

# Think Python

How to Think Like a Computer Scientist

2nd Edition, Version 2.4.0



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Allen Downey

Green Tea Press

Needham, Massachusetts

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Green Tea Press  
9 Washburn Ave  
Needham MA 02492

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The original form of this book is L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X source code. Compiling this L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X source has the effect of generating a device-independent representation of a textbook, which can be converted to other formats and printed.

The L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X source for this book is available from <http://www.thinkpython2.com>

# 序

## 本书由来

1999 年 1 月，我正准备以 Java 教学生编程入门，课程已讲过三次，但我沮丧依旧。因为多人无法完成目标，虽有个别人优秀，但整体效果令人难以接受。

依我看，问题出在书本教案上。书籍厚重，画蛇添足，细枝末节过多，编程思考不足。因此学生总是陷于困境：起步易，行进难，半途而废。学生学得囫囵吞枣，老师教得步步回首。

此次开课前两周，我决定自己写本书，目标如下：

- 少。十页易，百页难。
- 精。词汇早解释，术语早提炼。
- 缓。大而化小，小步慢跑。
- 专。聚焦思想，精简程序。

莫名其妙地选择了个题目像计算机专家一样思考 (*How to Think Like a Computer Scientist*)。

首版略显粗略，但是简单有效。学生知其然，而知其所以然，我也能够聚焦课堂于难点，题目和操作实践。绝知此事要躬行，实践是必须而困难的，但也是最有趣的。

我基于 GNU 自由文档许可证发布此书，也就是说，任何人都可以基于此协议，复制，修改，分享此书。

后续的事情就有趣了，弗吉尼亚州的 Jeff Elkner 高校教师采用了本书，并转换为了 Python 教材。通过他给我的 Python 版书籍，我有了一段不一样的 Python 学习之旅。同时基于绿茶出版商，于 2001 年，我首次发布了 Python 版。

2003 年，我开始在欧林学院任职，并且首次教授 Python。和教授 Java 相比，惊喜非凡，学生乐于学习并乐在其中。

自此，我不断优化此书，校正错误，提高案例水准，并增加一些新的例子和练习。

因此本书有个通俗的名字 *Think Python*。部分修改如下：

- 每章结尾增加了调试部分。重点讲解如何发现问题，减少错误，预防漏洞。
- 增加了一些习题。从简单测验到项目实操，均有涉及，同时，我给出了我的解决方案。
- 增加了一系列的案例：涵盖练习-解答-讨论三个阶段的训练。
- 探讨了程序开发流程以及基础设计模式。
- 增加了关于调试和算法解析的附录。

第二版 *Think Python* 有如下变化：

- 本书代码均已支持 Python 3.
- 网页版功能更加丰富，从而使初学者可以无需安装 Python 便可在浏览器运行。
- 对于章节 4.1 我将我常用的海龟绘图包 Swampy 换成了功能更丰富，应用更广泛的 `turtle` 包。
- 增加了新章节“利器”，主要介绍 Python 一些不常用但是高效的功能。

希望本书能对大家在学习编程知识，以及培养计算机专家一样思维模式方面有所裨益。

Allen B. Downey

欧林学院

## 致谢

感谢 Jeff Elkner 把这本 Java 书籍转换为 Python，并让我爱上了 Python.

感谢 Chris Meyers 写了 *How to Think Like a Computer Scientist* 部分章节。

感谢创建 GNU 自由文档协议以及创作共用的自由软件基金会。基于此协议以及知识共享协议，我才能和 Jeff，Chris 一起合作。

感谢整理 *How to Think Like a Computer Scientist* 的 Lulu 的编辑。

感谢耐心编辑 *Think Python* 的 O'Reilly Media 的朋友。

感谢使用本书早期版本的学生们，感谢所有提出建议和指正错误的朋友。

## 贡献者名单

过去数年，上百位读者为本书献策纠误。他们无私的奉献，令本书意义非凡。

如若您发现问题或者有好的提议，请发邮件到 [feedback@thinkpython.com](mailto:feedback@thinkpython.com)。一经采用，您将被加入贡献者名单 (除非要求匿名)。

建议您最好附上详细语句而不仅仅是章节和页码，以方便快速定位，感谢。

- Lloyd Hugh Allen 修正了 8.4 节的一处错误。
- Yvon Boulianne 修正了第 5 章的一处语义错误。
- Fred Bremmer 修正了 2.1 节的一处错误。
- Jonah Cohen 撰写了 Perl 脚本，将本书 LaTeX 源码转成了美观的 HTML。
- Michael Conlon 修正了第 2 章的一处语法错误，并优化第一章的一处格式，初次提出关于口译技术的讨论。
- Benoît Girard 修正了 5.6 节一个重大错误。
- Courtney Gleason 和 Katherine Smith 编写了 `horsebet.py`，这是本书早期版本的一个案例脚本，此程序现在仍然可以在网站找到。
- Lee Harr 修正了多个错误，所以应该把他列为主要编辑者。
- James Kaylin 作为学生，修正了大量错误。
- David Kershaw 修正了 3.10 节的 `catTwice` 函数错误。
- Eddie Lam 修正了第 1,2,3 章大量错误，同时修复了 `Makefile` 文件，从而我们可以创建索引。同时帮助我们建立了版本库。
- Man-Yong 修正了 2.4 节的一个样例。
- David Mayo 指出第 1 章的某个词语 “unconsciously” 应该替换为 “subconsciously”。
- Chris McAloon 修正了 3.9 和 3.10 节的错误。
- Matthew J. Moelter 作为一个长期贡献者，为本书提供了大量修订和建议。
- Simon Dicon Montford 发现了第 3 章的一个函数定义遗失和几个变量的命名错误。同时指出第 13 章的 `increment` 函数错误。
- John Ouzts 修正了第三章的 “return value” 的定义。
- Kevin Parks 为本书的发行优化提供了宝贵的意见。
- David Pool 对本书给了善意的鼓励，并指出了第一章词汇表中的一个错字。
- Michael Schmitt 修正了文件和异常章节的一个错误。
- Robin Shaw 指出 13.1 节中，使用了没有预先定义的 `printTime` 函数。
- Paul Sleigh 指出了第 7 章的一个错误，以及 Jonah Cohen’s 的生成 HTML 的 `Prel` 脚本中的一个错误。
- Craig T. Snýdal 在 Drew University 使用本书教学，并给变量命名和修正提供了宝贵意见。

- Ian Thomas 和他的学生在编程课程中使用本书，他们是首批检验本书后半部分的贡献者，同时他们修订了大量错误，提供了大量建议。
- Keith Verheyden 修正了第 3 章的一个错误。
- Peter Winstanley 指出了拉丁版第 3 章的一个长期存在的错误。
- Chris Wrobel 修正了 I/O 和异常章节的一个错误。
- Moshe Zadka 撰写了字典章节的早期草稿，为本书早期工作做出了杰出贡献。
- Christoph Zwerschke 指出多个修正和教学建议，并解释了 *gleich* 和 *selbe* 的不同。
- James Mayer 修正了一堆拼写和排版问题，甚至包括贡献列表中的两个问题。
- Hayden McAfee 解决了一个在两个例子之间令人困惑的差异。
- Angel Arnal 作为国际翻译组织的一员，参与了西班牙语的翻译，并在翻译过程中修正了英语版的一些错误。
- Tauhidul Hoque 和 Lex Berezhny 绘制了第一章的插图，并优化了其他章节插图。
- Michele Alzetta 博士修正了第 8 章的一个错误，并指出了 Fibonacci and Old Maid 案例的一些问题。
- Andy Mitchell 指出了第 1 章的一个错字，第 2 章的一个错误例子。
- Kalin Harvey 辨析了第 7 章的一个歧义，并修正了几个错字。
- Christopher P. Smith 修正了错字，并给予 Python2.2 进行了修改。
- David Hutchins 修正了序中的一个错词。
- Gregor Lingl 在奥地利的维也纳的一个高校教授 Python，他翻译了德语版，并在翻译过程中，修正了第 5 章的多个错误。
- Julie Peters 修正了序中的一个错字。
- Florin Oprina 优化了 `makeTime`，修正了 `printTime` 的错误，以及一个错字。
- D. J. Webre 辨析了第 3 章的一个歧义词。
- Ken 修正了 8,9,11 章的一堆错误。
- Ivo Wever 修正了第 3 章的错字和第 5 章的歧义词。
- Curtis Yanko 辨析了第 2 章一个歧义。
- Ben Logan 修正了本书 HTML 版的大量错误。
- Jason Armstrong 发现第 2 章遗漏的一个词汇。
- Louis Cordier 指出了第 16 章的一个描述和代码不一致的问题。
- Brian Cain 修正了第 2,3 章的数个错误。
- Rob Black 修正了一系列错误，以及优化了 Python2.2 版部分内容。
- Jean-Philippe Rey [巴黎中央理工学院] 针对 Python2.2 进行了部分优化。
- Jason Mader [乔治华盛顿大学] 提供了大量修改意见。
- Jan Gundtofte-Bruun 指出 "a error" 错误。



- Abel David 和 Alexis Dinno 指出"matrix"的复数是"matrices",而不是"matrixes"。这个错误存在多年,但是两人在同一天指出此错误,神奇啊!
- Charles Thayer 建议我们在一些声明末尾勿用分号,以及避免使用"argument"和"parameter"。
- Roger Sperberg 指出了第 3 章的一个逻辑问题。
- Sam Bull 指出第 2 章的一处歧义表述。
- Andrew Cheung 修正了"use before def."的两个实例。
- C. Corey Capel 指出“Third Theorem of Debugging”章节的遗漏词汇,以及第 4 章的一个错词。
- Alessandra 澄清了一些"Turtle"歧义。
- Wim Champagne 修正了字典例子中的一个"brain-o"错误。
- Douglas Wright 修正了 `arc` 中的一个"floor"错误。
- Jared Spindor 清理了数个画蛇添足。
- Lin Peiheng 提供了多个建议。
- Ray Hagtvedt 修正了两个错误,提出一个优化。
- Torsten Hübsch 指出 `Swampy` 中的一处不一致。
- Inga Petuhhov 修正了第 14 章的一个案例问题。
- Arne Babenhauserheide 修正了数个错误。
- Mark E. Casida 敏锐发现了多个重复词汇。
- Scott Tyler 补充了一处遗漏词汇,并修正了大量错误。
- Gordon Shephard 多次发送邮件,指出错误。
- Andrew Turner 指出第 8 章的一处错误。
- Adam Hobart 修正了 `arc` 中的一处错误。
- Daryl Hammond 和 Sarah Zimmerman 指出我过早使用 `math.pi`,同时 Zim 修正了一个拼写错误。
- George Sass 修复了调试一章的一处错误。
- Brian Bingham 提供 11.5 习题。
- Leah Engelbert-Fenton 指出我误用 `tuple` 为变量名的问题,以至于发现大量类似问题”use before def “。
- Joe Funke 指出一个拼写错误。
- Chao-chao Chen 指出 `Fibonacci` 例子中的一处不一致。
- Jeff Paine 指出了 `space` 和 `spam` 之间的不同。
- Lubos Pintes 指出了一处拼写错误。
- Gregg Lind 和 Abigail Heithoff 提供 14.3 习题。
- Max Hailperin 修正了大量错误,同时提供了大量建议。Max 是 *Concrete Abstractions* 一书的作者之一,读完此书,你可以阅读这本非凡之作。

- Chotipat Pornavalai 修正了错误信息中的一处问题。
- Stanislaw Antol 提供了大量建议。
- Eric Pashman 修正了 4-11 章的大量错误。
- Miguel Azevedo 发现了多个拼写错误。
- Jianhua Liu 修正了大量错误。
- Nick King 发现了一处词汇遗漏。
- Martin Zuther 提供了大量建议。
- Adam Zimmerman 指出了"instance"中的一处不一致问题，以及数个错误。
- Ratnakar Tiwari 提供了退化三角形说明脚注。
- Anurag Goel 提供了 `is_abecedarian` 的另外一种方案，并修正了多个错误。同时他知晓如何拼写 Jane Austen。
- Kelli Kratzer 指出了一处拼写错误。
- Mark Griffiths 澄清了第 3 章的一个令人困惑的案例。
- Roydan Ongie 指出了 Newton 方法的一处错误。
- Patryk Wolowiec 修正了 HTML 版中的一个错误。
- Mark Chonofsky 让我知晓了 Python3 的一个关键字。
- Russell Coleman 让我增长了几何知识。
- Nam Nguyen 指出了拼写错误，并指出我用装饰器模式前，未有说明。
- Stéphane Morin 修正了数个错误，并提供了多个建议。
- Paul Stoop 修正了 `uses_only` 中的一处拼写错误。
- Eric Bronner 指出了关于操作顺序的撰文中的一处歧义。
- Alexandros Gezerlis 为他提交的建议数量和质量设定了新的标准，深表谢意。
- Gray Thomas knows his right from his left.
- Giovanni Escobar Sosa 提供了大量修订。
- Daniel Neilson 修正了操作顺序处的一个错误。
- Will McGinnis 指出 `polyline` 在两处定义不同。
- Frank Hecker 指出某个习题异于规定，同时发现了多个异常链接。
- Animesh B 澄清了一个令人困惑的案例。
- Martin Caspersen 发现两处四舍五入的错误。
- Gregor Ulm 提供多个修订和建议。
- Dimitrios Tsirigkas 建议我修正一个练习。
- Carlos Tafur 提供了大量修订和建议。
- Martin Nordsletten 发现了习题答案中的一处异常。

- Sven Hoexter 指出某处误用 `input` 这一内置函数。
- Stephen Gregory 指出 Python3 中的 `cmp` 的问题。
- Ishwar Bhat 修订了关于费马大定理的描述。
- Andrea Zanella 将此书翻译为意大利文，同时修正了多个错误。
- 感谢 Melissa Lewis 和 Luciano Ramalho 对第二版提供的建议和帮助。
- 感谢来自 PythonAnywhere 的 Harry Percival 的帮助，使读者可以在浏览器运行 Python。
- Xavier Van Aubel 为第二版提供了多次修正。
- William Murray 纠正了取整的定义。
- Per Starbäck 令我了解了 Python3 中的通用换行符。
- Laurent Rosenfeld 和 Mihaela Rotaru 将本书翻译为了法文，并纠正了诸多错误。

另外为本书献策纠误的人包括：Czeslaw Czapla, Dale Wilson, Francesco Carlo Cimini, Richard Fursa, Brian McGhie, Lokesh Kumar Makani, Matthew Shultz, Viet Le, Victor Simeone, Lars O.D. Christensen, Swarup Sahoo, Alix Etienne, Kuang He, Wei Huang, Karen Barber, and Eric Ransom。



# 目录

|                    |          |
|--------------------|----------|
| 序                  | v        |
| <b>1 程序思维</b>      | <b>1</b> |
| 1.1 何为程序?          | 1        |
| 1.2 运行 Python      | 1        |
| 1.3 初识             | 2        |
| 1.4 算术运算           | 2        |
| 1.5 值和类型           | 3        |
| 1.6 规范语言和自然语言      | 4        |
| 1.7 调试             | 5        |
| 1.8 术语表            | 5        |
| 1.9 习题             | 6        |
| <b>2 变量、表达式和语句</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 2.1 变量赋值           | 7        |
| 2.2 变量名            | 7        |
| 2.3 表达式和语句         | 8        |
| 2.4 脚本模式           | 8        |
| 2.5 运算次序           | 9        |
| 2.6 字符串操作          | 10       |
| 2.7 注释             | 10       |
| 2.8 调试             | 11       |
| 2.9 术语表            | 11       |
| 2.10 习题            | 12       |

|          |                          |           |
|----------|--------------------------|-----------|
| <b>3</b> | <b>函数</b>                | <b>13</b> |
| 3.1      | Function calls . . . . . | 13        |
| 3.2      | 数学函数 . . . . .           | 14        |
| 3.3      | 组合 . . . . .             | 14        |
| 3.4      | 创建函数 . . . . .           | 15        |
| 3.5      | 定义和调用 . . . . .          | 16        |
| 3.6      | 运行流程 . . . . .           | 16        |
| 3.7      | 形参和实参 . . . . .          | 16        |
| 3.8      | 局部变量和参数 . . . . .        | 17        |
| 3.9      | 栈图 . . . . .             | 18        |
| 3.10     | 有值函数和无值函数 . . . . .      | 19        |
| 3.11     | 函数何用? . . . . .          | 19        |
| 3.12     | 调试 . . . . .             | 19        |
| 3.13     | 术语表 . . . . .            | 20        |
| 3.14     | 习题 . . . . .             | 21        |
| <br>     |                          |           |
| <b>4</b> | <b>案例分析: 接口设计</b>        | <b>23</b> |
| 4.1      | turtle 模块 . . . . .      | 23        |
| 4.2      | 简单重复 . . . . .           | 24        |
| 4.3      | 习题集 . . . . .            | 25        |
| 4.4      | 封装 . . . . .             | 25        |
| 4.5      | 泛化 . . . . .             | 25        |
| 4.6      | 接口设计 . . . . .           | 26        |
| 4.7      | 重构 . . . . .             | 27        |
| 4.8      | 开发计划 . . . . .           | 28        |
| 4.9      | 帮助文档 . . . . .           | 28        |
| 4.10     | 调试 . . . . .             | 29        |
| 4.11     | 术语表 . . . . .            | 29        |
| 4.12     | 习题集 . . . . .            | 29        |

---

|  |               |
|--|---------------|
| <b>5 条件和递归</b>                                       | <b>31</b>     |
| 5.1 Floor division and modulus . . . . .             | 31            |
| 5.2 Boolean expressions . . . . .                    | 32            |
| 5.3 Logical operators . . . . .                      | 32            |
| 5.4 Conditional execution . . . . .                  | 33            |
| 5.5 Alternative execution . . . . .                  | 33            |
| 5.6 Chained conditionals . . . . .                   | 33            |
| 5.7 Nested conditionals . . . . .                    | 34            |
| 5.8 Recursion . . . . .                              | 34            |
| 5.9 Stack diagrams for recursive functions . . . . . | 36            |
| 5.10 Infinite recursion . . . . .                    | 36            |
| 5.11 Keyboard input . . . . .                        | 37            |
| 5.12 Debugging . . . . .                             | 38            |
| 5.13 Glossary . . . . .                              | 38            |
| 5.14 Exercises . . . . .                             | 39            |
| <br><b>6 Fruitful functions</b>                      | <br><b>43</b> |
| 6.1 Return values . . . . .                          | 43            |
| 6.2 Incremental development . . . . .                | 44            |
| 6.3 Composition . . . . .                            | 46            |
| 6.4 Boolean functions . . . . .                      | 46            |
| 6.5 More recursion . . . . .                         | 47            |
| 6.6 Leap of faith . . . . .                          | 49            |
| 6.7 One more example . . . . .                       | 49            |
| 6.8 Checking types . . . . .                         | 50            |
| 6.9 Debugging . . . . .                              | 51            |
| 6.10 Glossary . . . . .                              | 52            |
| 6.11 Exercises . . . . .                             | 52            |

|          |                                     |           |
|----------|-------------------------------------|-----------|
| <b>7</b> | <b>Iteration</b>                    | <b>55</b> |
| 7.1      | Reassignment . . . . .              | 55        |
| 7.2      | Updating variables . . . . .        | 56        |
| 7.3      | The while statement . . . . .       | 56        |
| 7.4      | break . . . . .                     | 58        |
| 7.5      | Square roots . . . . .              | 58        |
| 7.6      | Algorithms . . . . .                | 59        |
| 7.7      | Debugging . . . . .                 | 60        |
| 7.8      | Glossary . . . . .                  | 60        |
| 7.9      | Exercises . . . . .                 | 61        |
| <b>8</b> | <b>Strings</b>                      | <b>63</b> |
| 8.1      | A string is a sequence . . . . .    | 63        |
| 8.2      | len . . . . .                       | 64        |
| 8.3      | Traversal with a for loop . . . . . | 64        |
| 8.4      | String slices . . . . .             | 65        |
| 8.5      | Strings are immutable . . . . .     | 66        |
| 8.6      | Searching . . . . .                 | 66        |
| 8.7      | Looping and counting . . . . .      | 67        |
| 8.8      | String methods . . . . .            | 67        |
| 8.9      | The in operator . . . . .           | 68        |
| 8.10     | String comparison . . . . .         | 68        |
| 8.11     | Debugging . . . . .                 | 69        |
| 8.12     | Glossary . . . . .                  | 70        |
| 8.13     | Exercises . . . . .                 | 71        |
| <b>9</b> | <b>Case study: word play</b>        | <b>73</b> |
| 9.1      | Reading word lists . . . . .        | 73        |
| 9.2      | Exercises . . . . .                 | 74        |
| 9.3      | Search . . . . .                    | 74        |
| 9.4      | Looping with indices . . . . .      | 76        |
| 9.5      | Debugging . . . . .                 | 77        |
| 9.6      | Glossary . . . . .                  | 77        |
| 9.7      | Exercises . . . . .                 | 78        |



|   |           |
|---|-----------|
| <b>10 Lists</b>                                       | <b>79</b> |
| 10.1 A list is a sequence . . . . .                   | 79        |
| 10.2 Lists are mutable . . . . .                      | 79        |
| 10.3 Traversing a list . . . . .                      | 81        |
| 10.4 List operations . . . . .                        | 81        |
| 10.5 List slices . . . . .                            | 81        |
| 10.6 List methods . . . . .                           | 82        |
| 10.7 Map, filter and reduce . . . . .                 | 83        |
| 10.8 Deleting elements . . . . .                      | 84        |
| 10.9 Lists and strings . . . . .                      | 84        |
| 10.10 Objects and values . . . . .                    | 85        |
| 10.11 Aliasing . . . . .                              | 86        |
| 10.12 List arguments . . . . .                        | 87        |
| 10.13 Debugging . . . . .                             | 88        |
| 10.14 Glossary . . . . .                              | 90        |
| 10.15 Exercises . . . . .                             | 90        |
| <b>11 Dictionaries</b>                                | <b>93</b> |
| 11.1 A dictionary is a mapping . . . . .              | 93        |
| 11.2 Dictionary as a collection of counters . . . . . | 94        |
| 11.3 Looping and dictionaries . . . . .               | 96        |
| 11.4 Reverse lookup . . . . .                         | 96        |
| 11.5 Dictionaries and lists . . . . .                 | 97        |
| 11.6 Memos . . . . .                                  | 98        |
| 11.7 Global variables . . . . .                       | 100       |
| 11.8 Debugging . . . . .                              | 101       |
| 11.9 Glossary . . . . .                               | 102       |
| 11.10 Exercises . . . . .                             | 102       |

|  |            |
|--|------------|
| <b>12 Tuples</b>                               | <b>105</b> |
| 12.1 Tuples are immutable . . . . .            | 105        |
| 12.2 Tuple assignment . . . . .                | 106        |
| 12.3 Tuples as return values . . . . .         | 107        |
| 12.4 Variable-length argument tuples . . . . . | 107        |
| 12.5 Lists and tuples . . . . .                | 108        |
| 12.6 Dictionaries and tuples . . . . .         | 109        |
| 12.7 Sequences of sequences . . . . .          | 111        |
| 12.8 Debugging . . . . .                       | 111        |
| 12.9 Glossary . . . . .                        | 112        |
| 12.10 Exercises . . . . .                      | 113        |
| <b>13 Case study: data structure selection</b> | <b>115</b> |
| 13.1 Word frequency analysis . . . . .         | 115        |
| 13.2 Random numbers . . . . .                  | 116        |
| 13.3 Word histogram . . . . .                  | 117        |
| 13.4 Most common words . . . . .               | 118        |
| 13.5 Optional parameters . . . . .             | 118        |
| 13.6 Dictionary subtraction . . . . .          | 119        |
| 13.7 Random words . . . . .                    | 120        |
| 13.8 Markov analysis . . . . .                 | 120        |
| 13.9 Data structures . . . . .                 | 122        |
| 13.10 Debugging . . . . .                      | 123        |
| 13.11 Glossary . . . . .                       | 124        |
| 13.12 Exercises . . . . .                      | 124        |
| <b>14 Files</b>                                | <b>127</b> |
| 14.1 Persistence . . . . .                     | 127        |
| 14.2 Reading and writing . . . . .             | 127        |
| 14.3 Format operator . . . . .                 | 128        |
| 14.4 Filenames and paths . . . . .             | 129        |
| 14.5 Catching exceptions . . . . .             | 130        |

|           |                                       |            |
|-----------|---------------------------------------|------------|
| 14.6      | Databases . . . . .                   | 131        |
| 14.7      | Pickling . . . . .                    | 131        |
| 14.8      | Pipes . . . . .                       | 132        |
| 14.9      | Writing modules . . . . .             | 133        |
| 14.10     | Debugging . . . . .                   | 134        |
| 14.11     | Glossary . . . . .                    | 134        |
| 14.12     | Exercises . . . . .                   | 135        |
| <b>15</b> | <b>Classes and objects</b>            | <b>137</b> |
| 15.1      | Programmer-defined types . . . . .    | 137        |
| 15.2      | Attributes . . . . .                  | 138        |
| 15.3      | Rectangles . . . . .                  | 139        |
| 15.4      | Instances as return values . . . . .  | 140        |
| 15.5      | Objects are mutable . . . . .         | 140        |
| 15.6      | Copying . . . . .                     | 141        |
| 15.7      | Debugging . . . . .                   | 142        |
| 15.8      | Glossary . . . . .                    | 143        |
| 15.9      | Exercises . . . . .                   | 143        |
| <b>16</b> | <b>Classes and functions</b>          | <b>145</b> |
| 16.1      | Time . . . . .                        | 145        |
| 16.2      | Pure functions . . . . .              | 145        |
| 16.3      | Modifiers . . . . .                   | 147        |
| 16.4      | Prototyping versus planning . . . . . | 148        |
| 16.5      | Debugging . . . . .                   | 149        |
| 16.6      | Glossary . . . . .                    | 150        |
| 16.7      | Exercises . . . . .                   | 150        |
| <b>17</b> | <b>Classes and methods</b>            | <b>151</b> |
| 17.1      | Object-oriented features . . . . .    | 151        |
| 17.2      | Printing objects . . . . .            | 152        |
| 17.3      | Another example . . . . .             | 153        |

|           |   |            |
|-----------|---|------------|
| 17.4      | A more complicated example . . . . .            | 154        |
| 17.5      | The init method . . . . .                       | 154        |
| 17.6      | The <code>__str__</code> method . . . . .       | 155        |
| 17.7      | Operator overloading . . . . .                  | 155        |
| 17.8      | Type-based dispatch . . . . .                   | 156        |
| 17.9      | Polymorphism . . . . .                          | 157        |
| 17.10     | Debugging . . . . .                             | 158        |
| 17.11     | Interface and implementation . . . . .          | 159        |
| 17.12     | Glossary . . . . .                              | 159        |
| 17.13     | Exercises . . . . .                             | 160        |
| <b>18</b> | <b>Inheritance</b>                              | <b>161</b> |
| 18.1      | Card objects . . . . .                          | 161        |
| 18.2      | Class attributes . . . . .                      | 162        |
| 18.3      | Comparing cards . . . . .                       | 163        |
| 18.4      | Decks . . . . .                                 | 164        |
| 18.5      | Printing the deck . . . . .                     | 164        |
| 18.6      | Add, remove, shuffle and sort . . . . .         | 165        |
| 18.7      | Inheritance . . . . .                           | 166        |
| 18.8      | Class diagrams . . . . .                        | 167        |
| 18.9      | Debugging . . . . .                             | 168        |
| 18.10     | Data encapsulation . . . . .                    | 169        |
| 18.11     | Glossary . . . . .                              | 170        |
| 18.12     | Exercises . . . . .                             | 171        |
| <b>19</b> | <b>利器</b>                                       | <b>173</b> |
| 19.1      | Conditional expressions . . . . .               | 173        |
| 19.2      | List comprehensions . . . . .                   | 174        |
| 19.3      | Generator expressions . . . . .                 | 175        |
| 19.4      | <code>any</code> and <code>all</code> . . . . . | 175        |
| 19.5      | Sets . . . . .                                  | 176        |
| 19.6      | Counters . . . . .                              | 177        |

|   |            |
|---|------------|
| 目录  | xxi        |
| 19.7 defaultdict . . . . .                        | 178        |
| 19.8 Named tuples . . . . .                       | 179        |
| 19.9 Gathering keyword args . . . . .             | 180        |
| 19.10 Glossary . . . . .                          | 181        |
| 19.11 Exercises . . . . .                         | 181        |
| <b>A Debugging</b>                                | <b>183</b> |
| A.1 Syntax errors . . . . .                       | 183        |
| A.2 Runtime errors . . . . .                      | 185        |
| A.3 Semantic errors . . . . .                     | 188        |
| <b>B Analysis of Algorithms</b>                   | <b>191</b> |
| B.1 Order of growth . . . . .                     | 192        |
| B.2 Analysis of basic Python operations . . . . . | 194        |
| B.3 Analysis of search algorithms . . . . .       | 195        |
| B.4 Hashtables . . . . .                          | 196        |
| B.5 Glossary . . . . .                            | 199        |



