

BRIAN OVERLAND

PYTHON WITHOUT FEAR

```
x = ['Python', 'is', 'cool']
print(' '.join(x))
```



A Beginner's Guide That Makes You Feel

SMART

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Python Without Fear

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Python Without Fear

**A Beginner's Guide That
Makes You Feel Smart**

Brian Overland

◆ Addison-Wesley

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*For all my beloved four-legged friends:
Skyler, Orlando, Madison, Cleo, and Pogo.*

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Preface

There's a lot of free programming instruction out there, and much of it's about Python. So for a book to be worth your while, it's got to be good...it's got to be really, really, *really* good.

I wrote this book because it's the book I wish was around when I was first learning Python a few years back. Like everybody else, I conquered one concept at a time by looking at almost a dozen different books and consulting dozens of web sites.

But this is Python, and *it's not supposed to be difficult!*

The problem is that not all learning is as easy or fast as it should be. And not all books or learning sites are *fun*. You can, for example, go from site to site just trying to find the explanation that really works.

Here's what this book does that I wish I'd had when I started learning.

Steering Around the “Gotchas”

Many things are relatively easy to do in Python, but a few things that ought to be easy are harder than they'd be in other languages. This is especially true if you have any prior background in programming. The “Python way” of doing things is often so different from the approach you'd use in any other language, you can stare at the screen for hours until someone points out the easy solution.

Or you can buy this book.

How to Think “Pythonically”

Closely related to the issue of “gotchas” is the understanding of how to *think* in Python. Until you understand Python's unique way of modeling the world,

you might end up writing a program the way a C programmer would. It runs, but it doesn't use any of the features that make Python such a fast development tool.

```
a_list = ['Don\'t', 'do', 'this', 'the', 'C', 'way']
for x in a_list:
    print(x, end=' ')
```

This little snippet prints

Don't do this the C way

Intermediate and Advanced Features

Again, although Python is generally easier than other languages, that's not universally true. Some of the important intermediate features of Python are difficult to understand unless well explained. This book pays a lot of attention to intermediate and even advanced features, including list comprehension, generators, multidimensional lists (matrixes), and decorators.

Learning in Many Different Styles

In this book, I present a more varied teaching style than you'll likely find elsewhere. I make heavy use of examples, of course, but sometimes it's the right conceptual figure or analogy that makes all the difference. Or sometimes it's working on exercises that challenge you to do variations on what's just been taught. But all of the book's teaching styles reinforce the same ideas.

What's Going on "Under the Hood"

Although this book is for people who may be new to programming altogether, it also caters to people who want to know how Python works and how it's fundamentally different "under the hood." That is, how does Python carry out the operations internally? If you want more than just a simplistic introduction, this book is for you.

Why Python?

Of course, if you’re trying to decide between programming languages, you’ll want to know why you should be using Python in the first place.

Python is quickly taking over much of the programming world. There are some things that still require the low-level capabilities of C or C++, but you’ll find that Python is a *rapid application development tool*; it multiplies the effort of the programmer. Often, in a few lines of code, you’ll be able to do amazing things.

More specifically, a program that might take 100 lines in Python could potentially take 1,000 or 2,000 lines to write in C. You can use Python as “proof of concept”: write a Python program in an afternoon to see whether it fulfills the needs of your project; then after you’re convinced the program is useful, you can rewrite it in C or C++, if desired, to make more efficient use of computer resources.

With that in mind, I’ll hope you’ll join me on this fun, exciting, entertaining journey. And remember this:

```
x = ['Python', 'is', 'cool']
print(' '.join(x))
```

Register your copy of *Python Without Fear* on the InformIT site for convenient access to updates and/or corrections as they become available. To start the registration process, go to toinformit.com/register and log in or create an account. Enter the product ISBN (9780134687476) and click Submit. Look on the Registered Products tab for an Access Bonus Content link next to this product, and follow that link to access any available bonus materials. If you would like to be notified of exclusive offers on new editions and updates, please check the box to receive email from us.

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Acknowledgments

It’s customary for authors to write an acknowledgments page, but in this case, there’s a particularly good reason for one. There is no chapter in this book that wasn’t strongly influenced by one of the collaborators: retired Microsoft programmer (and software development engineer) John Bennett.

John, who has used Python for a number of years—frequently to help implement his own high-level script languages—was particularly helpful in pointing out that this book should showcase “the Python way of doing things.” So the book covers not just how to transcribe a Python version of a C++ solution but rather how to take full advantage of Python concepts—that is, how to “think in Python.”

I should also note that this book exists largely because of the moral support of two fine acquisition editors: Kim Boedigheimer, who championed the project early on, and Greg Doench, whom she handed the project off to.

Developmental and technical editors Michael Thurston and John Wargo made important suggestions that improved the product. My thanks go to them, as well as the editorial team that so smoothly and cheerfully saw the manuscript through its final phases: Julie Nahil, Kim Wimpsett, Angela Urquhart, and Andrea Archer.

