is not
 right
print That's not the right animal!

 print the numbers of attempts so far
print Number of attempts so far:
 concatenated with **str** n of attempts

 increase the number of attempts
 n of attempts **is incremented by** one

 ask the player to guess again
player guess **is assigned** **input** Try
 again! Guess the animal! Choices:
 giraffe, dolphin, penguin:

 tell the player that they guessed the
 right animal
print Well done! You guessed
 concatenated with computer pick

Note that we commented out the print of the computer_pick (line 5), as the final code is for a player and not for a coder!

2. Create a list of 8 unique random numbers!

Here is our next task:

- Create a list of 8 random numbers between 0 and 10. Make sure they are unique, meaning each number is present only once in the list. If the number is already in the list, then print the following: *The number x is already in the list.* How many numbers did you generate before finding 8 unique numbers?

The task has four requirements: (1) create a list of 8 random numbers between 0 and 10; (2) make sure they are unique, that is, each number is present only once in the list; (3) if the number is already in the list, then print *The number x is already in the list*; and (4) how many numbers did you generate before finding 8 unique numbers? Let's go through the requirements one by one!

1. Create a list of 8 random numbers between 0 and 10.

According to this requirement only, we can create a list of 8 numbers using a for loop and the function .randint() from the module .random:

<pre> 1 import random 2 3 # initialize the number list 4 unique_random_numbers = [] 5 6 # for 8 times 7 for _ in range (8): 8 9 # create a random number between 0 and 10 10 unique_random_numbers.append 11 (random.randint(0,10)) 12 13 # print the list 14 print(unique_random_numbers) [7, 9, 3, 2, 3, 0, 9, 6] </pre>	<pre> import random initialize the number list unique random numbers is assigned an empty list for eight times for underscore in range eight create a random number between zero and ten unique random numbers dot append random dot randint zero ten print the list print unique random numbers </pre>
---	---

We import the package `random` (line 1), and we initialize `unique_random_numbers`—which will contain the created numbers—to an empty list (line 4). Then, we create a `for` loop, where we generate eight random numbers between 0 and 10, and we append them to `unique_random_numbers` (lines 6–10). Note that we use an underscore instead of the variable `i` in the loop header because we do not need `i` in the loop body (see the “In more depth” section *What if I don’t use the index in a for loop?* in Chapter 15). Finally, we print `unique_random_numbers` to check that it actually contains eight random numbers (line 13). Let’s go to the next requirement!

2. *Make sure they are unique, which means each number is present only once in the list.* In the list we printed out above, the numbers are not unique: both 3 and 9 are present twice. Thus, we need to modify our code. How? We do not know how many random numbers we need to generate before obtaining 8 unique numbers, that is, we do not know how many times we need to run the command `unique_random_numbers.append(random.randint(0,10))` (line 9 in the cell above). For this reason, we cannot use a `for` loop—which we use when we know the exact number of iterations—but we need to use a `while` loop, which we use when the number of iterations is determined by a condition. **Making changes in code during the drafting process is normal**, as we mentioned in the “In more depth” section of the previous chapter *Writing code is like writing an email!* What condition do we use in this `while` loop? The list must be composed of 8 elements, thus its length has to be 8! Let’s see how we can transform the code:

<pre> 1 import random 2 3 # initialize the number list 4 unique_random_numbers = [] 5 </pre>	<pre> import random initialize the number list unique random numbers is assigned an empty list </pre>
--	--

```
6 # as long as the length of the list is not 8
7 while len(unique_random_numbers) != 8:
8
9     # create a random number between 0 and 10
10    number = random.randint(0,10)
11
12    # if the number is already in the list
13    if number in unique_random_numbers:
14        # place holder
15        a = 0
16    # otherwise
17    else:
18        # add the new number to the list
19        unique_random_numbers.append(number)
20
21 # print the list
22 print(unique_random_numbers)
[1, 8, 10, 7, 3, 0, 5, 9]
```

as long as the length of the list is
not eight
while len of unique random numbers **is**
not equal to eight

create a random number between zero
and ten
number **is assigned** random dot randint
zero ten

if the number is already in the list
if number **in** unique random numbers:
place holder
a **is assigned** zero
otherwise
else:
add the new number to the list
unique random numbers dot append
number

print the list
print unique random numbers

At line 7, we substitute the header of the for loop with the header of a while loop, with the condition that the loop **keeps going** as long as the length of the list is not equal to 8. Then, we generate a random number (line 10). We need to make sure that the random number is a new one (or unique!) before adding it to the list. Thus, we create an **if ... in / else** construct (lines 12–19), which we learned in Chapter 3. If the number is already in the list (line 13), then we do not want to add it to the list. The next requirement will tell us what to do, so right now we can just use a placeholder, or a nonfunctional command in our code that we plan to substitute (a=0, line 15). Using placeholders is not very good coding practice, but sometimes we can make an exception in the very early drafting phase. If the number is not in the list (else at line 17), then we append it to the list (line 19)

3. If the number is already in the list, then print: The number x is already in the list

We substitute the placeholder a=0 with the print commands (line 15):

```
1 import random
2
3 # initialize the number list
4 unique_random_numbers = []
5
```

import random
initialize the number list
unique random numbers **is assigned** an
empty list

```

6  # as long as the length of the list is not 8
7  while len(unique_random_numbers) != 8:
8
9      # create a random number between 0 and 10
10     number = random.randint(0,10)
11
12     # if the number is already in the list
13     if number in unique_random_numbers:
14         # print that the number is in the list
15         print ("The number " + str(number) +
16             " is already in the list")
17
18     # otherwise
19     else:
20         # add the new number to the list
21         unique_random_numbers.append(number)
22
23 # print the list
24 print(unique_random_numbers)
The number 1 is already in the list
The number 10 is already in the list
The number 7 is already in the list
The number 5 is already in the list
[1, 8, 10, 7, 3, 0, 5, 9]

```

as long as the length of the list is not eight
while len of unique random numbers is not equal to eight
create a random number between zero and ten
number is assigned random dot randint eight ten
if the number is already in the list
if number in unique random numbers:
print that the number is in the list
print The number concatenated with str number concatenated with is already in the list
otherwise
else:
add the new number to the list
unique random numbers dot append number
print the list
print unique random numbers

As we can see in the printouts, the numbers 1, 10, 7, and 5 were generated twice, but they are in the list only once!

4. How many numbers did you generate before finding 8 unique numbers?

To satisfy this last requirement, we need a counter. It will keep track of the amount of numbers we generated, which coincides with the number of iterations of the while loop!

```

[2]: 1 import random
2
3 # initialize the number list
4 unique_random_numbers = []
5
6 # initialize the counter
7 counter = 0
8
9 # as long as the length of the list is not 8
10 while len(unique_random_numbers) != 8:
11
12     # create a random number between 0 and 10
13     number = random.randint(0,10)

```

import random
initialize the number list
unique random numbers is assigned an empty list
initialize the counter
counter is assigned zero
as long as the length of the list is not eight
while len of unique random numbers is not equal to eight
create a random number between zero and ten
number is assigned random dot randint zero ten

```

14
15      # increase the counter by 1
16      counter += 1
17
18      # if the number is already in the list
19      if number in unique_random_numbers:
20          # print that the number is in the list
21          print ("The number " + str(number) +
22              " is already in the list")
23
24      # otherwise
25      else:
26          # add the new number to the list
27          unique_random_numbers.append(number)
28
29      # print the final list and the total amount of
30      # generated numbers
31      print(unique_random_numbers)
32      print("The total amount of generated numbers
33          is: " + str(counter))

```

The number 1 is already in the list
The number 10 is already in the list
The number 7 is already in the list
The number 5 is already in the list
[1, 8, 10, 7, 3, 0, 5, 9]
The total amount of generated numbers is: 12

increase the counter by one
counter is incremented by one

if the number is already in the list
if number in unique random numbers:
print that the number is in the list
print The number concatenated with
str number concatenated with is
already in the list
otherwise
else:
add the new number to the list
unique random numbers dot append
number

print the final list and the total
amount of generated numbers
print unique random numbers
print The total amount of generated
numbers is: concatenated with str
counter

We initialize the counter (line 7), increment it by one unit at each iteration (line 16), and print it out (line 29).

3. Sum up the multiples of 3

- Write code that continues asking a player to enter an integer until they enter a negative number. At the end, print the sum of all entered integers that are multiples of 3.

The task has two requests: (1) keep asking a player to enter an integer until they enter a negative number, and (2) at the end, print the sum of all entered integers that are multiples of 3. Let's see how to implement them!