# 第1章 程序思维

本书期望能带你做到像计算机专家一样思考。这意味着你要整合数学，工程和自然科学的知识去综合思考。比如数学，计算机专家用专业语言去表达观点 (尤其关于计算)。比如工程师，他们设计原件，组装组件，构建系统，权衡各种方案。比如科学家，他们观察复杂系统行为，小心假设，积极求证。

计算机专家最重要的能力是**解决问题**。解决问题意味着要分析问题，提出创造性解决方案，并能清晰准确表述。事实证明，学习编程是锻炼解决问题能力的极好机会。这也是本章叫做程序思维的缘由。

一方面，我们将学习编程这一技能，另一方面，我们将利用编程技能来实现目标。随着不断进步，前景将越来越明朗。

## 1.1 何为程序？

**程序** 简而言之，就是一堆执行运算的指令。运算可以是数学计算，例如求解方程或多项式。也可以是符号运算，例如检索或者替换文档中的语句词汇。也可以是图形运算，比如处理图片，播放视频。

不同语言虽各有特色，但基础指令相差无几：

**输入：**从键盘，文件，网络或者其他设备中获取数据。

**输出：**将数据显示于屏幕，保存至文件，发送到网络等。

**数学计算：**加减乘除等数学运算。

**条件选择：**只能在命运分支的安排下，被推动前进。

**循环执行：**在宿命轮回中不断改变，以摆脱命运的枷锁。

无论相信与否，基础指令不过这些。不管是哪种编程语言，也无论何等复杂，都由这些基础指令构成。所以你便了解了何为编程，那便是将庞大复杂的任务不断分解，不断细化，直至细化为这几个基础指令为止。

## 1.2 运行 Python

巧妇难为无米之炊，运行 Python 程序必然需要先安装 Python 和其他软件，熟悉操作系统和命令行的人还好，对于初学者，同时学习操作系统和编程，必然是件痛苦万分的事情。

我建议先在浏览器上进行 Python 编程学习，后续再按步骤进行 Python 安装。

在线运行 Python 代码的网站很多，如果无从下手，我推荐 PythonAnywhere。入门指导可以查阅<http://tinyurl.com/thinkpython2e>

本书有两个版本，分别是 Python 2 和 Python 3，内容相似，可以互相借鉴。细微差异，初学时需要关注。本书主要面向 Python 3，同时包括了一些关于 Python 2 的内容。

运行 Python 代码的程序叫做 Python 解释器。通常点击图标或者在命令行输入 `python` 来启动程序。启动后，可以看到如下输出：

```
Python 3.4.0 (default, Jun 19 2015, 14:20:21)
[GCC 4.8.2] on linux
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>>
```

前三行主要是 Python 解释器信息以及操作系统信息，内容因人而异。注意版本信息，比如 3.4.0，第一位的 3 表示此解释器版本是 Python 3，如果是 2，则表示 Python 2。

最后一行是个提示符，表示一切就绪，只待代码。如果输入一行代码，并敲击 Enter 键，解释器就会显示运行结果。

```
>>> 1 + 1
2
```

到此，你应该学会了如何启动 Python 解释器，并运行代码了。

## 1.3 初识

通常，学习一门新的编程语言，遇到的第一个程序就是“Hello, World!”。Python 语言这样表示：

```
>>> print('Hello, World!')
```

这就是 **print 语法**，不要误会是打印到纸上，而是显示在屏幕上，结果就是这个语句：

```
Hello, World!
```

单引号表示语句的开始和结束，并不会显示在输出上。

括号表示 `print` 是个函数，后续章节 3 介绍。

Python 2 中，`print` 语法明显不同，它不是函数，所以后边不会有括号。

```
>>> print 'Hello, World!'
```

这种语言版本之间的差异需要注意，但是当前，我们可以开始学习 Python 编程了。

## 1.4 算术运算

讲完了“Hello, World”，我们讲讲算术。Python 通过**运算符**实现加减乘除等计算。

运算符 `+`、`-` 和 `*` 分别表示加、减和乘法，参看以下样例：

```
>>> 40 + 2
42
>>> 43 - 1
42
>>> 6 * 7
42
```



运算符 `/` 表示除法:

```
>>> 84 / 2
42.0
```

对于结果为 `42.0`，而不是 `42` 的疑惑，下章解释。

运算符 `**` 表示幂运算，表示一个数字的次方。

```
>>> 6**2 + 6
42
```

运算符 `^` 在某些编程语言中表示幂运算，但是 Python 中，表示位运算的“异或”操作。如果不了解位运算，那下面的例子只会让你困惑万分。

```
>>> 6 ^ 2
4
```

本书不准备讲解位运算，如果想了解，可以前往 <http://wiki.python.org/moin/BitwiseOperators>。

## 1.5 值和类型

**值** 是程序的基本要素，例如字母，数字。前文看到的 `2`，`42.0`，以及 `'Hello, World!'`，都属于值。

而这些值分属不同**类型**: `2` 是**整型**，`42.0` 是**浮点数**，而 `'Hello, World!'` 是**字符串**，也就是一堆字符的集合。

想知道值是何种类型，输入命令：

```
>>> type(2)
<class 'int'>
>>> type(42.0)
<class 'float'>
>>> type('Hello, World!')
<class 'str'>
```

” `class` “表示类别，值的类别就是类型。

所以整数属于整型，字符串属于字符型，浮点数属于浮点型。

`'2'` 和 `'42.0'` 是什么类型呢？看似是数字，其实是被引号括起来的字符串。

```
>>> type('2')
<class 'str'>
>>> type('42.0')
<class 'str'>
```

哈哈，是字符串吧。

当我们想使用很大的整数时，一般会在数字间加逗号分隔，类似 `1,000,000`。在 Python 中，这虽然不合整型之规，却容易理解：

```
>>> 1,000,000
(1, 0, 0)
```

很神奇！Python 解释器把 `1,000,000` 当作了一串逗号分隔的整数。后续我们还会多次接触这种格式。

## 1.6 规范语言和自然语言

**自然语言** 指人们沟通需要的语言，比如英语，西班牙语，法语。这通常是人类自然进化而来，并不是出于特定目的而创造的。

**规范语言** 指人们为了特定目的而创造的特定格式的语言，比如数学家们发明的数学符号，可以很方便表示数字和符号的关系。而化学家们发明的分子结构式也是一种规范语言，更重要的是：

**人们为了表示机器运算而创造的规范语言就是编程语言。**

规范语言一般有严格的**句法**来管理语句的结构。例如，数学表示， $3 + 3 = 6$ 是正确的，而 $3+ = 3\$6$ 则不正确。又比如在化学中， $H_2O$ 正确，而 $_2Zz$ 则明显有问题。

句法包括两部分，**词汇**和**规则**。词汇是语言的基本，比如单词，数字和化学元素等。 $3+ = 3\$6$ 的问题在于， $\$$ 在数学中不是一个合法的词汇（据我所知）。同样， $_2Zz$ 在化学领域不正确，也是因为 $Zz$ 无法对应相应的元素。

句法的另外一个要素是**规则**，即把词汇有效组织起来所遵循的结构。公式 $3 + /3$ 不合句法，不是因为 $+$ 和 $/$ 不正确，而是因为先后顺序问题。同样，上述化学公式不仅仅是词汇胡编乱造，其规则也有问题，元素下标不能在元素之前，而应放在后边。

This is @ well-structured Engli\$h sentence with invalid t\*kens in it. 这句话每个字母（词汇）都正确，但是拼在一起，就不正确了。

我们读一句话或者一个公式的时候，会自觉地分析句子结构（自然语言中往往是潜意识行为）。这个分析的过程，叫做**解析**。

规范语言和自然语言在词汇，规则以及句法等方面较为相似，但是也有很多不同之处：

**歧义：**自然语言的表述不太精确，人人往往需要上下文和相关情境确定对方的意思。但是规范语言中，句法确定，意思清晰，不会出现同一句话表示不同意思的情况。

**冗余：**为了让对方捕捉到自己的真实意思，避免误会，自然语言中往往需要补充更多相关信息，来辅助沟通。而规范语言则更加简炼而精确。

**比喻：**自然语言中充满了俗语和比喻，我说“The penny dropped”，不是说谁钱掉了（比喻恍然大悟）。规范语言则没有类似的表述。

我们生活在自然语言的环境下，突然要适应规范语言，有很多困难需要克服。而两者的不同，就好比诗词和散文：

**诗词：**关注平仄，并用大量表意来渲染中心思想，从而引起情感共鸣。

**散文：**用词浅显直白，行文多有章法，表意使用较少，相比于诗词，易于理解。

**程序：**电脑程序的编写不允许有任何比喻象征等手法，必须遵照句法结构，不可逾矩一丝。

规范语言相比自然语言，更加细致繁密，所以需要花更多时间阅读理解。其次，句法结构也很重要，所以不要总是从上往下，从左往右地阅读，而要在大脑中分析代码，识别特有词汇，解读句法规则。最后，要格外关注细节，单词错误，标点缺失，这些问题在自然语言的使用中可能影响不大，但在规范语言中，却是致命错误。

## 1.7 调试

是人就会犯错。由于一些历史原因，编程中的异常或者错误，叫做 **bugs(臭虫)**，这里用到了比喻，一般解释为 **bugs(异常)**。而跟踪异常，定位问题的过程叫做 **debugging(调试)**。

编程，尤其是调试，往往会刺激你。如果你困扰于一个难题，那往往会经历愤怒，沮丧和绝望。

已有证据表明，人们对待计算机的方式，和对待他人的方式一样。计算机运行正常，我们就当其为伙伴，助手，如果运行异常了，就待其为无礼之人。(Reeves and Nass, *The Media Equation: How People Treat Computers, Television, and New Media Like Real People and Places*).

对于计算机要有一定心理准备，把它当作一个算术快速而精确，但是缺乏同理心以及大局观的雇员。

你需要做好管理之责：扬机器之长而避其短，做情绪的主人，而非仆人。

调试过程是令人无比沮丧的，但这又是编程路上最有用的技能。每章末尾都会有关于调试的一些建议，希望有所帮助。

## 1.8 术语表

**解决问题 (problem solving):** 提出问题，分析问题，解决问题的过程。

**高阶语言 (high-level language):** 类似 Python 这种便于人类读写，对人友好的编程语言。

**底层语言 (low-level language):** 便于计算机运行的语言，也叫“机器语言”或者“汇编语言”。

**可移植 (portability):** 一个程序可运行于多种设备的特性。

**解释器 (interpret):** 读取并执行代码的程序。

**提示符 (prompt):** 解释器声明准备接收输入信息的提示。

**程序 (program):** 运算指令集。

**打印语句 (print statement):** Python 中输出到屏幕的指令。

**运算符 (operator):** 类似加减乘除的符号。

**值 (value):** 程序操作的基本元素，例如数字或者字符串。

**类型 (type):** 值的集合。目前遇到的有整数集合 (type int)，浮点数集合 (type float) 以及字符串集合 (type str)。

**整型 (integer):** 整数类型。

**浮点型 (floating-point):** 小数表示的数字类型。

**字符串 (string):** 字符序列类型

**自然语言 (natural language):** 人类沟通用的语言。

**规范语言 (formal language):** 人类因特定目标而创造的语言。例如数学语言，编程语言；所有的编程语言都是规范语言。

**词汇 (token):** 程序中的基本元素，类似自然语言中的单词。

**句法 (syntax):** 程序的结构规范。

**解析 (parse):** 分析句法结构并检验程序。

**异常 (bug):** 程序中的错误。

**调试 (debugging):** 定位异常并解决的过程。

## 1.9 习题

**Exercise 1.1.** 工欲善其事，必先利其器，搭配电脑实操来学习本书，效果更好。

学习新知识更有效的方式是不断试错，不断思考。比如“*Hello, World*”的程序，试一试双引号只写一半是否可以？不写双引号，会怎么样？以及 `print` 拼错了，又会如何？

这种学习过程中的大胆假设，小心求证，助益颇多。同时能够快速了解编程中的各种错误信息。所以，当下有准备地试错，远胜过将来意外犯错。

1. `print` 使用时，如果丢掉了半个括号，甚至全部括号，会怎样？
2. 当输出字符串时，遗落了半个双引号，或者全部双引号，会如何？
3. 我们可以用负号表示负数 `-2`。如果像 `2+-2` 在数字前又加上一个加号呢？
4. 数学表示中，首位补零很正常，比如 `09`。但是在 *Python* 世界中，如果输入 `011` 会出来什么结果呢？
5. 如果两个值之间没有运算符会如何？

**Exercise 1.2.** 启动 *Python* 解释器，进行以下运算：

1. 42 分 42 秒总共有多少秒？
2. 10 千米是多少英里？提示：1 英里 = 1.61 千米。
3. 如果用 42 分 42 秒跑了 10 千米，那平均速度是多少（每英里的耗时）？平均速度又是多少（每小时英里数）？

## 第2章 变量、表达式和语句

编程语言的强大和高效，其中一方面便体现在操作**变量**。变量名是指向值的一个名字。

### 2.1 变量赋值

创建新的变量，并给其一个值，叫做**赋值**：

```
>>> message = 'And now for something completely different'
>>> n = 17
>>> pi = 3.1415926535897932
```

上面的例子提供了三个赋值语句。第一个是将一句话赋值给了名为 `message` 的变量；第二个是将整数 17 赋值给了 `n`；第三个是将  $\pi$  的近似值赋给了 `pi`。

形象表示变量的一个常用手段是，写好变量，然后画个箭头执行对应的值。这种形象展示变量所处的状态 (所对应的值) 的图叫做**状态图**，图 2.1 便是上面示例的状态图。

### 2.2 变量名

程序工程师一般会为变量起个容易理解记忆的名字，使人一看即知用途。

变量名可长可短，包含字母和数字，但不能以数字开头，大小写均可用，但是方便起见，建议只用小写字母。

变量名也可以使用 `_`，多用在形如 `your_name` 或 `airspeed_of_unladen_swallow` 这种多单词命名的变量名中。

如果变量名包含了非法字符，就会句法错误：

```
>>> 76trombones = 'big parade'
SyntaxError: invalid syntax
>>> more@ = 1000000
```



```
message —> 'And now for something completely different'
      n —> 17
      pi —> 3.1415926535897932
```

图 2.1: State diagram.

```
SyntaxError: invalid syntax
>>> class = 'Advanced Theoretical Zymurgy'
SyntaxError: invalid syntax
```

变量名 `76trombones` 错误在于数字开头，`more@` 包含了不合法字符 `@`。那么 `class` 为什么也不正确呢？

这是因为 `class` 是 Python 的一个**关键字**。解释器用关键字 (预留字) 来识别解析代码，所以关键字不能作为变量名使用。

Python 3 包含以下关键字：

|                     |                       |                      |                       |                     |
|---------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| <code>False</code>  | <code>class</code>    | <code>finally</code> | <code>is</code>       | <code>return</code> |
| <code>None</code>   | <code>continue</code> | <code>for</code>     | <code>lambda</code>   | <code>try</code>    |
| <code>True</code>   | <code>def</code>      | <code>from</code>    | <code>nonlocal</code> | <code>while</code>  |
| <code>and</code>    | <code>del</code>      | <code>global</code>  | <code>not</code>      | <code>with</code>   |
| <code>as</code>     | <code>elif</code>     | <code>if</code>      | <code>or</code>       | <code>yield</code>  |
| <code>assert</code> | <code>else</code>     | <code>import</code>  | <code>pass</code>     |                     |
| <code>break</code>  | <code>except</code>   | <code>in</code>      | <code>raise</code>    |                     |

你无须刻意背诵这些关键字。在多数开发环境中，关键字会以特殊颜色标识，所以如果误用作变量名时，很容易发觉。

## 2.3 表达式和语句

**表达式** 是值，变量以及运算符的集合。值本身可以认为是表达式，同样，变量本身也是。所以下面都可以认为是合法的表达式：

```
>>> 42
42
>>> n
17
>>> n + 25
42
```

当根据提示符输入表达式时，解释器会进行**估算**，获取表达式的值。上例中，`n` 的值是 17，`n+25` 的值就是 42。

**语句** 是代码的基本有效单位，例如新建变量或者输出值。

```
>>> n = 17
>>> print(n)
```

第一行是给 `n` 赋值的赋值语句，第二行是显示 `n` 结果的输出语句。

键入语句，解释器根据语句规则**运行**，通常，语句没有值 (**注意: 表达式有值**)。

## 2.4 脚本模式

截至当前，我们一直使用**交互模式**运行代码，此模式需要不断和解释器交互。入门学习采用交互模式尚可行，但代码行数一旦增多，使用就会很麻烦。

替代方案是将代码保存至**脚本文件**，然后解释器在**脚本模式** 运行文件。通俗来说，Python 脚本以 `.py` 结尾。

了解了如何创建以及运行脚本,便可开启后续学习。如果没有配套设施,建议继续采用 PythonAnywhere。同时,我已在<http://tinyurl.com/thinkpython2e> 撰写了运行脚本模式的相关步骤。

Python 提供两种模式,在写入脚本前,可以采用交互模式进行部分语句的验证。但是两种模式多有差异,会令人无所适从。

例如,以 Python 进行运算,可以键入:

```
>>> miles = 26.2
>>> miles * 1.61
42.182
```

首行代码给 `miles` 赋值,但是不显示结果。第二行是表达式,解释器会解析执行,并显示结果,约为 42 公里。

但是在脚本模式同样执行,不会获得输出结果。表达式在脚本模式不会输出结果,如果需要显示,可以采用 `print` 语句:

```
miles = 26.2
print(miles * 1.61)
```

初次使用,会感到奇怪。为了更深入了解,可以在 Python 解释器键入以下内容,看看现象:

```
5
x = 5
x + 1
```

将同样语句放入脚本并运行,会如何? 如果将每个表达式都放入 `print` 语句中,再次运行,又会如何?

## 2.5 运算次序

当表达式含有多个运算符时,执行顺序主要基于**运算次序**。对于数学运算符,Python 也遵循数学惯例。本书采用缩写 **PEMDAS** 来辅助记忆以下规则:

- 括号 (Parentheses) 优先,可以据此调整运算次序。因为括号中的表达式会优先加工,所以  $2 * (3-1)$  为 4,  $(1+1)**(5-2)$  为 8。同时可以采用括号提高表达式的可读性。比如,  $(minute * 100) / 60$  加上括号,结果虽然没有变化,但是可读性提高不少。
- 幂运算 (Exponentiation) 相对优先级更高。所以  $1 + 2**3$  等于 9 而非 27,  $2 * 3**2$  等于 18 而非 36。
- 乘法 (Multiplication) 和除法 (Division) 优先于加法 (Addition) 和减法 (Subtraction)。所以  $2*3-1$  等于 5 而非 4,  $6+4/2$  等于 8 而非 5。
- 对于同优先级的运算,遵照自左向右的顺序 (除幂运算)。在  $degrees / 2 * pi$  中,先执行除法运算,获得的结果再乘以 `pi`。如果想除以  $2\pi$ ,可以使用括号处理或者改写为  $degrees / 2 / pi$ 。

不必强求记忆这些运算符的优先级,碰到比较复杂的表达式,采用括号会方便很多。

## 2.6 字符串操作

通常，字符串甚至类似数字的字符串的运算，一般不能使用数学运算符，下面的表达式均是非法运算：

```
'chinese'-'food'      'eggs'/'easy'      'third'*'a charm'
```

但是有两个例外，+ 和 \*。

+ 可以实现**字符串拼接**，也就是首尾相接。例如：

```
>>> first = 'throat'
>>> second = 'warbler'
>>> first + second
throatwarbler
```

\* 同样可以作用于字符串，表示堆叠。例如 'Spam'\*3 表示 'SpamSpamSpam'。如果一个值是字符串，另外一个值就需要是整数。

+ 和 \* 在字符串上的使用类似数值运算中的作用。4\*3 即是 4+4+4，而 'Spam'\*3 也等于 'Spam'+ 'Spam'+ 'Spam'。但是，数字的加法和乘法与字符串的拼接和堆叠在某方面的应用有明显不同。你是否可以想到，加法运算正常，而字符串拼接却意义大不一样的场景？

## 2.7 注释

随着代码量越来越大，越来越复杂，阅读理解也越来越困难。规范语言使用时又是密密麻麻，对着满页代码而明白其逻辑和作用，便异常艰难。

所以，在程序代码中加入一些自然语言来进行解释说明其作用，便显得异常重要。这些解释说明，便叫做**注释**，一般以井号 (#) 开头：

```
# 计算小时数的百分比
percentage = (minute * 100) / 60
```

此例中，注释独占一行。你也可以把注释写在代码末尾：

```
percentage = (minute * 100) / 60      # 小时数百分比
```

代码中所有 # 开头的行，在执行过程中都会被忽略。

编码中实现特殊逻辑时，注释显得尤为重要。要记住，说明编码的原因，远胜于讲述代码的作用。

下面这条注释便显得多余：

```
v = 5      # assign 5 to v
```

而下面的注释则包含了未体现在代码中的有用信息：

```
v = 5      # 速度(米/秒)
```

好的变量命名可以减少注释的使用，但是变量名过长，又显得代码繁杂而难以阅读，所以如何取舍，需要权衡。



## 2.8 调试

一般程序中会出现三种异常：句法错误，运行时错误以及语义错误。有效区分三者差异，可以大大提高定位速度。

**句法错误：**“句法”是指代码结构以及使用规范。例如，括号必须成对出现，`(1 + 2)` 正确，而 `8)` 就存在句法错误。

如果程序存在句法错误，Python 会直接报错并退出执行，程序便无法运行。开始学习编程时，需要耗费大量精力来跟踪句法错误。随着经验增长，此类错误会越来越少，而定位会越来越快。

**运行时错误：**运行时错误只有在程序开始运行后才会出现。这些错误也叫作**异常**，因为一般表示异常或者坏的事情发生了。

本书前面几章的程序较为简单，运行时错误也较少遇到，所以想涉足其中，还需一段时间。

**语义错误：**第三种错误是“语义错误”，意如其字。如果代码中存在语义错误，代码不会报错，只是无法得到预期的结果。具体来说，便是会按照你的指示去做。

语义错误的识别很棘手，需要观察输出，回溯代码，才能确定其逻辑。

## 2.9 术语表

**变量 (variable):** 标识值的名称。

**赋值 (assignment):** 给变量赋值的语句。

**状态图 (state diagram):** 一堆变量和值的指向图。

**关键字 (keyword):** 编程语言用来解析代码的预留字，像 `if`, `def` 和 `while`，均不能作为变量名使用。

**操作数 (operand):** 运算符操作的单一值对象。

**表达式 (expression):** 变量，运算符以及值的集合，共同来表示单一结果。

**求值 (evaluate):** 通过运行表达式来产生值，从而简化表达式的过程。

**语句 (statement):** 表示命令或者执行的代码块。目前遇到的语句包括赋值语句以及打印语句。

**执行 (execute):** 运行代码语句。

**交互模式 (interactive mode):** 在 Python 解释器中根据提示符进行代码输入的模式。

**脚本模式 (script mode):** 用 Python 解释器读取脚本并运行代码的模式。

**脚本 (script):** 存储代码的文件。

**运算次序 (order of operations):** 包含多运算符和操作数的表达式执行时所遵循的先后顺序。

**拼接 (concatenate):** 操作数首位相接。

**注释 (comment):** 帮助他人理解代码的有效信息，对程序执行无影响。

**句法错误 (syntax error):** 导致代码无法解析 (无法解释) 的错误。

**异常 (exception):** 程序运行时遇到的错误。

**语义 (semantics):** 代码含义。

**语义错误 (semantic error):** 未获得预期结果的错误。

## 2.10 习题

**Exercise 2.1.** 重申从上节就给出的建议，学习新知识，尽量在交互模式下不断试错，大胆假设，小心求证。

- 既然  $n = 42$  正确，那么  $42 = n$  呢？
- $x = y = 1$  正确与否？
- 在一些编程语言中，每个语句都会以分号；结尾，如果在 *Python* 的语句末尾加上分号会怎样？
- 语句末尾加句号会如何？
- 数学公式中，可以用  $xy$  表示  $x$  和  $y$  相乘。*Python* 中如果如此使用会怎样？

**Exercise 2.2.** 用 *Python* 解释器进行运算：

1. 半径  $r$  的球体体积是  $\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$ 。那半径为 5 的球体体积是多少？
2. 假设书原价 \$24.95，但书店得到了 40% 的折扣。同时邮寄首件需要邮费 \$3，后续每件 75 美分，如果批发 60 件，总费用多少？
3. 如果我 6:52 离家，以慢跑方式 (8:15/每英里) 跑了 1 英里，然后以快跑方式 (7:12/每英里) 跑了 3 英里，最后，又以慢跑方式跑了 1 英里，那什么时候到家？

## 第3章 函数

在编程领域，**函数**是指执行既定运算的语句组合。定义函数便是确定名称以及语句组合。然后，便可以通过函数名来"调用"函数。

### 3.1 Function calls

上文已展示过**函数调用**

```
>>> type(42)
<class 'int'>
```

此函数的名称为 `type`，括号中的表达式叫做函数的**参数**。此处获得的结果，表示参数的类型。

通俗来说，函数的作用便是根据“输入”的参数，“返回”相应的结果。这个结果也叫做**返回值**。

Python 提供了值类型转换的函数，正常情况下，`int` 函数会将任意值转为整型，除非输入有误：

```
>>> int('32')
32
>>> int('Hello')
ValueError: invalid literal for int(): Hello
```

`int` 虽然可以将浮点数转为整数，但是不会四舍五入，而是直接舍去小数部分：

```
>>> int(3.99999)
3
>>> int(-2.3)
-2
```

`float` 会将整数以及字符串格式小数转为浮点数：

```
>>> float(32)
32.0
>>> float('3.14159')
3.14159
```

最后，`str` 会将任意输入值转为字符串：

```
>>> str(32)
'32'
>>> str(3.14159)
'3.14159'
```

## 3.2 数学函数

Python 内置了数学模块，可以提供大部分的数学计算函数。**模块**是指包含一类函数的文件。

在使用模块中的函数前，我们需要用 **import 语句** 来导入模块：

```
>>> import math
```

导入语句会创建一个名为 `math` 的**模块对象**。输入模块对象名称，可以看到一些相关信息：

```
>>> math
```

```
<module 'math' (built-in)>
```

模块对象包含所有模块中的函数和变量。想调用相应函数，需要调用模块名和函数名，中间用点 (也可以当作英文中的句号) 来分隔。这种调用方法，就是**点标法**。

```
>>> ratio = signal_power / noise_power
```

```
>>> decibels = 10 * math.log10(ratio)
```

```
>>> radians = 0.7
```

```
>>> height = math.sin(radians)
```

第一个例子使用 `math.log10` 计算分贝信噪比 (已知 `signal_power` 和 `noise_power`)。 `math` 模块也提供了 `log` 函数，此函数是以  $e$  为底。

第二个例子是计算弧度 (radians) 的正弦值。弧度一般作为三角函数 (`sin`, `cos` 和 `tan`, 等) 的输入参数。而角度转弧度，需要除以 180 然后乘以  $\pi$ ：

```
>>> degrees = 45
```

```
>>> radians = degrees / 180.0 * math.pi
```

```
>>> math.sin(radians)
```

```
0.707106781187
```

`math.pi` 表达式是从 `math` 模块调用 `pi`，这是一个  $\pi$  的浮点格式近似值，精确到小数点后 15 位。

如果熟悉三角函数原理，便可以通过比较  $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$  来验证结果：

```
>>> math.sqrt(2) / 2.0
```

```
0.707106781187
```

## 3.3 组合

目前，我们学习了编程涉及的各个元素——变量，表达式以及语句。但都是分开来讲，并未整合在一起。

编程语言的强大之处在于，可以构建众多的小积木，然后**组合**起来。例如，函数的参数既然可以是各种表达式，那就包括了算数运算：

```
x = math.sin(degrees / 360.0 * 2 * math.pi)
```