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Author Bio

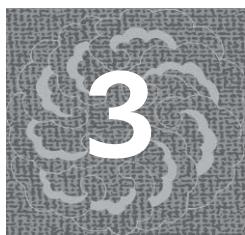
At one time or another, Brian Overland was in charge of, or at least influential in, documenting all the languages that Microsoft Corporation ever sold: Macro Assembler, FORTRAN, COBOL, Pascal, Visual Basic, C, and C++. Unlike some people, he wrote a lot of code in all these languages. He'd never document a language he couldn't write decent programs in.

For years, he was Microsoft's "go to" man for writing up the use of utilities needed to support new technologies, such as RISC processing, linker extensions, and exception handling.

The Python language first grabbed his attention a few years ago, when he realized that he could write many of his favorite applications—the Game of Life, for example, or a Reverse Polish Notation interpreter—in a smaller space than any computer language he'd ever seen.

When he's not exploring new computer languages, he does a lot of other things, many of them involving writing. He's an enthusiastic reviewer of films and writer of fiction. He's twice been a finalist in the Pacific Northwest Literary Contest.

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Your First Programs

Programming is like writing a script, creating a predetermined list of words and actions for actors to perform night after night. A Python function is not so different. From within the interactive environment, you can execute a function as often as you like, and it will execute the same predefined “script.” (The term *script* can also refer to an entire program.)

Within the Python interactive development environment (IDLE), writing functions is the beginning of true programming. In this chapter, I explore how to write functions, including the following:

- ▶ Using functions to calculate formulas
- ▶ Getting string and numeric input
- ▶ Writing formatted output

Temperatures Rising?

I happen to live in the Northwest corner of the United States, and I have Canadian relatives. When they discuss the weather, they’re always talking Celsius. They might say, “Temperature’s all the way up to 25 degrees. Gettin’ pretty warm, eh?”

For people accustomed to the Fahrenheit scale, 25 is cold enough to freeze your proverbial hockey stick. So I have to mentally run a conversion.

```
fahr = cels * 1.8 + 32
```

If you have the Python interactive environment running, this is an easy calculation. I can convert 20 degrees in my head, but what about 25? Let’s use Python! The following statements assign a value to the name `cels` (a *variable*), use that value to assign another value to the name `fahr`, and then finally display what the `fahr` value is.

```
>>>cels = 25  
>>>fahr = cels * 1.8 + 32  
>>>fahr  
77.0
```

So, 25 “Canadian” degrees are 77.0 degrees on the “real” (that is, the American) temperature scale. That’s comfortably warm, isn’t it? For those living north of the border, it’s practically blistering.

Python prints the answer with a decimal point: 77.0. That’s because when the interactive environment combined my input with the floating-point value 1.8, it promoted all the data to floating-point format.

Let’s try another one. What is the Fahrenheit value of 32 degrees Celsius? Actually, there’s a faster way to do this calculation. We don’t have to use variables unless we want to do so.

```
>>>32 * 1.8 + 32.0  
89.6
```

Thirty-two degrees on the Celsius scale is 89.6 Fahrenheit. For a Canadian, that’s practically burning up.

But I’d like to make this calculation even easier. What I’d really like to do is just enter a function name followed by a value to convert.

```
>>>convert(32)  
89.6
```

And—here is the critical part—if this function worked generally, as if it were part of Python, I could use it to convert any number from Celsius to Fahrenheit. All I’d have to do is enter a different argument.

```
>>>convert(10)  
50.0  
>>>convert(20)  
68.0  
>>>convert(22.5)  
72.5
```

But Python lets me create my own such function. This is what the **def** keyword does: define a new function. We could write it this way from within the interactive environment:

```
>>>def convert(fahr):  
    cels = fahr * 1.8 + 32.0  
    return cels
```

```
>>>
```

Notice that these statements by themselves don't seem to do anything. Actually, they do quite a bit. They associate the symbolic name `convert` with something referred to as a *callable* in Python, that is, a function.

If you display the “value” of the function, by itself, you get a cryptic message.

```
>>>convert
<function convert at 0x1040667b8>
```

This message tells you that `convert` has been successfully associated with a function. There were no syntax errors; however, runtime errors are always possible.

Not until we execute `convert` do we know whether it runs without errors. But this is easy. To execute a function, just follow it with parentheses—enclosing any *arguments*, if any.

```
>>>convert(5)
41.0
```

So, 5 degrees Celsius is actually 41.0 Fahrenheit...cool but not quite freezing.

If you enter this example as shown—using the bold font to indicate what you should type as opposed to what Python prints—and if everything goes right, then congrats, you've just written your first Python function!

If instead you get a syntax error, remember that you can easily edit a function by 1) moving the cursor to any line of the function and 2) pressing Enter. The entire function definition will reappear, and you can edit it by moving the cursor up and down. Finally, you can reenter it again. (To reenter, put your cursor on the end of the last line and press Enter twice.)