1. *Keep asking a player to enter an integer until they enter a negative number.* The requirement is straightforward: we use the `input` function to ask the player to enter numbers and a while loop to keep asking. Which condition do we use in the header? Let's have a look:

```

1  # ask the user for an integer
2  number = int(input("Enter an integer: "))
3

```

ask the user for an integer
number is assigned int input Enter
an integer:

```

4 # as long as the number is positive
5 while number >= 0:

6     # ask for the next new integer
7     number = int(input("Enter another
9         integer: "))

Enter an integer: 3
Enter another integer: 6
Enter another integer: 4
Enter another integer: -1

```

The loop must continue as long as the player enters a negative number, that is, as long as `number` is positive—greater than or equal to zero (line 5). As we learned in the previous chapter, the variable in the condition has to be in three places: before the loop, in the loop header, and within the loop. Thus, first we initialize the variable `number` with the integer entered by the player (line 2). Then, we condition the variable in the `while` loop header (as we saw in line 5). And finally, to avoid an infinite loop, we ask the player to enter a new number (line 7). Let's implement the second requirement!

2. At the end, print the sum of all entered integers that are multiples of 3.

We need to check whether the numbers the user enters are multiples of 3, and, if they are, then sum them up. Ideas on how to do it? Let's start drafting the code:

```

1 # list containing the numbers to sum
2 numbers = []
3
4 # ask the user for an integer
5 number = int(input("Enter an integer: "))

6
7 # as long as the number is positive
8 while numbers >= 0:

9
10    # if the number is multiple of 3
11    if number % 3 == 0:

12        # add the number to the list
13        numbers.append(number)

14
15    # ask for the next integer
16    number = int(input("Enter another
17        integer: "))

18
19 # print the list of multiples of 3
20 print(numbers)
21
22 # initialize the sum to 0
23 sum_of_numbers = 0

```

list containing the numbers to sum
`numbers` is assigned empty list

ask the user for an integer
`number` is assigned `int input Enter an integer:`

as long as the number positive
`while` `number` is greater than or equal to zero

if the number is multiple of 3
`if` `number modulus three` is equal to zero:
 add the number to the list
`numbers` dot `append` `number`

ask for the next integer
`number` is assigned `int input Enter another integer:`

print the list of multiples of 3
`print` `numbers`

initialize the sum to zero
`sum of numbers` is assigned zero

```

24 # calculate the sum of numbers
25 for i in range (len(numbers)):
26     sum_of_numbers = numbers[i] +
                     sum_of_numbers
27
28 # print the final sum
29 print("The sum of the multiples of 3 is: " +
      str(sum_of_numbers))

```

Enter an integer: 3
 Enter another integer: 6
 Enter another integer: 4
 Enter another integer: -1
 [3, 6]
 The sum of the entered multiples of 3 is: 9

calculate the sum of numbers
for i **in** range len of numbers
 sum of numbers **is assigned** numbers
 in position i **plus** sum of numbers

print the final sum
print The sum of the multiples of
 3 is: concatenated with **str** sum of
 numbers

We can create an empty list called `numbers` that will contain the multiples of 3 (line 2). Then, within the while loop, we add an if construct, in which we check whether the current number is a multiple of 3 by using the modulo operator. If the condition is met, then we append the number to the list `numbers` (line 13). At the end of the while loop (i.e., after the player has entered a negative number), we sum up the numbers in the list, similarly to what we did in the exercise 5 of Chapter 14. First, we create the variable `sum_of_numbers`, which will contain the final sum, and we initialize it to zero (line 22). Then, we use a for loop through the list `numbers`—containing the multiples of 3—to add the current list element (`numbers[i]`) to the amount in `sum_of_numbers` (line 26). Finally, we print out the sum at line 29.

We solved the task, but can we improve our code? Let's read the following requirement again: *at the end, print the sum of all entered integers that are multiples of 3*. We are not asked to save the multiples of 3 in a list—just to print out their sum. Do we need to create the list? Not really! So, how do we do it? Let's see this alternative solution:

```

[3]: 1 # initialize the sum to 0
      sum_of_numbers = 0
      3
      4 # ask the user for an integer
      5 number = int(input("Enter an integer: "))
      6
      7 # as long as the number is positive
      8 while numbers >= 0:
      9
      10     # if the number is a multiple of 3
      11     if numbers % 3 == 0:
      12
      13         # add the number to the sum
      14         sum_of_numbers += number
      15
      16         # ask for the next integer
      17         number = int(input("Enter another
                                integer: "))

```

initialize the sum to zero
`sum_of_numbers` **is assigned** zero

 ask the user for an integer
`number` **is assigned** `int input` Enter
 an integer:

 as long as the number positive
while `number` **is greater than or**
equal to zero:

 if the number is a multiple of 3
if `number modulus three` **is equal to**
 zero:
 add the number to the sum
`sum_of_numbers` **is incremented by**
`number`

 ask for the next integer
`number` **is assigned** `int input` Enter
 another integer:

```

18 # print the final sum
19 print("The sum of the multiples of 3 is: " +
      str(sum_of_numbers))

Enter an integer: 3
Enter another integer: 6
Enter another integer: 4
Enter another integer: -1
The sum of the entered multiples of 3 is: 9

```

print the final sum
print The sum of the multiples of 3 is: concatenated with str sum of numbers

We remove all the code related to the list numbers. We initialize sum_of_numbers to zero before the while loop (line 2). Then, within the loop, we sum the current multiple of 3 (i.e., number) to the total sum (line 13)—without saving it to a list. With this trick, we improve our code in two ways: (1) we do not create a list, which occupies space in computer memory, and (2) we avoid a for loop that occupies memory and time during the execution. The code thus becomes shorter, faster, and more elegant.

Match the sentence halves

In coding there are three constructs: if/else constructs, for loops, and while loops. Review their definitions in the following exercise:

1. An if/else construct checks whether a condition is true or false
 2. A for loop is the repetition of a group of commands
 3. A while loop is the repetition of a group of commands
- a. for a determined number of times
 - b. as long as a condition holds
 - c. and executes code accordingly

Recap

- In a while loop header, we can write various kinds of conditions. The correct condition is the one that keeps the loop going (not stopping!)
- When solving a task, it is common to decompose and analyze the requirements, solve the subtasks, and merge the code to the solution (divide and conquer!)
- When coding, we often write a first draft, and then we improve the draft to make the code faster and robust (writing code is like writing an email!)

Don't confuse the while loop with if/else!

When learning coding constructs, it can be easy to confuse the while loop with the if/else construct. If this happened to you while learning the past two chapters, read the following paragraph. If you feel like you mastered the difference between while loops and if/else constructs, feel free to skip the coming lines!

Consider the following example, similar to the first one in this chapter.

- Given the following list:

```
[1]: 1 fruits = ["mango", "orange", "banana"] fruits is assigned mango, orange, banana
```

- Create a game where the computer randomly picks a fruit and the player has to guess the fruit picked by the computer. Make sure that the player keeps playing until they guess the fruit picked by the computer.

We have to solve 3 tasks: (1) the computer randomly picks a fruit, (2) the player has to guess the fruit picked by the computer, and (3) we must make sure that the player keeps playing until they guess the fruit picked by the computer. The first two requirements are straightforward, and we will solve them quickly. We will focus on the third requirement.

1. The computer randomly picks a fruit.

```
[2]: 1 import random import random
2
3 # computer pick computer pick
4 computer_pick = random.choice(fruits) computer pick is assigned random
dot choice fruits
5
```

We import the package random (line 1) and we use the method `.choice()` to make the computer randomly pick an element of the list `fruits`.

2. The player has to guess the fruit picked by the computer.

```
6 # player guess player guess
7 player_guess = input ("Guess the fruit! player guess is assigned input
Choices: mango, orange, banana: ") Guess the fruit! Choices: mango,
8
orange, banana:
```

We use the built-in function `input()` to ask the player to enter a fruit (line 7).

3. Make sure that the player keeps playing until they guess the animal picked by the computer. The first instinct would be to do the following:

```
9 # check the player guess check the player guess
10 if player_guess == computer_pick:
11     print("That's right! The fruit is " + if player guess is equal to
computer pick
10 else: print That's right! The fruit is
11     print(" Nope! Try again!") concatenated with computer pick
else
print Nope! Try again!
```

We check if `player_guess` is equal to `computer_pick` with an `if/else` construct, and we print messages accordingly (lines 9–11). If the player did not guess the right fruit, we have to ask them to guess again (like at line 7). Then, we have to check once more if the guess is correct (like at lines 9–11), and so on. This is not feasible because we cannot know how many times it is going to take the player to guess the correct fruit! In addition, we would repeat code, which means that we can use a loop! So, here is the correct solution with the `while` loop:

```

9  while player_guess != computer_pick:
10     # as long as the player's guess and the
11     # not right
12     player_guess = input ("Nope! Try again!
13         Guess the fruit! Choices: mango, orange
14         banana: ")

```

while player guess **is not equal to**
computer pick:
as long as the player's guess and the
computer's pick are different
player guess **is assigned input**
Nope! Try again! Guess the fruit!
Choices: mango, orange, banana:

As long as the `player_guess` is not equal to `computer_pick` (line 9), we ask the player to make a guess (line 11), which we check in the condition of the `while` loop header (line 9), and the loop keeps going as long as the condition holds.

Let's code!

