

OSLOMET

Collections, Strings, and Files

Collating information

Nikolai Bjørnestøl Hansen

Roza Abolghasemi

OSLO METROPOLITAN UNIVERSITY
STORBYUNIVERSITETET



Photo: Ronny Østnes / OsloMet

Follow along

- The easiest way to install Python on your computer is to install Anaconda from <https://www.anaconda.com/products/distribution>
- You can still follow along via an online interpreter if you want, like <https://repl.it/languages/python>

Strings

A string is a collection of letters, surrounded by single or double quotes.

- We create strings by writing `s = "Hi, everybody!"` or `s = 'Hi, Doctor Nick!'`
- Or, if we want multiple lines of text, by writing

```
s = """This string will consist  
of multiple lines  
of text"""
```

- We can **add** two strings together, **concatenating** their values. So `"Hello, "+"world!" == "Hello, world!"` would return `True`.
- We don't **need** the `+`. Putting them next to each other also concatenates them.
- We can **multiply** a string and an integer, **repeating** the string. So `"Cookie!"*3 == "Cookie!Cookie!Cookie!"` would return `True`.

Backslash (\)

The **backslash** character has special meaning inside of strings.

- `\n` means **newline**. The text continues on the next line.
- `\t` means **tab**. It inserts a horizontal tab into the text.
- `\"` and `\'` lets you use single and double quotes **without** ending the string.

We can write `s = "He said \"I'll do it\""`.

- `\\` is used to insert a **single** backslash. Try printing `"The symbol \\n gives a newline."`
- `\N{name}` lets us print a unicode character with the given name. Try printing `"\N{cookie}"`.
- `\uxxxx` and `\Uxxxxxxxx` prints the character with `xxxx` or `xxxxxxxx` as its hex value. Try printing `"\U0001F36A"`.

The `r`-strings and the `f`-strings

- An `r`-string is a **raw** string. The special meaning of backslash is “turned off”.
- We create raw strings by prepending an `r` to the string. Try printing

```
r"Hello,\n and goodbye."
```
- It is useful for representing Windows file paths (which use `\`). We will also use it for regular expressions, when we learn those.
- An `f`-string is a **formatted** string. It lets us insert code into a string.
- We create a formatted string by prepending an `f` to the string. We can then add code by surrounding it with **curly brackets**.
- Try printing

```
f"Seventeen times thirty-five equals {17*35}"
```

.
- Save your name in a variable called `name`, then try printing

```
f"My name is {name}"
```

.

More about f-strings

- We can specify a **format** to the code in an f-string.
- This is done by using a colon.
- Try printing `f"Pi is equal to {3.14159:+07.2f}"`.
- It will print `"Pi is equal to +003.14"`.
- The + means "Print a plus for positive numbers."
- The 0 means "Fill extra space after the sign with zeros."
- The 7 means "The number will be 7 characters wide."
- The .2 means "Use 2 digits of precision."
- The f means "Format it as a float."
 - Other options here is e, scientific notation, %, as percent, and g, general form. The latter is the default.
 - For integers we can use b, o, and x to write it in binary, octal, or hexadecimal.
- Many other formatting options are also available.

Other things to do with strings

- There is a **myriad** of other in-built string methods.
- Check out <https://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#string-methods> for all the in-built methods.
- Some useful ones:
 - `str.count(sub)` counts how many occurrences of `sub` is found within the string. So `"Hello from Hell".count("Hell")` would return 2.
 - `str.find(sub)` tells you at what location in the string we can find `sub`. So `"Where's Waldo?".find("Waldo")` would return 8.
 - `str.replace(old, new)` replaces each occurrence of `old` with `new`. So `"I'm here!".replace("here", "gone")` would return `"I'm gone!"`.
 - `str.split(sep)` and `str.join(list)` splits a string into a list, or joins a list into a string. More on this after the next slides!

Lists and tuples

- Lists and tuples lets us save multiple values in one object.
- We surround **lists** with **square brackets** and **tuples** with **round brackets**. Elements are separated by a comma.

```
a_list = ["This", "is", "a", "list"]  
a_tuple = ("This", "is", "a", "tuple")
```

- The difference between them:
 - A tuple is **constant**. Once created, it cannot be changed.
 - Trying to change it will create an error.
 - Because it's constant, it will be slightly faster to fetch elements from it.
- We find the **length** of a list or tuple (or string!) with the `len` function.
- So `len(a_list)` returns 4. And `len("How are ya?")` returns 11.

Fetching elements from lists, tuples, and strings

- We fetch elements from a list or tuple by using **square brackets**.
- Python starts numbering at **zero**!
- The code

```
a_list = ["This", "list", "has", "values"]  
print(a_list[2])
```

would print "has".

- If we ask for a **negative** position, we will count from the back.
- So `print(a_list[-3])` would print "list"
- Asking for an element **outside** of the list will give us an error.
- Python treats strings as a "tuple of characters".
- With `s = "This is a list!"`, `s[0]` returns "T" and `s[-1]` returns "!".

Slicing lists, tuples, and strings

- We fetch parts of a collection by **slicing**.
- If `a` is a list, tuple, or a string, we slice it by writing `a[start:stop]`.
- This returns a list, tuple, or string with all elements **from** position `start`, up to but **not** including position `stop`.
- `"How are you?"[2:5]` would return `"w a"`.
- One or both of these can be empty. That signifies it's most "extreme" value.
 - `"012345"[3:]` would return `"345"`.
 - `"012345"[:3]` would return `"012"`.
 - `"012345"[:]` would return `"012345"`.
- We can also add a "step". `"012345"[1:5:2]` would return `"13"`.
- The step can be **negative**! `"012345"[5:0:-1]` would return `"54321"`.
- Reversing a list, tuple, or string can therefore be done with `a[::-1]`.