也可以是函数调用：

```
x = math.exp(math.log(x+1))
```

任何可以使用值的地方，都可以使用表达式来替换，除了一种情况：赋值语句的左侧必须是变量名。左侧出现表达式会报句法错误 (相关信息见后续章节)。

```
>>> minutes = hours * 60                                # right
```

```
>>> hours * 60 = minutes                                # wrong!
```

```
SyntaxError: can't assign to operator
```

## 3.4 创建函数

我们一直在 Python 编程中使用函数，现在可以尝试创建一个函数。**函数定义**一般指定义函数名以及调用时使用的语句组。

Here is an example:

```
def print_lyrics():
    print("I'm a lumberjack, and I'm okay.")
    print("I sleep all night and I work all day.")
```

`def` 关键字表示以下是函数定义。函数名是 `print_lyrics`。函数名的命名规则和变量名命名规则一致：可包含字母，数字或下划线，首字母不能为数字。同时不能使用关键字作为函数名，要避免变量和函数重名。

函数名后的空括号表示没有参数。

函数定义首行一般叫做**函数头**，其他部分叫**函数体**。函数头以冒号结尾，函数体必须缩进。使用惯例来说，一个缩进等于四个空格。消息体可以包含任意行语句。

`print` 语句中的字符串需要被双引号包着。一般单引号和双引号作用相同，所以人们多数情况使用单引号，除非字符串中本来就有单引号，这种情况就要使用双引号了。

所有的引号（无论单双）都是“直引号”，就是键盘确认键 (Enter) 旁边的那个，本句中这种“弯引号”，在 Python 使用中就是非法的。

在交互模式定义函数，解释器会输出省略号 (...) 来提示函数定义尚未结束：

```
>>> def print_lyrics():
...     print("I'm a lumberjack, and I'm okay.")
...     print("I sleep all night and I work all day.")
... 
```

想结束函数定义，需要多敲一个换行。

函数定义完成便会创建一个 `function` 类型的**函数对象**：

```
>>> print(print_lyrics)
<function print_lyrics at 0xb7e99e9c>
>>> type(print_lyrics)
<class 'function'>
```

调用自定义函数和调用内置函数的方式一样：

```
>>> print_lyrics()
I'm a lumberjack, and I'm okay.
I sleep all night and I work all day.
```

一旦函数定义完成，便可在另外函数中使用。比如，为了避免重复，可以直接定义一个 `repeat_lyrics` 函数：

```
def repeat_lyrics():
    print_lyrics()
    print_lyrics()
```

然后调用 `repeat_lyrics`：

```
>>> repeat_lyrics()
I'm a lumberjack, and I'm okay.
I sleep all night and I work all day.
I'm a lumberjack, and I'm okay.
I sleep all night and I work all day.
```

当然，歌词没有这样的了。

### 3.5 定义和调用

将上述代码片段整理为一个完整程序：

```
def print_lyrics():
    print("I'm a lumberjack, and I'm okay.")
    print("I sleep all night and I work all day.")

def repeat_lyrics():
    print_lyrics()
    print_lyrics()

repeat_lyrics()
```

此程序包含两个函数：`print_lyrics` 和 `repeat_lyrics`。这些函数定义的执行和其他语句一样，但是会在执行后创建函数对象。函数内的语句只有在函数调用时才会执行，同时函数定义的执行并不会输出结果。

如你所料，函数运行前必须先定义函数，也就是说，函数定义语句先执行，函数才能被调用。

练习一下，将程序的末行提到开始，令函数先被调用，再被定义。运行程序，看看会报什么错误。

将函数调用再次移回末尾，然后将 `print_lyrics` 函数定义放到 `repeat_lyrics` 函数的后面，看看程序运行时，会发生什么？

### 3.6 运行流程

为保证函数定义在函数调用之前，需要了解语句执行顺序，也叫做**运行流程**。

程序运行从第一个代码语句开始，从上到下，运行一次。

函数定义的运行不会改变代码运行流程，但是要谨记，函数内的语句只会在函数被调用时运行。

函数调用就像代码运行流程中的绕路一样，不会继续向下执行语句，而是跳转到函数体内，运行内部语句，完成后再回到离开的地方。

听起来很简单，但是要意识到，函数可以不断调用函数（译者注：类似套娃）。甲函数运行中，可能会调用乙函数，从而去执行其语句，然后乙函数运行中又可能去调用其他函数！

幸亏 Python 解释器能够有效追踪函数的执行流程，从而可以在函数执行完成后，回到函数调用的地方，从而继续执行，直到结束。

所以，不要简单地从上到下阅读程序，有时候更要关注代码运行流程。

### 3.7 形参和实参

我们观察到有些函数需要参数。例如调用 `math.sin` 函数，需要传递个数值作为参数。还有些函数不止一个参数：`math.pow` 需要两个参数，分别是底和幂。

函数内，实参会被赋值给**形参**。下面是函数传参（实参赋值给形参）的定义：

```
def print_twice(bruce):  
    print(bruce)  
    print(bruce)
```

此函数会将实参赋值给形参 `bruce`，当此函数调用时，会输出两次参数值（无论参数为何）。

此函数适用于任何可被打印的值。

```
>>> print_twice('Spam')  
Spam  
Spam  
>>> print_twice(42)  
42  
42  
>>> print_twice(math.pi)  
3.14159265359  
3.14159265359
```

自定义函数和内置函数的规则适用是一致的，所以 `print_twice` 的实参也可以是任意表达式：

```
>>> print_twice('Spam '*4)  
Spam Spam Spam Spam  
Spam Spam Spam Spam  
>>> print_twice(math.cos(math.pi))  
-1.0  
-1.0
```

实参在函数调用前运行，所以在上例中，表达式 `'Spam '*4` 和 `math.cos(math.pi)` 只会运行一次。

也可以使用变量作为实参：

```
>>> michael = 'Eric, the half a bee.'  
>>> print_twice(michael)  
Eric, the half a bee.  
Eric, the half a bee.
```

作为实参传递给函数的变量命名 (`michael`) 和函数的形参命名 (`bruce`) 毫无关联。无论外部传递进来的参数命名为何，函数 `print_twice` 内部，我们统称为 `bruce`。

## 3.8 局部变量和参数

函数内部定义的变量都是**局部**的，也就是说，只能作用于函数内部，例如：

```
def cat_twice(part1, part2):  
    cat = part1 + part2  
    print_twice(cat)
```

此函数将两个参数拼接后，结果输出两次。以下是用例：

```
>>> line1 = 'Bing tiddle '  
>>> line2 = 'tiddle bang.'  
>>> cat_twice(line1, line2)  
Bing tiddle tiddle bang.  
Bing tiddle tiddle bang.
```



图 3.1: 栈图.

`cat_twice` 运行结束，内部变量 `cat` 便被销毁。如果现在尝试输出它，会报错：

```
>>> print(cat)
NameError: name 'cat' is not defined
```

形参都是局部使用的，例如 `print_twice` 函数外部不存在 `bruce` 变量。

### 3.9 栈图

若想跟踪变量使用情况，一般绘制**栈图**比较有效。和状态图类似，栈图也会标识每个变量的值，不同之处是，栈图也会标识变量所属函数。

每个函数都用一个**框**来表示，一个框就是一个旁边有函数名，内部是参数以及变量值的箱体图。上面例子的箱体图见图 3.1。

栈图中的这些框的排列方式标示了各个函数的调用关系。此例中，`print_twice` 函数被 `cat_twice` 调用，`cat_twice` 被 `__main__` 调用。`__main__` 是顶层框的一个特殊名字，任何函数外的变量，都属于它。

形参和实参一一对应，所以 `part1` 和 `line1` 的值相同，`part2` 和 `line2` 的值也相同，并且，`bruce` 和 `cat` 的值也一样。

如果函数调用过程中出错，Python 会输出此函数名称，以及调用它的函数的信息，以及更上级的函数，一直到 `__main__` 函数。

例如，如果在 `print_twice` 中调用 `cat`，会得到名字异常 (`NameError`):

```
Traceback (innermost last):
  File "test.py", line 13, in __main__
    cat_twice(line1, line2)
  File "test.py", line 5, in cat_twice
    print_twice(cat)
  File "test.py", line 9, in print_twice
    print(cat)
NameError: name 'cat' is not defined
```

这一系列函数跟踪信息叫做**追溯**，这些信息显示是哪个文件出错，哪行出错，以及运行时函数，甚至引起错误的代码行号。

在追溯信息中的函数次序和栈图中的框的次序是一致的，当前运行的函数都是在最下面。



## 3.10 有值函数和无值函数

目前用到过的一些函数，例如数学函数，都会返回结果，一得之见，暂称**有值函数**。其他函数，像 `print_twice`，运行完成，并不会返回值，便叫做**无值函数**。

当调用有值函数时，一般会期待使用返回结果的，比如，赋值结果到某个变量，或者置于表达式中使用：

```
x = math.cos(radians)
golden = (math.sqrt(5) + 1) / 2
```

在交互模式调用函数，Python 解释器会输出结果：

```
>>> math.sqrt(5)
2.2360679774997898
```

但是在脚本模式，调用有值函数，却永远不会看到返回值！

```
math.sqrt(5)
```

这个脚本文件主要计算 5 的平方根，但是没有什么用处，因为没有保存或者显示结果。

无值函数也许可以在屏幕显示信息或者执行其他操作，但是没有返回值。如果将函数运行结果赋值到变量，那变量会指向一个特殊的值：`None`。

```
>>> result = print_twice('Bing')
Bing
Bing
>>> print(result)
None
```

`None` 是个具有既定类型的特殊值，和字符串 `'None'` 是不同的：

```
>>> type(None)
<class 'NoneType'>
```

目前我们定义的函数都是无返回值的，后续章节将开始定义有返回值的函数。

## 3.11 函数何用？

对于将程序划分为一个个函数是否值得的考虑，参看以下缘由：

- 函数可以将一组语句归为一类，便于阅读和调试。
- 函数可以消除重复，简化代码，针对功能，修改一处即可。
- 将程序切分为程序，可以分而调试，然后组合它们即可。
- 设计良好的函数可以书写一次，调试一次，多处调用，有效复用。

## 3.12 调试

编程最重要的技能之一就是调试了，虽往往令人黯然神伤，愁眉难舒，却是编程中最考验才智，最富有挑战以及最有趣的地方。

在某些方面，调试和侦探工作很像。面对线索，有效推理，确定导致结果的流程和缘由。

调试又像实验科学，针对问题，一旦有所灵光，就要修改程序，再次尝试。如果假设正确，便可确定修改引起的变化，进一步推进程序正常运行。如果假设错误，便要继续探究了。正如 Sherlock Holmes(夏洛克·福尔摩斯) 所说，“除去所有不可能因素，留下来的东西，无论多么不愿意相信，但这就是事实的真相。”(A. Conan Doyle, *The Sign of Four*)

一般而言，编程便是调试。这是因为，编程便是不断调试，达到目标的过程。所以，建议先写运行代码，然后逐步修改调试，实现预定效果。

比如，Linux 操作系统具有数百万行代码，但它起源于 Linus Torvalds 研究 Intel 80386 芯片的一段简单代码。据 Larry Greenfield 所说，“Linus 最早的一个程序是在输出 AAAA 和 BBBB 之间切换，这后来演化为了 Linux。”(*The Linux Users' Guide Beta Version 1*).

### 3.13 术语表

**函数 (function):** 特别命名的一堆语句的组合，实现特定功能。可以有参数，也可以没有参数，可以返回值，也可以不返回。

**函数定义 (function definition):** 创建函数的语句，确定名称，参数以及内部语句。

**函数对象 (function object):** 函数定义执行后的值，函数名便是指向函数对象的变量。

**函数头 (header):** 函数定义首行。

**函数体 (body):** 函数定义内部语句。

**形参 (parameter):** 函数内部用于代表传入参数的名称。

**函数调用 (function call):** 运行函数的语句，由函数名，以及括号中的参数列表构成。

**实参 (argument):** 函数调用时传入函数的值。这个值会赋值给函数内部形参。

**局部变量 (local variable):** 函数内部变量，局部变量只能在函数内部使用。

**返回值 (return value):** 函数返回的结果。如果用函数调用作为表达式，那么函数返回值，便是表达式的结果。

**有值返回 (fruitful function):** 有返回值的函数。

**无值返回 (void function):** 返回 `None` 的函数。

**空值 `None`:** 无值返回函数返回的结果。

**模块 (module):** 包含相关函数以及相关定义的文件。

**导入语句 (import statement):** 读取模块文件并创建模块对象的语句。

**模块对象 (module object):** `import` 语句创建的值，通过其可以获取模块内部的值。

**点标法 (dot notation):** 通过在模块名后紧跟一个点 (英文句号) 和要调用的函数名，来调用模块函数的句法。

**组合 (composition):** 通过简单表达式构建复杂表达式，简单语句构建宏大语句的方法。

**运行流程 (flow of execution):** 语句运行的顺序。

**栈图 (stack diagram):** 表示函数，变量，以及值的关系图。

**框 (frame):** 栈图中表示函数调用的箱体图，包括局部变量以及参数。

**追溯 (traceback):** 异常发生后，输出相关运行函数的过程。

## 3.14 习题

**Exercise 3.1.** 书写名为`right_justify`同时以字符串 `s` 为参数的函数，其输出的字符串左侧有足够的空格，以使输出结果的最后一个字符在第 70 字符处。

```
>>> right_justify('monty')
monty
```

提示: 使用字符串拼接以及堆叠, 同时 *Python* 提供内置 `len` 函数, 可以返回字符串长度, 例如, `len('monty')` 的结果为 5.

**Exercise 3.2.** 函数对象可以赋值给变量, 或者作为实参传递。例如, `do_twice` 便将函数对象作为参数传入, 并调用了两次:

```
def do_twice(f):
    f()
    f()
```

下面是使用 `do_twice` 来调用两次 `print_spam` 的例子。

```
def print_spam():
    print('spam')
```

```
do_twice(print_spam)
```

1. 将上述代码写入脚本进行测试。
2. 修改 `do_twice`, 给其传入两个参数: 函数对象和值, 使其调用两次传入的函数对象, 这个函数对象会以传入的值为参数。
3. 将本章 `print_twice` 代码复制到脚本。
4. 用新版 `do_twice` 函数调用 `print_twice` 两次, 并传入参数 `'spam'`。
5. 定义新函数 `do_four`, 令其以函数对象和值为参数, 并以传入的值为参数调用函数对象。要求函数体只有两行语句, 而不是四行。

答案: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/do\\_four.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/do_four.py).

**Exercise 3.3.** 说明: 此习题只涉及已学过的语句和功能。

1. 编写绘制下面网格图的函数:

```
+ - - - - + - - - - +
|           |           |
|           |           |
|           |           |
|           |           |
+ - - - - + - - - - +
|           |           |
|           |           |
|           |           |
|           |           |
+ - - - - + - - - - +
```

提示: 想一行输出多个值, 可以向 `print` 传入多个值, 这些值用逗号分隔:

```
print('+', '-')
```

一般 `print` 函数会附带换行符，但可以覆写此函数，使其以空格结尾，如下：

```
print('+', end=' ')\nprint('-')
```

上边语句会将 '+' -' 在同一行输出，如果再有 `print` 语句，则会令起一行。

2. 编写绘制四行四列相似网格的函数。

答案: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/grid.py>. 致谢: 此习题基于 *Oualline* 书中的习题 ( *Practical C Programming, Third Edition, O'Reilly Media, 1997* ).

## 第4章 案例分析: 接口设计

本章采用案例来讲述如何设计可以协同运行的函数。

通过介绍 `turtle`(乌龟) 模块, 从而利用其绘图功能, 制作图片。大部分本地 Python 版会预装 `turtle` 模块, 如果你使用的是 PythonAnywhere 网站, 现在还无法执行 `turtle` 示例(至少写作本书时还不能)。

如果计算机安装了 Python, 便可以直接运行这些实例。如果还没有, 那么最好现在安装吧, 可以参看我写的步骤<http://tinyurl.com/thinkpython2e>。

本章的代码样例可以从<http://thinkpython2.com/code/polygon.py> 获取。

### 4.1 turtle 模块

打开 Python 解释器, 键入以下命令, 以检查是否安装 `turtle` 模块:

```
>>> import turtle
>>> bob = turtle.Turtle()
```

运行此代码, 会创建一个窗口, 此窗口包含一个箭头, 代表一只小乌龟。关闭窗口。

创建名为 `mypolygon.py` 的文件, 并输入以下代码:

```
import turtle
bob = turtle.Turtle()
print(bob)
turtle.mainloop()
```

`turtle` 模块(小写字母't')调用函数 `Turtle`(大写字母'T'), 创建 `Turtle` 对象, 并将其赋值给 `bob` 变量。输出 `bob` 信息:

```
<turtle.Turtle object at 0xb7bfbf4c>
```

这意味着 `bob` 了指向 `turtle` 模块中 `Turtle` 类型的对象。

`mainloop` 会令窗口等待, 以执行其他操作。但是本例只需关闭窗口, 暂不进行其他操作。

一旦建立 `Turtle` 对象, 便可以调用**方法**在窗口中移动它。方法和函数类似, 但是略有不同。比如, 令小乌龟前进:

```
bob.fd(100)
```

方法 `fd` 来自于乌龟对象 `bob`。调用方法就好比递交申请: 请求 `bob` 向前移动。

`fd` 的参数是像素距离, 实际距离要看屏幕尺寸。

其他可以调用的方法有 `bk`, 实现向后移动, `lt` 实现左转, `rt` 实现右转。`lt` 和 `rt` 的参数都是角度。

同时, 每个乌龟都带着笔, 可以抬起或落下; 如果笔落下, 乌龟移动时会留下痕迹。`pu` 和 `pd` 方法分别代表“抬笔”和“落笔”。

将下面代码加入程序, 以实现绘制直角 (创建 `bob` 对象后, 调用 `mainloop` 前):

```
bob.fd(100)
bob.lt(90)
bob.fd(100)
```

运行程序, 可以看到 `bob` 对象会向东移动, 然后向北移动, 并留下两根垂直线段。

现在尝试绘制个正方形, 先不要着急学习下面的内容。

## 4.2 简单重复

我猜你会写成下面的样子:

```
bob.fd(100)
bob.lt(90)
```

```
bob.fd(100)
bob.lt(90)
```

```
bob.fd(100)
bob.lt(90)
```

```
bob.fd(100)
```

用 `for` 语句可以更加简单地实现同样的效果。将下面代码写入 `mypolygon.py` 并运行: :

```
for i in range(4):
    print('Hello!')
```

所见如下:

```
Hello!
Hello!
Hello!
Hello!
```

这是 `for` 语句的简单使用, 后面会讲更多用法。但这些已经足够令我们重写绘制方块的程序了。暂时不要看下面内容, 先尝试一下。

以下用 `for` 语句实现绘制正方形:

```
for i in range(4):
    bob.fd(100)
    bob.lt(90)
```

`for` 的句法使用类似函数定义。以冒号结尾的语句为函数头, 以缩进内容为函数体。函数体可以是任意行语句。

`for` 语句也叫**循环**, 因为代码执行流程会重复执行循环体, 此例中, 会执行四次循环体。

这一版代码和上一版略有不同, 绘制完最后一条线后, 会多一次转向。虽然多的这一步操作增加了耗时, 但是利用循环, 使重复操作更加简单。当然, 这也令小乌龟回到了开始的地方, 朝向了开始的方向。

## 4.3 习题集

以下为一系列操作 `turtle` 模块的练习。虽然是为了让大家高兴一下，但是也有别有用心的地方，做练习的时候，要好好思考一下醉翁之意。

习题后面有答案，但是尽量在完成或者尽力尝试后再看。

1. 编写 `square` 函数，参数是个 `turtle` 对象 `t`，用 `turtle` 绘制正方形。  
编写函数，将 `bob` 作为参数传给 `square`，然后运行程序。
2. 给 `square` 添加参数 `length`，令边的长度为 `length`，同时修改函数，令其调用第二个实参。再次运行程序，给 `length` 赋不同的值进行测试。
3. 复制 `square` 并命名为 `polygon`。添加参数 `n`，令其绘制正 `n` 边形。提示：正 `n` 边形外角角度为  $360/n$  度。
4. 编写 `circle` 函数，以 `turtle` 类型的 `t`，以及半径 `r` 为参数，通过调用 `polygon` 函数，输入适当长度和边数，绘制一个近似的圆形。用不同的 `r` 值，测试程序。  
提示：确定圆的周长，使其满足 `边长 * 边数 = 周长`。
5. 升级 `circle` 版本，命名为 `arc`，新增参数 `angle`，用此值确定所绘制的圆弧的大小。  
`angle` 是角度的单位，当 `angle=360`，`arc` 会绘制一个完整的圆。

## 4.4 封装

第一道题是编写绘制正方形的函数代码，调用函数，传递 `turtle` 参数。代码见下：

```
def square(t):  
    for i in range(4):  
        t.fd(100)  
        t.lt(90)
```

```
square(bob)
```

函数内的 `fd` 和 `lt` 缩进两次，表示运行于函数定义里面的 `for` 循环中。下一行 `square(bob)`，左边距对齐同时没有缩进，表示上面的 `for` 循环以及函数定义都已结束。

函数内的 `t` 和 `bob` 指向的是同一个乌龟对象，因此 `t.lt(90)` 就好比 `bob.lt(90)`。那么为何不直接用变量 `bob` 呢？这是因为 `t` 可以代指任意乌龟对象，而不仅仅是 `bob`，因此便可以再创建一个乌龟对象，并作为参数传入 `square`：

```
alice = turtle.Turtle()  
square(alice)
```

将一段代码写在函数中，叫做**封装**。封装的好处之一在于用一个简单的名字来指代一段代码，好比文档说明。令一个好处是可以复用代码，复制粘贴大段代码，总是不如调用重复调用函数来的方便！

## 4.5 泛化

下一步是给 `square` 增加参数 `length`，详见样例：

```
def square(t, length):
    for i in range(4):
        t.fd(length)
        t.lt(90)
```

```
square(bob, 100)
```

给函数增加参数, 叫做**泛化**。因为可以令函数使用场景更加广泛: 上版代码中, 调用函数, 正方形变长总是同一个值, 而此版, 边长可以是任意值。

下一步也是泛化。不再是只绘制正方形, `polygon` 可以绘制任意多边形, 详见示例:

```
def polygon(t, n, length):
    angle = 360 / n
    for i in range(n):
        t.fd(length)
        t.lt(angle)
```

```
polygon(bob, 7, 70)
```

上例绘制了边长 70 的正 7 边形。

如果你使用的是 Python 2, `angle` 的值可能因为整除而出现偏差。有个简单的办法, 便是 `angle = 360.0 / n`。分子为浮点数, 结果便为浮点数了。

当函数有多个数值参数时, 很容易混淆各代表什么, 以及参数顺序。所以比较好的办法, 便是在传递实参列表时, 附上形参的名字:

```
polygon(bob, n=7, length=70)
```

这也叫做**关键字参数**, 因为是把形参的名字作为“关键字”包含进来。(不要同 Python 中 `while` 和 `def` 这种内置关键字混淆)。

这种句法令程序可读性更强。同时也提示了实参和形参如何作用: 调用函数时, 实参赋值给了形参。

## 4.6 接口设计

下一步要编写 `circle`, 此函数以半径 `r` 为参数。以下是采用 `polygon` 来绘制正 50 边形的简单代码:

```
import math

def circle(t, r):
    circumference = 2 * math.pi * r
    n = 50
    length = circumference / n
    polygon(t, n, length)
```

首行根据公式  $2\pi r$  和半径 `r` 计算圆的周长。要使用 `math.pi`, 需要先导入 `math`。通常把 `import` 语句当作脚本的开头。

`n` 是要逼近圆的正多边形的边数, `length` 表示边长。最后, `polygon` 通过绘制正 50 边形, 来逼近半径 `r` 的圆。



此代码的局限性在于, `n` 是一个常量, 绘制大的圆时, 不得不采用长线段。同时绘制小圆时, 却要浪费时间绘制小线段。要想使此函数通用, 可以将 `n` 作为函数的参数。这样用户 (`circle` 的调用者) 便更加方便使用, 但是接口便显得不那么简洁了。

函数接口是函数用途的简介: 参数是什么? 函数做什么? 返回什么? 如果一个接口聚焦于特定功能, 而非无关细节, 那么这个接口就是“简洁”的。

这个案例中, `r` 放在接口中合适, 是因为要用它来确定圆的大小。而 `n` 放进接口则显得不太友好, 是因为它只与如何绘制圆的细节有关。

与其令接口复杂, 不如根据周长来定义一个合适的 `n`:

```
def circle(t, r):
    circumference = 2 * math.pi * r
    n = int(circumference / 3) + 3
    length = circumference / n
    polygon(t, n, length)
```

现在边的个数便是近似 `circumference/3` 的整数, 每个边的长度也就近似于 3 了, 用这个长度, 绘制大圆快速, 小圆好看, 对任意尺寸的圆都适用。

给 `n` 加 3 是为了保证多边形至少有 3 条边。

## 4.7 重构

我们可以复用 `polygon` 来构造 `circle`, 是因为边足够多的正多边形近似于圆。但是, 构造 `arc` 就不适合了, 因为没有办法用 `polygon` 或者 `circle` 来绘制一段弧线。

一个替代策略是复制 `polygon`, 修改为 `arc`, 代码如下:

```
def arc(t, r, angle):
    arc_length = 2 * math.pi * r * angle / 360
    n = int(arc_length / 3) + 1
    step_length = arc_length / n
    step_angle = angle / n

    for i in range(n):
        t.fd(step_length)
        t.lt(step_angle)
```

函数后半段和 `polygon` 很像, 但如果我们不调整接口, 便无法复用 `polygon`。我们需要给 `polygon` 加入角度作为第三参数, 来令其通用, 那么也不能继续用 `polygon` 作为名字了! 相应的, 叫 `polyline` 会更合适些:

```
def polyline(t, n, length, angle):
    for i in range(n):
        t.fd(length)
        t.lt(angle)
```

现在我们可以用 `polyline` 来重写 `polygon` 和 `arc` 了:

```
def polygon(t, n, length):
    angle = 360.0 / n
    polyline(t, n, length, angle)
```

```
def arc(t, r, angle):
    arc_length = 2 * math.pi * r * angle / 360
    n = int(arc_length / 3) + 1
    step_length = arc_length / n
    step_angle = float(angle) / n
    polyline(t, n, step_length, step_angle)
```

最后, 我们再用 `arc` 来优化 `circle`:

```
def circle(t, r):
    arc(t, r, 360)
```

此过程---调整代码, 优化接口, 方便复用---叫做**重构**。此案例中, 我们发现 `arc` 和 `polygon` 具有一些相似代码, 所以将其“抽离”为 `polyline`。

如果早有规划, 我们可能会优先编写 `polyline`, 避免后续耗时重构。但一般你很难在项目开始的时候, 便深入了解一切, 规划好所有接口。只有开始编码, 你才会更好地研究并理解个中辛酸。所以, 有时候重构的过程也是你学习新知识的历程。

## 4.8 开发计划

**开发计划**便是指编码的流程。以上案例中, 我们采用的流程便是“封装和泛化”, 详细步骤如下:

1. 先不考虑函数定义, 写段小程序。
2. 如果代码可用, 抽离相关代码, 封装进函数, 并命名。
3. 增加合适参数, 泛化函数。
4. 重复步骤 1-3, 尽量抽离各个函数, 尽量复制粘贴, 减少打字 (以及重复调试)。
5. 尝试重构程序。比如, 在多个地方有相似代码, 试试能否将其分解为适当的通用函数。

这种流程存在一定的缺点---后续会讲述一些替代方案---但是在你无法提前规划, 哪些代码需要抽离为函数时, 这种方法可以让你在做的时候可以合理优化代码。

## 4.9 帮助文档

**帮助文档**是指函数开头部分, 用来对接口 (“doc” 是 “documentation” 的简称) 进行解释说明的文档。下面是个例子:

```
def polyline(t, n, length, angle):
    """Draws n line segments with the given length and
    angle (in degrees) between them. t is a turtle.
    """
    for i in range(n):
        t.fd(length)
        t.lt(angle)
```

一般帮助文档都要用三引号引起来, 也叫多行字符串, 因为三引号允许字符串跨行。

帮助文档虽然简洁, 但是重要, 因为它包含函数使用的相关说明。同时简要概括了函数的功能 (无需探查函数细节实现), 以及各个参数的类型和作用, 以及应用场景。

设计接口, 重要的一步, 便是编写友好的帮助文档。一个设计优良的接口, 应该是易于理解的; 如果需要耗费大量口舌讲解, 那么这个接口还有待优化。

## 4.10 调试

接口类似于调用方和函数之间的中间人。调用方提供特定参数，函数执行特定操作。

例如，`polyline` 需要四个参数: Turtle 对象 `t`，整数 `n`，正数 `length`，以及以度为单位的数字 `angle`。

这些条件，叫做**前置条件**，因为这些条件满足了，函数才能执行。相反，函数结尾的内容叫做**后置条件**。后置条件包括函数预期效果 (比如绘制线段)，以及意外情况 (移动 Turtle 或其他影响)。

前置条件是调用方的任务。如果调用方违背 (标注详细的) 前置条件，导致函数异常，那么责任在于调用方，而不是函数。

如果前置条件都满足而后置条件未达到预期，那问题便出在函数中。如果前置和后置条件都清晰明了，那么调试会方便很多。

## 4.11 术语表

**方法 (method):** 用句点于对象连接的函数。

**循环 (loop):** 程序中可以重复执行的部分。

**封装 (encapsulation):** 将一堆语句放入函数中的流程。

**泛化 (generalization):** 将无需特定的内容 (比如特定数字) 更换为通用内容 (变量或参数) 的过程。

**关键字参数 (keyword argument):** 一种实参格式，将形参名字作为“关键字”包含在内。

**接口 (interface):** 关于如何使用函数的描述，包括函数名，实参，以及返回值信息。

**重构 (refactoring):** 修改代码，以优化函数接口，提升代码质量的流程。

**开发计划 (development plan):** 编码预订安排。

**帮助文档 (docstring):** 函数开头部分的文档，用来描述函数接口。

**前置条件 (precondition):** 函数运行前，调用方需满足的条件。

**后置条件 (postcondition):** 函数结束前，需要满足的要求。

## 4.12 习题集

**Exercise 4.1.** 从 <http://thinkpython2.com/code/polygon.py> 下载本章代码。

1. 绘制栈图，描述 `circle(bob, radius)` 运行时的程序状态。可以手算，或者在代码中加入 `print` 语句。
2. 章节 4.7 中的那版 `arc` 并不是很精确，因为用来逼近圆的线段总会在圆的外侧。所以 Turtle 的最终位置总会和真实位置有偏差。我的方案可以有效降低误差。阅读代码，看看是否有所帮助。画个栈图，也许便明白了其原理。

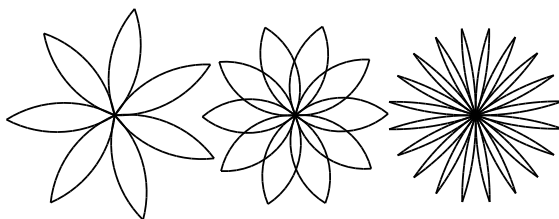


图 4.1: Turtle flowers.

