

Info1 Python Tutorial - Part II

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1 Quick recap from last week

1.0.1 Functions:

- A function takes zero or more parameters and returns something.
- You can call a function by it's name and (...).
- To define a new function, you use the `def` keyword and accompanying syntax.

```
[1]: def hypothenuse(a, b):  
      return (a**2 + b**2)**(1/2)  
  
      def get_first_three_characters_as_upper(word):  
          return word[:3].upper()  
  
      print(hypothenuse(3, 4))  
      print(get_first_three_characters_as_upper("France"))
```

5.0

FRA

1.0.2 Basic numbers: int, float

```
[2]: 1 + 2
```

[2]: 3

```
[3]: 1.0 + 2
```

[3]: 3.0

```
[4]: 1.1 + 1.1 + 1.1
```

[4]: 3.3000000000000003

1.0.3 Booleans, and/or and shortcircuiting

```
[5]: False and   
      ↪some_really_expensive_function_call_that_would_take_1_hour_to_complete(123)
```

```
[5]: False
```

1.0.4 Check the type of a value using the `type(...)` function

```
[6]: type(3.5)
```

```
[6]: float
```

```
[7]: type(hypothenuse)
```

```
[7]: function
```

1.0.5 Imports

```
[8]: import datetime  
datetime.datetime.now()
```

```
[8]: datetime.datetime(2023, 10, 3, 9, 19, 8, 640384)
```

```
[9]: from os.path import splitext  
splitext("picture.png")
```

```
[9]: ('picture', '.png')
```

1.0.6 How to declare and operate on strings

```
[10]: "Pineapple"[-5:].capitalize()
```

```
[10]: 'Apple'
```

1.0.7 Variables

```
[11]: name = "Alice"  
book = name + " in Wonderland"  
name = "Bob"  
book
```

```
[11]: 'Alice in Wonderland'
```

1.0.8 String interpolation (*f-strings*) and formatting

```
[12]: f'{name} is reading "{book}"'
```

```
[12]: 'Bob is reading "Alice in Wonderland"'
```

```
[13]: from math import pi  
f"Pi to the first 4 digits is {pi:.4f}"
```

```
[13]: 'Pi to the first 4 digits is 3.1416'
```

```
[14]: digits = 6
      f"Pi to the first {digits} digits is {pi:.{digits}f}"
```

```
[14]: 'Pi to the first 6 digits is 3.141593'
```

1.0.9 Tuples and Lists

```
[15]: stuff = (1, "hello", 2)
      print(stuff[1])
      print(stuff[-1])
```

```
hello
2
```

```
[16]: stuff = [1, "hello", 2]
      print(stuff[1])
      del(stuff[2])
      stuff.append(3)
      stuff.extend([4, 5])
      print(stuff)
```

```
hello
[1, 'hello', 3, 4, 5]
```

1.0.10 Sets

```
[17]: my_set = {1, 2, 3, 4, 4, 4, 4, "hello"}
      print(my_set)
      my_set.remove(3)
      my_set.add(4)
      my_set.add(10)
      print(my_set)
```

```
{1, 2, 3, 4, 'hello'}
{1, 2, 4, 'hello', 10}
```

1.0.11 Mutable vs. Immutable

- lists are *mutable*
- tuples and strings are *immutable*

```
[18]: mutable_list = [1, 2, 3, 3, 4]
      mutable_list.remove(3)
      print(list)
      mutable_list.append(100)
      mutable_list.extend([-1, -2, "hello"])
      mutable_list
```

```
<class 'list'>
```

```
[18]: [1, 2, 3, 4, 100, -1, -2, 'hello']
```

```
[19]: immutable_tuple = (1, 2, 3, 4)
      # not possible:
      # immutable_tuple.append(5)
      changed_tuple = immutable_tuple + (5,)
      changed_tuple
```

[19]: (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

2 Useful built-in functionality

2.0.1 range

`range` is a collection that represents sequences of numbers (for example, `range(10)` represents 0 through 9). Note that just calling `range` will not really *do* much. You just get a ``range'' object.

```
[20]: range(10)
```

```
[20]: range(0, 10)
```

```
[21]: type(range(10))
```

```
[21]: range
```

Only when you *need* the numbers will they be produced. For example, if we want a list of numbers:

```
[22]: list(range(10))
```

```
[22]: [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
```

This is done because only the necessary number of elements will be produced one by one. This is called *lazy evaluation*.