1. *Guess the number!* Create a game where the computer picks a number between 0 and 10, and the player has to guess it. If the player guesses a number that is too high or too low, then the computer tells the player. The game stops when the player guesses the number. At the end, tell the player how many attempts it took to guess the number.
2. *12 even random numbers.* Create a list of 12 even random numbers between 0 and 30. How many odd numbers did you exclude?
3. *Spelling game for kids.* Create a game that helps kids learn spelling. The game has the following requirements: (1) Create a list of words to be spelled. Among these words, choose a word randomly, and tell the kid the chosen word (e.g., “Spell the word ‘hello’”). (2) The kid has to enter one letter at the time. If the kid enters the correct letter, then provide positive reinforcement (e.g., “Well done!”), and ask for the next letter. If the kid does not enter the correct letter, then tell them that the letter is not correct, and ask for a letter again.

Challenge 1: Instead of creating only 1 list of words, create 3 lists, one per topic, so that the kid can choose a topic before spelling a word.

Challenge 2: The game continues as long as the kid wants to spell a new word.

19. And, or, not, not in

Combining and reversing conditions

Up to now, we have considered only one condition in if/else constructs and while loops. What if we need more than one condition? And what if we need to reverse a condition? In this chapter, we will learn how to combine or reverse conditions using the logical operators and, or, not, and the membership operator not in. As usual, try to solve the tasks yourself before looking at the solutions, which you can also find in Notebook 19. Let's start!

1. and

- Given the following list of integers:

```
[1]: 1 numbers = [1, 5, 7, 2, 8, 19] numbers is assigned one, five, seven, two, eight, nineteen
```

- Print out the numbers that are between 5 and 10:

```
[2]: 1 # for each position in the list
2 for i in range (len(numbers)):
3
4     # if the current number is between 5
5     # and 10
6     if numbers[i] >= 5 and numbers[i] <= 10:
7
8         # print the current number
9         print ("The number " + str(numbers[i])
10            + " is between 5 and 10")
```

for each position in the list
for i in range len of numbers

if the current number is between five
and ten
if numbers in position i greater
than or equal to five and numbers in
position i less than or equal to ten

print the current number
print The number concatenated with
str numbers in position i concatenated
with is between five and ten

```
The number 5 is between 5 and 10
The number 7 is between 5 and 10
The number 8 is between 5 and 10
```

We use a for loop to browse all the elements in the list (line 2). Then, we check if each number is between 5 and 10 (line 5). To be in between two numbers, a number must be greater than or equal to the smaller number *and* smaller than or equal to the greater number. The two conditions (greater than or equal to *and* smaller than or equal to) must be valid at the same time. To check if two (or more) conditions are valid simultaneously, we join them using the **logical operator and**.

We use the logical operator **and** when we want to check
whether **all conditions** are **valid**

Let's look at the syntax. For each condition *both before and after* the logical operator and, we have to write: (1) a variable (e.g., numbers[i]), (2) a comparison operator (e.g., \geq), and (3) a term of comparison (e.g., 5). At the end of the code, we print the numbers that satisfy both conditions (line 7).

2. or

- Given the following string:

```
[3]: 1 message = "Have a nice day!!!"
```

message is assigned Have a nice day!!!

- And given all punctuation:

```
[4]: 1 punctuation = "\\"\\'()[]{}<>.,;:?!^@~#$%&*_ -"
```

punctuation is assigned

\\"\\'()[]{}<>.,;:?!^@~#\$%&*_ -

The string punctuation contains all punctuation on a Latin alphabet keyboard. Compare the symbols with the ones on your keyboard and note whether there are additional ones! If so, add them to punctuation in Jupyter Notebook 19! The symbols at the beginning of the string punctuation "\\"\\' might be a bit confusing, so let's disentangle them. The first quote "\\"\\' is the symbol that introduces the string. The following two symbols "\\"\\' are special characters—you might remember the special character "\n", which is used to go to a new line (Chapter 12). The backslash \\ tells Python that the following quote " is an actual backslash character and not the symbol that we use to close a string. The last backslash "\\"\\' is an actual backslash because the following forward slash / is not a special character.

- Print and count the number of characters that are punctuation or vowels:

```
[5]: 1 # string of vowels
2 vowels = "aeiou"
3
4 # initialize counter
5 counter = 0
6
7 # for each position in the message
8 for i in range (len(message)):
9
10    # if the current element is punctuation
11    # or vowel
12    if message[i] in punctuation or
13        message[i] in vowels:
14
15        # print a message
16        print (message [i] + " is a vowel
17              or a punctuation")
18
19    # increase the counter
20    counter += 1
21
22 # print the final amount
23 print("The total amount of punctuation or
24     vowels is " + counter)
```

a is a vowel or a punctuation
e is a vowel or a punctuation
a is a vowel or a punctuation

string of vowels
vowels is assigned aeiou

initialize counter
counter is assigned zero

for each position in the message
for i in range len of message

if the current element is
punctuation or vowel
if message in position i in
punctuation or message in position
i in vowels

print a message
print message in position i
concatenated with is a vowel or a
punctuation

increase the counter
counter is increased by one

print the final amount
print(The total amount of punctuation
or vowels is concatenated with
counter)

```
i is a vowel or a punctuation  
e is a vowel or a punctuation  
a is a vowel or a punctuation  
! is a vowel or a punctuation  
! is a vowel or a punctuation  
! is a vowel or a punctuation  
The total amount of punctuation or vowels is 9
```

Similarly to what we did for punctuation, we create a string containing vowels (line 2). We also create a counter, which we will use to calculate the number of characters that are punctuation or vowels, and we initialize it to zero (line 5). Then, we get to the core of the solution! We use a for loop to browse all the characters in the string message (line 8). **For loops for strings work exactly the same way as for loops for lists.** In the loop body, we check if each character is a punctuation or a vowel by using the membership operator in (line 11), which we learned in Chapter 3. More specifically, we check if `message[i]` is in the string `punctuation` or in the string `vowels`. Note that as for the for loop, the membership operator `in` works for strings the same way as it works for lists. Since only one of the conditions can be valid (a character cannot be both a punctuation and a vowel at the same time!), we merge the two conditions—that is, `message[i] in punctuation or message[i] in vowels`—using the **logical operator `or`**.

We use the logical operator `or` when we want to check
whether **at least one condition is valid**

The syntax is the same as for the logical operator `and`: we need to write (1) a variable, (2) a comparison operator, and (3) a term of comparison *both before and after* `or`. To conclude the loop body, we print a message for the characters that satisfy at least one condition (line 14), and we increment the counter by one unit (line 17). At the end of the loop, we print the final number of characters that are vowels or punctuation (line 20).

3. not

- Given the following list of integers:

```
[7]: 1 numbers = [4, 6, 7, 9] numbers is assigned four, six, seven,  
nine
```

- Print out the numbers that are **not** divisible by 2:

```
[8]: 1 # for each position in the list  
2 for i in range (len(numbers)):  
3  
4     # if the current number is not even  
5     if not numbers[i] % 2 == 0:  
6  
7         # print the current number  
8         print (numbers[i])  
9
```

for each position in the list
`for i in range len` of numbers

if the current number is not even
`if not numbers in position i modulo`
two equals zero

print the current number
print numbers in position i

For each position in the list (line 2), we have to check whether the number is *not* even. For a moment, let's think about the opposite: what condition would we write if we had to check whether the number is even? `if numbers[i] % 2 == 0`. To negate a condition, we just add the **logical operator not** before the condition—more specifically, before the variable at the beginning of the condition (line 5).

We use the logical operator **not** when we want to check
whether **the opposite of a condition is valid**

If the condition is satisfied, then we print the number (line 8).

Is this the only way to solve this task? Maybe the first idea you had in mind was more similar to this one:

<pre>[8]: 1 # for each position in the list 2 for i in range (len(numbers)): 3 4 # if the current number is odd 5 if numbers[i] % 2 != 0: 6 7 # print the current number 8 print (numbers[i]) 9</pre>	<pre>for each position in the list for i in range len of numbers # if the current number is odd if numbers in position i modulo two is not equal to zero: print the current number print numbers in position i</pre>
---	--

For each position in the list (line 2), we check whether the remainder of `numbers[i]` divided by 2 is not equal to 0 (line 5). If so, then we print the number (line 8).

What solution is better? It's a matter of preference! If you are undecided, pick the solution that looks like the simplest to you, both in term of syntax and reasoning. In coding, there are often various ways of solving a task. Keeping the solution **simple** favors **readability** and **understanding**.

Last note about conditions: when combining conditions, we need to follow a precise order, similarly to what we do with arithmetic operators (see *Solving arithmetic expressions* in Chapter 13). The order from highest to lowest precedence is: not, and, or (easy-to-memorize acronym: **NAO**). When you are uncertain, write the condition to prioritize within round brackets () .