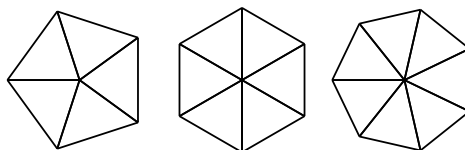


图 4.2: Turtle pies.

**Exercise 4.2.** 尝试编写函数，绘制图 4.1 中的花朵。

参阅: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/flower.py>, 以及 <http://thinkpython2.com/code/polygon.py>.

**Exercise 4.3.** 编写函数，绘制图 4.2 中图形。

参阅: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/pie.py>.

**Exercise 4.4.** 字母表中的字母都是由几个基础元素构成，比如垂直线和水平线，以及曲线。设计个字母表，使用的基本元素种类最少，然后编写函数绘制字母。

你要为每个字母开发函数，比如 `draw_a`, `draw_b`, 等等，将这些函数放在名为 `letters.py` 的文件中。你可以从 <http://thinkpython2.com/code/typewriter.py> 下载个 “turtle typewriter”，来检验代码。

可参阅 <http://thinkpython2.com/code/letters.py>; 以及 <http://thinkpython2.com/code/polygon.py>.

**Exercise 4.5.** 去 <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spiral> 了解一下螺旋线；然后编码实现一个阿基米德螺旋线 (或其他种类)。参阅: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/spiral.py>.

## 第5章 条件和递归

The main topic of this chapter is the `if` statement, which executes different code depending on the state of the program. But first I want to introduce two new operators: floor division and modulus.

### 5.1 Floor division and modulus

The **floor division** operator, `//`, divides two numbers and rounds down to an integer. For example, suppose the run time of a movie is 105 minutes. You might want to know how long that is in hours. Conventional division returns a floating-point number:

```
>>> minutes = 105
>>> minutes / 60
1.75
```

But we don't normally write hours with decimal points. Floor division returns the integer number of hours, rounding down:

```
>>> minutes = 105
>>> hours = minutes // 60
>>> hours
1
```

To get the remainder, you could subtract off one hour in minutes:

```
>>> remainder = minutes - hours * 60
>>> remainder
45
```

An alternative is to use the **modulus operator**, `%`, which divides two numbers and returns the remainder.

```
>>> remainder = minutes % 60
>>> remainder
45
```

The modulus operator is more useful than it seems. For example, you can check whether one number is divisible by another—if `x % y` is zero, then `x` is divisible by `y`.

Also, you can extract the right-most digit or digits from a number. For example, `x % 10` yields the right-most digit of `x` (in base 10). Similarly `x % 100` yields the last two digits.

If you are using Python 2, division works differently. The division operator, `/`, performs floor division if both operands are integers, and floating-point division if either operand is a float.

## 5.2 Boolean expressions

A **boolean expression** is an expression that is either true or false. The following examples use the operator `==`, which compares two operands and produces `True` if they are equal and `False` otherwise:

```
>>> 5 == 5
True
>>> 5 == 6
False
```

`True` and `False` are special values that belong to the type `bool`; they are not strings:

```
>>> type(True)
<class 'bool'>
>>> type(False)
<class 'bool'>
```

The `==` operator is one of the **relational operators**; the others are:

|                        |                                   |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| <code>x != y</code>    | # x is not equal to y             |
| <code>x &gt; y</code>  | # x is greater than y             |
| <code>x &lt; y</code>  | # x is less than y                |
| <code>x &gt;= y</code> | # x is greater than or equal to y |
| <code>x &lt;= y</code> | # x is less than or equal to y    |

Although these operations are probably familiar to you, the Python symbols are different from the mathematical symbols. A common error is to use a single equal sign (`=`) instead of a double equal sign (`==`). Remember that `=` is an assignment operator and `==` is a relational operator. There is no such thing as `=<` or `=>`.

## 5.3 Logical operators

There are three **logical operators**: `and`, `or`, and `not`. The semantics (meaning) of these operators is similar to their meaning in English. For example, `x > 0 and x < 10` is true only if `x` is greater than 0 *and* less than 10.

`n%2 == 0 or n%3 == 0` is true if *either or both* of the conditions is true, that is, if the number is divisible by 2 *or* 3.

Finally, the `not` operator negates a boolean expression, so `not (x > y)` is true if `x > y` is false, that is, if `x` is less than or equal to `y`.

Strictly speaking, the operands of the logical operators should be boolean expressions, but Python is not very strict. Any nonzero number is interpreted as `True`:

```
>>> 42 and True
True
```

This flexibility can be useful, but there are some subtleties to it that might be confusing. You might want to avoid it (unless you know what you are doing).

## 5.4 Conditional execution

In order to write useful programs, we almost always need the ability to check conditions and change the behavior of the program accordingly. **Conditional statements** give us this ability. The simplest form is the `if` statement:

```
if x > 0:
    print('x is positive')
```

The boolean expression after `if` is called the **condition**. If it is true, the indented statement runs. If not, nothing happens.

`if` statements have the same structure as function definitions: a header followed by an indented body. Statements like this are called **compound statements**.

There is no limit on the number of statements that can appear in the body, but there has to be at least one. Occasionally, it is useful to have a body with no statements (usually as a place keeper for code you haven't written yet). In that case, you can use the `pass` statement, which does nothing.

```
if x < 0:
    pass          # TODO: need to handle negative values!
```

## 5.5 Alternative execution

A second form of the `if` statement is “alternative execution”, in which there are two possibilities and the condition determines which one runs. The syntax looks like this:

```
if x % 2 == 0:
    print('x is even')
else:
    print('x is odd')
```

If the remainder when `x` is divided by 2 is 0, then we know that `x` is even, and the program displays an appropriate message. If the condition is false, the second set of statements runs. Since the condition must be true or false, exactly one of the alternatives will run. The alternatives are called **branches**, because they are branches in the flow of execution.

## 5.6 Chained conditionals

Sometimes there are more than two possibilities and we need more than two branches. One way to express a computation like that is a **chained conditional**:

```
if x < y:
    print('x is less than y')
elif x > y:
    print('x is greater than y')
else:
    print('x and y are equal')
```

`elif` is an abbreviation of “else if”. Again, exactly one branch will run. There is no limit on the number of `elif` statements. If there is an `else` clause, it has to be at the end, but there doesn't have to be one.

```
if choice == 'a':
    draw_a()
elif choice == 'b':
    draw_b()
elif choice == 'c':
    draw_c()
```

Each condition is checked in order. If the first is false, the next is checked, and so on. If one of them is true, the corresponding branch runs and the statement ends. Even if more than one condition is true, only the first true branch runs.

## 5.7 Nested conditionals

One conditional can also be nested within another. We could have written the example in the previous section like this:

```
if x == y:
    print('x and y are equal')
else:
    if x < y:
        print('x is less than y')
    else:
        print('x is greater than y')
```

The outer conditional contains two branches. The first branch contains a simple statement. The second branch contains another if statement, which has two branches of its own. Those two branches are both simple statements, although they could have been conditional statements as well.

Although the indentation of the statements makes the structure apparent, **nested conditionals** become difficult to read very quickly. It is a good idea to avoid them when you can.

Logical operators often provide a way to simplify nested conditional statements. For example, we can rewrite the following code using a single conditional:

```
if 0 < x:
    if x < 10:
        print('x is a positive single-digit number.')
```

The print statement runs only if we make it past both conditionals, so we can get the same effect with the and operator:

```
if 0 < x and x < 10:
    print('x is a positive single-digit number.')
```

For this kind of condition, Python provides a more concise option:

```
if 0 < x < 10:
    print('x is a positive single-digit number.')
```

## 5.8 Recursion

It is legal for one function to call another; it is also legal for a function to call itself. It may not be obvious why that is a good thing, but it turns out to be one of the most magical things a program can do. For example, look at the following function:



```
def countdown(n):
    if n <= 0:
        print('Blastoff!')
    else:
        print(n)
        countdown(n-1)
```

If  $n$  is 0 or negative, it outputs the word, “Blastoff!” Otherwise, it outputs  $n$  and then calls a function named `countdown`—itself—passing  $n-1$  as an argument.

What happens if we call this function like this?

```
>>> countdown(3)
```

The execution of `countdown` begins with  $n=3$ , and since  $n$  is greater than 0, it outputs the value 3, and then calls itself..

The execution of `countdown` begins with  $n=2$ , and since  $n$  is greater than 0, it outputs the value 2, and then calls itself..

The execution of `countdown` begins with  $n=1$ , and since  $n$  is greater than 0, it outputs the value 1, and then calls itself..

The execution of `countdown` begins with  $n=0$ , and since  $n$  is not greater than 0, it outputs the word, “Blastoff!” and then returns.

The countdown that got  $n=1$  returns.

The countdown that got  $n=2$  returns.

The countdown that got  $n=3$  returns.

And then you’re back in `__main__`. So, the total output looks like this:

```
3
2
1
Blastoff!
```

A function that calls itself is **recursive**; the process of executing it is called **recursion**.

As another example, we can write a function that prints a string  $n$  times.

```
def print_n(s, n):
    if n <= 0:
        return
    print(s)
    print_n(s, n-1)
```

If  $n \leq 0$  the **return statement** exits the function. The flow of execution immediately returns to the caller, and the remaining lines of the function don’t run.

The rest of the function is similar to `countdown`: it displays  $s$  and then calls itself to display  $s$   $n - 1$  additional times. So the number of lines of output is  $1 + (n - 1)$ , which adds up to  $n$ .

For simple examples like this, it is probably easier to use a `for` loop. But we will see examples later that are hard to write with a `for` loop and easy to write with recursion, so it is good to start early.

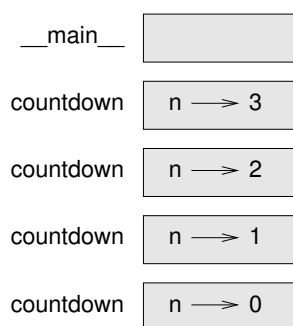


图 5.1: Stack diagram.

## 5.9 Stack diagrams for recursive functions

In Section 3.9, we used a stack diagram to represent the state of a program during a function call. The same kind of diagram can help interpret a recursive function.

Every time a function gets called, Python creates a frame to contain the function's local variables and parameters. For a recursive function, there might be more than one frame on the stack at the same time.

Figure 5.1 shows a stack diagram for `countdown` called with `n = 3`.

As usual, the top of the stack is the frame for `__main__`. It is empty because we did not create any variables in `__main__` or pass any arguments to it.

The four `countdown` frames have different values for the parameter `n`. The bottom of the stack, where `n=0`, is called the **base case**. It does not make a recursive call, so there are no more frames.

As an exercise, draw a stack diagram for `print_n` called with `s = 'Hello'` and `n=2`. Then write a function called `do_n` that takes a function object and a number, `n`, as arguments, and that calls the given function `n` times.

## 5.10 Infinite recursion

If a recursion never reaches a base case, it goes on making recursive calls forever, and the program never terminates. This is known as **infinite recursion**, and it is generally not a good idea. Here is a minimal program with an infinite recursion:

```
def recurse():
    recurse()
```

In most programming environments, a program with infinite recursion does not really run forever. Python reports an error message when the maximum recursion depth is reached:

```
File "<stdin>", line 2, in recurse
File "<stdin>", line 2, in recurse
File "<stdin>", line 2, in recurse
.
.
```

```
File "<stdin>", line 2, in recurse
RuntimeError: Maximum recursion depth exceeded
```

This traceback is a little bigger than the one we saw in the previous chapter. When the error occurs, there are 1000 `recurse` frames on the stack!

If you encounter an infinite recursion by accident, review your function to confirm that there is a base case that does not make a recursive call. And if there is a base case, check whether you are guaranteed to reach it.

## 5.11 Keyboard input

The programs we have written so far accept no input from the user. They just do the same thing every time.

Python provides a built-in function called `input` that stops the program and waits for the user to type something. When the user presses Return or Enter, the program resumes and `input` returns what the user typed as a string. In Python 2, the same function is called `raw_input`.

```
>>> text = input()
What are you waiting for?
>>> text
'What are you waiting for?'
```

Before getting input from the user, it is a good idea to print a prompt telling the user what to type. `input` can take a prompt as an argument:

```
>>> name = input('What...is your name?\n')
What...is your name?
Arthur, King of the Britons!
>>> name
'Arthur, King of the Britons!'
```

The sequence `\n` at the end of the prompt represents a **newline**, which is a special character that causes a line break. That's why the user's input appears below the prompt.

If you expect the user to type an integer, you can try to convert the return value to `int`:

```
>>> prompt = 'What...is the airspeed velocity of an unladen swallow?\n'
>>> speed = input(prompt)
What...is the airspeed velocity of an unladen swallow?
42
>>> int(speed)
42
```

But if the user types something other than a string of digits, you get an error:

```
>>> speed = input(prompt)
What...is the airspeed velocity of an unladen swallow?
What do you mean, an African or a European swallow?
>>> int(speed)
ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10
```

We will see how to handle this kind of error later.

## 5.12 Debugging

When a syntax or runtime error occurs, the error message contains a lot of information, but it can be overwhelming. The most useful parts are usually:

- What kind of error it was, and
- Where it occurred.

Syntax errors are usually easy to find, but there are a few gotchas. Whitespace errors can be tricky because spaces and tabs are invisible and we are used to ignoring them.

```
>>> x = 5
>>> y = 6
      File "<stdin>", line 1
        y = 6
        ^
```

IndentationError: unexpected indent

In this example, the problem is that the second line is indented by one space. But the error message points to `y`, which is misleading. In general, error messages indicate where the problem was discovered, but the actual error might be earlier in the code, sometimes on a previous line.

The same is true of runtime errors. Suppose you are trying to compute a signal-to-noise ratio in decibels. The formula is  $SNR_{db} = 10 \log_{10}(P_{signal}/P_{noise})$ . In Python, you might write something like this:

```
import math
signal_power = 9
noise_power = 10
ratio = signal_power // noise_power
decibels = 10 * math.log10(ratio)
print(decibels)
```

When you run this program, you get an exception:

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "snr.py", line 5, in ?
    decibels = 10 * math.log10(ratio)
ValueError: math domain error
```

The error message indicates line 5, but there is nothing wrong with that line. To find the real error, it might be useful to print the value of `ratio`, which turns out to be 0. The problem is in line 4, which uses floor division instead of floating-point division.

You should take the time to read error messages carefully, but don't assume that everything they say is correct.

## 5.13 Glossary

**floor division:** An operator, denoted `//`, that divides two numbers and rounds down (toward negative infinity) to an integer.

**modulus operator:** An operator, denoted with a percent sign (`%`), that works on integers and returns the remainder when one number is divided by another.

**boolean expression:** An expression whose value is either True or False.

**relational operator:** One of the operators that compares its operands: ==, !=, >, <, >=, and <=.

**logical operator:** One of the operators that combines boolean expressions: and, or, and not.

**conditional statement:** A statement that controls the flow of execution depending on some condition.

**condition:** The boolean expression in a conditional statement that determines which branch runs.

**compound statement:** A statement that consists of a header and a body. The header ends with a colon (:). The body is indented relative to the header.

**branch:** One of the alternative sequences of statements in a conditional statement.

**chained conditional:** A conditional statement with a series of alternative branches.

**nested conditional:** A conditional statement that appears in one of the branches of another conditional statement.

**return statement:** A statement that causes a function to end immediately and return to the caller.

**recursion:** The process of calling the function that is currently executing.

**base case:** A conditional branch in a recursive function that does not make a recursive call.

**infinite recursion:** A recursion that doesn't have a base case, or never reaches it. Eventually, an infinite recursion causes a runtime error.

## 5.14 Exercises

**Exercise 5.1.** The `time` module provides a function, also named `time`, that returns the current Greenwich Mean Time in “the epoch”, which is an arbitrary time used as a reference point. On UNIX systems, the epoch is 1 January 1970.

```
>>> import time
>>> time.time()
1437746094.5735958
```

Write a script that reads the current time and converts it to a time of day in hours, minutes, and seconds, plus the number of days since the epoch.

**Exercise 5.2.** Fermat's Last Theorem says that there are no positive integers  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  such that

$$a^n + b^n = c^n$$

for any values of  $n$  greater than 2.

1. Write a function named `check_fermat` that takes four parameters—`a`, `b`, `c` and `n`—and checks to see if Fermat's theorem holds. If `n` is greater than 2 and

$$a^n + b^n = c^n$$

the program should print, "Holy smokes, Fermat was wrong!" Otherwise the program should print, "No, that doesn't work."

2. Write a function that prompts the user to input values for `a`, `b`, `c` and `n`, converts them to integers, and uses `check_fermat` to check whether they violate Fermat's theorem.

**Exercise 5.3.** If you are given three sticks, you may or may not be able to arrange them in a triangle. For example, if one of the sticks is 12 inches long and the other two are one inch long, you will not be able to get the short sticks to meet in the middle. For any three lengths, there is a simple test to see if it is possible to form a triangle:

If any of the three lengths is greater than the sum of the other two, then you cannot form a triangle. Otherwise, you can. (If the sum of two lengths equals the third, they form what is called a "degenerate" triangle.)

1. Write a function named `is_triangle` that takes three integers as arguments, and that prints either "Yes" or "No", depending on whether you can or cannot form a triangle from sticks with the given lengths.
2. Write a function that prompts the user to input three stick lengths, converts them to integers, and uses `is_triangle` to check whether sticks with the given lengths can form a triangle.

**Exercise 5.4.** What is the output of the following program? Draw a stack diagram that shows the state of the program when it prints the result.

```
def recurse(n, s):
    if n == 0:
        print(s)
    else:
        recurse(n-1, n+s)

recurse(3, 0)
```

1. What would happen if you called this function like this: `recurse(-1, 0)`?
2. Write a docstring that explains everything someone would need to know in order to use this function (and nothing else).

The following exercises use the `turtle` module, described in Chapter 4:

**Exercise 5.5.** Read the following function and see if you can figure out what it does (see the examples in Chapter 4). Then run it and see if you got it right.

```
def draw(t, length, n):
    if n == 0:
        return
    angle = 50
    t.fd(length*n)
    t.lt(angle)
    draw(t, length, n-1)
```

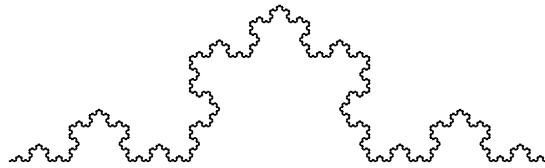


图 5.2: A Koch curve.

```
t.rt(2*angle)
draw(t, length, n-1)
t.lt(angle)
t.bk(length*n)
```

**Exercise 5.6.** *The Koch curve is a fractal that looks something like Figure 5.2. To draw a Koch curve with length  $x$ , all you have to do is*

1. *Draw a Koch curve with length  $x/3$ .*
2. *Turn left 60 degrees.*
3. *Draw a Koch curve with length  $x/3$ .*
4. *Turn right 120 degrees.*
5. *Draw a Koch curve with length  $x/3$ .*
6. *Turn left 60 degrees.*
7. *Draw a Koch curve with length  $x/3$ .*

*The exception is if  $x$  is less than 3: in that case, you can just draw a straight line with length  $x$ .*

1. *Write a function called `koch` that takes a turtle and a length as parameters, and that uses the turtle to draw a Koch curve with the given length.*
2. *Write a function called `snowflake` that draws three Koch curves to make the outline of a snowflake.*

*Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/koch.py>.*

3. *The Koch curve can be generalized in several ways. See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Koch\\_snowflake](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Koch_snowflake) for examples and implement your favorite.*





## 第6章 Fruitful functions

Many of the Python functions we have used, such as the math functions, produce return values. But the functions we've written are all void: they have an effect, like printing a value or moving a turtle, but they don't have a return value. In this chapter you will learn to write fruitful functions.

### 6.1 Return values

Calling the function generates a return value, which we usually assign to a variable or use as part of an expression.

```
e = math.exp(1.0)
height = radius * math.sin(radians)
```

The functions we have written so far are void. Speaking casually, they have no return value; more precisely, their return value is `None`.

In this chapter, we are (finally) going to write fruitful functions. The first example is `area`, which returns the area of a circle with the given radius:

```
def area(radius):
    a = math.pi * radius**2
    return a
```

We have seen the return statement before, but in a fruitful function the return statement includes an expression. This statement means: "Return immediately from this function and use the following expression as a return value." The expression can be arbitrarily complicated, so we could have written this function more concisely:

```
def area(radius):
    return math.pi * radius**2
```

On the other hand, **temporary variables** like `a` can make debugging easier.

Sometimes it is useful to have multiple return statements, one in each branch of a conditional:

```
def absolute_value(x):
    if x < 0:
        return -x
    else:
        return x
```

Since these `return` statements are in an alternative conditional, only one runs.

As soon as a `return` statement runs, the function terminates without executing any subsequent statements. Code that appears after a `return` statement, or any other place the flow of execution can never reach, is called **dead code**.

In a fruitful function, it is a good idea to ensure that every possible path through the program hits a `return` statement. For example:

```
def absolute_value(x):
    if x < 0:
        return -x
    if x > 0:
        return x
```

This function is incorrect because if `x` happens to be 0, neither condition is true, and the function ends without hitting a `return` statement. If the flow of execution gets to the end of a function, the return value is `None`, which is not the absolute value of 0.

```
>>> print(absolute_value(0))
None
```

By the way, Python provides a built-in function called `abs` that computes absolute values.

As an exercise, write a `compare` function that takes two values, `x` and `y`, and returns 1 if `x > y`, 0 if `x == y`, and -1 if `x < y`.

## 6.2 Incremental development

As you write larger functions, you might find yourself spending more time debugging.

To deal with increasingly complex programs, you might want to try a process called **incremental development**. The goal of incremental development is to avoid long debugging sessions by adding and testing only a small amount of code at a time.

As an example, suppose you want to find the distance between two points, given by the coordinates  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$ . By the Pythagorean theorem, the distance is:

$$\text{distance} = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

The first step is to consider what a `distance` function should look like in Python. In other words, what are the inputs (parameters) and what is the output (return value)?

In this case, the inputs are two points, which you can represent using four numbers. The return value is the distance represented by a floating-point value.

Immediately you can write an outline of the function:

```
def distance(x1, y1, x2, y2):
    return 0.0
```

Obviously, this version doesn't compute distances; it always returns zero. But it is syntactically correct, and it runs, which means that you can test it before you make it more complicated.

To test the new function, call it with sample arguments:

```
>>> distance(1, 2, 4, 6)
0.0
```

I chose these values so that the horizontal distance is 3 and the vertical distance is 4; that way, the result is 5, the hypotenuse of a 3-4-5 right triangle. When testing a function, it is useful to know the right answer.

At this point we have confirmed that the function is syntactically correct, and we can start adding code to the body. A reasonable next step is to find the differences  $x_2 - x_1$  and  $y_2 - y_1$ . The next version stores those values in temporary variables and prints them.