[illegible]

```
[23]: range(5, 20)
```

```
[24]: list(super_big_range[5:20])
```

[24]: [5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19]

range also takes additional parameters to determine the start, end, step size, etc. See <https://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#typeseq-range>

```
[25]: set(range(5, 20, 2))
```

```
[25]: {5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19}
```

```
[26]: tuple(range(21, 0, -3))
```

```
[26]: (21, 18, 15, 12, 9, 6, 3)
```

(don't convert ranges to lists, tuples or whatever unless necessary)

2.0.2 enumerate

Use `enumerate` on a collection to create a sequence of tuples, where each tuple has two elements:
* an index * an element from the collection

```
[27]: list(enumerate(["These", "are", "words", "in", "a", "list"]))
```

```
[27]: [(0, 'These'), (1, 'are'), (2, 'words'), (3, 'in'), (4, 'a'), (5, 'list')]
```

Just like `range`, `enumerate` on it's own doesn't *do* much and only evaluates when needed:

```
[28]: enumerate(["These", "are", "words", "in", "a", "list"])
```

```
[28]: <enumerate at 0x7f93d5549490>
```

```
[29]: enumerate(super_big_range)
```

```
[29]: <enumerate at 0x7f93d5549c10>
```

Note that `enumerate` also works on collections that don't really have an inherent ordering, like sets:

```
[30]: list(enumerate({1, 100, 40, 88}))
```

```
[30]: [(0, 40), (1, 1), (2, 88), (3, 100)]
```

A few more examples:

```
[31]: list(enumerate(range(5)))
```

```
[31]: [(0, 0), (1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (4, 4)]
```

```
[32]: tuple(enumerate("this is a sentence".split()))
```

```
[32]: ((0, 'this'), (1, 'is'), (2, 'a'), (3, 'sentence'))
```

`enumerate` also takes an additional parameter to change the starting index:

```
[33]: list(enumerate([10, 333, 30], 250))
```

```
[33]: [(250, 10), (251, 333), (252, 30)]
```

2.0.3 sum, min, and max

These functions can be used on collections of numbers to calculate their sum, minimum value or maximum value, respectively:

```
[34]: numbers = [12, 41, 2024, 3, -301, 0]
      sum(numbers)
```

```
[34]: 1779
```

```
[35]: min(numbers)
```

```
[35]: -301
```

```
[36]: max(numbers)
```

```
[36]: 2024
```

Exercise

1. Write an expression that calculates the sum of all numbers between 5 and 200.
2. Write an expression that creates a list of tuples, given a list of words `words`. Each tuple should contain an index and a word. The index for the first word should be 1

```
[37]: # exercise 1 solution
```

```
[38]: # exercise 2 solution
      words = "The original machine had a base-plate of prefabricated aluminite".
      ↪split()
```

3 Conditional statements for control flow: if, elif, and else

Oftentimes, you want your program behavior to vary depending on what data it receives. One mechanism to do so is *control flow* by means of `if`, `elif`, and `else` to decide whether to execute a given block of code.

```
[39]: number = 10
      if number > 0:
          print("Greater than zero")
      else:
          print("Not greater than zero")
```

Greater than zero

The following variations of using `if/elif/else` are permitted: * Just an `if` block, alone. The code block gets executed if the condition is true, otherwise not. Here are two examples:

```
[40]: if 1 + 1 == 2:
      print("Math is easy")
```

```
if True == False:
    print("The universe is broken")
```

Math is easy

- An if block followed by an else block. At least **one** of those two blocks will **always** be executed (unless the program crashes...), but **not the other**:

```
[41]: if True == False:
        print("The universe is broken")
    else:
        print("Everything is OK")
```

Everything is OK

- An if block followed by any number of elif blocks, which just add more possible conditions and code blocks. Only the **first** block with a True condition will execute. If none of the conditions are true, none of the code blocks are executed:

```
[42]: number = 5
    if number > 0:
        print("Number is greater than 0")
    elif number > 3:
        print("Number is greater than 3")
```