4. not in

- Generate 5 random numbers between 0 and 10. If the random numbers are **not** already **in** the following list, then add them:

<pre>[9]: 1 numbers = [1, 4, 7]</pre>	<pre>numbers is assigned one, four, seven</pre>
---------------------------------------	---

<pre>[10]: 1 import random</pre>	<pre>import random</pre>
----------------------------------	--------------------------

```
3 # for five times
4 for _ in range (5):
5
6     # generate a random number between 0 and 10
7
8     number = random.randint(0, 10)
9
10    # print the number as a check
11    print (number)
12
13    # if the new number is not in numbers
14    if number not in numbers:
15        # add the number to numbers
16        numbers.append(number)
17
18    # print the final list
19    print (numbers)
```

for five times
for underscore in range five

generate a random number between zero and ten
number is assigned random dot randint zero ten
print the number as a check
print number

if the new number is not in numbers
if number not in numbers:
add the number to numbers
numbers dot append number

print the final list
printnumbers

```
6
6
10
7
9
[1, 4, 7, 6, 10, 9]
```

We start by importing the package `random` (line 1). Then, we create a for loop that runs for five times (line 4)—note the underscore instead of the variable `i` because we will not need any index in the for loop body (see *What if I don't use the index in a for loop?* in Chapter 15). Then, we create a random variable (line 7) and print it as a check (line 9). To evaluate if the variable `number` is not already in the list `numbers` (line 12), we use the membership operator `not in`, which is the opposite of the membership operator `in` (Chapter 3). If the condition is met, then we append the randomly generated number to the list of numbers (line 14). Finally, we print the completed list (line 17).

Insert into the right column

You now know all membership, comparison, and logical operators. Insert each symbol in the right column:

<, or, in, !=, not, >, ==, not in, >=, and, <=

Membership operators	Comparison operators	Logical operators

Recap

- The logical operators are and, or, and not
- When combining conditions, the order of execution is not, and, or (NAO)
- The membership operators are in and not in

What is GitHub?

You might have heard about GitHub, or you might have browsed some pages on its site (github.com). Surely, you have checked the solutions of the exercises of this book on GitHub! But what is GitHub exactly? In a simplified manner, we can think of GitHub as a cloud service or a huge server for code. Instead of using Dropbox, Google Drive, etc., coders prefer to synchronize their code with GitHub. GitHub has its own language: folders are called *repositories*, sending files to the server is called a *push*, and getting files from the server is called a *pull*. Each repository contains files—they can store any files, either containing code or not—and elements that are specific to coding, such as *issues*, where anybody can indicate bugs to be solved or suggest new features. Why do coders use GitHub instead of other cloud services? Because GitHub supports **version control**, that is, it **keeps track of code changes over time**. Every time we push a code update, we can compare it with previous version(s), and if the new code does not work, then we can go back to an earlier version. Furthermore, GitHub is useful for collaborative projects: programmers can work on different sections of a task individually and then integrate the code without accidentally influencing each other's code, all while keeping track of each programmer's contribution. These tasks are actually executed by **Git**, which is a distributed version control system, that is, a software that manages changes to code. Other platforms that employ Git include GitLab (gitlab.com) and Bitbucket (bitbucket.org), with GitHub being the most popular.

Let's code!

1. *The Zen of Python.* Solve the following 4 steps, and you will discover the Zen of Python!

- a) Given the following list of strings:

```
strings_to_slice = ["reisk", "kpan", "xfsimpleg", "bosolutionb", "pobetterx",
"weorb", "ofworsep", "aathanx", "hoau", "hfcomplexx", "poors", "opcomplicatedx",
"rwsolutions", "re?o"]
```

Create a new list called sliced_strings containing the same strings but without the first two letters and the last letter (Example: "gfhio" will become "hi").

- b) Given the following list of strings:

```
strings_to_invert= ["emos", "elopoep", "kniht", "taht", "xelpmoc", "ro",
"detacilpmoc", "si", "retteb", "naht", "elpmis"]
```

Create a new list called inverted_strings containing the same strings but inverted (Example: "ih" will become "hi")

c) Given the following list of strings:

```
strings_to_pick = ["this", "sounds", "simple", "but", "is", "it?", "some", "things",
"look", "better", "than", "when", "complex", "but", "complex", "again", "is",
"worse", "better", "than", "complicated", "I'm", "confused"]
```

Find the words that are present both in `sliced_strings` and `inverted_strings`, change them to uppercase, and add them to a new list. What sentence do you get?

d) Where does this sentence come from? Run the following Python command: `import this`

2. *Playing with numbers.* Given the following list of numbers:

```
numbers = [7, 9, 15, 19, 24, 30, 37, 45, 50]
```

a) Print the numbers that are divisible by 3 and 5; b) Print the numbers that are divisible by 3 or 5; and c) Print the numbers that are divisible by 3 but not 5. Perform task c) in two different ways, once using `not`, and once without using `not`.

3. *Upgrading Rock, paper, scissors.* In Chapter 16, we implemented rock, paper, scissors. In that version, there were many repetitions. In coding, we usually do not want repetitions because they can invite errors. How can we make the code less repetitive? By combining conditions! What conditions can you combine in this game? Rewrite rock, paper, scissors in a more succinct way using logical operators. After you have optimized the code, make it a real game by adding a while loop that allows players to play as long as they want. Hint: Instead of thinking in terms of computer and player choices, think in terms of outcomes, i.e., tie and the player's (or the computer's) win.

20. Behind the scenes of comparisons and conditions

Booleans

It's finally time to unveil what's behind comparisons and conditions! What does Python "see" when we write a comparison or a condition? Let's find it out with the code below! Follow along with Notebook 20.

1. Single comparison or condition

- Given the following assignment:

```
[1]: 1 number = 5           number is assigned five
```

- What is the outcome of the following comparison operation?

```
[2]: 1 print (number > 3)      print number is greater than three
      True
```

The printed value is `True`. In fact, it is true that 5 is greater than 3! But what is `True`? A string? A variable? Let's figure it out in the next cell!

- Assign the above operation to a variable and print it. What type is it?

```
[3]: 1 result = number > 3      result is assigned number is greater than three
      2 print (result)
      3 type (result)
      True
      bool
```

We assign the result of the comparison operation `number > 3` to the variable `result` (line 1). Then, we print `result` (line 2) and we get `True`—like in cell 2. Finally, we print the outcome of `type(result)` to determine the type of the variable `result` (line 3)—we mentioned the built-in function `type()` in Chapter 13. We say that the variable `result` is of **type Boolean** and its value is `True`. Booleans are a data type exactly like strings, lists, integers, etc.

Let's continue our exploration of what lies behind comparisons and conditions. Let's look at this example:

- What is the outcome of the following comparison operation?

```
[4]: 1 print (number < 3)      print number is less than three
      False
```

This time, the print is `False`. Obviously, 3 is not smaller than 5. Let's continue, similarly to what we did in cell 3.

- Assign the above operation to a variable and print it. What type is it?

```
[5]: 1 result = number < 3
      2 print (result)
      3 type (result)
      False
      bool
```

result is assigned number is less than three
print result
type result

We assign the output of the comparison operation `number < 3` to the variable `result` (line 1), and we print it (line 2), obtaining `False`, like in cell 4. Then, we print the type of the variable `result` (line 3) and we get `'bool'`, like we did for `True`.

Booleans are a variable **type**. They can have only two values: **True** or **False**

When we write conditions in an if/else construct or in a while loop header, Python “reads” the result behind the conditions: that is, **True** or **False**. For example, when we write:

```
1 if numbers > 3:
2     print ("Correct!")
```

if number is greater than three
print Correct

Python “sees”:

```
1 if True:
2     print ("Correct!")
```

if True
print Correct

2. Combining comparisons or conditions

Let's take the operation a step further and see what happens when we combine conditions.

- What is the outcome of the following comparison operations?

```
[6]: 1 number = 3
      2 print (number > 1)
      3 print (number < 5)
      4 print (number > 1 and number < 5)
      True
      True
      True
```

number is assigned 3
print number is greater than one
print number is less than five
print number is greater than one and number is less than five

We assign 3 to the variable `number` (line 1). Then, we print the outcome of three comparison operations. For all operations—`number > 1` (line 2), `number < 5` (line 3), and `number > 1 and number < 5` (line 4)—the outcome is `True`. Let's focus on line 4, where we combine two comparison operations with the logical operator `and`. For these combined operations, Python “sees”:

```
4 print (True and True):
      True
```

print True and True

As we can see, the output of two `True` conditions combined by the logical operator `and` is `True`.

- What happens if we change the first condition to be false?

```
[7]: 1 number = 3
      2 print (number > 4)
      3 print (number < 5)
      4 print (number > 4 and number < 5)

      number is assigned 3
      print number is greater than four
      print number is less than five
      print number is greater than four and number is
      less than five

      False
      True
      False
```

The first condition is now `False` because 3 is not larger than 4 (line 2), whereas the second condition is still `True` (line 3). The combination of the `False` condition from line 2 with the `True` condition from line 3 returns `False` (line 4). In this last case, Python “sees”:

4 print (<code>False</code> and <code>True</code>):	<code>print False and True</code>
<code>False</code>	

Thus, the output of one `True` and one `False` conditions merged by the logical operator `and` is `False`. Let's continue analyzing the remaining combinations!