```
def distance(x1, y1, x2, y2):
    dx = x2 - x1
    dy = y2 - y1
    print('dx is', dx)
    print('dy is', dy)
    return 0.0
```

If the function is working, it should display `dx is 3` and `dy is 4`. If so, we know that the function is getting the right arguments and performing the first computation correctly. If not, there are only a few lines to check.

Next we compute the sum of squares of `dx` and `dy`:

```
def distance(x1, y1, x2, y2):
    dx = x2 - x1
    dy = y2 - y1
    dsquared = dx**2 + dy**2
    print('dsquared is: ', dsquared)
    return 0.0
```

Again, you would run the program at this stage and check the output (which should be 25). Finally, you can use `math.sqrt` to compute and return the result:

```
def distance(x1, y1, x2, y2):
    dx = x2 - x1
    dy = y2 - y1
    dsquared = dx**2 + dy**2
    result = math.sqrt(dsquared)
    return result
```

If that works correctly, you are done. Otherwise, you might want to print the value of `result` before the `return` statement.

The final version of the function doesn't display anything when it runs; it only returns a value. The `print` statements we wrote are useful for debugging, but once you get the function working, you should remove them. Code like that is called **scaffolding** because it is helpful for building the program but is not part of the final product.

When you start out, you should add only a line or two of code at a time. As you gain more experience, you might find yourself writing and debugging bigger chunks. Either way, incremental development can save you a lot of debugging time.

The key aspects of the process are:

1. Start with a working program and make small incremental changes. At any point, if there is an error, you should have a good idea where it is.

2. Use variables to hold intermediate values so you can display and check them.
3. Once the program is working, you might want to remove some of the scaffolding or consolidate multiple statements into compound expressions, but only if it does not make the program difficult to read.

As an exercise, use incremental development to write a function called `hypotenuse` that returns the length of the hypotenuse of a right triangle given the lengths of the other two legs as arguments. Record each stage of the development process as you go.

## 6.3 Composition

As you should expect by now, you can call one function from within another. As an example, we'll write a function that takes two points, the center of the circle and a point on the perimeter, and computes the area of the circle.

Assume that the center point is stored in the variables `xc` and `yc`, and the perimeter point is in `xp` and `yp`. The first step is to find the radius of the circle, which is the distance between the two points. We just wrote a function, `distance`, that does that:

```
radius = distance(xc, yc, xp, yp)
```

The next step is to find the area of a circle with that radius; we just wrote that, too:

```
result = area(radius)
```

Encapsulating these steps in a function, we get:

```
def circle_area(xc, yc, xp, yp):
    radius = distance(xc, yc, xp, yp)
    result = area(radius)
    return result
```

The temporary variables `radius` and `result` are useful for development and debugging, but once the program is working, we can make it more concise by composing the function calls:

```
def circle_area(xc, yc, xp, yp):
    return area(distance(xc, yc, xp, yp))
```

## 6.4 Boolean functions

Functions can return booleans, which is often convenient for hiding complicated tests inside functions. For example:

```
def is_divisible(x, y):
    if x % y == 0:
        return True
    else:
        return False
```

It is common to give boolean functions names that sound like yes/no questions; `is_divisible` returns either `True` or `False` to indicate whether `x` is divisible by `y`.

Here is an example:

```
>>> is_divisible(6, 4)
False
>>> is_divisible(6, 3)
True
```

The result of the `==` operator is a boolean, so we can write the function more concisely by returning it directly:

```
def is_divisible(x, y):
    return x % y == 0
```

Boolean functions are often used in conditional statements:

```
if is_divisible(x, y):
    print('x is divisible by y')
```

It might be tempting to write something like:

```
if is_divisible(x, y) == True:
    print('x is divisible by y')
```

But the extra comparison is unnecessary.

As an exercise, write a function `is_between(x, y, z)` that returns `True` if  $x \leq y \leq z$  or `False` otherwise.

## 6.5 More recursion

We have only covered a small subset of Python, but you might be interested to know that this subset is a *complete* programming language, which means that anything that can be computed can be expressed in this language. Any program ever written could be rewritten using only the language features you have learned so far (actually, you would need a few commands to control devices like the mouse, disks, etc., but that's all).

Proving that claim is a nontrivial exercise first accomplished by Alan Turing, one of the first computer scientists (some would argue that he was a mathematician, but a lot of early computer scientists started as mathematicians). Accordingly, it is known as the Turing Thesis. For a more complete (and accurate) discussion of the Turing Thesis, I recommend Michael Sipser's book *Introduction to the Theory of Computation*.

To give you an idea of what you can do with the tools you have learned so far, we'll evaluate a few recursively defined mathematical functions. A recursive definition is similar to a circular definition, in the sense that the definition contains a reference to the thing being defined. A truly circular definition is not very useful:

**vorpall:** An adjective used to describe something that is vorpal.

If you saw that definition in the dictionary, you might be annoyed. On the other hand, if you looked up the definition of the factorial function, denoted with the symbol  $!$ , you might get something like this:

$$\begin{aligned} 0! &= 1 \\ n! &= n(n-1)! \end{aligned}$$

This definition says that the factorial of 0 is 1, and the factorial of any other value,  $n$ , is  $n$  multiplied by the factorial of  $n - 1$ .

So  $3!$  is 3 times  $2!$ , which is 2 times  $1!$ , which is 1 times  $0!$ . Putting it all together,  $3!$  equals 3 times 2 times 1 times 1, which is 6.

If you can write a recursive definition of something, you can write a Python program to evaluate it. The first step is to decide what the parameters should be. In this case it should be clear that `factorial` takes an integer:

```
def factorial(n):
```

If the argument happens to be 0, all we have to do is return 1:

```
def factorial(n):
    if n == 0:
        return 1
```

Otherwise, and this is the interesting part, we have to make a recursive call to find the factorial of  $n - 1$  and then multiply it by  $n$ :

```
def factorial(n):
    if n == 0:
        return 1
    else:
        recurse = factorial(n-1)
        result = n * recurse
        return result
```

The flow of execution for this program is similar to the flow of countdown in Section 5.8. If we call `factorial` with the value 3:

Since 3 is not 0, we take the second branch and calculate the factorial of  $n-1$ ...

Since 2 is not 0, we take the second branch and calculate the factorial of  $n-1$ ...

Since 1 is not 0, we take the second branch and calculate the factorial of  $n-1$ ...

Since 0 equals 0, we take the first branch and return 1 without making any more recursive calls.

The return value, 1, is multiplied by  $n$ , which is 1, and the result is returned.

The return value, 1, is multiplied by  $n$ , which is 2, and the result is returned.

The return value (2) is multiplied by  $n$ , which is 3, and the result, 6, becomes the return value of the function call that started the whole process.

Figure 6.1 shows what the stack diagram looks like for this sequence of function calls.

The return values are shown being passed back up the stack. In each frame, the return value is the value of `result`, which is the product of `n` and `recurse`.

In the last frame, the local variables `recurse` and `result` do not exist, because the branch that creates them does not run.

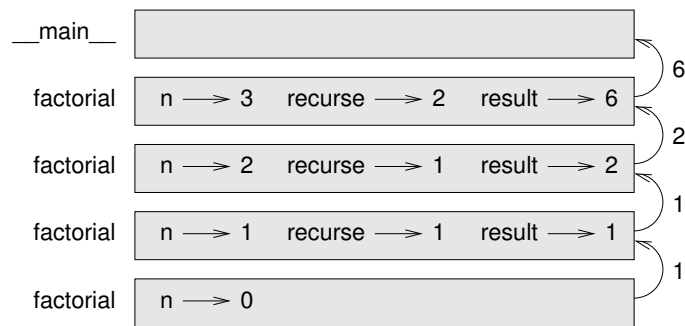


图 6.1: Stack diagram.

## 6.6 Leap of faith

Following the flow of execution is one way to read programs, but it can quickly become overwhelming. An alternative is what I call the “leap of faith”. When you come to a function call, instead of following the flow of execution, you *assume* that the function works correctly and returns the right result.

In fact, you are already practicing this leap of faith when you use built-in functions. When you call `math.cos` or `math.exp`, you don’t examine the bodies of those functions. You just assume that they work because the people who wrote the built-in functions were good programmers.

The same is true when you call one of your own functions. For example, in Section 6.4, we wrote a function called `is_divisible` that determines whether one number is divisible by another. Once we have convinced ourselves that this function is correct—by examining the code and testing—we can use the function without looking at the body again.

The same is true of recursive programs. When you get to the recursive call, instead of following the flow of execution, you should assume that the recursive call works (returns the correct result) and then ask yourself, “Assuming that I can find the factorial of  $n - 1$ , can I compute the factorial of  $n$ ?” It is clear that you can, by multiplying by  $n$ .

Of course, it’s a bit strange to assume that the function works correctly when you haven’t finished writing it, but that’s why it’s called a leap of faith!

## 6.7 One more example

After `factorial`, the most common example of a recursively defined mathematical function is `fibonacci`, which has the following definition (see [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fibonacci\\_number](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fibonacci_number)):

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

Translated into Python, it looks like this:

```
def fibonacci(n):
    if n == 0:
        return 0
    elif n == 1:
        return 1
    else:
        return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2)
```

If you try to follow the flow of execution here, even for fairly small values of  $n$ , your head explodes. But according to the leap of faith, if you assume that the two recursive calls work correctly, then it is clear that you get the right result by adding them together.

## 6.8 Checking types

What happens if we call `factorial` and give it 1.5 as an argument?

```
>>> factorial(1.5)
RuntimeError: Maximum recursion depth exceeded
```

It looks like an infinite recursion. How can that be? The function has a base case—when  $n == 0$ . But if  $n$  is not an integer, we can *miss* the base case and recurse forever.

In the first recursive call, the value of  $n$  is 0.5. In the next, it is -0.5. From there, it gets smaller (more negative), but it will never be 0.

We have two choices. We can try to generalize the `factorial` function to work with floating-point numbers, or we can make `factorial` check the type of its argument. The first option is called the gamma function and it's a little beyond the scope of this book. So we'll go for the second.

We can use the built-in function `isinstance` to verify the type of the argument. While we're at it, we can also make sure the argument is positive:

```
def factorial(n):
    if not isinstance(n, int):
        print('Factorial is only defined for integers.')
        return None
    elif n < 0:
        print('Factorial is not defined for negative integers.')
        return None
    elif n == 0:
        return 1
    else:
        return n * factorial(n-1)
```

The first base case handles nonintegers; the second handles negative integers. In both cases, the program prints an error message and returns `None` to indicate that something went wrong:

```
>>> print(factorial('fred'))
Factorial is only defined for integers.
None
>>> print(factorial(-2))
Factorial is not defined for negative integers.
None
```



If we get past both checks, we know that  $n$  is a non-negative integer, so we can prove that the recursion terminates.

This program demonstrates a pattern sometimes called a **guardian**. The first two conditionals act as guardians, protecting the code that follows from values that might cause an error. The guardians make it possible to prove the correctness of the code.

In Section 11.4 we will see a more flexible alternative to printing an error message: raising an exception.

## 6.9 Debugging

Breaking a large program into smaller functions creates natural checkpoints for debugging. If a function is not working, there are three possibilities to consider:

- There is something wrong with the arguments the function is getting; a precondition is violated.
- There is something wrong with the function; a postcondition is violated.
- There is something wrong with the return value or the way it is being used.

To rule out the first possibility, you can add a `print` statement at the beginning of the function and display the values of the parameters (and maybe their types). Or you can write code that checks the preconditions explicitly.

If the parameters look good, add a `print` statement before each `return` statement and display the return value. If possible, check the result by hand. Consider calling the function with values that make it easy to check the result (as in Section 6.2).

If the function seems to be working, look at the function call to make sure the return value is being used correctly (or used at all!).

Adding `print` statements at the beginning and end of a function can help make the flow of execution more visible. For example, here is a version of `factorial` with `print` statements:

```
def factorial(n):
    space = ' ' * (4 * n)
    print(space, 'factorial', n)
    if n == 0:
        print(space, 'returning 1')
        return 1
    else:
        recurse = factorial(n-1)
        result = n * recurse
        print(space, 'returning', result)
        return result
```

`space` is a string of space characters that controls the indentation of the output. Here is the result of `factorial(4)`:

```

        factorial 4
    factorial 3
    factorial 2
    factorial 1
    factorial 0
    returning 1
    returning 1
    returning 2
    returning 6
    returning 24

```

If you are confused about the flow of execution, this kind of output can be helpful. It takes some time to develop effective scaffolding, but a little bit of scaffolding can save a lot of debugging.

## 6.10 Glossary

**temporary variable:** A variable used to store an intermediate value in a complex calculation.

**dead code:** Part of a program that can never run, often because it appears after a return statement.

**incremental development:** A program development plan intended to avoid debugging by adding and testing only a small amount of code at a time.

**scaffolding:** Code that is used during program development but is not part of the final version.

**guardian:** A programming pattern that uses a conditional statement to check for and handle circumstances that might cause an error.

## 6.11 Exercises

**Exercise 6.1.** Draw a stack diagram for the following program. What does the program print?

```

def b(z):
    prod = a(z, z)
    print(z, prod)
    return prod

def a(x, y):
    x = x + 1
    return x * y

def c(x, y, z):
    total = x + y + z
    square = b(total)**2
    return square

```

```
x = 1
y = x + 1
print(c(x, y+3, x+y))
```

**Exercise 6.2.** The Ackermann function,  $A(m, n)$ , is defined:

$$A(m, n) = \begin{cases} n + 1 & \text{if } m = 0 \\ A(m - 1, 1) & \text{if } m > 0 \text{ and } n = 0 \\ A(m - 1, A(m, n - 1)) & \text{if } m > 0 \text{ and } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ackermann\\_function](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ackermann_function). Write a function named `ack` that evaluates the Ackermann function. Use your function to evaluate `ack(3, 4)`, which should be 125. What happens for larger values of `m` and `n`? Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/ackermann.py>.

**Exercise 6.3.** A palindrome is a word that is spelled the same backward and forward, like “noon” and “redivider”. Recursively, a word is a palindrome if the first and last letters are the same and the middle is a palindrome.

The following are functions that take a string argument and return the first, last, and middle letters:

```
def first(word):
    return word[0]

def last(word):
    return word[-1]

def middle(word):
    return word[1:-1]
```

We'll see how they work in Chapter 8.

1. Type these functions into a file named `palindrome.py` and test them out. What happens if you call `middle` with a string with two letters? One letter? What about the empty string, which is written `''` and contains no letters?
2. Write a function called `is_palindrome` that takes a string argument and returns `True` if it is a palindrome and `False` otherwise. Remember that you can use the built-in function `len` to check the length of a string.

Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/palindrome\\_soln.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/palindrome_soln.py).

**Exercise 6.4.** A number, `a`, is a power of `b` if it is divisible by `b` and `a/b` is a power of `b`. Write a function called `is_power` that takes parameters `a` and `b` and returns `True` if `a` is a power of `b`. Note: you will have to think about the base case.

**Exercise 6.5.** The greatest common divisor (GCD) of `a` and `b` is the largest number that divides both of them with no remainder.

One way to find the GCD of two numbers is based on the observation that if `r` is the remainder when `a` is divided by `b`, then `gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r)`. As a base case, we can use `gcd(a, 0) = a`.

Write a function called `gcd` that takes parameters `a` and `b` and returns their greatest common divisor.

Credit: This exercise is based on an example from Abelson and Sussman's *Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs*.



# 第7章 Iteration

This chapter is about iteration, which is the ability to run a block of statements repeatedly. We saw a kind of iteration, using recursion, in Section 5.8. We saw another kind, using a `for` loop, in Section 4.2. In this chapter we'll see yet another kind, using a `while` statement. But first I want to say a little more about variable assignment.

## 7.1 Reassignment

As you may have discovered, it is legal to make more than one assignment to the same variable. A new assignment makes an existing variable refer to a new value (and stop referring to the old value).

```
>>> x = 5
>>> x
5
>>> x = 7
>>> x
7
```

The first time we display `x`, its value is 5; the second time, its value is 7.

Figure 7.1 shows what **reassignment** looks like in a state diagram.

At this point I want to address a common source of confusion. Because Python uses the equal sign (`=`) for assignment, it is tempting to interpret a statement like `a = b` as a mathematical proposition of equality; that is, the claim that `a` and `b` are equal. But this interpretation is wrong.

First, equality is a symmetric relationship and assignment is not. For example, in mathematics, if  $a = 7$  then  $7 = a$ . But in Python, the statement `a = 7` is legal and `7 = a` is not.

Also, in mathematics, a proposition of equality is either true or false for all time. If  $a = b$  now, then  $a$  will always equal  $b$ . In Python, an assignment statement can make two variables equal, but they don't have to stay that way:

```
>>> a = 5
>>> b = a      # a and b are now equal
>>> a = 3      # a and b are no longer equal
>>> b
5
```

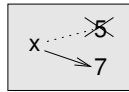


图 7.1: State diagram.

The third line changes the value of `a` but does not change the value of `b`, so they are no longer equal.

Reassigning variables is often useful, but you should use it with caution. If the values of variables change frequently, it can make the code difficult to read and debug.

## 7.2 Updating variables

A common kind of reassignment is an **update**, where the new value of the variable depends on the old.

```
>>> x = x + 1
```

This means “get the current value of `x`, add one, and then update `x` with the new value.”

If you try to update a variable that doesn’t exist, you get an error, because Python evaluates the right side before it assigns a value to `x`:

```
>>> x = x + 1
```

```
NameError: name 'x' is not defined
```

Before you can update a variable, you have to **initialize** it, usually with a simple assignment:

```
>>> x = 0
```

```
>>> x = x + 1
```

Updating a variable by adding 1 is called an **increment**; subtracting 1 is called a **decrement**.

## 7.3 The while statement

Computers are often used to automate repetitive tasks. Repeating identical or similar tasks without making errors is something that computers do well and people do poorly. In a computer program, repetition is also called **iteration**.

We have already seen two functions, `countdown` and `print_n`, that iterate using recursion. Because iteration is so common, Python provides language features to make it easier. One is the `for` statement we saw in Section 4.2. We’ll get back to that later.

Another is the `while` statement. Here is a version of `countdown` that uses a `while` statement:

```
def countdown(n):
    while n > 0:
        print(n)
        n = n - 1
    print('Blastoff!')
```

You can almost read the `while` statement as if it were English. It means, “While `n` is greater than 0, display the value of `n` and then decrement `n`. When you get to 0, display the word `Blastoff!`”

More formally, here is the flow of execution for a `while` statement:

1. Determine whether the condition is true or false.
2. If false, exit the `while` statement and continue execution at the next statement.
3. If the condition is true, run the body and then go back to step 1.

This type of flow is called a loop because the third step loops back around to the top.

The body of the loop should change the value of one or more variables so that the condition becomes false eventually and the loop terminates. Otherwise the loop will repeat forever, which is called an **infinite loop**. An endless source of amusement for computer scientists is the observation that the directions on shampoo, “Lather, rinse, repeat”, are an infinite loop.

In the case of countdown, we can prove that the loop terminates: if `n` is zero or negative, the loop never runs. Otherwise, `n` gets smaller each time through the loop, so eventually we have to get to 0.

For some other loops, it is not so easy to tell. For example:

```
def sequence(n):
    while n != 1:
        print(n)
        if n % 2 == 0:           # n is even
            n = n / 2
        else:                   # n is odd
            n = n*3 + 1
```

The condition for this loop is `n != 1`, so the loop will continue until `n` is 1, which makes the condition false.

Each time through the loop, the program outputs the value of `n` and then checks whether it is even or odd. If it is even, `n` is divided by 2. If it is odd, the value of `n` is replaced with `n*3 + 1`. For example, if the argument passed to `sequence` is 3, the resulting values of `n` are 3, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1.

Since `n` sometimes increases and sometimes decreases, there is no obvious proof that `n` will ever reach 1, or that the program terminates. For some particular values of `n`, we can prove termination. For example, if the starting value is a power of two, `n` will be even every time through the loop until it reaches 1. The previous example ends with such a sequence, starting with 16.

The hard question is whether we can prove that this program terminates for *all* positive values of `n`. So far, no one has been able to prove it *or* disprove it! (See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collatz\\_conjecture](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collatz_conjecture).)

As an exercise, rewrite the function `print_n` from Section 5.8 using iteration instead of recursion.

## 7.4 break

Sometimes you don't know it's time to end a loop until you get half way through the body. In that case you can use the `break` statement to jump out of the loop.

For example, suppose you want to take input from the user until they type done. You could write:

```
while True:
    line = input('> ')
    if line == 'done':
        break
    print(line)

print('Done!')
```

The loop condition is `True`, which is always true, so the loop runs until it hits the `break` statement.

Each time through, it prompts the user with an angle bracket. If the user types done, the `break` statement exits the loop. Otherwise the program echoes whatever the user types and goes back to the top of the loop. Here's a sample run:

```
> not done
not done
> done
Done!
```

This way of writing `while` loops is common because you can check the condition anywhere in the loop (not just at the top) and you can express the stop condition affirmatively ("stop when this happens") rather than negatively ("keep going until that happens").

## 7.5 Square roots

Loops are often used in programs that compute numerical results by starting with an approximate answer and iteratively improving it.

For example, one way of computing square roots is Newton's method. Suppose that you want to know the square root of  $a$ . If you start with almost any estimate,  $x$ , you can compute a better estimate with the following formula:

$$y = \frac{x + a/x}{2}$$

For example, if  $a$  is 4 and  $x$  is 3:

```
>>> a = 4
>>> x = 3
>>> y = (x + a/x) / 2
>>> y
2.16666666667
```

The result is closer to the correct answer ( $\sqrt{4} = 2$ ). If we repeat the process with the new estimate, it gets even closer:



```
>>> x = y
>>> y = (x + a/x) / 2
>>> y
2.00641025641
```

After a few more updates, the estimate is almost exact:

```
>>> x = y
>>> y = (x + a/x) / 2
>>> y
2.00001024003
>>> x = y
>>> y = (x + a/x) / 2
>>> y
2.00000000003
```

In general we don't know ahead of time how many steps it takes to get to the right answer, but we know when we get there because the estimate stops changing:

```
>>> x = y
>>> y = (x + a/x) / 2
>>> y
2.0
>>> x = y
>>> y = (x + a/x) / 2
>>> y
2.0
```

When `y == x`, we can stop. Here is a loop that starts with an initial estimate, `x`, and improves it until it stops changing:

```
while True:
    print(x)
    y = (x + a/x) / 2
    if y == x:
        break
    x = y
```

For most values of `a` this works fine, but in general it is dangerous to test float equality. Floating-point values are only approximately right: most rational numbers, like  $1/3$ , and irrational numbers, like  $\sqrt{2}$ , can't be represented exactly with a float.

Rather than checking whether `x` and `y` are exactly equal, it is safer to use the built-in function `abs` to compute the absolute value, or magnitude, of the difference between them:

```
if abs(y-x) < epsilon:
    break
```

Where `epsilon` has a value like `0.0000001` that determines how close is close enough.

## 7.6 Algorithms

Newton's method is an example of an **algorithm**: it is a mechanical process for solving a category of problems (in this case, computing square roots).

To understand what an algorithm is, it might help to start with something that is not an algorithm. When you learned to multiply single-digit numbers, you probably memorized the multiplication table. In effect, you memorized 100 specific solutions. That kind of knowledge is not algorithmic.

But if you were “lazy”, you might have learned a few tricks. For example, to find the product of  $n$  and 9, you can write  $n - 1$  as the first digit and  $10 - n$  as the second digit. This trick is a general solution for multiplying any single-digit number by 9. That’s an algorithm!

Similarly, the techniques you learned for addition with carrying, subtraction with borrowing, and long division are all algorithms. One of the characteristics of algorithms is that they do not require any intelligence to carry out. They are mechanical processes where each step follows from the last according to a simple set of rules.

Executing algorithms is boring, but designing them is interesting, intellectually challenging, and a central part of computer science.

Some of the things that people do naturally, without difficulty or conscious thought, are the hardest to express algorithmically. Understanding natural language is a good example. We all do it, but so far no one has been able to explain *how* we do it, at least not in the form of an algorithm.

## 7.7 Debugging

As you start writing bigger programs, you might find yourself spending more time debugging. More code means more chances to make an error and more places for bugs to hide.

One way to cut your debugging time is “debugging by bisection”. For example, if there are 100 lines in your program and you check them one at a time, it would take 100 steps.

Instead, try to break the problem in half. Look at the middle of the program, or near it, for an intermediate value you can check. Add a `print` statement (or something else that has a verifiable effect) and run the program.

If the mid-point check is incorrect, there must be a problem in the first half of the program. If it is correct, the problem is in the second half.

Every time you perform a check like this, you halve the number of lines you have to search. After six steps (which is fewer than 100), you would be down to one or two lines of code, at least in theory.

In practice it is not always clear what the “middle of the program” is and not always possible to check it. It doesn’t make sense to count lines and find the exact midpoint. Instead, think about places in the program where there might be errors and places where it is easy to put a check. Then choose a spot where you think the chances are about the same that the bug is before or after the check.

## 7.8 Glossary

**reassignment:** Assigning a new value to a variable that already exists.

**update:** An assignment where the new value of the variable depends on the old.

**initialization:** An assignment that gives an initial value to a variable that will be updated.

**increment:** An update that increases the value of a variable (often by one).

**decrement:** An update that decreases the value of a variable.

**iteration:** Repeated execution of a set of statements using either a recursive function call or a loop.

**infinite loop:** A loop in which the terminating condition is never satisfied.

**algorithm:** A general process for solving a category of problems.

## 7.9 Exercises

**Exercise 7.1.** Copy the loop from Section 7.5 and encapsulate it in a function called `mysqrt` that takes `a` as a parameter, chooses a reasonable value of `x`, and returns an estimate of the square root of `a`.

To test it, write a function named `test_square_root` that prints a table like this:

| <code>a</code> | <code>mysqrt(a)</code> | <code>math.sqrt(a)</code> | <code>diff</code> |
|----------------|------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------|
| 1.0            | 1.0                    | 1.0                       | 0.0               |
| 2.0            | 1.41421356237          | 1.41421356237             | 2.22044604925e-16 |
| 3.0            | 1.73205080757          | 1.73205080757             | 0.0               |
| 4.0            | 2.0                    | 2.0                       | 0.0               |
| 5.0            | 2.2360679775           | 2.2360679775              | 0.0               |
| 6.0            | 2.44948974278          | 2.44948974278             | 0.0               |
| 7.0            | 2.64575131106          | 2.64575131106             | 0.0               |
| 8.0            | 2.82842712475          | 2.82842712475             | 4.4408920985e-16  |
| 9.0            | 3.0                    | 3.0                       | 0.0               |

The first column is a number, `a`; the second column is the square root of `a` computed with `mysqrt`; the third column is the square root computed by `math.sqrt`; the fourth column is the absolute value of the difference between the two estimates.

**Exercise 7.2.** The built-in function `eval` takes a string and evaluates it using the Python interpreter. For example:

```
>>> eval('1 + 2 * 3')
7
>>> import math
>>> eval('math.sqrt(5)')
2.2360679774997898
>>> eval('type(math.pi)')
<class 'float'>
```

Write a function called `eval_loop` that iteratively prompts the user, takes the resulting input and evaluates it using `eval`, and prints the result.

It should continue until the user enters 'done', and then return the value of the last expression it evaluated.

**Exercise 7.3.** The mathematician Srinivasa Ramanujan found an infinite series that can be used to generate a numerical approximation of  $1/\pi$ :

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{9801} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(4k)!(1103 + 26390k)}{(k!)^4 396^{4k}}$$

Write a function called `estimate_pi` that uses this formula to compute and return an estimate of  $\pi$ . It should use a `while` loop to compute terms of the summation until the last term is smaller than `1e-15` (which is Python notation for  $10^{-15}$ ). You can check the result by comparing it to `math.pi`.

Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/pi.py>.

## 第8章 Strings

Strings are not like integers, floats, and booleans. A string is a **sequence**, which means it is an ordered collection of other values. In this chapter you'll see how to access the characters that make up a string, and you'll learn about some of the methods strings provide.

### 8.1 A string is a sequence

A string is a sequence of characters. You can access the characters one at a time with the bracket operator:

```
>>> fruit = 'banana'
>>> letter = fruit[1]
```

The second statement selects character number 1 from `fruit` and assigns it to `letter`.

The expression in brackets is called an **index**. The index indicates which character in the sequence you want (hence the name).

But you might not get what you expect:

```
>>> letter
'a'
```

For most people, the first letter of 'banana' is b, not a. But for computer scientists, the index is an offset from the beginning of the string, and the offset of the first letter is zero.

```
>>> letter = fruit[0]
>>> letter
'b'
```

So b is the 0th letter ("zero-eth") of 'banana', a is the 1th letter ("one-eth"), and n is the 2th letter ("two-eth").

As an index you can use an expression that contains variables and operators:

```
>>> i = 1
>>> fruit[i]
'a'
>>> fruit[i+1]
'n'
```

But the value of the index has to be an integer. Otherwise you get:

```
>>> letter = fruit[1.5]
TypeError: string indices must be integers
```

## 8.2 len

`len` is a built-in function that returns the number of characters in a string:

```
>>> fruit = 'banana'
>>> len(fruit)
6
```

To get the last letter of a string, you might be tempted to try something like this:

```
>>> length = len(fruit)
>>> last = fruit[length]
IndexError: string index out of range
```

The reason for the `IndexError` is that there is no letter in 'banana' with the index 6. Since we started counting at zero, the six letters are numbered 0 to 5. To get the last character, you have to subtract 1 from `length`:

```
>>> last = fruit[length-1]
>>> last
'a'
```

Or you can use negative indices, which count backward from the end of the string. The expression `fruit[-1]` yields the last letter, `fruit[-2]` yields the second to last, and so on.

## 8.3 Traversal with a for loop

A lot of computations involve processing a string one character at a time. Often they start at the beginning, select each character in turn, do something to it, and continue until the end. This pattern of processing is called a **traversal**. One way to write a traversal is with a `while` loop:

```
index = 0
while index < len(fruit):
    letter = fruit[index]
    print(letter)
    index = index + 1
```

This loop traverses the string and displays each letter on a line by itself. The loop condition is `index < len(fruit)`, so when `index` is equal to the length of the string, the condition is false, and the body of the loop doesn't run. The last character accessed is the one with the index `len(fruit)-1`, which is the last character in the string.

As an exercise, write a function that takes a string as an argument and displays the letters backward, one per line.

Another way to write a traversal is with a `for` loop:

```
for letter in fruit:
    print(letter)
```

Each time through the loop, the next character in the string is assigned to the variable `letter`. The loop continues until no characters are left.

The following example shows how to use concatenation (string addition) and a `for` loop to generate an abecedarian series (that is, in alphabetical order). In Robert McCloskey's book *Make Way for Ducklings*, the names of the ducklings are Jack, Kack, Lack, Mack, Nack, Ouack, Pack, and Quack. This loop outputs these names in order:

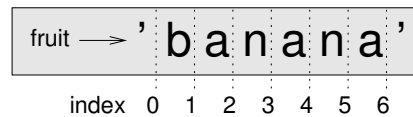


图 8.1: Slice indices.