Number is greater than 0

If you wanted both blocks to execute, you could write the following. Note that these two if statements are entirely separate and have nothing to do with each other.

```
[43]: number = 5
    if number > 0:
        print("Number is greater than 0")
    if number > 3:
        print("Number is greater than 3")
```

Number is greater than 0

Number is greater than 3

- An if block followed by zero or more elif blocks, followed by a final else block. Exactly **one** of these blocks will execute.

```
[44]: number = -5
    if number > 0:
        print("Number is greater than 0")
    elif number > 3:
        print("Number is greater than 3")
    elif number > 5:
        print("Number is greater than 5")
    else:
        print("None of the above")
```

None of the above

Of course, this means, there can never be an `else` or `elif` block standing alone, only together with `if`. Here's another example. Observe that here, we have two separate pieces of code: * One `if` block (without anything else) * One `if` block together with an accompanying `else` block

```
[45]: number = -3
      if number < 0:
          print("Less than zero")
      if number < 10:
          print("Less than ten")
      else:
          print("Greater than ten")
```

Less than zero

Less than ten

Generally speaking, keep your `if/elif/else` expressions short and obvious. You don't want to be debugging a christmas tree of conditions.

By the way... if you do this, you're embarrassing yourself:

```
[46]: def find_bob(names):
      if "Bob" in names:
          return True
      else:
          return False
      names = ["Alice", "Bob", "Peter"]
      find_bob(names)
```

[46]: True

A few more examples:

```
[47]: haystack = range(10)
      needle = 30
      if needle in haystack:
          print("30 found")
      else:
          print("30 not found")
```

30 not found

```
[48]: # A kiosk with a very limited selection...
      menu = ["Banana", "Peach", 'Potato']
      prices = [1.25, 1.75, 1.20]
      selection = 1
      if 0 <= selection < len(menu):
          print(f"A {menu[selection].lower()} costs {prices[selection]:.2f}")
      else:
          print("Invalid selection")
```


A peach costs 1.75

3.0.1 ``Truthyness''

In many languages, certain values are automatically converted to a boolean if used in a boolean expression. **Remember:** In Python, any value is considered `True`, except the following: `* False` and `None` `* 0`, `0.0`, `0j`, `Decimal(0)`, `Fraction(0, 1)` `* ''`, `()`, `[]`, `{}`, `set()`, `range(0)` `* A few other values that are not so important right now`

See the [Official documentation](#) for all the details, or this [StackOverflow post](#) for a casual list.

You can easily check which boolean something evaluates to by using the `bool` function:

```
[49]: bool(0)
```

```
[49]: False
```

```
[50]: bool(25)
```

```
[50]: True
```

```
[51]: bool(["not", "empty", "list"])
```

```
[51]: True
```

```
[52]: bool([])
```

```
[52]: False
```

```
[53]: bool("Just a string")
```

```
[53]: True
```

```
[54]: bool("")
```

```
[54]: False
```

That's why you can use an arbitrary value as the condition in an if statement, even if that value is not a boolean:

```
[55]: if 3+5:
        print("Banana")
      if 3-3:
        print("Not going to happen")
```

Banana

This is most commonly done for differentiating between empty and populated collections:

```
[56]: names = []
      if not names:
```

```
    print("No names!")
else:
    print(names)
```

No names!

Exercise

Write a function `sign` that takes a single integer as a parameter `number` and returns a string. If `number` is negative, the function should return `"negative"`, if `number` is positive, it should return `"positive"`, and otherwise it should return `"zero"`

```
[57]: # exercise solution
```

Exercise

Write a function `within` that takes two parameters: 1. a single integer `target` 2. a list of numbers `numbers`

The function should return `True` if `target` is (strictly) between the smallest and largest values in `target`, otherwise it should return `False`

```
[58]: # exercise solution
```

4 Maps (Dictionaries)

Let's look at the previous example with the mediocre kiosk:

```
[59]: # A kiosk with a very limited selection...
menu = ["Banana", "Peach", 'Potato']
prices = [1.25, 1.75, 1.20]
selection = 2
if 0 <= selection < len(menu):
    print(f"A {menu[selection].lower()} costs {prices[selection]:.2f}")
else:
    print("Invalid selection")
```