Splitting and joining

- Given a string, we can turn it into a list with the `split`-method. It **splits** the string based on a **separator**.
- The code `"Bananas".split("a")` returns `["B", "n", "n", "s"]`.
- If given no separator, the method splits based on **whitespace**.
- The code `"This is a list".split()` returns `["This", "is", "a", "list"]`.
- The code `"This\nis \ta list ".split()` gives the same result.
- Given a list of strings, we can **join** them into a single string with the `join`-method.
- The code `"a".join(["B", "n", "n", "s"])` returns `"Banana"`.
- The code `"".join(["Bob", "ert"])` returns `"Robert"`.

Dictionaries

- Lists and tuples lets you fetch items by **position**. Dictionaries instead lets you fetch them by **name**.
- The name could be **anything**, but is usually a string.
- We create a new dictionary like this:

```
d = {"pi": 3.14, "tau": 6.28, 2.72: "e"}
```

- The “name” is called the **key**, and the item is called the **value**
- We **fetch** the value by writing `d["pi"]` or `d[2.72]` .
- We can also get values by writing `d.get("tau")` .
- Using `get` would return `None` if the key doesn't exist. Using square brackets would instead throw an error.

More on dictionaries

- We can add to or change a dictionary by assigning values to the keys.
- Try the following code:

```
car = {"brand": "Ford", "model": "T", "year": 1908}  
car["color"] = "black"  
car["model"] = "Tin Lizzie"  
print(car)
```

- We **remove** a element from a dictionary by **popping** it, `car.pop("year")` . This also **returns** the value.
- We can also update values with the `update`-method. This method takes a **dictionary** as input.
- The two middle lines in the code above could have been written as

```
car.update({"color": "black", "model": "Tin Lizzie"}) .
```

The `in` keyword

- To see if something is `in` a collection, we have the `in`-keyword.
- It checks if an element is in a list or tuple, if a key is in a dictionary, or if a substring is part of a string.
 - `3 in [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]` returns `True`.
 - `"read" in "Tread lightly"` returns `True`.
 - `"color" in {"color": "black", "model": "T"}` returns `True`.
 - `"T" in {"color": "black", "model": "T"}` returns `False`.
- We use this with `if`-tests and `while`-loops.

```
car = {"brand": "Ford", "model": "T", "year": 1908}
if "color" in car:
    print(f"The color of my car is {car["color"]}")
else:
    print("My car seems to be colorless")
```

The for-loop

- A while-loop checks a **condition** to see if we want to continue looping, but often we want to loop **through** a collection.
- For this we have the for-loop.
- Try this code:

```
l = ["A", "list", "of", 3.14, "different", ["hey", "a", "list"], "things"]
for i in l:
    print(i)
print("And we're done!")
```

- It loops through the collection, in each loop the value `i` represents the current collection-value.
- If we know that we want to loop, say, 100 times, we often use the `for i in range(100):` -construction. Here `range(100)` is essentially a list `[0, 1, ..., 99]` of 100 elements.

Breaking loops

- If we are in the middle of a loop, we have access to **two** extra keywords, `break` and `continue`.
- The keyword `break` **stops** the loop completely.
- Try the code

```
string = "Papaya Fruit"
for letter in string:
    if letter == "r":
        break
    print(letter)
```

- It should print each letter up to but not including the `r` in Fruit.
- If we have a loop inside of a loop, the `break` keyword will only stop the **current** loop. The outer loop would keep running.

Continuing loops

- The second keyword, `continue`, skips to the **next** step in the loop.
- Try the code

```
string = "Papaya Fruit"
for letter in string:
    if letter in "aeiou":
        continue
    print(letter)
```

- This should print each **consonant** in the string.
- Every time the loop finds a vowel, it'll **continue** on to the next run of the loop, and therefore skipping the print statement.
- Breaking and continueing can be done in both `for`-loops and `while`-loops.

Opening and closing files

- To **open** a file, we use the `open` method. We write `file = open(filename, mode)`.
- The **mode** can be "r" for **read**, "w" for **write**, "a" for **append**, or "x" for **create**.
- If you open a non-existent file in create, append, or write-mode, a new file will be created. If you open a existent file in create mode, an error will be thrown.
- If you **don't** add a mode, the file will open in read mode.
- When you're done with a file, you need to remember to **close** the file again with `file.close()`. If you don't close it, some changes may not be saved.
- The `with` keyword can be used to automatically close a file.
- The code

```
with open("notes.txt", "w") as file:
    file.write("Hey i've made some notes")
print("The file is closed now")
```

closes the file for you.

Reading from files

- Once a file is opened in read mode, we can read the **entire** file with `file.read()`.
- This gives us a single string with **all** the text in the file. Often we would rather cut the file into smaller, more manageable chunks.
- The command `file.readline()` reads a single line from the file. The next time you call `file.readline()`, you'll get the second line, and so on.
- Python thinks of files as **collections of lines**. We can use this to loop through the whole file with a `for`-loop, like this:

```
with open("notes.txt") as file:
    for line in file:
        print(line, end="")
print()
print("The whole file has now been printed")
```

Writing to files

- Writing to files is done via the `write` method.
- The code `file.write("It was the best of times, it was the worst of times")` writes that text string to the file.
- No newlines are added, so the next `file.write` will continue exactly where the last left off.
- If the file is in **append**-mode, it'll be added onto the end of the file.
- If the file is in **write**-mode, it'll overwrite the file.
- If the file is in **create**-mode, the file **will** be a new file.
- There is a last mode, "r+". It lets you both read and write to a file. The writing continues from where you've read to.
- If you haven't read the whole file, this will probably overwrite something you'd like to keep.