- What happens if we change the second condition to be false?

```
[8]: 1 number = 3
      2 print (number > 1)
      3 print (number < 2)
      4 print (number > 1 and number < 2 )

      number is assigned 3
      print number is greater than one
      print number is less than two
      print number is greater than one and number is
      less than two

      True
      False
      False
```

The first condition is `True` (line 2)—like it was in cell 6—whereas the second condition is now `False` because 3 is not smaller than 2 (line 3). Similarly to cell 7, the combination of one `True` condition and one `False` condition (line 4) returns `False`. In this case, Python “reads”:

4 print (<code>True</code> and <code>False</code>):	<code>print True and False</code>
<code>False</code>	

We can deduce that the output of one `False` and one `True` conditions merged by the logical operator `and` is always `False`, regardless of the order of the conditions.

- Finally, what happens if we change both conditions to be false?

```
[9]: 1 number = 3
      2 print (number > 4)
      3 print (number < 2)
      4 print (number > 4 and number < 2)

      number is assigned 3
      print number is greater than four
      print number is less than two
      print number is greater than four and number is
      less than two

      False
      False
      False
```

Both conditions are `False` because 4 is neither larger than 4 (line 2) nor smaller than 2 (line 3). The combination of the two conditions is `False` too (line 4). This is what Python “sees”:

4	<code>print (False and False):</code>	<code>print False and False</code>
	False	

We can summarize the outcome of combinations of conditions using the logical operators and in a **truth table**:

	First condition	Second condition	First condition and Second condition
(1)	True	True	True
(2)	False	True	False
(3)	True	False	False
(4)	False	False	False

Row 1 corresponds to the example we saw in cell 6, where both conditions were `True`, and their combination was also `True`. We can pronounce the first row as *True and True gives True*. Row 2, where *True and False gives False*, corresponds to the example in cell 7. Row 3—*False and True gives False*—corresponds to the example at cell 8. Finally, row 4 corresponds to the example in cell 9, where *False and False gives False*. When you write code that combines conditions using `and`, you can use this table as a reference to determine the outcome!

What happens when we combine conditions using the logical operator `or`? Here is the **truth table for or**:

	First condition	Second condition	First condition or Second condition
(1)	True	True	True
(2)	False	True	True
(3)	True	False	True
(4)	False	False	False

For the logical operator `or`, *True and True gives True* (row 1), *False and True gives True* (row 2), *True and False gives True* (row 3), and *False and False gives False* (row 4).

What are the similarities and differences between the `and` and `or` truth tables? The columns for the first and second conditions are the same for both tables, but the results change. For `and`, the result is `True` only when both conditions are `True`, and it is `False` in all other cases. Conversely, for `or`, the result is `False` only when both conditions are `False`, and it is `True` for all other cases. A side note: In other textbooks or on the Internet, you might find that the columns of the first and second condition are inverted. But the results remain the same!

Let's conclude with the **truth table for the logical operator `not`**. Here it is:

	Condition	<code>not</code> condition
(1)	<code>True</code>	<code>False</code>
(2)	<code>False</code>	<code>True</code>

`not` inverts conditions. When we write `not` in front of `True` condition, it becomes `False` (row 1). Conversely, when we write `not` in front of a `False` condition, it becomes `True` (row 2).

Create your examples

In a notebook, write an example for each row of the or truth table and of the not truth table, similar to what we did above for and.

3. Where else do we use Booleans?

Booleans are often used as **flags** in while loops. What does this mean?

- Look at this modified version of the example *Do you want more candies?* from Chapter 17:

[13]:	<pre> 1 # initialize variable 2 number_of_candies = 0 3 4 # use a Boolean as a flag 5 flag = True 6 7 # print the initial number of candies 8 print ("You have " + str(number_of_candies) + 9 " candies") 10 11 # as long as the flag is True 12 while flag == True: 13 14 # ask if they want a candy 15 answer = input ("Do you want a candy? 16 (yes/no)") 17 18 # if the answer is yes 19 if answer == "yes": 20 21 # add a candy 22 number_of_candies += 1 23 24 # print the total number of candies 25 print ("You have " + 26 str(number_of_candies) + " candies") 27 28 # if the answer is no 29 else: 30 31 # print the final number of candies 32 print ("You have a total of " + 33 str(number_of_candies) + " candies") 34 35 # stop the loop by assigning False to 36 # the flag 37 flag = False </pre>	<pre> initialize variable number_of_candies is assigned zero use a Boolean as a flag flag is assigned True print the initial number of candies print You have concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies as long as the flag is True while flag equals True ask if they want a candy answer is assigned input Do you want a candy? (yes/no) if the answer is yes if answer equals yes add a candy number_of_candies is incremented by one print the total number of candies print You have concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies if the answer is no else print the final number of candies print You have a total of concatenated with str number of candies concatenated with candies stop the loop by assigning False to the flag flag is assigned False </pre>
-------	---	--

Find the differences

Can you identify some differences between the while loop in the example above and the one in Chapter 17?

As you might remember from Chapter 17, for a while loop, we have to create a variable that is: (1) initialized *before the header*, (2) included in a condition *within the header*, and (3) allowed to change *in the body* to avoid infinite iterations. In the example in Chapter 17, the variable following these three rules was `answer`. In this example, it is `flag`. We initialize `flag` as a Boolean of value `True` (line 5), then we check if its value is equal to `True` in the while loop header (line 11), and finally we allow it to change to `False` (line 32) to avoid infinite loops. `flag` is a common variable name for a Boolean variable that behaves this way—`counter` is another typical variable name for a variable that keeps count of the number of iterations. We can think of a `flag` variable like a traffic light that makes the loop continue or stop. As long as the traffic light is green (i.e., `flag` is `True`), the loop will continue. When the traffic light changes to red (i.e., `flag` is assigned `False`), the loop ends. Using a Boolean flag in the while loop is somewhat like providing the answer to a condition instead of asking the header to test the condition.

When using a flag, the construction of a while loop might change. What about the variable `answer` in this new code version? We initialize `answer` at the beginning of the while loop body, where we use the built-in function `input` to ask a question to the player (line 14). Then we create an if/else condition to decide what to do based on the value of `answer` (lines 17–32). If the answer is "yes", then we increment the counter `number_of_candies` by 1 (line 20) and we print a feedback to the player (line 23). Otherwise (i.e., else), we print a final feedback to the player (line 29) and we allow the flag to change (line 32).

These are several ways to write a while loop. Which one should we use? All have pros and cons. Choose the one that appears simpler and easier to understand!

Recap

- When we write a comparison or a condition, the outcome is a Boolean variable
- Booleans are a Python type, like lists, strings, integers, etc.
- There are only 2 Boolean values: `True` and `False`
- Combinations of conditions using `and`, `or`, `not` follow the *truth tables*
- Booleans can be used as *flags* in while loops (they act like traffic lights)

What is the difference between GeeksforGeeks and Stack Overflow?

There are several online resources for coding. What are the differences among them? How do we choose which to use? In a simple manner, we can categorize websites into two groups: tutorial websites and question and answer (Q&A) websites. In **tutorial websites**, each page contains clear and extensive explanations about a specific topic. Common website tutorials are GeeksforGeeks (www.geeksforgeeks.org), W3Schools (www.w3schools.com), or learnpython.org (www.learnpython.org). The last two also offer the possibility of typing code directly in their webpages so that you can immediately test what you learn. On the other hand, in **Q&A website**, each page starts with a question by a user, followed by answers by other users. Usually, questions are about solving bugs or looking for better code implementations. Examples include Stack Overflow (www.stackoverflow.com) or Reddit (www.reddit.com). Q&A websites are extremely useful for coders. We all encounter issues that we don't know how to solve. The great news is that there is always somebody else who had the same issue before us and whose solutions we can find online!

Let's code!

1. *Do you want less exercises?* Rewrite the while loop from the exercise *Do you want less exercises?* in Chapter 17 using a Boolean as a flag in the header.
2. *Flipping coins!* When flipping a coin, we have two outcomes: heads and tails. In this exercise, we will use True for heads and False for tails. Flip a coin 8 times and save the outcomes in a list whose elements are of type Boolean. How many outcomes of heads and tails did you get? What is the ratio between the number of heads and tails? Now flip a coin 1000 times. What is the new ratio? How do the two ratios differ?
3. *Comparator.* A comparator is an algorithm that compares two numbers. It is similar to a calculator, but instead of using arithmetic operators, it uses comparison operators. Create a comparator that asks a user for two integers and prints all the possible comparisons between the two integers.

Example: If the user enters 3 and 5, then print out:

3 > 5 is False

3 < 5 is True

etc.

Make sure to: (1) use all the comparison operators; (2) use Booleans wherever possible; and (3) allow the user to use the comparator for as long as they want. Which numbers did you use to test that the comparator works correctly? When do you get True as an output?

PART 6

RECAP OF LISTS AND FOR LOOPS

In this part, you will integrate your existing knowledge of lists and for loops with new concepts and properties. At the end of part 6, you will have fully mastered lists and loops!