A potato costs 1.20

First of all, let's * Move the conditional into a function, so we can call it with different selections over and over again * Replace the `print` statements with `return` statements, because maybe we want to further process the result

```
[60]: menu = ["Banana", "Peach", 'Potato']
prices = [1.25, 1.75, 1.20]
def select(selection):
    if 0 <= selection < len(menu):
        return f"A {menu[selection].lower()} costs {prices[selection]:.2f}"
    else:
        return "Invalid selection"
```

So now we can call it and see what it evaluates to

```
[61]: select(2)
```

```
[61]: 'A potato costs 1.20'
```

In this code, we're managing two separate lists, `menu` and `prices`, and address individual elements by their index. If the kiosk changes its menu, we have to *very carefully* edit both lists to avoid a mess:

```
[62]: # change the price of a product
prices[2] = 1.80          # what is product number 2???
# remove a product
del(menu[1])
del(prices[1])           # better use the same index or it'll be a mess
# add a product
menu.append("Water")
prices.append(1.50)
# replace a product
menu[0] = "Gummybears"   # which product did we replace???
prices[0] = 0.95
```

```
[63]: select(2)
```

```
[63]: 'A water costs 1.50'
```

Wouldn't it be convenient if we had some way of clearly associating a product with a price?

This is where *maps* come in. In software engineering, a *map* (which Python calls a ``dictionary'', we're going to use those terms interchangeably) has nothing to do with geography. A map is a data structure where keys are associated with values. Let's store the menu in a dictionary:

```
[64]: menu = {"Banana": 1.25, "Peach": 1.75, 'Potato': 1.20}
menu
```

```
[64]: {'Banana': 1.25, 'Peach': 1.75, 'Potato': 1.2}
```

Note that "Banana" is a *key*, while 1.25 is a *value*.

The dictionary allows us to retrieve values by their key. This is done with a notation similar to accessing list elements via their index, but instead we use a key. For example:

```
[65]: menu["Potato"]
```

```
[65]: 1.2
```

Now we can rewrite and call our selection function like so:

```
[66]: menu = {"Banana": 1.25, "Peach": 1.75, 'Potato': 1.20}
def select(selection):
    #if 0 <= selection < len(menu):
    if selection in menu:
        #return f"A {menu[selection].lower()} costs {prices[selection]:.2f}"
```

```

        return f"A {selection.lower()} costs {menu[selection]:.2f}"
    else:
        return "Invalid selection"
select("Banana")

```

[66]: 'A banana costs 1.25'

Note that to check whether a *key* exists in a dictionary, you can use the `in` operator. You cannot directly check whether a *value* exists in a dictionary.

```
[67]: "Peach" in menu
```

[67]: True

And if we want to change the menu, that's now easy. To change a price, we just assign a new value to an existing key:

```
[68]: menu["Banana"] = 6.55      # "Because of inflation!"
      select("Banana")
```

[68]: 'A banana costs 6.55'

Adding a new product looks exactly the same, just with a new key:

```
[69]: menu["Water"] = 1.50
      menu
```

[69]: {'Banana': 6.55, 'Peach': 1.75, 'Potato': 1.2, 'Water': 1.5}

To remove a product, we just delete the key (the value also gets deleted):

```
[70]: del(menu["Banana"])
      menu
```

[70]: {'Peach': 1.75, 'Potato': 1.2, 'Water': 1.5}

A few things to know about dictionaries in Python: * key/value pairs in a dictionary do not have any particular ordering (just like values in a set) * `{}` is the empty dictionary (you can add elements later) * any *key* can only appear once in a dictionary (that's the point), but multiple keys can reference the same *value* * the *values* in a dictionary can be of any arbitrary type * the *keys*, however, must be **immutable**

```
[71]: things = {}                # empty dictionary
      things[0] = "nil"          # 0 is the key, not an index
      things[0] = "zero"        # overwrites the value "nil"
      things["two"] = 2
      things[2] = 2              # same value can appear multiple times
      things["a list"] = [1, 2, 3] # values can be of mutable types
      things[('a', 'tuple', 123)] = 13 # even a tuple can be a key, as long as all the
      ↪ contents are immutable