```
prefixes = 'JKLMNOPQ'
suffix = 'ack'
```

```
for letter in prefixes:
    print(letter + suffix)
```

The output is:

```
Jack
Kack
Lack
Mack
Nack
Oack
Pack
Qack
```

Of course, that's not quite right because "Ouack" and "Quack" are misspelled. As an exercise, modify the program to fix this error.

## 8.4 String slices

A segment of a string is called a **slice**. Selecting a slice is similar to selecting a character:

```
>>> s = 'Monty Python'
>>> s[0:5]
'Monty'
>>> s[6:12]
'Python'
```

The operator `[n:m]` returns the part of the string from the "n-eth" character to the "m-eth" character, including the first but excluding the last. This behavior is counterintuitive, but it might help to imagine the indices pointing *between* the characters, as in Figure 8.1.

If you omit the first index (before the colon), the slice starts at the beginning of the string. If you omit the second index, the slice goes to the end of the string:

```
>>> fruit = 'banana'
>>> fruit[:3]
'ban'
>>> fruit[3:]
'ana'
```

If the first index is greater than or equal to the second the result is an **empty string**, represented by two quotation marks:

```
>>> fruit = 'banana'
>>> fruit[3:3]
''
```

An empty string contains no characters and has length 0, but other than that, it is the same as any other string.

Continuing this example, what do you think `fruit[:]` means? Try it and see.

## 8.5 Strings are immutable

It is tempting to use the `[]` operator on the left side of an assignment, with the intention of changing a character in a string. For example:

```
>>> greeting = 'Hello, world!'
>>> greeting[0] = 'J'
TypeError: 'str' object does not support item assignment
```

The “object” in this case is the string and the “item” is the character you tried to assign. For now, an object is the same thing as a value, but we will refine that definition later (Section 10.10).

The reason for the error is that strings are **immutable**, which means you can’t change an existing string. The best you can do is create a new string that is a variation on the original:

```
>>> greeting = 'Hello, world!'
>>> new_greeting = 'J' + greeting[1:]
>>> new_greeting
'Jello, world!'
```

This example concatenates a new first letter onto a slice of `greeting`. It has no effect on the original string.

## 8.6 Searching

What does the following function do?

```
def find(word, letter):
    index = 0
    while index < len(word):
        if word[index] == letter:
            return index
        index = index + 1
    return -1
```

In a sense, `find` is the inverse of the `[]` operator. Instead of taking an index and extracting the corresponding character, it takes a character and finds the index where that character appears. If the character is not found, the function returns `-1`.

This is the first example we have seen of a `return` statement inside a loop. If `word[index] == letter`, the function breaks out of the loop and returns immediately.

If the character doesn’t appear in the string, the program exits the loop normally and returns `-1`.

This pattern of computation—traversing a sequence and returning when we find what we are looking for—is called a **search**.

As an exercise, modify `find` so that it has a third parameter, the index in `word` where it should start looking.



## 8.7 Looping and counting

The following program counts the number of times the letter a appears in a string:

```
word = 'banana'
count = 0
for letter in word:
    if letter == 'a':
        count = count + 1
print(count)
```

This program demonstrates another pattern of computation called a **counter**. The variable `count` is initialized to 0 and then incremented each time an a is found. When the loop exits, `count` contains the result—the total number of a's.

As an exercise, encapsulate this code in a function named `count`, and generalize it so that it accepts the string and the letter as arguments.

Then rewrite the function so that instead of traversing the string, it uses the three-parameter version of `find` from the previous section.

## 8.8 String methods

Strings provide methods that perform a variety of useful operations. A method is similar to a function—it takes arguments and returns a value—but the syntax is different. For example, the method `upper` takes a string and returns a new string with all uppercase letters.

Instead of the function syntax `upper(word)`, it uses the method syntax `word.upper()`.

```
>>> word = 'banana'
>>> new_word = word.upper()
>>> new_word
'BANANA'
```

This form of dot notation specifies the name of the method, `upper`, and the name of the string to apply the method to, `word`. The empty parentheses indicate that this method takes no arguments.

A method call is called an **invocation**; in this case, we would say that we are invoking `upper` on `word`.

As it turns out, there is a string method named `find` that is remarkably similar to the function we wrote:

```
>>> word = 'banana'
>>> index = word.find('a')
>>> index
1
```

In this example, we invoke `find` on `word` and pass the letter we are looking for as a parameter.

Actually, the `find` method is more general than our function; it can find substrings, not just characters:

```
>>> word.find('na')
2
```

By default, `find` starts at the beginning of the string, but it can take a second argument, the index where it should start:

```
>>> word.find('na', 3)
4
```

This is an example of an **optional argument**; `find` can also take a third argument, the index where it should stop:

```
>>> name = 'bob'
>>> name.find('b', 1, 2)
-1
```

This search fails because `b` does not appear in the index range from 1 to 2, not including 2. Searching up to, but not including, the second index makes `find` consistent with the slice operator.

## 8.9 The `in` operator

The word `in` is a boolean operator that takes two strings and returns `True` if the first appears as a substring in the second:

```
>>> 'a' in 'banana'
True
>>> 'seed' in 'banana'
False
```

For example, the following function prints all the letters from `word1` that also appear in `word2`:

```
def in_both(word1, word2):
    for letter in word1:
        if letter in word2:
            print(letter)
```

With well-chosen variable names, Python sometimes reads like English. You could read this loop, “for (each) letter in (the first) word, if (the) letter (appears) in (the second) word, print (the) letter.”

Here’s what you get if you compare apples and oranges:

```
>>> in_both('apples', 'oranges')
a
e
s
```

## 8.10 String comparison

The relational operators work on strings. To see if two strings are equal:

```
if word == 'banana':
    print('All right, bananas.')
```

Other relational operations are useful for putting words in alphabetical order:

```
if word < 'banana':
    print('Your word, ' + word + ', comes before banana.')
elif word > 'banana':
    print('Your word, ' + word + ', comes after banana.')
else:
    print('All right, bananas.')
```

Python does not handle uppercase and lowercase letters the same way people do. All the uppercase letters come before all the lowercase letters, so:

Your word, Pineapple, comes before banana.

A common way to address this problem is to convert strings to a standard format, such as all lowercase, before performing the comparison. Keep that in mind in case you have to defend yourself against a man armed with a Pineapple.

## 8.11 Debugging

When you use indices to traverse the values in a sequence, it is tricky to get the beginning and end of the traversal right. Here is a function that is supposed to compare two words and return True if one of the words is the reverse of the other, but it contains two errors:

```
def is_reverse(word1, word2):
    if len(word1) != len(word2):
        return False

    i = 0
    j = len(word2)

    while j > 0:
        if word1[i] != word2[j]:
            return False
        i = i+1
        j = j-1

    return True
```

The first if statement checks whether the words are the same length. If not, we can return False immediately. Otherwise, for the rest of the function, we can assume that the words are the same length. This is an example of the guardian pattern in Section 6.8.

i and j are indices: i traverses word1 forward while j traverses word2 backward. If we find two letters that don't match, we can return False immediately. If we get through the whole loop and all the letters match, we return True.

If we test this function with the words "pots" and "stop", we expect the return value True, but we get an IndexError:

```
>>> is_reverse('pots', 'stop')
...
File "reverse.py", line 15, in is_reverse
    if word1[i] != word2[j]:
IndexError: string index out of range
```

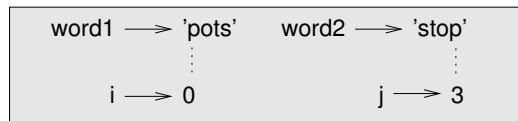


图 8.2: State diagram.

For debugging this kind of error, my first move is to print the values of the indices immediately before the line where the error appears.

```

while j > 0:
    print(i, j)          # print here

    if word1[i] != word2[j]:
        return False
    i = i+1
    j = j-1

```

Now when I run the program again, I get more information:

```

>>> is_reverse('pots', 'stop')
0 4
...
IndexError: string index out of range

```

The first time through the loop, the value of `j` is 4, which is out of range for the string `'pots'`. The index of the last character is 3, so the initial value for `j` should be `len(word2)-1`.

If I fix that error and run the program again, I get:

```

>>> is_reverse('pots', 'stop')
0 3
1 2
2 1
True

```

This time we get the right answer, but it looks like the loop only ran three times, which is suspicious. To get a better idea of what is happening, it is useful to draw a state diagram. During the first iteration, the frame for `is_reverse` is shown in Figure 8.2.

I took some license by arranging the variables in the frame and adding dotted lines to show that the values of `i` and `j` indicate characters in `word1` and `word2`.

Starting with this diagram, run the program on paper, changing the values of `i` and `j` during each iteration. Find and fix the second error in this function.

## 8.12 Glossary

**object:** Something a variable can refer to. For now, you can use “object” and “value” interchangeably.

**sequence:** An ordered collection of values where each value is identified by an integer index.

**item:** One of the values in a sequence.

**index:** An integer value used to select an item in a sequence, such as a character in a string. In Python indices start from 0.

**slice:** A part of a string specified by a range of indices.

**empty string:** A string with no characters and length 0, represented by two quotation marks.

**immutable:** The property of a sequence whose items cannot be changed.

**traverse:** To iterate through the items in a sequence, performing a similar operation on each.

**search:** A pattern of traversal that stops when it finds what it is looking for.

**counter:** A variable used to count something, usually initialized to zero and then incremented.

**invocation:** A statement that calls a method.

**optional argument:** A function or method argument that is not required.

## 8.13 Exercises

**Exercise 8.1.** Read the documentation of the string methods at <http://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#string-methods>. You might want to experiment with some of them to make sure you understand how they work. `strip` and `replace` are particularly useful.

The documentation uses a syntax that might be confusing. For example, in `find(sub[, start[, end]])`, the brackets indicate optional arguments. So `sub` is required, but `start` is optional, and if you include `start`, then `end` is optional.

**Exercise 8.2.** There is a string method called `count` that is similar to the function in Section 8.7. Read the documentation of this method and write an invocation that counts the number of `a`'s in `'banana'`.

**Exercise 8.3.** A string slice can take a third index that specifies the “step size”; that is, the number of spaces between successive characters. A step size of 2 means every other character; 3 means every third, etc.

```
>>> fruit = 'banana'
>>> fruit[0:5:2]
'bnn'
```

A step size of `-1` goes through the word backwards, so the slice `[: :-1]` generates a reversed string.

Use this idiom to write a one-line version of `is_palindrome` from Exercise 6.3.

**Exercise 8.4.** The following functions are all intended to check whether a string contains any lowercase letters, but at least some of them are wrong. For each function, describe what the function actually does (assuming that the parameter is a string).

```
def any_lowercase1(s):
    for c in s:
        if c.islower():
            return True
```

```

        else:
            return False

def any_lowercase2(s):
    for c in s:
        if 'c'.islower():
            return 'True'
        else:
            return 'False'

def any_lowercase3(s):
    for c in s:
        flag = c.islower()
    return flag

def any_lowercase4(s):
    flag = False
    for c in s:
        flag = flag or c.islower()
    return flag

def any_lowercase5(s):
    for c in s:
        if not c.islower():
            return False
    return True

```

**Exercise 8.5.** A Caesar cypher is a weak form of encryption that involves “rotating” each letter by a fixed number of places. To rotate a letter means to shift it through the alphabet, wrapping around to the beginning if necessary, so ‘A’ rotated by 3 is ‘D’ and ‘Z’ rotated by 1 is ‘A’.

To rotate a word, rotate each letter by the same amount. For example, “cheer” rotated by 7 is “jolly” and “melon” rotated by -10 is “cubed”. In the movie 2001: A Space Odyssey, the ship computer is called HAL, which is IBM rotated by -1.

Write a function called `rotate_word` that takes a string and an integer as parameters, and returns a new string that contains the letters from the original string rotated by the given amount.

You might want to use the built-in function `ord`, which converts a character to a numeric code, and `chr`, which converts numeric codes to characters. Letters of the alphabet are encoded in alphabetical order, so for example:

```
>>> ord('c') - ord('a')
2
```

Because ‘c’ is the two-eth letter of the alphabet. But beware: the numeric codes for upper case letters are different.

Potentially offensive jokes on the Internet are sometimes encoded in ROT13, which is a Caesar cypher with rotation 13. If you are not easily offended, find and decode some of them. Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/rotate.py>.

## 第9章 Case study: word play

This chapter presents the second case study, which involves solving word puzzles by searching for words that have certain properties. For example, we'll find the longest palindromes in English and search for words whose letters appear in alphabetical order. And I will present another program development plan: reduction to a previously solved problem.

### 9.1 Reading word lists

For the exercises in this chapter we need a list of English words. There are lots of word lists available on the Web, but the one most suitable for our purpose is one of the word lists collected and contributed to the public domain by Grady Ward as part of the Moby lexicon project (see [http://wikipedia.org/wiki/Moby\\_Project](http://wikipedia.org/wiki/Moby_Project)). It is a list of 113,809 official crosswords; that is, words that are considered valid in crossword puzzles and other word games. In the Moby collection, the filename is `113809of.fic`; you can download a copy, with the simpler name `words.txt`, from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/words.txt>.

This file is in plain text, so you can open it with a text editor, but you can also read it from Python. The built-in function `open` takes the name of the file as a parameter and returns a **file object** you can use to read the file.

```
>>> fin = open('words.txt')
```

`fin` is a common name for a file object used for input. The file object provides several methods for reading, including `readline`, which reads characters from the file until it gets to a newline and returns the result as a string:

```
>>> fin.readline()
'aa\n'
```

The first word in this particular list is “aa”, which is a kind of lava. The sequence `\n` represents the newline character that separates this word from the next.

The file object keeps track of where it is in the file, so if you call `readline` again, you get the next word:

```
>>> fin.readline()
'aah\n'
```

The next word is “aah”, which is a perfectly legitimate word, so stop looking at me like that. Or, if it's the newline character that's bothering you, we can get rid of it with the string method `strip`:

```
>>> line = fin.readline()
>>> word = line.strip()
>>> word
'aahed'
```

You can also use a file object as part of a for loop. This program reads `words.txt` and prints each word, one per line:

```
fin = open('words.txt')
for line in fin:
    word = line.strip()
    print(word)
```

## 9.2 Exercises

There are solutions to these exercises in the next section. You should at least attempt each one before you read the solutions.

**Exercise 9.1.** Write a program that reads `words.txt` and prints only the words with more than 20 characters (not counting whitespace).

**Exercise 9.2.** In 1939 Ernest Vincent Wright published a 50,000 word novel called *Gadsby* that does not contain the letter “e”. Since “e” is the most common letter in English, that’s not easy to do.

*In fact, it is difficult to construct a solitary thought without using that most common symbol. It is slow going at first, but with caution and hours of training you can gradually gain facility.*

*All right, I’ll stop now.*

Write a function called `has_no_e` that returns `True` if the given word doesn’t have the letter “e” in it.

Write a program that reads `words.txt` and prints only the words that have no “e”. Compute the percentage of words in the list that have no “e”.

**Exercise 9.3.** Write a function named `avoids` that takes a word and a string of forbidden letters, and that returns `True` if the word doesn’t use any of the forbidden letters.

Write a program that prompts the user to enter a string of forbidden letters and then prints the number of words that don’t contain any of them. Can you find a combination of 5 forbidden letters that excludes the smallest number of words?

**Exercise 9.4.** Write a function named `uses_only` that takes a word and a string of letters, and that returns `True` if the word contains only letters in the list. Can you make a sentence using only the letters `acefhlo`? Other than “Hoe alfalfa”?

**Exercise 9.5.** Write a function named `uses_all` that takes a word and a string of required letters, and that returns `True` if the word uses all the required letters at least once. How many words are there that use all the vowels `aeiou`? How about `aeiouy`?

**Exercise 9.6.** Write a function called `is_abecedarian` that returns `True` if the letters in a word appear in alphabetical order (double letters are ok). How many abecedarian words are there?

## 9.3 Search

All of the exercises in the previous section have something in common; they can be solved with the search pattern we saw in Section 8.6. The simplest example is:



```
def has_no_e(word):
    for letter in word:
        if letter == 'e':
            return False
    return True
```

The for loop traverses the characters in word. If we find the letter “e”, we can immediately return False; otherwise we have to go to the next letter. If we exit the loop normally, that means we didn’t find an “e”, so we return True.

You could write this function more concisely using the in operator, but I started with this version because it demonstrates the logic of the search pattern.

avoids is a more general version of has\_no\_e but it has the same structure:

```
def avoids(word, forbidden):
    for letter in word:
        if letter in forbidden:
            return False
    return True
```

We can return False as soon as we find a forbidden letter; if we get to the end of the loop, we return True.

uses\_only is similar except that the sense of the condition is reversed:

```
def uses_only(word, available):
    for letter in word:
        if letter not in available:
            return False
    return True
```

Instead of a list of forbidden letters, we have a list of available letters. If we find a letter in word that is not in available, we can return False.

uses\_all is similar except that we reverse the role of the word and the string of letters:

```
def uses_all(word, required):
    for letter in required:
        if letter not in word:
            return False
    return True
```

Instead of traversing the letters in word, the loop traverses the required letters. If any of the required letters do not appear in the word, we can return False.

If you were really thinking like a computer scientist, you would have recognized that uses\_all was an instance of a previously solved problem, and you would have written:

```
def uses_all(word, required):
    return uses_only(required, word)
```

This is an example of a program development plan called **reduction to a previously solved problem**, which means that you recognize the problem you are working on as an instance of a solved problem and apply an existing solution.

## 9.4 Looping with indices

I wrote the functions in the previous section with `for` loops because I only needed the characters in the strings; I didn't have to do anything with the indices.

For `is_abecedarian` we have to compare adjacent letters, which is a little tricky with a `for` loop:

```
def is_abecedarian(word):
    previous = word[0]
    for c in word:
        if c < previous:
            return False
        previous = c
    return True
```

An alternative is to use recursion:

```
def is_abecedarian(word):
    if len(word) <= 1:
        return True
    if word[0] > word[1]:
        return False
    return is_abecedarian(word[1:])
```

Another option is to use a `while` loop:

```
def is_abecedarian(word):
    i = 0
    while i < len(word)-1:
        if word[i+1] < word[i]:
            return False
        i = i+1
    return True
```

The loop starts at `i=0` and ends when `i=len(word)-1`. Each time through the loop, it compares the  $i$ th character (which you can think of as the current character) to the  $i + 1$ th character (which you can think of as the next).

If the next character is less than (alphabetically before) the current one, then we have discovered a break in the abecedarian trend, and we return `False`.

If we get to the end of the loop without finding a fault, then the word passes the test. To convince yourself that the loop ends correctly, consider an example like 'flossy'. The length of the word is 6, so the last time the loop runs is when `i` is 4, which is the index of the second-to-last character. On the last iteration, it compares the second-to-last character to the last, which is what we want.

Here is a version of `is_palindrome` (see Exercise 6.3) that uses two indices; one starts at the beginning and goes up; the other starts at the end and goes down.

```
def is_palindrome(word):
    i = 0
    j = len(word)-1

    while i < j:
        if word[i] != word[j]:
```

```
        return False
    i = i+1
    j = j-1

    return True
```

Or we could reduce to a previously solved problem and write:

```
def is_palindrome(word):
    return is_reverse(word, word)
```

Using `is_reverse` from Section 8.11.

## 9.5 Debugging

Testing programs is hard. The functions in this chapter are relatively easy to test because you can check the results by hand. Even so, it is somewhere between difficult and impossible to choose a set of words that test for all possible errors.

Taking `has_no_e` as an example, there are two obvious cases to check: words that have an ‘e’ should return `False`, and words that don’t should return `True`. You should have no trouble coming up with one of each.

Within each case, there are some less obvious subcases. Among the words that have an “e”, you should test words with an “e” at the beginning, the end, and somewhere in the middle. You should test long words, short words, and very short words, like the empty string. The empty string is an example of a **special case**, which is one of the non-obvious cases where errors often lurk.

In addition to the test cases you generate, you can also test your program with a word list like `words.txt`. By scanning the output, you might be able to catch errors, but be careful: you might catch one kind of error (words that should not be included, but are) and not another (words that should be included, but aren’t).

In general, testing can help you find bugs, but it is not easy to generate a good set of test cases, and even if you do, you can’t be sure your program is correct. According to a legendary computer scientist:

Program testing can be used to show the presence of bugs, but never to show their absence!

— Edsger W. Dijkstra

## 9.6 Glossary

**file object:** A value that represents an open file.

**reduction to a previously solved problem:** A way of solving a problem by expressing it as an instance of a previously solved problem.

**special case:** A test case that is atypical or non-obvious (and less likely to be handled correctly).

## 9.7 Exercises

**Exercise 9.7.** This question is based on a Puzzler that was broadcast on the radio program Car Talk (<http://www.cartalk.com/content/puzzlers>):

*Give me a word with three consecutive double letters. I'll give you a couple of words that almost qualify, but don't. For example, the word committee, c-o-m-m-i-t-t-e-e. It would be great except for the 'i' that sneaks in there. Or Mississippi: M-i-s-s-i-s-s-i-p-p-i. If you could take out those i's it would work. But there is a word that has three consecutive pairs of letters and to the best of my knowledge this may be the only word. Of course there are probably 500 more but I can only think of one. What is the word?*

Write a program to find it. Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/cartalk1.py>.

**Exercise 9.8.** Here's another Car Talk Puzzler (<http://www.cartalk.com/content/puzzlers>):

*"I was driving on the highway the other day and I happened to notice my odometer. Like most odometers, it shows six digits, in whole miles only. So, if my car had 300,000 miles, for example, I'd see 3-0-0-0-0-0.*

*"Now, what I saw that day was very interesting. I noticed that the last 4 digits were palindromic; that is, they read the same forward as backward. For example, 5-4-4-5 is a palindrome, so my odometer could have read 3-1-5-4-4-5.*

*"One mile later, the last 5 numbers were palindromic. For example, it could have read 3-6-5-4-5-6. One mile after that, the middle 4 out of 6 numbers were palindromic. And you ready for this? One mile later, all 6 were palindromic!*

*"The question is, what was on the odometer when I first looked?"*

Write a Python program that tests all the six-digit numbers and prints any numbers that satisfy these requirements. Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/cartalk2.py>.

**Exercise 9.9.** Here's another Car Talk Puzzler you can solve with a search (<http://www.cartalk.com/content/puzzlers>):

*"Recently I had a visit with my mom and we realized that the two digits that make up my age when reversed resulted in her age. For example, if she's 73, I'm 37. We wondered how often this has happened over the years but we got sidetracked with other topics and we never came up with an answer.*

*"When I got home I figured out that the digits of our ages have been reversible six times so far. I also figured out that if we're lucky it would happen again in a few years, and if we're really lucky it would happen one more time after that. In other words, it would have happened 8 times over all. So the question is, how old am I now?"*

Write a Python program that searches for solutions to this Puzzler. Hint: you might find the string method `zfill` useful.

Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/cartalk3.py>.

## 第10章 Lists

This chapter presents one of Python's most useful built-in types, lists. You will also learn more about objects and what can happen when you have more than one name for the same object.

### 10.1 A list is a sequence

Like a string, a **list** is a sequence of values. In a string, the values are characters; in a list, they can be any type. The values in a list are called **elements** or sometimes **items**.

There are several ways to create a new list; the simplest is to enclose the elements in square brackets ([ and ]):

```
[10, 20, 30, 40]
['crunchy frog', 'ram bladder', 'lark vomit']
```

The first example is a list of four integers. The second is a list of three strings. The elements of a list don't have to be the same type. The following list contains a string, a float, an integer, and (lo!) another list:

```
['spam', 2.0, 5, [10, 20]]
```

A list within another list is **nested**.

A list that contains no elements is called an empty list; you can create one with empty brackets, [].

As you might expect, you can assign list values to variables:

```
>>> cheeses = ['Cheddar', 'Edam', 'Gouda']
>>> numbers = [42, 123]
>>> empty = []
>>> print(cheeses, numbers, empty)
['Cheddar', 'Edam', 'Gouda'] [42, 123] []
```

### 10.2 Lists are mutable

The syntax for accessing the elements of a list is the same as for accessing the characters of a string—the bracket operator. The expression inside the brackets specifies the index. Remember that the indices start at 0:

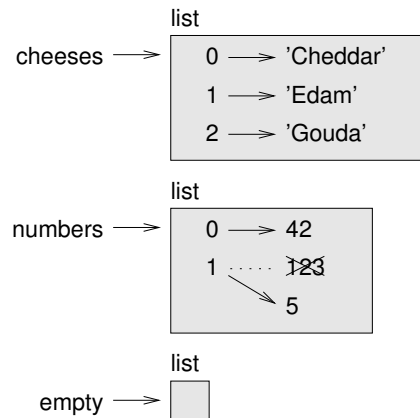


图 10.1: State diagram.

```
>>> cheeses[0]
'Cheddar'
```

Unlike strings, lists are mutable. When the bracket operator appears on the left side of an assignment, it identifies the element of the list that will be assigned.

```
>>> numbers = [42, 123]
>>> numbers[1] = 5
>>> numbers
[42, 5]
```

The one-eth element of `numbers`, which used to be 123, is now 5.

Figure 10.1 shows the state diagram for `cheeses`, `numbers` and `empty`.

Lists are represented by boxes with the word “list” outside and the elements of the list inside. `cheeses` refers to a list with three elements indexed 0, 1 and 2. `numbers` contains two elements; the diagram shows that the value of the second element has been reassigned from 123 to 5. `empty` refers to a list with no elements.

List indices work the same way as string indices:

- Any integer expression can be used as an index.
- If you try to read or write an element that does not exist, you get an `IndexError`.
- If an index has a negative value, it counts backward from the end of the list.

The `in` operator also works on lists.

```
>>> cheeses = ['Cheddar', 'Edam', 'Gouda']
>>> 'Edam' in cheeses
True
>>> 'Brie' in cheeses
False
```

## 10.3 Traversing a list

The most common way to traverse the elements of a list is with a for loop. The syntax is the same as for strings:

```
for cheese in cheeses:
    print(cheese)
```

This works well if you only need to read the elements of the list. But if you want to write or update the elements, you need the indices. A common way to do that is to combine the built-in functions `range` and `len`:

```
for i in range(len(numbers)):
    numbers[i] = numbers[i] * 2
```

This loop traverses the list and updates each element. `len` returns the number of elements in the list. `range` returns a list of indices from 0 to  $n - 1$ , where  $n$  is the length of the list. Each time through the loop `i` gets the index of the next element. The assignment statement in the body uses `i` to read the old value of the element and to assign the new value.

A for loop over an empty list never runs the body:

```
for x in []:
    print('This never happens.')
```

Although a list can contain another list, the nested list still counts as a single element. The length of this list is four:

```
['spam', 1, ['Brie', 'Roquefort', 'Pol le Veq'], [1, 2, 3]]
```

## 10.4 List operations

The `+` operator concatenates lists:

```
>>> a = [1, 2, 3]
>>> b = [4, 5, 6]
>>> c = a + b
>>> c
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

The `*` operator repeats a list a given number of times:

```
>>> [0] * 4
[0, 0, 0, 0]
>>> [1, 2, 3] * 3
[1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3]
```

The first example repeats `[0]` four times. The second example repeats the list `[1, 2, 3]` three times.

## 10.5 List slices

The slice operator also works on lists:

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f']
>>> t[1:3]
['b', 'c']
>>> t[:4]
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
>>> t[3:]
['d', 'e', 'f']
```

If you omit the first index, the slice starts at the beginning. If you omit the second, the slice goes to the end. So if you omit both, the slice is a copy of the whole list.