Before resubmitting the function definition, review the following rules:

- ▶ The definition of `convert` is followed by parentheses and the name of an *argument*. This name stands in for the value to be converted. In this case, the argument name is `fahr`.
- ▶ You must type a colon (:) at the end of the first line.
- ▶ The environment then automatically indents the next lines. Use this indentation. Don't try to modify it—at least not yet.
- ▶ The `return` statement determines what value the function produces.
- ▶ Remember that in Python all names are case-sensitive.
- ▶ In the interactive environment, you terminate the function by typing an extra blank line after you're done.

Note ▶ From within the interactive environment, you should use whatever indentations the environment creates for you. Doing otherwise may cause Python to report errors and fail to run the program.

However, when you write Python scripts in separate text files, the preferred convention is to use four spaces (and no tab characters). This is somewhat arbitrary, because almost any indentation scheme works if you hold to it consistently. But four spaces is the style preferred according to the PEP-8 standard that is observed by many Python programmers.

As much as possible, this book tries to hold to this PEP-8 standard. You can read more about this typographic standard for Python programming by searching for *PEP-8* online.

◀ Note

Let's take another example. Let's define another function and this time give it the name `inch_to_cent`. This function is even simpler than the `convert` function: it changes inches to centimeters, according to the formula 1 inch = 2.54 centimeters.

```
>>>def inch_to_cent(inches):
    cent = inches * 2.54
    return cent
```

```
>>>
```

As with the earlier function, entering a syntactically correct definition doesn't immediately do anything, but it does create a *callable* that you can then use to perform the inches-to-centimeter conversion whenever you want.

Here's an example:

```
>>>inch_to_cent(10)
25.4
>>>inch_to_cent(7.5)
19.05
```

Note that the `inch_to_cent` function definition uses its own variable—a local variable—named `cent`. Because it is local, it doesn't affect what happens to any variable named `cent` outside of the function.

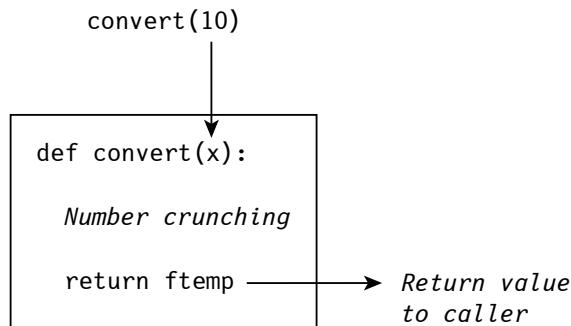
But the use of this variable in this case isn't really necessary. You could define the same function more succinctly, as follows. But the effect is the same in either case.

```
>>>def inch_to_cent(x):
    return x * 2.54
```

```
>>>
```

You can conceptualize the action of a function call as follows. Each call to the `inch_to_cent` function passes a particular value in parentheses. This value is passed to the name `x` inside the function definition, and the return statement produces the output after operating on the `x` value passed to it.

Here's an illustration of how this works:



Remember, a function must be defined before a call to that function is executed.

Interlude

Python's Use of Indentation

Syntactically, Python is fundamentally different from all the languages in the C-language family—including C++, Java, and C#—as well as other languages such as BASIC. The single biggest difference is that spacing matters, particularly indentation.

In the interactive environment, Python automatically indents statements inside a control structure, such as a `def`, `if`, or `while` statement block. Until you terminate that block, you should accept the indentation and not try to “fix” it.

When you learn later in this chapter to compose text files as Python scripts, you can indent any number of spaces you want, but you must do it consistently. If the first statement within a block of statements is indented four spaces, the next statement must be indented four spaces as well—no more, no less.

Note that the PEP-8 specification states that four-space indentation is the preferred standard.

A pitfall awaits you in the form of invisible tab characters. You can use tabs, but the danger is that a tab may look like four blank spaces when in fact it is only one character. And if you indent with a tab on one line and use spaces to indent on the next, Python gets confused and issues a syntax error.



Interlude

▼ *continued*

If possible, then, always use either one technique or the other: a single tab or multiple blank spaces. The safest policy is to have your text editor follow the rule of replacing a tab with blank spaces.

Indentation is an area in which C++ programmers are bound to feel superior. Take the following Python function:

```
def convert_temp(x):
    cels = x * 1.8 + 32.0
    return cels
```

In Python, you must indent this way or Python gets horribly confused. In C and C++, you are freed from spacing issues for the most part, because statement blocks and function definitions are controlled by curly braces. Here's how you might write this function in C++:

```
float convert_temp(float x) {
    float cels = x * 1.8 + 32.0;
    return cels;
}
```

There are similarities between these two versions—the Python and the C/C++ version—but the latter gives you a lot more freedom to space things as you choose.

```
float convert_temp(float x)
{cels = x * 1.8 + 32.0; return cels; }
```

With a little optimization, you can even put all the code on a single line.

```
float convert_temp(float x){return x * 1.8 + 32.0; }
```

What C and C++ programmers tend to like about this is that the compiler is largely indifferent to spacing issues—as long as some whitespace appears where needed to separate variable names and keywords. C++ will never complain because you intended three spaces rather than four, which to a C++ programmer seems fussy, if not petty.

But the Python way has its own advantages. To beginning and intermediate programmers especially, Python indentation allows you to see how “deep” you are in the program. It makes relationships between different statements more obvious. And it closely echoes the indentation of pseudocode I use throughout this book.