21. Recap of lists

Operations, methods, and tricks

We are halfway through our journey of learning computational thinking and coding in Python! Thus, this is a good moment to take a break and summarize everything we have learned about lists so far. In this Chapter, we will put the “grammar” rules for Python lists to use and highlight some new important properties that are worth knowing. The Chapter contains a lot of examples and details that will help you improve your coding skills and understand other people’s code. Let’s start! Follow along with Notebook 21!

1. Arithmetic operations on list elements

As you might remember from Chapter 13, in Python there are 7 arithmetic operations: addition (+), subtraction (-), multiplication (*), exponentiation (**), division (/), floor division (//), and modulo (%). To perform arithmetic operations *element-wise*—that is, on list elements—we use for loops. **Element-wise operations can be done (1) between two or more lists of the same length or (2) between a list and a number.** In both cases, we **use a for loop**. Let’s see two examples for addition (but they can be valid for any operation).

- Sum two lists element-wise:

```
[1]: 1 odd_numbers = [1, 3, 5]
      2 even_numbers = [2, 4, 6]
      3 summed = []
      4
      5 for i in range (len(odd_numbers)):
      6     summed.append(odd_numbers[i] +
                      even_numbers[i])
      7
      8 print (summed)
[3, 7, 11]
```

odd_numbers is assigned one, three, five
even_numbers is assigned two, four, six
summed is assigned empty list

for i in range len odd numbers
summed dot append odd_numbers in position i
plus even numbers in position i

print summed

We start with odd_numbers and even_numbers, which are two lists containing 3 integers each (lines 1 and 2), and summed, which we initialize as an empty list (line 3). Then, we create a for loop that spans the indices of one of the lists of numbers (line 5), and we append to summed the sum of the current element of the list odd_numbers to the element in the same position in the list even_numbers (line 6). Finally, we print the result for a check (line 8). Note that we save the result in a third list (summed) that we initialized as empty before the loop (line 3) and that we fill in during the loop (line 6). If we do not want to create a third list, we can overwrite one of the existing lists (e.g., odd_numbers[i]=odd_numbers[i] + even_numbers[i]).

- Sum a number to each element of a list:

```
[2]: 1 numbers = [1, 2, 3]
      2 number = 3
      3
```

odd_numbers is assigned one, two, three
number is assigned three

<pre> 4 for i in range (len(numbers)): 5 numbers[i] += number 6 7 print (numbers) [4, 5, 6] </pre>	for i in range len of numbers numbers in position i incremented by number print numbers
--	--

We create the list `numbers` containing three integers (line 1) and the variable `number` to which we assign the number 3 (line 2). Then, we use a `for` loop to browse all the positions of the list elements (line 4), and we increase each element by the value of `number` (line 5). Finally, we print the result (line 7). Similar to the previous example, we can either overwrite the existing list (as we do in this example) or we can create an empty list before the `for` loop (e.g., `summed = []`) and fill it in the loop (e.g., `summed.append(numbers[i] + number)`).

2. “Arithmetic” operations between lists

The operations between lists are not actually arithmetic, but they use arithmetic symbols with a different meaning. **The two possible operations are concatenation**, which uses the symbol `+` (pronounced as *concatenated with*) and **replication**, which uses the symbol `*` (pronounced as *replicated by [number]*). Let’s see the examples:

- Concatenate two lists:

<pre> [3]: 1 odd_numbers = [1, 3, 5] 2 even_numbers = [2, 4, 6] 3 concatenated = odd_numbers + even_numbers 4 print (concatenated) [1, 3, 5, 2, 4, 6] </pre>	<code>odd_numbers</code> is assigned one, three, five <code>even_numbers</code> is assigned two, four, six <code>concatenated</code> is assigned odd numbers concatenated with even numbers print concatenated
--	--

We create two lists, one containing odd numbers (`odd_numbers`; line 1) and one containing even numbers (`even_numbers`; line 2). Then we concatenate them using the concatenation symbol `+` (line 3), and we store the result in a new list called `concatenate` (line 3). If we don’t want to create a new variable, we can overwrite one of the two existing lists: `odd_numbers = odd_numbers + even_numbers`. Finally, we print the result (line 4), which is a list containing the elements of `odd_numbers` and `even_numbers` sequentially merged.

- Replicate a list 3 times:

<pre> [4]: 1 numbers = [1, 2, 3] 2 number = 3 3 replicated = numbers * number 4 print (replicated) [1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3] </pre>	<code>odd_numbers</code> is assigned one,two,three <code>number</code> is assigned three <code>replicated</code> is assigned numbers replicated by number print replicated
---	--

We create a list called `numbers` (line 1) and an integer variable called `number` (line 2). Then we replicate the list `numbers` by the number of times indicated by the variable `number` using the symbol `*`, and we save the result in a new list called `replicated` (line 3). Once more, instead of creating a new variable, we can overwrite the existing list: `numbers = numbers * number`. Finally, we print `replicated` (line 4). As you can see in the printout, `replicated` contains the list `numbers` repeated three times. When

is replication useful? Let's see the following example:

We initialize `short_list` as a list containing one zero (line 1) and the variable `short_list` containing the value 50 (line 2). Then, we replicate `short_list` by the number of times indicated by `number` (line 3), and we store the result in the variable `long_list`. Finally, we print `long_list` (line 4). As you can see, we obtained a list containing 50 zeros. If we had created `long_list` manually, it would have been very tedious, and we could have easily miscounted the number of zeros in the list! Finally, note that in alternative to create the variables `short_list` and `number`, we can directly write: `long_list=[0]*50.`

3. List assignment

When we assign a list to another list, we have to be very careful! Let's see why.

- Given a list containing a few integers:

```
[6]: 1 given_list = [1, 2, 3]
      2 print(given_list)
      [1, 2, 3]
```

given list is assigned one, two, three
print given list

We create a list called `given_list` containing some integers (line 1) and we print it (line 2).

- Assign `given_list` to `new_list`:

```
[7]: 1 new_list = given_list
      2 print (new_list)
[1. 2. 3] new list is assigned given list
          print new list
```

We assign `given_list` to another list called `new_list` (line 1), and we print it (line 2). As we can see, `new_list` contains the same elements as `given_list`, as expected. Let's go one step further!

- Change the first list element of new_list:

```
[8]: 1 new_list[0] = 40
      2 print (new_list)
      [40, 2, 3]
      new list in position zero is assigned
      forty
      print new list
```

We change the first element of `new_list` to 40 (line 1) and we print `new_list` after the change (line 2). As expected, the first element is now 40. What about given `list`?

- Print given list:

```
[9]:    1 print (given_list)
        [40, 2, 3]                                print given list
```

The first element of `given_list` is also 40! This happens because when we assign a list to another, we give two names to the same list. It is a bit like when a person has two names: for example, my

brother's name is Flavio Alberto. Whether I call him Flavio or Alberto, he is always the same person!

- How can we create an independent copy of a list?

```
[10]: 1 given_list = [1, 2, 3]
      2 new_list = given_list.copy()
      3 new_list[0] = 40
      4 print(given_list)
      5 print(new_list)
[1, 2, 3]
[40, 2, 3]
```

given list is assigned one, two, three
new list is assigned given list dot copy
new list in position zero is assigned
forty
print given list
print new list

As we did in cell 6, we create the list `given_list` that contains a few numbers (line 1). Then, instead of assigning `given_list` to `new_list` (line we did in cell 7), we use the **method `.copy()`**, which **creates an independent copy of a list** (line 2). Continuing the brother analogy, it is like if we created a twin that is similar but independent, so that when we make changes, they happen only in the list we actually change. At the end of the example, we change the first element of `new_list` to 40 like we did in cell 8 (line 3), and we print out both lists (lines 4 and 5).

4. Adding one element or a list to a list

We can add **an element** to a list in two ways: either **at the end using the method `.append()`** (see Chapter 4), or **at a specific position using the method `.insert()`** (see Chapter 5). Let's see two easy examples to refresh how the methods work.

- Add one element at the end of a list:

```
[11]: 1 numbers = [1, 2, 3]
      2 numbers.append(4)
      3 print(numbers)
[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

numbers is assigned one, two, three
numbers dot append four
print numbers

We create the list `numbers` containing three integers (line 1), and we add the number 4 using the method `.append()` (line 2). Then, we print `numbers` to check the result (line 3).

- Insert the number 2 in position 1:

```
[12]: 1 numbers = [1, 3, 4]
      2 numbers.insert(1, 2)
      3 print(numbers)
[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

numbers is assigned one, three, four
numbers dot insert at position one, two
print numbers

We initialize a list containing the integers 1, 3, and 4 (line 1). At position 1, we insert the number 2 using the method `.insert()`, which takes as arguments **first the position and then the value** of the new element (line 2). Finally, we print out `numbers` (line 3).

There are two ways to add **a list** at the **end** of another list: **concatenation** (see cell 3 and another example below) and the **method `.extend()`**.