```
>>> t[:]
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f']
```

Since lists are mutable, it is often useful to make a copy before performing operations that modify lists.

A slice operator on the left side of an assignment can update multiple elements:

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f']
>>> t[1:3] = ['x', 'y']
>>> t
['a', 'x', 'y', 'd', 'e', 'f']
```

## 10.6 List methods

Python provides methods that operate on lists. For example, `append` adds a new element to the end of a list:

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> t.append('d')
>>> t
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
```

`extend` takes a list as an argument and appends all of the elements:

```
>>> t1 = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> t2 = ['d', 'e']
>>> t1.extend(t2)
>>> t1
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e']
```

This example leaves `t2` unmodified.

`sort` arranges the elements of the list from low to high:

```
>>> t = ['d', 'c', 'e', 'b', 'a']
>>> t.sort()
>>> t
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e']
```

Most list methods are void; they modify the list and return `None`. If you accidentally write `t = t.sort()`, you will be disappointed with the result.



## 10.7 Map, filter and reduce

To add up all the numbers in a list, you can use a loop like this:

```
def add_all(t):
    total = 0
    for x in t:
        total += x
    return total
```

`total` is initialized to 0. Each time through the loop, `x` gets one element from the list. The `+=` operator provides a short way to update a variable. This **augmented assignment statement**,

```
total += x
```

is equivalent to

```
total = total + x
```

As the loop runs, `total` accumulates the sum of the elements; a variable used this way is sometimes called an **accumulator**.

Adding up the elements of a list is such a common operation that Python provides it as a built-in function, `sum`:

```
>>> t = [1, 2, 3]
>>> sum(t)
6
```

An operation like this that combines a sequence of elements into a single value is sometimes called **reduce**.

Sometimes you want to traverse one list while building another. For example, the following function takes a list of strings and returns a new list that contains capitalized strings:

```
def capitalize_all(t):
    res = []
    for s in t:
        res.append(s.capitalize())
    return res
```

`res` is initialized with an empty list; each time through the loop, we append the next element. So `res` is another kind of accumulator.

An operation like `capitalize_all` is sometimes called a **map** because it “maps” a function (in this case the method `capitalize`) onto each of the elements in a sequence.

Another common operation is to select some of the elements from a list and return a sublist. For example, the following function takes a list of strings and returns a list that contains only the uppercase strings:

```
def only_upper(t):
    res = []
    for s in t:
        if s.isupper():
            res.append(s)
    return res
```

`isupper` is a string method that returns `True` if the string contains only upper case letters.

An operation like `only_upper` is called a **filter** because it selects some of the elements and filters out the others.

Most common list operations can be expressed as a combination of `map`, `filter` and `reduce`.

## 10.8 Deleting elements

There are several ways to delete elements from a list. If you know the index of the element you want, you can use `pop`:

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> x = t.pop(1)
>>> t
['a', 'c']
>>> x
'b'
```

`pop` modifies the list and returns the element that was removed. If you don't provide an index, it deletes and returns the last element.

If you don't need the removed value, you can use the `del` operator:

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> del t[1]
>>> t
['a', 'c']
```

If you know the element you want to remove (but not the index), you can use `remove`:

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> t.remove('b')
>>> t
['a', 'c']
```

The return value from `remove` is `None`.

To remove more than one element, you can use `del` with a slice index:

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f']
>>> del t[1:5]
>>> t
['a', 'f']
```

As usual, the slice selects all the elements up to but not including the second index.

## 10.9 Lists and strings

A string is a sequence of characters and a list is a sequence of values, but a list of characters is not the same as a string. To convert from a string to a list of characters, you can use `list`:

```
>>> s = 'spam'
>>> t = list(s)
>>> t
['s', 'p', 'a', 'm']
```

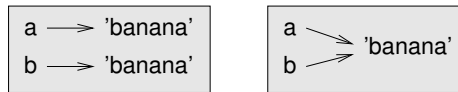


图 10.2: State diagram.

Because `list` is the name of a built-in function, you should avoid using it as a variable name. I also avoid `l` because it looks too much like `1`. So that's why I use `t`.

The `list` function breaks a string into individual letters. If you want to break a string into words, you can use the `split` method:

```
>>> s = 'pining for the fjords'
>>> t = s.split()
>>> t
['pining', 'for', 'the', 'fjords']
```

An optional argument called a **delimiter** specifies which characters to use as word boundaries. The following example uses a hyphen as a delimiter:

```
>>> s = 'spam-spam-spam'
>>> delimiter = '-'
>>> t = s.split(delimiter)
>>> t
['spam', 'spam', 'spam']
```

`join` is the inverse of `split`. It takes a list of strings and concatenates the elements. `join` is a string method, so you have to invoke it on the delimiter and pass the list as a parameter:

```
>>> t = ['pining', 'for', 'the', 'fjords']
>>> delimiter = ' '
>>> s = delimiter.join(t)
>>> s
'pining for the fjords'
```

In this case the delimiter is a space character, so `join` puts a space between words. To concatenate strings without spaces, you can use the empty string, `' '`, as a delimiter.

## 10.10 Objects and values

If we run these assignment statements:

```
a = 'banana'
b = 'banana'
```

We know that `a` and `b` both refer to a string, but we don't know whether they refer to the *same* string. There are two possible states, shown in Figure 10.2.

In one case, `a` and `b` refer to two different objects that have the same value. In the second case, they refer to the same object.

To check whether two variables refer to the same object, you can use the `is` operator.

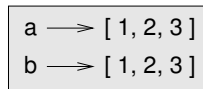


图 10.3: State diagram.

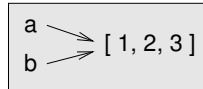


图 10.4: State diagram.

```

>>> a = 'banana'
>>> b = 'banana'
>>> a is b
True

```

In this example, Python only created one string object, and both `a` and `b` refer to it. But when you create two lists, you get two objects:

```

>>> a = [1, 2, 3]
>>> b = [1, 2, 3]
>>> a is b
False

```

So the state diagram looks like Figure 10.3.

In this case we would say that the two lists are **equivalent**, because they have the same elements, but not **identical**, because they are not the same object. If two objects are identical, they are also equivalent, but if they are equivalent, they are not necessarily identical.

Until now, we have been using “object” and “value” interchangeably, but it is more precise to say that an object has a value. If you evaluate `[1, 2, 3]`, you get a list object whose value is a sequence of integers. If another list has the same elements, we say it has the same value, but it is not the same object.

## 10.11 Aliasing

If `a` refers to an object and you assign `b = a`, then both variables refer to the same object:

```

>>> a = [1, 2, 3]
>>> b = a
>>> b is a
True

```

The state diagram looks like Figure 10.4.

The association of a variable with an object is called a **reference**. In this example, there are two references to the same object.

An object with more than one reference has more than one name, so we say that the object is **aliased**.

If the aliased object is mutable, changes made with one alias affect the other:

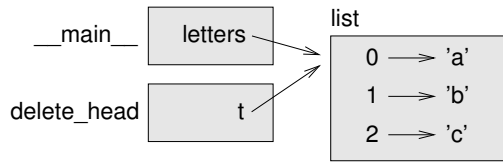


图 10.5: Stack diagram.

```
>>> b[0] = 42
>>> a
[42, 2, 3]
```

Although this behavior can be useful, it is error-prone. In general, it is safer to avoid aliasing when you are working with mutable objects.

For immutable objects like strings, aliasing is not as much of a problem. In this example:

```
a = 'banana'
b = 'banana'
```

It almost never makes a difference whether `a` and `b` refer to the same string or not.

## 10.12 List arguments

When you pass a list to a function, the function gets a reference to the list. If the function modifies the list, the caller sees the change. For example, `delete_head` removes the first element from a list:

```
def delete_head(t):
    del t[0]
```

Here's how it is used:

```
>>> letters = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> delete_head(letters)
>>> letters
['b', 'c']
```

The parameter `t` and the variable `letters` are aliases for the same object. The stack diagram looks like Figure 10.5.

Since the list is shared by two frames, I drew it between them.

It is important to distinguish between operations that modify lists and operations that create new lists. For example, the `append` method modifies a list, but the `+` operator creates a new list.

Here's an example using `append`:

```
>>> t1 = [1, 2]
>>> t2 = t1.append(3)
>>> t1
[1, 2, 3]
>>> t2
None
```

The return value from `append` is `None`.

Here's an example using the `+` operator:

```
>>> t3 = t1 + [4]
>>> t1
[1, 2, 3]
>>> t3
[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

The result of the operator is a new list, and the original list is unchanged.

This difference is important when you write functions that are supposed to modify lists. For example, this function *does not* delete the head of a list:

```
def bad_delete_head(t):
    t = t[1:]          # WRONG!
```

The slice operator creates a new list and the assignment makes `t` refer to it, but that doesn't affect the caller.

```
>>> t4 = [1, 2, 3]
>>> bad_delete_head(t4)
>>> t4
[1, 2, 3]
```

At the beginning of `bad_delete_head`, `t` and `t4` refer to the same list. At the end, `t` refers to a new list, but `t4` still refers to the original, unmodified list.

An alternative is to write a function that creates and returns a new list. For example, `tail` returns all but the first element of a list:

```
def tail(t):
    return t[1:]
```

This function leaves the original list unmodified. Here's how it is used:

```
>>> letters = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> rest = tail(letters)
>>> rest
['b', 'c']
```

## 10.13 Debugging

Careless use of lists (and other mutable objects) can lead to long hours of debugging. Here are some common pitfalls and ways to avoid them:

1. Most list methods modify the argument and return `None`. This is the opposite of the string methods, which return a new string and leave the original alone.

If you are used to writing string code like this:

```
word = word.strip()
```

It is tempting to write list code like this:

```
t = t.sort()           # WRONG!
```

Because `sort` returns `None`, the next operation you perform with `t` is likely to fail.

Before using list methods and operators, you should read the documentation carefully and then test them in interactive mode.

## 2. Pick an idiom and stick with it.

Part of the problem with lists is that there are too many ways to do things. For example, to remove an element from a list, you can use `pop`, `remove`, `del`, or even a slice assignment.

To add an element, you can use the `append` method or the `+` operator. Assuming that `t` is a list and `x` is a list element, these are correct:

```
t.append(x)
t = t + [x]
t += [x]
```

And these are wrong:

```
t.append([x])          # WRONG!
t = t.append(x)         # WRONG!
t + [x]                # WRONG!
t = t + x               # WRONG!
```

Try out each of these examples in interactive mode to make sure you understand what they do. Notice that only the last one causes a runtime error; the other three are legal, but they do the wrong thing.

## 3. Make copies to avoid aliasing.

If you want to use a method like `sort` that modifies the argument, but you need to keep the original list as well, you can make a copy.

```
>>> t = [3, 1, 2]
>>> t2 = t[:]
>>> t2.sort()
>>> t
[3, 1, 2]
>>> t2
[1, 2, 3]
```

In this example you could also use the built-in function `sorted`, which returns a new, sorted list and leaves the original alone.

```
>>> t2 = sorted(t)
>>> t
[3, 1, 2]
>>> t2
[1, 2, 3]
```

## 10.14 Glossary

**list:** A sequence of values.

**element:** One of the values in a list (or other sequence), also called items.

**nested list:** A list that is an element of another list.

**accumulator:** A variable used in a loop to add up or accumulate a result.

**augmented assignment:** A statement that updates the value of a variable using an operator like `+=`.

**reduce:** A processing pattern that traverses a sequence and accumulates the elements into a single result.

**map:** A processing pattern that traverses a sequence and performs an operation on each element.

**filter:** A processing pattern that traverses a list and selects the elements that satisfy some criterion.

**object:** Something a variable can refer to. An object has a type and a value.

**equivalent:** Having the same value.

**identical:** Being the same object (which implies equivalence).

**reference:** The association between a variable and its value.

**aliasing:** A circumstance where two or more variables refer to the same object.

**delimiter:** A character or string used to indicate where a string should be split.

## 10.15 Exercises

You can download solutions to these exercises from [http://thinkpython2.com/code/list\\_exercises.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/list_exercises.py).

**Exercise 10.1.** Write a function called `nested_sum` that takes a list of lists of integers and adds up the elements from all of the nested lists. For example:

```
>>> t = [[1, 2], [3], [4, 5, 6]]
>>> nested_sum(t)
21
```

**Exercise 10.2.** Write a function called `cumsum` that takes a list of numbers and returns the cumulative sum; that is, a new list where the  $i$ th element is the sum of the first  $i + 1$  elements from the original list. For example:

```
>>> t = [1, 2, 3]
>>> cumsum(t)
[1, 3, 6]
```

**Exercise 10.3.** Write a function called `middle` that takes a list and returns a new list that contains all but the first and last elements. For example:

```
>>> t = [1, 2, 3, 4]
>>> middle(t)
[2, 3]
```



**Exercise 10.4.** Write a function called `chop` that takes a list, modifies it by removing the first and last elements, and returns `None`. For example:

```
>>> t = [1, 2, 3, 4]
>>> chop(t)
>>> t
[2, 3]
```

**Exercise 10.5.** Write a function called `is_sorted` that takes a list as a parameter and returns `True` if the list is sorted in ascending order and `False` otherwise. For example:

```
>>> is_sorted([1, 2, 2])
True
>>> is_sorted(['b', 'a'])
False
```

**Exercise 10.6.** Two words are anagrams if you can rearrange the letters from one to spell the other. Write a function called `is_anagram` that takes two strings and returns `True` if they are anagrams.

**Exercise 10.7.** Write a function called `has_duplicates` that takes a list and returns `True` if there is any element that appears more than once. It should not modify the original list.

**Exercise 10.8.** This exercise pertains to the so-called Birthday Paradox, which you can read about at [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Birthday\\_paradox](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Birthday_paradox).

If there are 23 students in your class, what are the chances that two of you have the same birthday? You can estimate this probability by generating random samples of 23 birthdays and checking for matches. Hint: you can generate random birthdays with the `randint` function in the `random` module.

You can download my solution from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/birthday.py>.

**Exercise 10.9.** Write a function that reads the file `words.txt` and builds a list with one element per word. Write two versions of this function, one using the `append` method and the other using the idiom `t = t + [x]`. Which one takes longer to run? Why?

Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/wordlist.py>.

**Exercise 10.10.** To check whether a word is in the word list, you could use the `in` operator, but it would be slow because it searches through the words in order.

Because the words are in alphabetical order, we can speed things up with a bisection search (also known as binary search), which is similar to what you do when you look a word up in the dictionary (the book, not the data structure). You start in the middle and check to see whether the word you are looking for comes before the word in the middle of the list. If so, you search the first half of the list the same way. Otherwise you search the second half.

Either way, you cut the remaining search space in half. If the word list has 113,809 words, it will take about 17 steps to find the word or conclude that it's not there.

Write a function called `in_bisect` that takes a sorted list and a target value and returns `True` if the word is in the list and `False` if it's not.

Or you could read the documentation of the `bisect` module and use that! Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/inlist.py>.

**Exercise 10.11.** Two words are a “reverse pair” if each is the reverse of the other. Write a program that finds all the reverse pairs in the word list. Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/reverse\\_pair.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/reverse_pair.py).

**Exercise 10.12.** Two words “interlock” if taking alternating letters from each forms a new word. For example, “shoe” and “cold” interlock to form “schooled”. Solution: <http://>

*thinkpython2.com/code/interlock.py*. Credit: This exercise is inspired by an example at <http://puzzlers.org>.

1. Write a program that finds all pairs of words that interlock. Hint: don't enumerate all pairs!
2. Can you find any words that are three-way interlocked; that is, every third letter forms a word, starting from the first, second or third?

# 第11章 Dictionaries

This chapter presents another built-in type called a dictionary. Dictionaries are one of Python's best features; they are the building blocks of many efficient and elegant algorithms.

## 11.1 A dictionary is a mapping

A **dictionary** is like a list, but more general. In a list, the indices have to be integers; in a dictionary they can be (almost) any type.

A dictionary contains a collection of indices, which are called **keys**, and a collection of values. Each key is associated with a single value. The association of a key and a value is called a **key-value pair** or sometimes an **item**.

In mathematical language, a dictionary represents a **mapping** from keys to values, so you can also say that each key “maps to” a value. As an example, we'll build a dictionary that maps from English to Spanish words, so the keys and the values are all strings.

The function `dict` creates a new dictionary with no items. Because `dict` is the name of a built-in function, you should avoid using it as a variable name.

```
>>> eng2sp = dict()
>>> eng2sp
{}
```

The squiggly-brackets, `{}`, represent an empty dictionary. To add items to the dictionary, you can use square brackets:

```
>>> eng2sp['one'] = 'uno'
```

This line creates an item that maps from the key `'one'` to the value `'uno'`. If we print the dictionary again, we see a key-value pair with a colon between the key and value:

```
>>> eng2sp
{'one': 'uno'}
```

This output format is also an input format. For example, you can create a new dictionary with three items:

```
>>> eng2sp = {'one': 'uno', 'two': 'dos', 'three': 'tres'}
```

But if you print `eng2sp`, you might be surprised:

```
>>> eng2sp
{'one': 'uno', 'three': 'tres', 'two': 'dos'}
```

The order of the key-value pairs might not be the same. If you type the same example on your computer, you might get a different result. In general, the order of items in a dictionary is unpredictable.

But that's not a problem because the elements of a dictionary are never indexed with integer indices. Instead, you use the keys to look up the corresponding values:

```
>>> eng2sp['two']  
'dos'
```

The key 'two' always maps to the value 'dos' so the order of the items doesn't matter.

If the key isn't in the dictionary, you get an exception:

```
>>> eng2sp['four']  
KeyError: 'four'
```

The `len` function works on dictionaries; it returns the number of key-value pairs:

```
>>> len(eng2sp)  
3
```

The `in` operator works on dictionaries, too; it tells you whether something appears as a *key* in the dictionary (appearing as a value is not good enough).

```
>>> 'one' in eng2sp  
True  
>>> 'uno' in eng2sp  
False
```

To see whether something appears as a value in a dictionary, you can use the method `values`, which returns a collection of values, and then use the `in` operator:

```
>>> vals = eng2sp.values()  
>>> 'uno' in vals  
True
```

The `in` operator uses different algorithms for lists and dictionaries. For lists, it searches the elements of the list in order, as in Section 8.6. As the list gets longer, the search time gets longer in direct proportion.

Python dictionaries use a data structure called a **hashtable** that has a remarkable property: the `in` operator takes about the same amount of time no matter how many items are in the dictionary. I explain how that's possible in Section B.4, but the explanation might not make sense until you've read a few more chapters.

## 11.2 Dictionary as a collection of counters

Suppose you are given a string and you want to count how many times each letter appears. There are several ways you could do it:

1. You could create 26 variables, one for each letter of the alphabet. Then you could traverse the string and, for each character, increment the corresponding counter, probably using a chained conditional.
2. You could create a list with 26 elements. Then you could convert each character to a number (using the built-in function `ord`), use the number as an index into the list, and increment the appropriate counter.

3. You could create a dictionary with characters as keys and counters as the corresponding values. The first time you see a character, you would add an item to the dictionary. After that you would increment the value of an existing item.

Each of these options performs the same computation, but each of them implements that computation in a different way.

An **implementation** is a way of performing a computation; some implementations are better than others. For example, an advantage of the dictionary implementation is that we don't have to know ahead of time which letters appear in the string and we only have to make room for the letters that do appear.

Here is what the code might look like:

```
def histogram(s):
    d = dict()
    for c in s:
        if c not in d:
            d[c] = 1
        else:
            d[c] += 1
    return d
```

The name of the function is `histogram`, which is a statistical term for a collection of counters (or frequencies).

The first line of the function creates an empty dictionary. The `for` loop traverses the string. Each time through the loop, if the character `c` is not in the dictionary, we create a new item with key `c` and the initial value 1 (since we have seen this letter once). If `c` is already in the dictionary we increment `d[c]`.

Here's how it works:

```
>>> h = histogram('brontosaurus')
>>> h
{'a': 1, 'b': 1, 'o': 2, 'n': 1, 's': 2, 'r': 2, 'u': 2, 't': 1}
```

The histogram indicates that the letters 'a' and 'b' appear once; 'o' appears twice, and so on.

Dictionaries have a method called `get` that takes a key and a default value. If the key appears in the dictionary, `get` returns the corresponding value; otherwise it returns the default value. For example:

```
>>> h = histogram('a')
>>> h
{'a': 1}
>>> h.get('a', 0)
1
>>> h.get('c', 0)
0
```

As an exercise, use `get` to write `histogram` more concisely. You should be able to eliminate the `if` statement.

## 11.3 Looping and dictionaries

If you use a dictionary in a `for` statement, it traverses the keys of the dictionary. For example, `print_hist` prints each key and the corresponding value:

```
def print_hist(h):
    for c in h:
        print(c, h[c])
```

Here's what the output looks like:

```
>>> h = histogram('parrot')
>>> print_hist(h)
a 1
p 1
r 2
t 1
o 1
```

Again, the keys are in no particular order. To traverse the keys in sorted order, you can use the built-in function `sorted`:

```
>>> for key in sorted(h):
...     print(key, h[key])
a 1
o 1
p 1
r 2
t 1
```

## 11.4 Reverse lookup

Given a dictionary `d` and a key `k`, it is easy to find the corresponding value `v = d[k]`. This operation is called a **lookup**.

But what if you have `v` and you want to find `k`? You have two problems: first, there might be more than one key that maps to the value `v`. Depending on the application, you might be able to pick one, or you might have to make a list that contains all of them. Second, there is no simple syntax to do a **reverse lookup**; you have to search.

Here is a function that takes a value and returns the first key that maps to that value:

```
def reverse_lookup(d, v):
    for k in d:
        if d[k] == v:
            return k
    raise LookupError()
```

This function is yet another example of the search pattern, but it uses a feature we haven't seen before, `raise`. The **raise statement** causes an exception; in this case it causes a `LookupError`, which is a built-in exception used to indicate that a lookup operation failed.

If we get to the end of the loop, that means `v` doesn't appear in the dictionary as a value, so we raise an exception.

Here is an example of a successful reverse lookup:

```
>>> h = histogram('parrot')
>>> key = reverse_lookup(h, 2)
>>> key
'r'
```

And an unsuccessful one:

```
>>> key = reverse_lookup(h, 3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "<stdin>", line 5, in reverse_lookup
LookupError
```

The effect when you raise an exception is the same as when Python raises one: it prints a traceback and an error message.

When you raise an exception, you can provide a detailed error message as an optional argument. For example:

```
>>> raise LookupError('value does not appear in the dictionary')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
LookupError: value does not appear in the dictionary
```

A reverse lookup is much slower than a forward lookup; if you have to do it often, or if the dictionary gets big, the performance of your program will suffer.

## 11.5 Dictionaries and lists

Lists can appear as values in a dictionary. For example, if you are given a dictionary that maps from letters to frequencies, you might want to invert it; that is, create a dictionary that maps from frequencies to letters. Since there might be several letters with the same frequency, each value in the inverted dictionary should be a list of letters.

Here is a function that inverts a dictionary:

```
def invert_dict(d):
    inverse = dict()
    for key in d:
        val = d[key]
        if val not in inverse:
            inverse[val] = [key]
        else:
            inverse[val].append(key)
    return inverse
```

Each time through the loop, `key` gets a key from `d` and `val` gets the corresponding value. If `val` is not in `inverse`, that means we haven't seen it before, so we create a new item and initialize it with a **singleton** (a list that contains a single element). Otherwise we have seen this value before, so we append the corresponding key to the list.

Here is an example:

```
>>> hist = histogram('parrot')
>>> hist
```

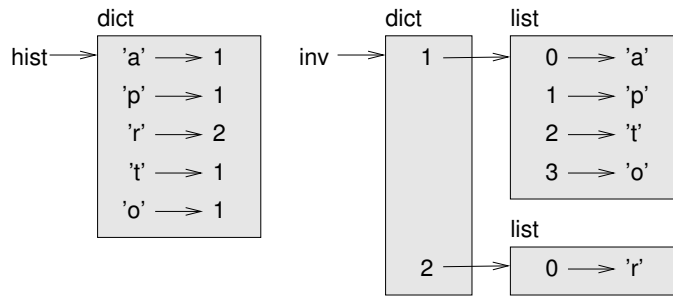


图 11.1: State diagram.

```

{'a': 1, 'p': 1, 'r': 2, 't': 1, 'o': 1}
>>> inverse = invert_dict(hist)
>>> inverse
{1: ['a', 'p', 't', 'o'], 2: ['r']}

```

Figure 11.1 is a state diagram showing `hist` and `inverse`. A dictionary is represented as a box with the type `dict` above it and the key-value pairs inside. If the values are integers, floats or strings, I draw them inside the box, but I usually draw lists outside the box, just to keep the diagram simple.

Lists can be values in a dictionary, as this example shows, but they cannot be keys. Here's what happens if you try:

```

>>> t = [1, 2, 3]
>>> d = dict()
>>> d[t] = 'oops'
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
TypeError: list objects are unhashable

```

I mentioned earlier that a dictionary is implemented using a hashtable and that means that the keys have to be **hashable**.

A **hash** is a function that takes a value (of any kind) and returns an integer. Dictionaries use these integers, called hash values, to store and look up key-value pairs.

This system works fine if the keys are immutable. But if the keys are mutable, like lists, bad things happen. For example, when you create a key-value pair, Python hashes the key and stores it in the corresponding location. If you modify the key and then hash it again, it would go to a different location. In that case you might have two entries for the same key, or you might not be able to find a key. Either way, the dictionary wouldn't work correctly.

That's why keys have to be hashable, and why mutable types like lists aren't. The simplest way to get around this limitation is to use tuples, which we will see in the next chapter.

Since dictionaries are mutable, they can't be used as keys, but they *can* be used as values.

## 11.6 Memos

If you played with the `fibonacci` function from Section 6.7, you might have noticed that the bigger the argument you provide, the longer the function takes to run. Furthermore, the run time increases quickly.



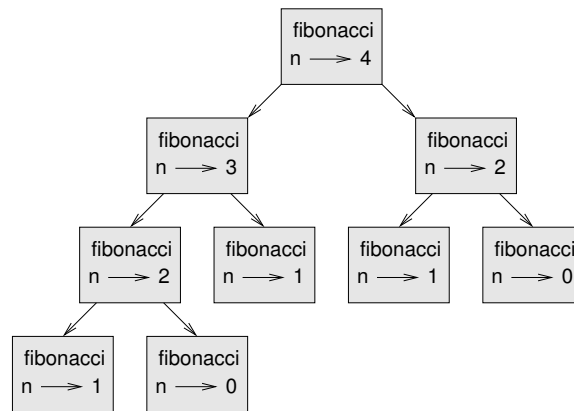


图 11.2: Call graph.

To understand why, consider Figure 11.2, which shows the **call graph** for `fibonacci` with `n=4`:

A call graph shows a set of function frames, with lines connecting each frame to the frames of the functions it calls. At the top of the graph, `fibonacci` with `n=4` calls `fibonacci` with `n=3` and `n=2`. In turn, `fibonacci` with `n=3` calls `fibonacci` with `n=2` and `n=1`. And so on.

Count how many times `fibonacci(0)` and `fibonacci(1)` are called. This is an inefficient solution to the problem, and it gets worse as the argument gets bigger.

One solution is to keep track of values that have already been computed by storing them in a dictionary. A previously computed value that is stored for later use is called a **memo**. Here is a “memoized” version of `fibonacci`:

```
known = {0:0, 1:1}

def fibonacci(n):
    if n in known:
        return known[n]

    res = fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2)
    known[n] = res
    return res
```

`known` is a dictionary that keeps track of the Fibonacci numbers we already know. It starts with two items: 0 maps to 0 and 1 maps to 1.

Whenever `fibonacci` is called, it checks `known`. If the result is already there, it can return immediately. Otherwise it has to compute the new value, add it to the dictionary, and return it.

If you run this version of `fibonacci` and compare it with the original, you will find that it is much faster.

## 11.7 Global variables

In the previous example, `known` is created outside the function, so it belongs to the special frame called `__main__`. Variables in `__main__` are sometimes called **global** because they can be accessed from any function. Unlike local variables, which disappear when their function ends, global variables persist from one function call to the next.

It is common to use global variables for **flags**; that is, boolean variables that indicate (“flag”) whether a condition is true. For example, some programs use a flag named `verbose` to control the level of detail in the output:

```
verbose = True

def example1():
    if verbose:
        print('Running example1')
```

If you try to reassign a global variable, you might be surprised. The following example is supposed to keep track of whether the function has been called:

```
been_called = False

def example2():
    been_called = True          # WRONG
```

But if you run it you will see that the value of `been_called` doesn’t change. The problem is that `example2` creates a new local variable named `been_called`. The local variable goes away when the function ends, and has no effect on the global variable.

To reassign a global variable inside a function you have to **declare** the global variable before you use it:

```
been_called = False

def example2():
    global been_called
    been_called = True
```

The **global statement** tells the interpreter something like, “In this function, when I say `been_called`, I mean the global variable; don’t create a local one.”

Here’s an example that tries to update a global variable:

```
count = 0

def example3():
    count = count + 1          # WRONG
```

If you run it you get:

```
UnboundLocalError: local variable 'count' referenced before assignment
```

Python assumes that `count` is local, and under that assumption you are reading it before writing it. The solution, again, is to declare `count` global.

```
def example3():
    global count
    count += 1
```

If a global variable refers to a mutable value, you can modify the value without declaring the variable:

```
known = {0:0, 1:1}
```

```
def example4():  
    known[2] = 1
```

So you can add, remove and replace elements of a global list or dictionary, but if you want to reassign the variable, you have to declare it:

```
def example5():  
    global known  
    known = dict()
```

Global variables can be useful, but if you have a lot of them, and you modify them frequently, they can make programs hard to debug.