Once you get used to Python's reliance on indented statements, you'll love it. Just be careful that your text editor doesn't let you confuse tab characters with blank spaces.

Putting in a Print Message

What if I want the function to not just return a number but to instead print out a user-friendly message such as the following:

7.5 inches are equal to 19.05 centimeters.

I can easily do that in Python. All I need to do is add a call to the built-in **print** function. Because **print** is a built-in function of Python, it's one that you do not define yourself; it's already defined for you. Here's a sample of this function in action:

```
>>>print('My name is Brian O.')
My name is Brian O.
```

Version ► Python version 2.0 features a version of **print** that does not expect parentheses around the argument list, because it is not a function. Starting with Python version 3.0, **print** becomes a function and therefore requires the parentheses.

```
print 'My name is Brian O.' # Python 2.0 version
```

◀ Version

Why did I place single-quotation marks around the message to be printed? I did that because this information is text, not numeric data or Python code; it indicates that the words are to be printed out exactly as shown. Here are some more examples:

```
>>>print('To be or not to be.')
To be or not to be.
>>>print('When we are born, we cry,')
When we are born, we cry,
>>>print('That we are come'
      ' to this great stage of fools.')
That we are come to this great stage of fools.
```

The ability to use **print** pays off in a number of ways: I can intermix text—words placed in quotation marks—with variables.

```
>>>x = 5
>>>y = 25
>>>print('The value of', x, 'squared is', y)
The value of 5 squared is 25
```

By default, the **print** function inserts an extra blank space between one item and the next. Also, after a call to the **print** function is finished, then by

default it prints a newline character, which causes the terminal to advance to the next line.

Now let's combine the printing ability with the power to define functions.

```
>>>def convert(x):
    c = x * 2.54
    print(x, 'inches equal', c, 'centimeters.')

>>>convert(5)
5 inches equal 12.2 centimeters.
>>>convert(10)
10 inches equal 25.4 centimeters.
```

Do you now see why the **print** function is useful? I can call this built-in function from within a definition of one of my functions; that enables my functions to print nice output messages rather than just producing a number.

Syntax Summaries

Throughout this book I use summaries to summarize parts of Python syntax. These are the grammatical rules of the language, and—although they are generally easier and more natural than syntax rules for human language—they must be followed precisely. If you're required to use a colon at the end of the line, you must not forget it.

Here is the syntax summary for function definitions:



```
def function_name(argument) :
    indented_statements
```

There actually is more to function syntax than this, as you'll see in Chapters 9 and 10. As I'll show later in this chapter, you can have more than one *argument*; if you do, use commas to separate them.

In a syntax display—such as the one shown previously—items in bold must be typed in as shown; the items in italics are items you supply, such as names.

Here's another example you can compare to the syntax summary:

```
>>>def print_age(n):
    print('Happy birthday.')
    print('I see that you are', n)
    print('years old.')  
>>>
```

Remember, as always, that to end the statement block from within the interactive environment, type an extra blank line at the end.

Remember, also, that certain errors are not detected until the function is executed. Suppose a function does not contain syntax errors, but it tries to refer to a variable that is not yet recognized. Executing the function will generate an error unless the variable is created before the function is executed.

For a variable to be recognized, one of several things must happen.

- ▶ The function creates a variable by assigning it a value during an assignment (=).
- ▶ The variable must already exist because of an earlier assignment.
- ▶ Or, the variable exists because it represents a value passed to the function (for example, `n` in the previous function-definition example).

Here's a sample session that executes the `print_age` function. It assumes that this function has already been defined through the use of a `def` statement, as shown earlier.

```
>>>print_age(29)  
Happy birthday.  
I see that you are 29  
years old.
```

Here is the same function, this time called with the value `45` rather than `29`:

```
>>>print_age(45)  
Happy birthday.  
I see that you are 45  
years old.
```

The built-in `print` function has a simple syntax—although there are some special features I'll introduce later.

`print(items)`

When `print` is executed, it displays the items on the console, with an extra blank space used to separate one item from the next.

During the call to `print`, you use commas to separate arguments if there is more than one.

```
>>>i = 10  
>>>j = 5  
>>>print(i, 'is greater than', j)  
10 is greater than 5
```



Example 3.1.

Quadratic Equation as a Function

Now let's do something a little more interesting: take the quadratic formula example from Chapter 2 and place it in a function definition, by using the **def** keyword.