- Concatenate two lists:

```
[13]: 1 first_list = [1, 2, 3]
      2 second_list = [4, 5, 6]
      3 third_list = first_list + second_list
      4 print (third_list)
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

first_list is assigned one, two, three
second_list is assigned four, five, six
third list is assigned first list concatenated with second list
print third list

We create two lists, called `first_list` and `second_list`, to which we assign some integers (lines 1 and 2). Then, we concatenate the two lists to obtain `third_list` (line 3). Finally, we print `third_list` (line 4).

- Add one list at the end of another list:

```
[14]: 1 first_list = [1, 2, 3]
      2 second_list = [4, 5, 6]
      3 first_list.extend(second_list)
      4 print (first_list)
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

first_list is assigned one, two, three
second_list is assigned four, five, six
first list dot extend second list
print first list

We use the same two lists as in cell 13 (lines 1 and 2), but we use the method `.extend()` to merge them. The syntax for `.extend()` is (1) the list to which we want to add another list (2) dot, and (3) the added list in between round brackets (line 3). Then, we print the merged list (line 4).

What are the differences between concatenation and `.extend()`? When using concatenation, we can either create a new list (e.g., `third_list = first_list + second_list`), or we can add a list to an existing one (e.g., `first_list = first_list + second_list`). Instead, when using `.extend()`, we can only modify the list to which we apply the method (i.e., `first_list` in cell 14). In addition, when using `.extend()`, we can add a list **only at the end** of another list, whereas when using **concatenation—combined with slicing**—we can add a list **at the beginning** (e.g. `first_list = second_list + first_list`) **or in the middle** of another list (e.g. `first_list = first_list[:2] + second_list + first_list[2:]`).

5. Removing elements from a list

We can remove list elements either based on their *value*, using `.remove()` (see Chapter 4) or on their *position*, using `.pop()` (see Chapter 5). We can also remove *all elements* using `.clear()`. Let's see some example to refresh these methods and learn some new tricks.

- From the following list, remove all the elements "ciao":

```
[15]: 1 greetings = ["ciao", "ciao", "hello"]
      2 greetings.remove("ciao")
      3 print (greetings)
['ciao', 'hello']
```

greetings is assigned ciao, ciao, hello
greetings dot remove ciao
print greetings

We start with a list containing three strings, where the element "ciao" is present twice (line 1). Then, we use the method `.remove()`, to eliminate "ciao" (line 2). Finally, we print `greetings` (line 3). Only one "ciao" (the first one) was removed! In lists containing multiple similar elements, the method **`.remove()` deletes only the first element**. How do we remove both "ciao" from `greetings`? The first instinctive idea might be to use a for loop that goes through all element positions and removes the unwanted elements based on a certain condition (in this case, remove the element if it is equal to

"ciao"). However, this solution does not work for the reasons explained in the *In more depth* section at the end of this Chapter. What we need is a while loop:

<pre>[16]: 1 greetings = ["ciao", "ciao", "hello"] 2 while "ciao" in greetings: 3 greetings.remove("ciao") 4 print (greetings) ['hello']</pre>	<pre>greetings is assigned ciao, ciao, hello while ciao in greetings greetings dot remove ciao print greetings</pre>
--	--

We start with the list greetings (line 1), then we create a while loop where as long as the string "ciao" is in greetings (line 2), we remove it using the method `.remove()` (line 3). Finally, we print the result (line 4).

Let's continue to see how to remove an element based on its position and all elements in a list. In the following two cells (17 and 18), we write the list at line 1, and we print the result at line 3. At line 2, we use a different list method. Let's have a look at the examples:

- Remove the string "hello" based on its position:

<pre>[17]: 1 greetings = ["ciao", "ciao", "hello"] 2 greetings.pop(2) 3 print (greetings) ['ciao', 'ciao']</pre>	<pre>greetings is assigned ciao, ciao, hello greetings dot pop two print greetings</pre>
--	--

To remove an element based on its position, we use the method `.pop()`, which we learn in Chapter 5 (line 2). As you might remember, **the argument of the method is the position of the element to delete**.

- Remove all elements in a list:

<pre>[18]: 1 greetings = ["ciao", "ciao", "hello"] 2 greetings.clear() 3 print (greetings) []</pre>	<pre>greetings is assigned ciao, ciao, hello greetings dot clear print greetings</pre>
---	--

To remove all elements in a list, we use the method `.clear()` (line 2). The list **becomes an empty list**.

Another way to remove elements in a list is by using list comprehension. We will see it in the next chapter.

6. Sorting a list

Sorting lists is a very common task in coding. For example, we might want to sort names alphabetically (see the exercise "A further step!" below) or a list of prices increasingly or decreasingly. In the three examples below (cells 19, 20, and 21), we will create a list of integers called `numbers` (line 1), use a new method to execute the task (line 2), and print the outcome (line 3).

- Sort the following list of integers:

<pre>[19]: 1 numbers = [5, 7, 6] 2 numbers.sort() 3 print (numbers) [5, 6, 7]</pre>	<pre>numbers is assigned five, seven, six numbers dot sort print numbers</pre>
---	--

To sort the list `numbers`, we use the method `.sort()` (line 2). As you can see from the printout, the numbers are sorted in an **increasing (or ascending)** way, that is from the smallest to the greatest. What if we want to sort the numbers in a **decreasing (or descending)** way? The answer is in the next example:

- Sort the following list of integers in a descending way:

<pre>[20]: 1 numbers = [5, 7, 6] 2 numbers.sort(reverse = True) 3 print (numbers)</pre>	<pre>numbers is assigned five, seven, six numbers dot sort reverse is assigned True print numbers</pre>
	[7, 6, 5]

We use `.sort()` as we did in the example above, but we add the argument `reverse`, to which we assign the Boolean `True`—you will learn more about method (or function) parameters starting in Chapter 28. As you can see from the printout, the list is now sorted in a descending way: that is, from the greatest to the smallest number.

- Reverse the following list of integers:

<pre>[21]: 1 numbers = [5, 7, 6] 2 numbers.reverse() 3 print (numbers)</pre>	<pre>numbers is assigned five, seven, six numbers dot reverse print numbers</pre>
	[6, 7, 5]

We use the method `.reverse()` to **invert the order of the elements in the list**. Thus, the last will become the first, the second to last element will become the second, etc. Note that `.reverse()` sorts the element based on their *position*, whereas `.sort()` (see example above) sorts the elements based on their *value*.

7. Searching elements

Let's conclude our long journey through list methods by learning how to search and count elements.

- Create a list and search for a specific element:

<pre>[22]: 1 letters = ["a", "g", "c", "g"] 2 position = letters.index("g") 3 print (position)</pre>	<pre>letters is assigned a, g, c, g position is assigned letters dot index g print position</pre>
	1

We create the list `letters` containing strings (line 1), and we **look for the position of the element "g"** by using the method `.index()`, which we learned in Chapter 5. Then, we print the results (line 3). As you can see, `.index()` just gives us the position of the first element.

- How do we find all positions?

<pre>[23]: 1 letters = ["a", "g", "c", "g"] 2 positions = [] 3 for i in range (len(letters)): 4 if letters[i] == "g": 5 positions.append(i) 6 print (positions)</pre>	<pre>letters is assigned a, g, c, g positions is assigned empty list for i in range len of letters if letters in position i is equal to g positions dot append i print positions</pre>
	[1, 3]

To find all positions of an element in a list, we can use the for loop! We create the list `letters` (line 1) and the empty list `positions` that will contain the indices corresponding to the letter "g" (line 2). Then, we create a for loop that browses all the positions of the letters (line 3), and if the current letter is equal to "g" (line 4), then we append its position (that is, "i") to the list `positions` (line 5). Finally, we print the result (line 6).

- Count how many times an element is present in a list:

```
[24]: 1 letters = ["a", "g", "c", "g"]
2 n = letters.count("g")
3 print (n)
2
```

letters is assigned a, g, c, g
n is assigned letters dot count g
print n

We start with the same list `letters` as in the example above (line 1), and we use the **method `.count()` to count how many times** the letter "g" is in the list (line 2). Finally, we print the result (line 3).

In this Chapter, you have refreshed and learned how to execute all the typical operations that we perform on lists by using list methods and various operators. At this point, you can consider yourself an expert in lists! Congratulations!

A further step!

Answer the following questions to discover more tricks about lists!

1. How can we efficiently remove the elements of a list in even positions?

2. What is the difference between the method `.clear()` and the keyword `del`?

3. What is the output of the method `.sort()` for a list of strings? For example: `sweets = ["chocolate", "icecream", "candy", "cake"]`

4. What is the output of the method `.sort()` for a list of strings and numbers? E.g.: `sweets_numbers = ["chocolate", 43, "icecream", "candy", "cake", 18]`

Complete the table

In this chapter, you learned or refreshed the 11 list methods. Fill out the table below with method definitions and alternative ways to implement the same operation. Some alternatives are presented in this Chapter or in previous chapters, but for others, you will have to come up with new ideas (feel free to consult the internet!)