```

```
# NOT possible because lists are mutable; they cannot be dictionary keys:
#things[['a', 'list']] = "invalid"

print(things[('a', 'tuple', 123)]) # that tuple really works as a key!
print(things)
```

13

```
{0: 'zero', 'two': 2, 2: 2, 'a list': [1, 2, 3], ('a', 'tuple', 123): 13}
```

You'll often want to only deal with the keys or the values of the dictionary. For this, simply call `.keys()` or `.values()`, respectively.

```
[72]: menu = {"Banana": 1.25, "Peach": 1.75, "Potato": 1.20}
      menu.keys()
```

```
[72]: dict_keys(['Banana', 'Peach', 'Potato'])
```

```
[73]: menu.values()
```

```
[73]: dict_values([1.25, 1.75, 1.2])
```

You can more or less ignore that this gives you `dict_keys` and `dict_values`, but you could convert them to lists:

```
[74]: list(menu.keys())
```

```
[74]: ['Banana', 'Peach', 'Potato']
```

Finally, you may want to get the key/value-pairs as a list of tuples. You can do this using `items()`:

```
[75]: menu.items()
```

```
[75]: dict_items([('Banana', 1.25), ('Peach', 1.75), ('Potato', 1.2)])
```

```
[76]: list(menu.items())
```

```
[76]: [('Banana', 1.25), ('Peach', 1.75), ('Potato', 1.2)]
```

Exercise

Implement a phonebook. Note the following: * The implementation should assume that contacts are stored in a dictionary where keys are the names of people and values are their phone numbers (as strings). * Implement a function `add_contact(phonebook, name, number)` which adds a new entry to `phonebook`, but only if `name` is not already in the phonebook. In the latter case, it should print "Already in phonebook" * Implement a function `delete_contact(phonebook, name)` which removes an entry from `phonebook` and ignores the case where the given name is not in `phonebook`. * Implement a function `find_contact(phonebook, name)` which *returns* the number of the given contact. If the contact is not in `phonebook`, it should *print* "Not found".

```
[77]: # exercise solution
my_contacts = {
    "Joe": "+41440002341",
    "Anne": "+41441112341",
}

def add_contact(phonebook, name, number):
    pass
def delete_contact(phonebook, name):
    pass
def find_contact(phonebook, name):
    pass

#add_contact(my_contacts, "Bob", "+41449999912")
#add_contact(my_contacts, "Alice", "+41440000012")
#delete_contact(my_contacts, "Bob")
#find_contact(my_contacts, "Alice")
```

5 List comprehensions

Sometimes, you have a collection of values, and you want to do the same thing to each of the values to create a new list. This is where Python uses *list comprehensions*.

```
[78]: names = ["bob", "alice", "tony"]
      [n.capitalize() for n in names]
```

```
[78]: ['Bob', 'Alice', 'Tony']
```

Note that `names` has **not** been changed! The list comprehension creates a *new* list with the transformed values:

```
[79]: capitalized_names = [n.capitalize() for n in names]
      print(names)
      print(capitalized_names)
```

```
['bob', 'alice', 'tony']
['Bob', 'Alice', 'Tony']
```

A few more examples:

```
[80]: [n*2 for n in range(10, 2, -2)]
```

```
[80]: [20, 16, 12, 8]
```

```
[81]: [f"{n} squared is {n**2}" for n in range(5)]
```

```
[81]: ['0 squared is 0',
      '1 squared is 1',
      '2 squared is 4',
```

```
'3 squared is 9',  
'4 squared is 16']
```

```
[82]: sum([i**2 for i in range(3,7)])
```

```
[82]: 86
```

When using a list comprehension, you can conveniently filter the input collection by appending an if condition at the end, for example:

```
[83]: [f"{n} squared is {n**2}" for n in range(10) if n % 2 == 0]
```

```
[83]: ['0 squared is 0',  
      '2 squared is 4',  
      '4 squared is 16',  
      '6 squared is 36',  
      '8 squared is 64']
```

```
[84]: [character for character in "Hello, World!" if character.isalpha()]
```

```
[84]: ['H', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o', 'W', 'o', 'r', 'l', 'd']
```

```
[85]: [character for character in "Hello, World!" if character.lower() in "aeiou"]
```

```
[85]: ['e', 'o', 'o']
```

```
[86]: sum([int(character) for character in "c1h291hgf93e" if character.isdigit()])
```

```
[86]: 25
```