The quadratic formula computes the value of x , given the following relationship to arguments a , b , and c .

$$0 = ax^2 + bx + c$$

The following interactive session defines `quad` as a function taking three arguments and returning a value, which is the solution for x .

```
>>>def quad(a, b, c):
    determ = (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** 0.5
    x = (-b + determ) / (2 * a)
    return x
```

>>>

With this definition entered into the environment, you can then call the `quad` function with any values you like. For example, a simple quadratic equation is as follows:

$$0 = x^2 + 2x + 1$$

In this statement, a , b , and c correspond to the values 1, 2, and 1, respectively. Therefore, by giving the values 1, 2, and 1 as arguments to the `quad` function, we will get the value of x that satisfies the equation.

```
>>>quad(1, 2, 1)
-1.0
```

This means that we should be able to plug the value -1.0 in for x and get the quadratic equation to come out right. Let's try it.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= (-1)^2 + 2(-1) + 1 \\ &= 1 - 2 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

It works! Everything checks out nicely, because plugging -1.0 in for x does indeed produce 0. But a more interesting equation involves the numbers 1, -1 , and -1 , which give us the golden ratio. That ratio has the following property:

$$x/1 = (x + 1)/x,$$

That equation, in turn, implies the following:

$$x^2 = x + 1$$

This in turn yields a quadratic equation, as shown here:

$$0 = x^2 - x - 1$$

Finally, that gives us values for a , b , and c of 1, -1, and -1, which we can evaluate with the `quad` function. Let's try it!

```
>>>quad(1, -1, -1)
1.618033988749895
```

And this turns out to be correct to the 15th decimal place. This is the special number “phi.” One of its many special properties is phi squared minus 1 produces phi itself. This is the golden ratio.

You can verify it this way:

```
>>>phi = quad(1, -1, -1)
>>>phi
1.618033988749895
>>>phi * phi - 1
1.618033988749895
```

A-ha! Phi squared, minus 1, gives us phi again! This is indeed the golden ratio or, rather, a close approximation of it.

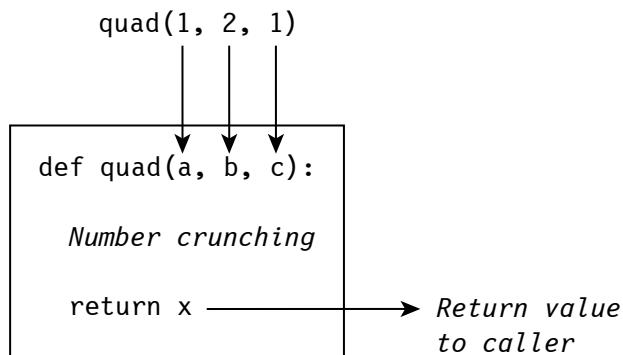


How It Works

Although the `quad` function may look more complicated than the other, more elementary examples in this chapter, at the bottom it's doing the same thing: taking in some input, doing some number crunching, and returning a result. The one true innovation in this example is that here I've introduced the use of *three* arguments rather than just one.

The order of arguments is significant. Because the `quad` definition takes three arguments, a , b , and c , each call to `quad` must specify three values, and these are passed to those variable names: a , b , and c , in that order.

The following illustration shows how this works for the function call `quad(1, 2, 1)`, assigning 1, 2, and 1 to the values a , b , and c :

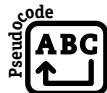


Now it's simply a matter of doing the correct number crunching to get an answer, and that means applying the quadratic formula.

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

We can use pseudocode to express what this function does. A pseudocode description of a program or function uses sentences that are very close to human language but lists the steps explicitly.

Here is the pseudocode description of the `quad` function:



For inputs a , b , and c :

*Set `determ` equal to the square root of $(b * b) - (4 * a * c)$.*

*Set x equal to $(-b + determ)$ divided by $(2 * a)$.*

Return the value x .

The quadratic formula actually produces two answers, not one. The plus or minus sign indicates that $-b$ plus the determinant (the quantity under the radical sign) divided by $2a$ is one answer; but $-b$ *minus* the determinant divided by $2a$ is the other answer. In Example 3.1, the function returns only the first answer.



EXERCISES

Exercise 3.1.1. Revise the `quad` function by replacing the name `determ` with the name `dt` and by replacing the name `x` with the name `x1`; then verify that the function still works.

Exercise 3.1.2. Revise the `quad` function so that instead of returning a value, it prints two values using the Python `print` statement in a user-friendly manner: “The `x1` value is...” and “The `x2` value is...” (Hint: The use of the plus/minus sign in the quadratic formula indicates what these two—not one—values should be. Review this formula closely if you need to do so.) Print each answer out on a separate line.

Exercise 3.1.3. The mathematical number “phi” represents the golden ratio, more specifically, the ratio of the long side of a golden rectangle to the short side. Try to predict what the reciprocal ($1/\text{phi}$) is; then use the Python interactive environment to see whether you’re right. How would you express the relationship between phi and $1/\text{phi}$?

Getting String Input

Before you can finally write “real programs,” you’ll need to be able to write scripts that can query the user for more information. Fortunately, Python includes a powerful built-in function, the **input** function, which makes this easy.

I’ll give you the syntax first and then show examples.



```
string_var = input(prompt_string)
```

3

Version ► If you’re using Python 2.0, use the function name **raw_input** instead of **input**. In 2.0, the **input** function works, but it does something different: it evaluates the string input as a Python statement rather than just passing it back as a string.

◀ Version

The essence of this syntax is that the built-in **input** statement both takes and produces a text string. In one way, the concept of text string is easy to understand; it’s just “words” for the most part—or more accurately, letters and other characters.