Method	<i>What it does</i>	Alternative
.append()		
.clear()		
.copy()		
.count()		
.extend()		
.index()		
.insert()		
.pop()		
.remove()		
.reverse()		
.sort()		

Recap

- We can perform element-wise operations in lists using the arithmetic operators `+, -, *, /, **, //, %`
- We can perform “arithmetic” operations on lists using concatenation `+` and replication `*`
- The 11 methods for lists are: `.append()`, `.clear()`, `.copy()`, `.count()`, `.extend()`, `.index()`, `.insert()`, `.pop()`, `.remove()`, `.reverse()`, `.sort()`
- Of the 11 methods, the 3 methods that return a new value are `.copy()`, `.count()`, and `.index()`. The other 8 methods modify the lists themselves

Why not use a for loop to remove list elements?

A for loop is not the right way to remove elements in a list for at least two reasons. Let's see them in this example:

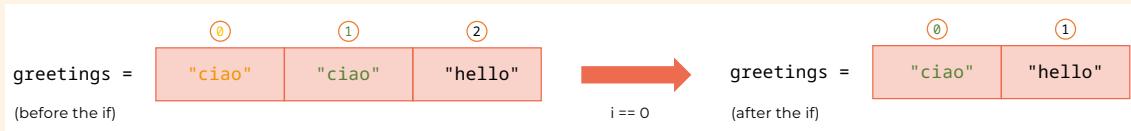
```
[1]: 1 greetings = ["ciao", "ciao", "hello"]
      2 for i in range (len(greetings)):
          3     print ("-----")
          4     print ("i == " + str(i))
          5     print ("before the if:")
          6     print ("greetings")
          7     if greetings[i] == "ciao":
          8         del greetings[i]
          9     print ("after the if:")
         10    print ("greetings")
      -----
      (a) i == 0
      (b) before the if:
      (c) ['ciao', 'ciao', 'hello']
      (d) after the if:
      (e) ['ciao', 'hello']
      (f) -----
      (g) i == 1
      (h) before the if:
      (i) ['ciao', 'hello']
      (j) after the if:
      (k) ['ciao', 'hello']
      (l) -----
      (m) i == 2
      (n) before the if:
      (o) ['ciao', 'hello']

      -----
      IndexError          Traceback (most recent call last)
      Cell In[16], line 6
          5 print("before the if:")
          6 print("greetings")
      ----> 7 if greetings[i] == "ciao":
          8     del greetings[i]
          9 print("after the if:")
      IndexError: list index out of range
```

We start with the list `greetings` that we created in Paragraph 5 (line 1). Then, we create a for loop that browses all the positions in the list (line 2). In the for loop, we use an if condition to check whether the current element is equal to the element to remove (line 7). If that is the case, then we remove the current element using the keyword `del`, which we learned in Chapter 6 (line 8). In between the main commands, we print some messages to check the list changes at each iteration: a graphic separator for each loop (line 3), the number of the current iteration (line 4), and the list before deletion (lines 5 and 6) and after deletion (lines 9 and 10). Note that for clarity of the following explanation, the printed lines are identified with letters, which are not actually printed when running the code.

Let's see what happens at each loop:

- First loop ($i==0$): before the if, the list is complete `["ciao", "ciao", "hello"]` (line (c)). After the if, greetings contains only `["ciao", "hello"]` (line (e)). Three changes happened: (1) the string "ciao" in position 0 (in orange in the figure below) is removed; (2) the element indices restarted from 0, changing the positions of the remaining elements (that is, the green "ciao" was in position 1 before the if and moved to position 0 after the if, and the string "hello" was in position 2 before the if and moved to position 1 after the if); and (3) the length of the list changed from 3 to 2. The changes (2) and (3) will have consequences in the second and third loops.



Change of list content, element positions, and list length after deletion of a list element.

- Second loop ($i==1$): before the if, the list is the same as it was at the end of the previous loop, that is `["ciao", "hello"]` (line (i)). And after the if, the list remains the same (k) because the current element `greetings[1]`, that is, "hello", does not satisfy the if condition. Why wasn't the string "ciao" in position 0 (green in the figure above) deleted? The change of list index in the previous loop moved "ciao" from position 1 to position 0, so we skip its deletion because we are currently at the second iteration of the for loop!
- Third loop ($i==2$): before the if, the list is still `["ciao", "hello"]` (line (0)). Then, we get an index error at line 6 of the code, where the if conditions is. This is because `i` is now 2, but `greetings[2]` does not exist because we shortened the list when we deleted the first "ciao" in the first loop. Thus, the error "out of range" is due to a failed attempt to slice the list `greetings` in position 2, which does not exist! Note that the index `i` is currently 2 because in the header of the for loop (line 2), we stated that `i` goes from 0 to the length of the list (`len(greetings)`), which is the *initial* list length and does not adapt to length changes during the loop!

In conclusion, by using a for loop to delete an element in a list, we can cause two errors: (1) we **skip list elements** that we should delete because of the index shift, and (2) we get **out of range errors** related to the index because we shorten the list by removing some elements.

Let's code!

1. *Selling veggies at the market.* At your stand at the market, you started the day with the following items:

Item	N. of items	Price per item
carrots	10	0.7
zucchini	12	0.5
potatoes	4	0.2

- Create three lists: one for the items, one for the number of items, and one for their prices.
Today you got 3 customers. You want to keep track of how much money each customer spent and how much produce they bought.
 - Create and initialize a list called `total`, where each element corresponds to the amount spent by a customer (how long is the list? what are its content?)
 - The first customer bought 2 carrots, 4 zucchini, and 3 potatoes. Create a list where each element is the number of bought items (i.e., the list will contain 3 elements, corresponding to number of carrots, zucchini, and potatoes, respectively).
 - How much did the customer pay? Save the amount in the first position of the list `total` without creating an intermediate variable (*hint*: if you don't know how to do it, first solve the task by using an intermediate variable, and then find a way to remove it).
 - The second customer got 3 carrots and 3 potatoes. Create the corresponding item list. How much did the customer pay? Save the amount in the second position of the list `total`.
 - The third customer wanted 6 carrots, 4 zucchini, and 1 potatoes. Create the corresponding item list.
 - Did you have enough items to sell? Compute it.
 - Given that the third customer is going to buy whatever is left (e.g., if they wanted 6 carrots, but only 2 were left, they bought 2), how do you modify their item list? Use `if/else`.
 - How much did the third customer pay? Save the amount in the third position of the list `total`.
 - What was the average amount a customer spent at your stand?
 - What was your most popular item today? And the one you sold the least of? Compute them!
2. *New year's countdown!* Given the following list: `numbers = [0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9]`, reverse it using a) a list method; b) slicing; and c) a for loop. What are the differences among the three methods?
 3. App store. You are running a market study on app store data. These are the prices of the apps in the store:

```
app_prices = [
    7.99, 7.99, 2.99, 4.99, 7.99, 9.99, 9.99, 1.99, 1.99, 1.99,
    4.99, 5.99, 3.99, 5.99, 0.99, 3.99, 3.99, 2.99, 1.99, 4.99,
    8.99, 1.99, 3.99, 1.99, 1.99, 8.99, 6.99, 0.99, 6.99, 8.99,
    3.99, 1.99, 0.99, 1.99, 0.99, 8.99, 1.99, 7.99, 3.99, 1.99,
    8.99, 2.99, 4.99, 6.99, 4.99, 7.99, 8.99, 1.99, 2.99, 0.99,
    7.99, 6.99, 7.99, 6.99, 2.99, 0.99, 0.99, 3.99, 2.99, 5.99,
```

```
0.99, 0.99, 7.99, 9.99, 5.99, 5.99, 1.99, 4.99, 5.99, 5.99,  
6.99, 9.99, 5.99, 5.99, 1.99, 8.99, 9.99, 4.99, 9.99, 4.99,  
0.99, 0.99, 2.99, 9.99, 3.99, 6.99, 8.99, 4.99, 1.99, 9.99,  
0.99, 7.99, 1.99, 4.99, 4.99, 0.99, 3.99, 3.99, 1.99, 8.99,  
3.99, 9.99, 5.99, 2.99, 2.99, 2.99, 5.99, 4.99, 3.99, 8.99,  
5.99, 8.99, 8.99, 1.99, 9.99, 7.99, 6.99, 7.99, 4.99, 4.99,  
7.99, 8.99, 7.99, 4.99, 5.99, 5.99, 0.99, 2.99, 8.99, 7.99,  
1.99, 3.99, 3.99, 4.99, 9.99, 0.99, 1.99, 3.99, 9.99, 5.99,  
4.99, 8.99, 6.99, 5.99, 6.99, 7.99, 1.99, 2.99, 9.99, 6.99,  
9.99, 6.99, 8.99, 8.99, 2.99, 1.99, 9.99, 1.99, 7.99, 9.99,  
4.99, 3.99, 9.99, 9.99, 6.99, 6.99, 7.99, 9.99, 2.99, 4.99]
```

- a) How many apps are there?
- b) How many apps cost 4.99? Calculate the result in two ways, once using a list method, and once using a for loop.
- c) What is the percentage of apps that cost 4.99?
- d) What are the unique prices of the apps in the store? Find them and sort them in ascending order.
- e) How many apps are there for each price?
- f) What is the most popular price for an app?

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Serena

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