This illustrates the general syntax:

```
result = [transform(_) for _ in existing_collection if test(_)]
```

return each new list element unpacked value(s) some iterable must return a bool

```
[87]: def cleanup(name):  
      return name.strip().capitalize()  
      def is_string(name):  
          return type(name) == str  
      [cleanup(name) for name in ["  alice  ", 123, False, "bob"] if is_string(name)]
```

```
[87]: ['Alice', 'Bob']
```

Exercise

Write an expression that determines the length of the longest word in a list of words.

```
[88]: # exercise solution
words = "The latter consisted simply of six hydrocoptic marzlevanes".split()
```

6 Dict comprehensions

The exact same concept exists for dictionaries as well. If you have a collection of values and would like to create a new dictionary from them, use a similar syntax. The important thing to understand is that instead of producing *one* value at a time, like for a list comprehensions, you're producing *key: value* pairs (*key: value*).

Instead of just creating one number at a time for the resulting list...

```
[89]: [n**2 for n in range(10)]
```

```
[89]: [0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]
```

...this example creates a key: value pair for the resulting dictionary:

```
[90]: {n: n**2 for n in range(10)}
```

```
[90]: {0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16, 5: 25, 6: 36, 7: 49, 8: 64, 9: 81}
```

Here's a dictionary where the keys are the characters that appear in a string and the values are how many times that character appears:

```
[91]: sentence = "Hello, world!"
      {char: sentence.count(char) for char in set(sentence)}
```

```
[91]: {'o': 2,
      ' ': 1,
      'l': 3,
      'w': 1,
      ',': 1,
      'H': 1,
      'r': 1,
      'e': 1,
      ',': 1,
      'd': 1}
```

Again, you can add a filter at the end. Here, we're ignoring vowels:

```
[92]: {char: sentence.count(char) for char in set(sentence) if char not in "aeiou"}
```

```
[92]: {'!': 1, 'l': 3, 'w': 1, ' ': 1, 'H': 1, 'r': 1, ',': 1, 'd': 1}
```

Here's our menu dictionary again:

```
[93]: menu = {"Banana": 1.25, "Peach": 1.75, 'Potato': 1.20}
```

Let's create a list of all products which start with a ``P``, using a list comprehension, using only the dictionary keys as input:


```
[94]: [product for product in menu.keys() if product.startswith("P")]
```

```
[94]: ['Peach', 'Potato']
```

Or, if we want to also keep the prices, then we use a dict comprehension with the same filter:

```
[95]: {product: price for product, price in menu.items() if product.startswith("P")}
```

```
[95]: {'Peach': 1.75, 'Potato': 1.2}
```

Note that we state `for product, price in menu.items()`, meaning each individual element that's being transformed will be a tuple like `("Peach", 1.75)`, which is why we can assign the two tuple values to the local variables `product` and `price`. Remember that you can assign multiple values on the left side of an expression, e.g.:

```
[96]: name, age = "Alice", 37
```

So `for product, price in menu.items()` is essentially the same thing, for each individual key-value pair in `menu.items()`

This illustrates the general syntax:

`result = {key(_): val(_) for _ in existing_collection if test(_)}`

both key and value can be
transformed, if needed

↑
unpacked
value(s)

↑
some iterable

↑
test value(s)

```
[97]: def cleanup_key(name):  
    return name.strip().capitalize()  
def number_as_binary(number):  
    return bin(number)  
def is_integer(value):  
    return type(value) == int  
{cleanup(name): number_as_binary(number) for name, number in {"bob": 3.5,  
    ↪ "alice": 3}.items() if is_integer(number)}
```

```
[97]: {'Alice': '0b11'}
```

Exercise

Write a dict comprehension that takes in a list of words and produces a dictionary mapping words to their length. All keys should be lower-case.

```
[98]: # exercise solution  
words = "How much wood would a woodchuck chuck if a woodchuck could chuck wood".  
    ↪ split()
```