For example, we might write a function, `main`, which we’re going to use as a script.

```
>>>def main():
    name1_str = input('Enter your name: ')
    name2_str = input('Enter another: ')
    name3_str = input('And another: ')
    print('Here are all the candidates: ')
    print(name1_str, name2_str, name3_str)

>>>main()
Enter your name: Brian
Enter another: Hillary
And another: Donald
Here are all the candidates:
Brian Hillary Donald
```

This by itself is not a very exciting program. It takes some text and displays it on the console. But this little program demonstrates an important ability of Python: the ability to prompt the user for a text string and then assign it to a variable.

While other variables up until now have referred to numeric values, these variables—`name1`, `name2`, and `name3`—all refer to text strings in this case.

What exactly can go into a text string? Basically, anything you can type can go in a text string. Here's an example:

```
>>>in_str = input('Enter input line: ')
Enter input line: When I'm 64...
>>>in_str
'When I'm 64...'
```

As you can see, text strings can contain numerals (digit characters). But until they're converted, they're just numerals. They are text-string representations of numbers, not numbers you can perform arithmetic on.

If this isn't obvious, just remember that the *numeral* 5 is just a character on a keyboard or on the screen. But the *number* 5 can be doubled or tripled to produce 10 or 15 and has little to do with characters on a keyboard.

Here's an example:

```
in_str = '55'
```

But assigning 55 with no quote marks around it does something different.

```
n = 55
```

The difference is that 55 is an actual number, meaning that you can add, subtract, multiply, and divide it. But when enclosed in quotation marks, '55' is a text string. That means it is a string consisting of two numerals, each a 5, strung together.

A simple program should help illustrate the difference.

```
>>>def main():
    in_str = input('Enter your age: ')
    print ('Next year you'll be', in_str + 1)

>>>main()
Enter your age: 29
Error! Incompatible types.
```

Oops! What happened? The characters 29 were entered at the prompt and stored as a text string, that is, a numeral 2 followed by a numeral 9—a string two characters long. But that's not the same as a number, even though it looks like one.

Python complains as soon as you try to add a text string to a number.

```
in_str + 1
```

No error is reported until you execute the function. Python variables don't have types; only data objects do. Consequently, Python syntax seems lax at first. But the types of data objects—which are not checked for syntax errors, as there are no “declarations”—are checked whenever a Python statement is actually executed.

This means, among other things, that you cannot perform arithmetic on a string of numerals such as 100, until that string is first converted to numeric format. If this doesn't make sense now, don't worry; it will make sense when you read the next section.

The next section shows how to get input and store it as a number rather than text string.

Getting Numeric Input

As the previous section demonstrated, if you write a program that takes numeric input and does number crunching on it, you need to first convert to a numeric format.

To do that, use one of the following statements, depending on whether you are dealing with integer (**int**) or floating-point data (**float**):



```
var_name = int(input(prompt_message))  
var_name = float(input(prompt_message))
```

These statements combine the input and conversion operations. You can, if you prefer, do them separately, but this is less efficient. For example, you could use this approach:

```
in_str = input('Enter a number: ')  
n = int(in_str)
```

These two statements work fine together, but there's no reason not to combine the operations.

```
n = int(input('Enter a number: '))
```

Here's an interactive session that uses a number entered at the keyboard and then multiplies it by 2:

```
>>>def main():  
    n = int(input('Enter a number: '))  
    print('Twice of that is:', n * 2)
```

```
>>>main()  
Enter a number: 10  
Twice of that is: 20
```

So, to get actual numeric input, as opposed to storing input in a text string, use the **int** and **float** conversions.

But what are **int** and **float**, exactly? Here I'm using them like functions, but they're actually the names of built-in data types, integer and floating point, respectively. In Python, there's a general rule that type names can be used in this fashion, to perform conversions (assuming the appropriate conversion exists).



`type_name(data)`

Example 3.2.

Quadratic Formula with I/O

This next example takes the quadratic-formula example another step further, by placing all the statements in a **main** function and then relying on Python input and output statements to communicate with the end user.

```
>>>def main():
    a = float(input('Enter value for a: '))
    b = float(input('Enter value for b: '))
    c = float(input('Enter value for c: '))
    determ = (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** 0.5
    x1 = (-b + determ) / (2 * a)
    x2 = (-b - determ) / (2 * a)
    print('Answers are', x1, 'and', x2)

>>>main()
```

Here is a sample session that might follow after you type **main()**:

```
Enter value for a: 1
Enter value for b: -1
Enter value for c: -1
Answers are 1.618033988749895 and -0.6180339887498948
```

There are two different answers in this case, not equal to each other, because the golden ratio is either phi (the ratio of the large side to the small) or 1/phi (the ratio of the small side to the large), depending on how you look at it. The negative sign in the second answer is necessary for the math to come out right.

Nearly all the digits are identical in this case, except for a small difference due to rounding errors. The actual values of phi and 1/phi are irrational (which means you would need an infinite number of digits to represent them precisely).

Note ► Remember that the interactive environment supports cut-and-paste operations, as well as a “magic” technique for revising blocks of code.

So, if you enter a long function definition and realize you’ve made a mistake, you can save a great deal of time by doing the following:

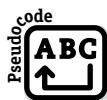
- 1 Scroll up to the block of code.
- 2 Place your cursor on any line of code in this block.
- 3 Press Enter.
- 4 The block of code will appear in the window—at the new cursor position—ready for you to edit it.

Then go ahead and make your changes, scrolling up and down if you need. When done, type an extra blank line after the new block of code.

◀ Note



How It Works



In this chapter, we’re still dealing with programs that are relatively short and translate into simple pseudocode.

Prompt the user for the values of a, b, and c.

Apply the quadratic formula to get x1 and x2.

Print the values of x1 and x2.

Because `a`, `b`, and `c` all need to refer to numeric data, the program applies a `float` conversion combined with the built-in `input` function. If these numbers are not converted to `float` format, you won’t be able to do math with them.

```
a = float(input('Enter value for a: '))
b = float(input('Enter value for b: '))
c = float(input('Enter value for c: '))
```

Next, the quadratic formula is applied to get the two solutions for `x`. Remember that the operation `** 0.5` has the same effect as taking the square root.

```
determ = (b * b - 4 * a * c) ** 0.5
x1 = (-b + determ) / (2 * a)
x2 = (-b - determ) / (2 * a)
```

Finally, the program displays the output, featuring `x1` and `x2`.

```
print('The answers are', x1, 'and', x2)
```



EXERCISES

Exercise 3.2.1. In Example 3.2, instead of using the prompt messages “Enter the value of a,” etc., prompt the user with the following messages:

“Enter the value of the x-square coefficient.”

“Enter the value of the x coefficient.”

“Enter the value of the constant.”

Do you have to change the variable names as a result? Note that the user never sees the names of variables inside the code, unless you deliberately print those names.

Exercise 3.2.2. Modify Example 3.2 so that it restricts input to integer values.

Exercise 3.2.3. Write a program to calculate the area of a right triangle, based on height and width inputs. Apply the triangle area formula: $A = w * h * 0.5$. Prompt for width and height separately and print a nice message on the display saying, “The area of the triangle is....”

Exercise 3.2.4. Do the same for producing the volume of a sphere based on the radius of the sphere. I’ll invite you to look up the formula for volume of a sphere. For the value pi, you can insert the following statement into your program:

```
pi = 3.14159265
```

Formatted Output String

In Example 3.2, typical output looked like this:

The answers are 3.0 and 4.0

(This is produced, incidentally, when the inputs to the quadratic formula are 1, -7, and 12.)

But we might like to place a period at the end, making the output read as a nice sentence. We’d like to get the following:

The answers are 3.0 and 4.0.

But the **print** function puts a space between each print field so that you end up getting the following, which has an unnecessary space before the last character.

The answers are 3.0 and 4.0 .

There are at least two solutions. One is to include the special **sep** (separator) argument to the **print** function. By default, print uses a single space as a separator. But we can use **sep=''** (this consists of two single quotes in a row) to indicate that **print** shouldn't put in any separator at all.

This is fine, because we just take on responsibility for putting in space separators ourselves. The output statement then becomes the following:

```
print('The answers are ', x1, ' and ', x2, '.', sep='')
```

And this works, although it's a fair amount of extra work. Not only do we have to add **sep=''**, but we have to add all those extra spaces.

But there's a better way. Python provides a way to create a formatted-output string. To use this approach, follow these steps:

- 1 Create a format specification string that includes print fields denoted with the characters `{}`. A print field is an indication of where output characters, produced by arguments, are to be inserted into the resulting string.
- 2 Apply the **format** method to this format-specification string, specifying the values to be printed as arguments.
- 3 Print the resulting output string.

For example, you can set up a format specification string (**fss**) as follows:

```
fss = 'The numbers are {} and {}.'
```

Then you apply the **format** method to this string. The result produces an output string.

```
output_str = fss.format(10, 20)
print(output_str)
```

And here's what the result looks like:

```
The numbers are 10 and 20.
```

Example 3.3.

Distance Formula in a Script

Sooner or later, you'll want to write and permanently save your Python programs. The steps are as follows:

- 1 From within IDLE, choose the New File command from the File menu.
- 2 Enter a program (or copy text) into the window that appears, which serves as a text editor for your programs.

- 3 To save the program, choose Save or Save As from the File menu. The first time you save a program this way, the environment will prompt you to enter a name with a .py extension. (It will add this extension for you automatically.)
- 4 To run the program, make sure the program window has the focus. Then either press F5 or select Run Module from the Run menu.
- 5 After the program begins running, you may need to shift focus back to IDLE's main window (the *shell*). [An exception is that with tkinter (graphical) programs, you'll need to shift focus to the window *generated* by the program.]

Alternatively, you can write a program with any text editor you want, but be sure you save the file in plain-text format and give it a .py extension. Then you can load it into Python by using the Open command from IDLE's File menu.

Although the Python environment is still extremely useful for experimenting with, and getting help with, individual commands and features, the text-editor approach is usually better for writing and executing long programs.

This next example shows how to use the Pythagorean distance formula to calculate the distance between any two points on a Cartesian plane. Here's the formula:

```
distance = square_root(horizontal_dist2 + vertical_dist2)
```

Here's the program listing:

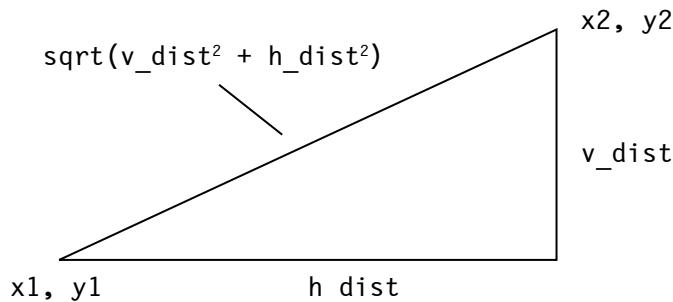
dist.py

```
x1 = float(input('Enter x1: '))
y1 = float(input('Enter y1: '))
x2 = float(input('Enter x2: '))
y2 = float(input('Enter y2: '))
h_dist = x2 - x1
v_dist = y2 - y1
dist = (h_dist ** 2 + v_dist ** 2) ** 0.5
print('The distance is ', dist)
```



How It Works

The Pythagorean distance formula is derived from the Pythagorean theorem, which I'll have more to say about in Chapter 6. By applying this theorem, you can see that the distance between two points is equivalent to the hypotenuse of a right triangle, in which the vertical distance (*v_dist*) and horizontal distance (*h_dist*) are the two other sides.



3

The square of the hypotenuse is equal to the sums of the squares of the other sides. Therefore, the hypotenuse itself is equal to the square root of this sum. (See the figure.)

Remember that the exponentiation operator in Python is `**`. Therefore, the following

```
amount ** 2
```

means to produce the square of `amount` (multiply itself by itself), whereas this next expression

```
b ** 0.5
```

is equivalent to taking the square root of `b`. Therefore, the distance formula is

```
dist = (h_dist ** 2 + v_dist ** 2) ** 0.5
```



EXERCISES

Exercise 3.3.1. As I just mentioned, the syntax `x ** 2` translates as `x` to the second power, in other words, `x` squared. There is another, slightly more verbose, way of expressing the same operation. Revise Example 3.3 so that it uses this other means of calculating a square. Also, replace `h_dist`, `v_dist`, and `dist` in the program with `h`, `v`, and `d`. Then rerun and make sure everything works. For example, if you input the points 0, 0 and 3, 4, the program should say that the distance between the points is 5.0.

Exercise 3.3.2. Revise Example 3.3 so that it outputs the result and puts a period (.) at the end of the sentence, without any superfluous blank spaces. Use the format-specification-string technique I outlined in the previous section.

Exercise 3.3.3. Write a program that calculates the area of a triangle after prompting for the values of the triangle's height and width. Use the formula `height * width * 0.5`. Use the format-specification-string technique to print a period at the end of the output.

Exercise 3.3.4. Write a program that calculates the area of a circle after prompting for the value of the radius. (I'll leave it to you to look up the formula for area of a circle if you don't remember it.) Use the format-specification-string technique to print a period at the end of the output. Also, to get the value of pi, place the following statement at the beginning of your program:

```
from math import pi
```

With this statement at the beginning of your program, you can use `pi` to refer to a good approximation of pi.

Chapter 3 *Summary*

Here are the main points of Chapter 3:

- ▶ A function definition lets you perform a series of calculations over and over, without having to reenter all the steps in number crunching. At least this is a simple way to understand the concept.
- ▶ The syntax of a function definition has this form:

```
def function_name(arguments):  
    indented_statements
```

- ▶ The arguments may be blank, may have one argument name, or may be a series of argument names separated by commas.
- ▶ If you enter the function-definition heading correctly, the Python interactive environment automatically creates indentation. Remember that a correct function-definition heading ends with a colon (:).
- ▶ From within the Python interactive environment, you complete a function definition by typing an extra blank line after you've entered all the indented statements.
- ▶ To call a function, enter the name of the function followed by parentheses and argument values. These values are then passed to the function-definition code. Here's an example:

```
>>>convert(10)
```

- ▶ You can prompt the user for string input by using the `input` statement. The prompt message is a string printed on the console to prompt the user for input.

```
string_var = input(prompt_message)
```

- To get numeric input, use an **int** or **float** conversion, as appropriate.

```
var = int(input(prompt_message))
var = float(input(prompt_message))
```

- The built-in **print** function prints all its arguments in order. By default, arguments are printed with a single blank space separating them. You can use the optional **sep** argument to specify another separator character. **sep=''** specifies that no separator character should be used.
- You can use a format-specification string, in which {} indicates a print field. Here's an example:

```
fss = 'The square root of {} is {}.'
```

- You can then apply the **format** method to a format specification string to produce an output string.

```
format_spec_string.format(arguments)
```

- Here's an example:

```
fss.format(25, 5)
```

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