## 11.8 Debugging

As you work with bigger datasets it can become unwieldy to debug by printing and checking the output by hand. Here are some suggestions for debugging large datasets:

**Scale down the input:** If possible, reduce the size of the dataset. For example if the program reads a text file, start with just the first 10 lines, or with the smallest example you can find. You can either edit the files themselves, or (better) modify the program so it reads only the first  $n$  lines.

If there is an error, you can reduce  $n$  to the smallest value that manifests the error, and then increase it gradually as you find and correct errors.

**Check summaries and types:** Instead of printing and checking the entire dataset, consider printing summaries of the data: for example, the number of items in a dictionary or the total of a list of numbers.

A common cause of runtime errors is a value that is not the right type. For debugging this kind of error, it is often enough to print the type of a value.

**Write self-checks:** Sometimes you can write code to check for errors automatically. For example, if you are computing the average of a list of numbers, you could check that the result is not greater than the largest element in the list or less than the smallest. This is called a “sanity check” because it detects results that are “insane”.

Another kind of check compares the results of two different computations to see if they are consistent. This is called a “consistency check”.

**Format the output:** Formatting debugging output can make it easier to spot an error. We saw an example in Section 6.9. Another tool you might find useful is the `pprint` module, which provides a `pprint` function that displays built-in types in a more human-readable format (`pprint` stands for “pretty print”).

Again, time you spend building scaffolding can reduce the time you spend debugging.

## 11.9 Glossary

**mapping:** A relationship in which each element of one set corresponds to an element of another set.

**dictionary:** A mapping from keys to their corresponding values.

**key-value pair:** The representation of the mapping from a key to a value.

**item:** In a dictionary, another name for a key-value pair.

**key:** An object that appears in a dictionary as the first part of a key-value pair.

**value:** An object that appears in a dictionary as the second part of a key-value pair. This is more specific than our previous use of the word “value”.

**implementation:** A way of performing a computation.

**hashtable:** The algorithm used to implement Python dictionaries.

**hash function:** A function used by a hashtable to compute the location for a key.

**hashable:** A type that has a hash function. Immutable types like integers, floats and strings are hashable; mutable types like lists and dictionaries are not.

**lookup:** A dictionary operation that takes a key and finds the corresponding value.

**reverse lookup:** A dictionary operation that takes a value and finds one or more keys that map to it.

**raise statement:** A statement that (deliberately) raises an exception.

**singleton:** A list (or other sequence) with a single element.

**call graph:** A diagram that shows every frame created during the execution of a program, with an arrow from each caller to each callee.

**memo:** A computed value stored to avoid unnecessary future computation.

**global variable:** A variable defined outside a function. Global variables can be accessed from any function.

**global statement:** A statement that declares a variable name global.

**flag:** A boolean variable used to indicate whether a condition is true.

**declaration:** A statement like `global` that tells the interpreter something about a variable.

## 11.10 Exercises

**Exercise 11.1.** Write a function that reads the words in `words.txt` and stores them as keys in a dictionary. It doesn't matter what the values are. Then you can use the `in` operator as a fast way to check whether a string is in the dictionary.

If you did Exercise 10.10, you can compare the speed of this implementation with the list `in` operator and the bisection search.

**Exercise 11.2.** Read the documentation of the dictionary method `setdefault` and use it to write a more concise version of `invert_dict`. Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/invert\\_dict.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/invert_dict.py).

**Exercise 11.3.** Memoize the Ackermann function from Exercise 6.2 and see if memoization makes it possible to evaluate the function with bigger arguments. Hint: no. Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/ackermann\\_memo.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/ackermann_memo.py).

**Exercise 11.4.** If you did Exercise 10.7, you already have a function named `has_duplicates` that takes a list as a parameter and returns `True` if there is any object that appears more than once in the list.

Use a dictionary to write a faster, simpler version of `has_duplicates`. Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/has\\_duplicates.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/has_duplicates.py).

**Exercise 11.5.** Two words are “rotate pairs” if you can rotate one of them and get the other (see `rotate_word` in Exercise 8.5).

Write a program that reads a wordlist and finds all the rotate pairs. Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/rotate\\_pairs.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/rotate_pairs.py).

**Exercise 11.6.** Here’s another Puzzler from Car Talk (<http://www.cartalk.com/content/puzzlers>):

*This was sent in by a fellow named Dan O’Leary. He came upon a common one-syllable, five-letter word recently that has the following unique property. When you remove the first letter, the remaining letters form a homophone of the original word, that is a word that sounds exactly the same. Replace the first letter, that is, put it back and remove the second letter and the result is yet another homophone of the original word. And the question is, what’s the word?*

*Now I’m going to give you an example that doesn’t work. Let’s look at the five-letter word, ‘wrack.’ W-R-A-C-K, you know like to ‘wrack with pain.’ If I remove the first letter, I am left with a four-letter word, ‘R-A-C-K.’ As in, ‘Holy cow, did you see the rack on that buck! It must have been a nine-pointer!’ It’s a perfect homophone. If you put the ‘w’ back, and remove the ‘r,’ instead, you’re left with the word, ‘wack,’ which is a real word, it’s just not a homophone of the other two words.*

*But there is, however, at least one word that Dan and we know of, which will yield two homophones if you remove either of the first two letters to make two, new four-letter words. The question is, what’s the word?*

You can use the dictionary from Exercise 11.1 to check whether a string is in the word list.

To check whether two words are homophones, you can use the CMU Pronouncing Dictionary. You can download it from <http://www.speech.cs.cmu.edu/cgi-bin/cmudict> or from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/c06d> and you can also download <http://thinkpython2.com/code/pronounce.py>, which provides a function named `read_dictionary` that reads the pronouncing dictionary and returns a Python dictionary that maps from each word to a string that describes its primary pronunciation.

Write a program that lists all the words that solve the Puzzler. Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/homophone.py>.



## 第12章 Tuples

This chapter presents one more built-in type, the tuple, and then shows how lists, dictionaries, and tuples work together. I also present a useful feature for variable-length argument lists, the gather and scatter operators.

One note: there is no consensus on how to pronounce “tuple”. Some people say “tuh-ple”, which rhymes with “supple”. But in the context of programming, most people say “too-ple”, which rhymes with “quadruple”.

### 12.1 Tuples are immutable

A tuple is a sequence of values. The values can be any type, and they are indexed by integers, so in that respect tuples are a lot like lists. The important difference is that tuples are immutable.

Syntactically, a tuple is a comma-separated list of values:

```
>>> t = 'a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e'
```

Although it is not necessary, it is common to enclose tuples in parentheses:

```
>>> t = ('a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e')
```

To create a tuple with a single element, you have to include a final comma:

```
>>> t1 = 'a',  
>>> type(t1)  
<class 'tuple'>
```

A value in parentheses is not a tuple:

```
>>> t2 = ('a')  
>>> type(t2)  
<class 'str'>
```

Another way to create a tuple is the built-in function `tuple`. With no argument, it creates an empty tuple:

```
>>> t = tuple()  
>>> t  
()
```

If the argument is a sequence (string, list or tuple), the result is a tuple with the elements of the sequence:

```
>>> t = tuple('lupins')
>>> t
('l', 'u', 'p', 'i', 'n', 's')
```

Because `tuple` is the name of a built-in function, you should avoid using it as a variable name.

Most list operators also work on tuples. The bracket operator indexes an element:

```
>>> t = ('a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e')
>>> t[0]
'a'
```

And the slice operator selects a range of elements.

```
>>> t[1:3]
('b', 'c')
```

But if you try to modify one of the elements of the tuple, you get an error:

```
>>> t[0] = 'A'
TypeError: object doesn't support item assignment
```

Because tuples are immutable, you can't modify the elements. But you can replace one tuple with another:

```
>>> t = ('A',) + t[1:]
>>> t
('A', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e')
```

This statement makes a new tuple and then makes `t` refer to it.

The relational operators work with tuples and other sequences; Python starts by comparing the first element from each sequence. If they are equal, it goes on to the next elements, and so on, until it finds elements that differ. Subsequent elements are not considered (even if they are really big).

```
>>> (0, 1, 2) < (0, 3, 4)
True
>>> (0, 1, 2000000) < (0, 3, 4)
True
```

## 12.2 Tuple assignment

It is often useful to swap the values of two variables. With conventional assignments, you have to use a temporary variable. For example, to swap `a` and `b`:

```
>>> temp = a
>>> a = b
>>> b = temp
```

This solution is cumbersome; **tuple assignment** is more elegant:

```
>>> a, b = b, a
```

The left side is a tuple of variables; the right side is a tuple of expressions. Each value is assigned to its respective variable. All the expressions on the right side are evaluated before any of the assignments.

The number of variables on the left and the number of values on the right have to be the same:



```
>>> a, b = 1, 2, 3
ValueError: too many values to unpack
```

More generally, the right side can be any kind of sequence (string, list or tuple). For example, to split an email address into a user name and a domain, you could write:

```
>>> addr = 'monty@python.org'
>>> uname, domain = addr.split('@')
```

The return value from `split` is a list with two elements; the first element is assigned to `uname`, the second to `domain`.

```
>>> uname
'monty'
>>> domain
'python.org'
```

## 12.3 Tuples as return values

Strictly speaking, a function can only return one value, but if the value is a tuple, the effect is the same as returning multiple values. For example, if you want to divide two integers and compute the quotient and remainder, it is inefficient to compute  $x//y$  and then  $x\%y$ . It is better to compute them both at the same time.

The built-in function `divmod` takes two arguments and returns a tuple of two values, the quotient and remainder. You can store the result as a tuple:

```
>>> t = divmod(7, 3)
>>> t
(2, 1)
```

Or use tuple assignment to store the elements separately:

```
>>> quot, rem = divmod(7, 3)
>>> quot
2
>>> rem
1
```

Here is an example of a function that returns a tuple:

```
def min_max(t):
    return min(t), max(t)
```

`max` and `min` are built-in functions that find the largest and smallest elements of a sequence. `min_max` computes both and returns a tuple of two values.

## 12.4 Variable-length argument tuples

Functions can take a variable number of arguments. A parameter name that begins with **\*gathers** arguments into a tuple. For example, `printall` takes any number of arguments and prints them:

```
def printall(*args):
    print(args)
```

The `gather` parameter can have any name you like, but `args` is conventional. Here's how the function works:

```
>>> printall(1, 2.0, '3')
(1, 2.0, '3')
```

The complement of `gather` is **scatter**. If you have a sequence of values and you want to pass it to a function as multiple arguments, you can use the `*` operator. For example, `divmod` takes exactly two arguments; it doesn't work with a tuple:

```
>>> t = (7, 3)
>>> divmod(t)
TypeError: divmod expected 2 arguments, got 1
```

But if you scatter the tuple, it works:

```
>>> divmod(*t)
(2, 1)
```

Many of the built-in functions use variable-length argument tuples. For example, `max` and `min` can take any number of arguments:

```
>>> max(1, 2, 3)
3
```

But `sum` does not.

```
>>> sum(1, 2, 3)
TypeError: sum expected at most 2 arguments, got 3
```

As an exercise, write a function called `sum_all` that takes any number of arguments and returns their sum.

## 12.5 Lists and tuples

`zip` is a built-in function that takes two or more sequences and interleaves them. The name of the function refers to a zipper, which interleaves two rows of teeth.

This example zips a string and a list:

```
>>> s = 'abc'
>>> t = [0, 1, 2]
>>> zip(s, t)
<zip object at 0x7f7d0a9e7c48>
```

The result is a **zip object** that knows how to iterate through the pairs. The most common use of `zip` is in a `for` loop:

```
>>> for pair in zip(s, t):
...     print(pair)
...
('a', 0)
('b', 1)
('c', 2)
```

A `zip` object is a kind of **iterator**, which is any object that iterates through a sequence. Iterators are similar to lists in some ways, but unlike lists, you can't use an index to select an element from an iterator.

If you want to use list operators and methods, you can use a `zip` object to make a list:

```
>>> list(zip(s, t))
[('a', 0), ('b', 1), ('c', 2)]
```

The result is a list of tuples; in this example, each tuple contains a character from the string and the corresponding element from the list.

If the sequences are not the same length, the result has the length of the shorter one.

```
>>> list(zip('Anne', 'Elk'))
[('A', 'E'), ('n', 'l'), ('n', 'k')]
```

You can use tuple assignment in a for loop to traverse a list of tuples:

```
t = [('a', 0), ('b', 1), ('c', 2)]
for letter, number in t:
    print(number, letter)
```

Each time through the loop, Python selects the next tuple in the list and assigns the elements to `letter` and `number`. The output of this loop is:

```
0 a
1 b
2 c
```

If you combine `zip`, `for` and tuple assignment, you get a useful idiom for traversing two (or more) sequences at the same time. For example, `has_match` takes two sequences, `t1` and `t2`, and returns `True` if there is an index `i` such that `t1[i] == t2[i]`:

```
def has_match(t1, t2):
    for x, y in zip(t1, t2):
        if x == y:
            return True
    return False
```

If you need to traverse the elements of a sequence and their indices, you can use the built-in function `enumerate`:

```
for index, element in enumerate('abc'):
    print(index, element)
```

The result from `enumerate` is an `enumerate` object, which iterates a sequence of pairs; each pair contains an index (starting from 0) and an element from the given sequence. In this example, the output is

```
0 a
1 b
2 c
```

Again.

## 12.6 Dictionaries and tuples

Dictionaries have a method called `items` that returns a sequence of tuples, where each tuple is a key-value pair.

```
>>> d = {'a':0, 'b':1, 'c':2}
>>> t = d.items()
>>> t
dict_items([('c', 2), ('a', 0), ('b', 1)])
```

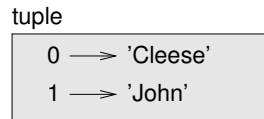


图 12.1: State diagram.

The result is a `dict_items` object, which is an iterator that iterates the key-value pairs. You can use it in a `for` loop like this:

```
>>> for key, value in d.items():
...     print(key, value)
...
c 2
a 0
b 1
```

As you should expect from a dictionary, the items are in no particular order.

Going in the other direction, you can use a list of tuples to initialize a new dictionary:

```
>>> t = [('a', 0), ('c', 2), ('b', 1)]
>>> d = dict(t)
>>> d
{'a': 0, 'c': 2, 'b': 1}
```

Combining `dict` with `zip` yields a concise way to create a dictionary:

```
>>> d = dict(zip('abc', range(3)))
>>> d
{'a': 0, 'c': 2, 'b': 1}
```

The dictionary method `update` also takes a list of tuples and adds them, as key-value pairs, to an existing dictionary.

It is common to use tuples as keys in dictionaries (primarily because you can't use lists). For example, a telephone directory might map from last-name, first-name pairs to telephone numbers. Assuming that we have defined `last`, `first` and `number`, we could write:

```
directory[last, first] = number
```

The expression in brackets is a tuple. We could use tuple assignment to traverse this dictionary.

```
for last, first in directory:
    print(first, last, directory[last,first])
```

This loop traverses the keys in `directory`, which are tuples. It assigns the elements of each tuple to `last` and `first`, then prints the name and corresponding telephone number.

There are two ways to represent tuples in a state diagram. The more detailed version shows the indices and elements just as they appear in a list. For example, the tuple `('Cleese', 'John')` would appear as in Figure 12.1.

But in a larger diagram you might want to leave out the details. For example, a diagram of the telephone directory might appear as in Figure 12.2.

Here the tuples are shown using Python syntax as a graphical shorthand. The telephone number in the diagram is the complaints line for the BBC, so please don't call it.

dict

|                       |   |                 |
|-----------------------|---|-----------------|
| ('Cleese', 'John')    | → | '08700 100 222' |
| ('Chapman', 'Graham') | → | '08700 100 222' |
| ('Idle', 'Eric')      | → | '08700 100 222' |
| ('Gilliam', 'Terry')  | → | '08700 100 222' |
| ('Jones', 'Terry')    | → | '08700 100 222' |
| ('Palin', 'Michael')  | → | '08700 100 222' |

图 12.2: State diagram.

## 12.7 Sequences of sequences

I have focused on lists of tuples, but almost all of the examples in this chapter also work with lists of lists, tuples of tuples, and tuples of lists. To avoid enumerating the possible combinations, it is sometimes easier to talk about sequences of sequences.

In many contexts, the different kinds of sequences (strings, lists and tuples) can be used interchangeably. So how should you choose one over the others?

To start with the obvious, strings are more limited than other sequences because the elements have to be characters. They are also immutable. If you need the ability to change the characters in a string (as opposed to creating a new string), you might want to use a list of characters instead.

Lists are more common than tuples, mostly because they are mutable. But there are a few cases where you might prefer tuples:

1. In some contexts, like a return statement, it is syntactically simpler to create a tuple than a list.
2. If you want to use a sequence as a dictionary key, you have to use an immutable type like a tuple or string.
3. If you are passing a sequence as an argument to a function, using tuples reduces the potential for unexpected behavior due to aliasing.

Because tuples are immutable, they don't provide methods like `sort` and `reverse`, which modify existing lists. But Python provides the built-in function `sorted`, which takes any sequence and returns a new list with the same elements in sorted order, and `reversed`, which takes a sequence and returns an iterator that traverses the list in reverse order.

## 12.8 Debugging

Lists, dictionaries and tuples are examples of **data structures**; in this chapter we are starting to see compound data structures, like lists of tuples, or dictionaries that contain tuples as keys and lists as values. Compound data structures are useful, but they are prone to what I call **shape errors**; that is, errors caused when a data structure has the wrong type, size, or structure. For example, if you are expecting a list with one integer and I give you a plain old integer (not in a list), it won't work.

To help debug these kinds of errors, I have written a module called `structshape` that provides a function, also called `structshape`, that takes any kind of data structure as an argument and returns a string that summarizes its shape. You can download it from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/structshape.py>

Here's the result for a simple list:

```
>>> from structshape import structshape
>>> t = [1, 2, 3]
>>> structshape(t)
'list of 3 int'
```

A fancier program might write “list of 3 ints”, but it was easier not to deal with plurals. Here's a list of lists:

```
>>> t2 = [[1,2], [3,4], [5,6]]
>>> structshape(t2)
'list of 3 list of 2 int'
```

If the elements of the list are not the same type, `structshape` groups them, in order, by type:

```
>>> t3 = [1, 2, 3, 4.0, '5', '6', [7], [8], 9]
>>> structshape(t3)
'list of (3 int, float, 2 str, 2 list of int, int)'
```

Here's a list of tuples:

```
>>> s = 'abc'
>>> lt = list(zip(t, s))
>>> structshape(lt)
'list of 3 tuple of (int, str)'
```

And here's a dictionary with 3 items that map integers to strings.

```
>>> d = dict(lt)
>>> structshape(d)
'dict of 3 int->str'
```

If you are having trouble keeping track of your data structures, `structshape` can help.

## 12.9 Glossary

**tuple:** An immutable sequence of elements.

**tuple assignment:** An assignment with a sequence on the right side and a tuple of variables on the left. The right side is evaluated and then its elements are assigned to the variables on the left.

**gather:** An operation that collects multiple arguments into a tuple.

**scatter:** An operation that makes a sequence behave like multiple arguments.

**zip object:** The result of calling a built-in function `zip`; an object that iterates through a sequence of tuples.

**iterator:** An object that can iterate through a sequence, but which does not provide list operators and methods.

**data structure:** A collection of related values, often organized in lists, dictionaries, tuples, etc.

**shape error:** An error caused because a value has the wrong shape; that is, the wrong type or size.

## 12.10 Exercises

**Exercise 12.1.** Write a function called `most_frequent` that takes a string and prints the letters in decreasing order of frequency. Find text samples from several different languages and see how letter frequency varies between languages. Compare your results with the tables at [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Letter\\_frequencies](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Letter_frequencies). Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/most\\_frequent.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/most_frequent.py).

**Exercise 12.2.** More anagrams!

1. Write a program that reads a word list from a file (see Section 9.1) and prints all the sets of words that are anagrams.

Here is an example of what the output might look like:

```
['deltas', 'desalt', 'lasted', 'salted', 'slated', 'staled']
['retainers', 'ternaries']
['generating', 'greatening']
['resmelts', 'smelters', 'termless']
```

Hint: you might want to build a dictionary that maps from a collection of letters to a list of words that can be spelled with those letters. The question is, how can you represent the collection of letters in a way that can be used as a key?

2. Modify the previous program so that it prints the longest list of anagrams first, followed by the second longest, and so on.
3. In Scrabble a “bingo” is when you play all seven tiles in your rack, along with a letter on the board, to form an eight-letter word. What collection of 8 letters forms the most possible bingos?

Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/anagram\\_sets.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/anagram_sets.py).

**Exercise 12.3.** Two words form a “metathesis pair” if you can transform one into the other by swapping two letters; for example, “converse” and “conserve”. Write a program that finds all of the metathesis pairs in the dictionary. Hint: don’t test all pairs of words, and don’t test all possible swaps. Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/metathesis.py>. Credit: This exercise is inspired by an example at <http://puzzlers.org>.

**Exercise 12.4.** Here’s another Car Talk Puzzler (<http://www.cartalk.com/content/puzzlers>):

What is the longest English word, that remains a valid English word, as you remove its letters one at a time?

Now, letters can be removed from either end, or the middle, but you can’t rearrange any of the letters. Every time you drop a letter, you wind up with another English word. If you do that, you’re eventually going to wind up with one letter and that too is going to be an English word—one that’s found in the dictionary. I want to know what’s the longest word and how many letters does it have?

*I'm going to give you a little modest example: Sprite. Ok? You start off with sprite, you take a letter off, one from the interior of the word, take the r away, and we're left with the word spite, then we take the e off the end, we're left with spit, we take the s off, we're left with pit, it, and I.*

*Write a program to find all words that can be reduced in this way, and then find the longest one.*

*This exercise is a little more challenging than most, so here are some suggestions:*

- 1. You might want to write a function that takes a word and computes a list of all the words that can be formed by removing one letter. These are the "children" of the word.*
- 2. Recursively, a word is reducible if any of its children are reducible. As a base case, you can consider the empty string reducible.*
- 3. The wordlist I provided, `words.txt`, doesn't contain single letter words. So you might want to add "I", "a", and the empty string.*
- 4. To improve the performance of your program, you might want to memoize the words that are known to be reducible.*

*Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/reducible.py>.*



## 第 13 章 Case study: data structure selection

At this point you have learned about Python's core data structures, and you have seen some of the algorithms that use them. If you would like to know more about algorithms, this might be a good time to read Chapter B. But you don't have to read it before you go on; you can read it whenever you are interested.

This chapter presents a case study with exercises that let you think about choosing data structures and practice using them.

### 13.1 Word frequency analysis

As usual, you should at least attempt the exercises before you read my solutions.

**Exercise 13.1.** Write a program that reads a file, breaks each line into words, strips whitespace and punctuation from the words, and converts them to lowercase.

*Hint: The `string` module provides a string named `whitespace`, which contains space, tab, new-line, etc., and `punctuation` which contains the punctuation characters. Let's see if we can make Python swear:*

```
>>> import string
>>> string.punctuation
'!"#$%&\'()*+,-./:;<=>?@[\\]^_`{|}~'
```

*Also, you might consider using the string methods `strip`, `replace` and `translate`.*

**Exercise 13.2.** Go to Project Gutenberg (<http://gutenberg.org>) and download your favorite out-of-copyright book in plain text format.

*Modify your program from the previous exercise to read the book you downloaded, skip over the header information at the beginning of the file, and process the rest of the words as before.*

*Then modify the program to count the total number of words in the book, and the number of times each word is used.*

*Print the number of different words used in the book. Compare different books by different authors, written in different eras. Which author uses the most extensive vocabulary?*

**Exercise 13.3.** Modify the program from the previous exercise to print the 20 most frequently used words in the book.

**Exercise 13.4.** *Modify the previous program to read a word list (see Section 9.1) and then print all the words in the book that are not in the word list. How many of them are typos? How many of them are common words that should be in the word list, and how many of them are really obscure?*

## 13.2 Random numbers

Given the same inputs, most computer programs generate the same outputs every time, so they are said to be **deterministic**. Determinism is usually a good thing, since we expect the same calculation to yield the same result. For some applications, though, we want the computer to be unpredictable. Games are an obvious example, but there are more.

Making a program truly nondeterministic turns out to be difficult, but there are ways to make it at least seem nondeterministic. One of them is to use algorithms that generate **pseudorandom** numbers. Pseudorandom numbers are not truly random because they are generated by a deterministic computation, but just by looking at the numbers it is all but impossible to distinguish them from random.

The `random` module provides functions that generate pseudorandom numbers (which I will simply call “random” from here on).

The function `random` returns a random float between 0.0 and 1.0 (including 0.0 but not 1.0). Each time you call `random`, you get the next number in a long series. To see a sample, run this loop:

```
import random

for i in range(10):
    x = random.random()
    print(x)
```

The function `randint` takes parameters `low` and `high` and returns an integer between `low` and `high` (including both).

```
>>> random.randint(5, 10)
5
>>> random.randint(5, 10)
9
```

To choose an element from a sequence at random, you can use `choice`:

```
>>> t = [1, 2, 3]
>>> random.choice(t)
2
>>> random.choice(t)
3
```

The `random` module also provides functions to generate random values from continuous distributions including Gaussian, exponential, gamma, and a few more.

**Exercise 13.5.** *Write a function named `choose_from_hist` that takes a histogram as defined in Section 11.2 and returns a random value from the histogram, chosen with probability in proportion to frequency. For example, for this histogram:*

```
>>> t = ['a', 'a', 'b']
>>> hist = histogram(t)
>>> hist
{'a': 2, 'b': 1}
```

your function should return 'a' with probability 2/3 and 'b' with probability 1/3.

## 13.3 Word histogram

You should attempt the previous exercises before you go on. You can download my solution from [http://thinkpython2.com/code/analyze\\_book1.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/analyze_book1.py). You will also need <http://thinkpython2.com/code/emma.txt>.

Here is a program that reads a file and builds a histogram of the words in the file:

```
import string

def process_file(filename):
    hist = dict()
    fp = open(filename)
    for line in fp:
        process_line(line, hist)
    return hist

def process_line(line, hist):
    line = line.replace('-', ' ')

    for word in line.split():
        word = word.strip(string.punctuation + string.whitespace)
        word = word.lower()
        hist[word] = hist.get(word, 0) + 1

hist = process_file('emma.txt')
```

This program reads `emma.txt`, which contains the text of *Emma* by Jane Austen.

`process_file` loops through the lines of the file, passing them one at a time to `process_line`. The histogram `hist` is being used as an accumulator.

`process_line` uses the string method `replace` to replace hyphens with spaces before using `split` to break the line into a list of strings. It traverses the list of words and uses `strip` and `lower` to remove punctuation and convert to lower case. (It is a shorthand to say that strings are “converted”; remember that strings are immutable, so methods like `strip` and `lower` return new strings.)

Finally, `process_line` updates the histogram by creating a new item or incrementing an existing one.

To count the total number of words in the file, we can add up the frequencies in the histogram:

```
def total_words(hist):
    return sum(hist.values())
```

The number of different words is just the number of items in the dictionary:

```
def different_words(hist):
    return len(hist)
```

Here is some code to print the results:

```
print('Total number of words:', total_words(hist))
print('Number of different words:', different_words(hist))
```

And the results:

```
Total number of words: 161080
Number of different words: 7214
```

## 13.4 Most common words

To find the most common words, we can make a list of tuples, where each tuple contains a word and its frequency, and sort it.

The following function takes a histogram and returns a list of word-frequency tuples:

```
def most_common(hist):
    t = []
    for key, value in hist.items():
        t.append((value, key))

    t.sort(reverse=True)
    return t
```

In each tuple, the frequency appears first, so the resulting list is sorted by frequency. Here is a loop that prints the ten most common words:

```
t = most_common(hist)
print('The most common words are:')
for freq, word in t[:10]:
    print(word, freq, sep='\t')
```

I use the keyword argument `sep` to tell `print` to use a tab character as a “separator”, rather than a space, so the second column is lined up. Here are the results from *Emma*:

The most common words are:

|     |      |
|-----|------|
| to  | 5242 |
| the | 5205 |
| and | 4897 |
| of  | 4295 |
| i   | 3191 |
| a   | 3130 |
| it  | 2529 |
| her | 2483 |
| was | 2400 |
| she | 2364 |

This code can be simplified using the `key` parameter of the `sort` function. If you are curious, you can read about it at <https://wiki.python.org/moin/HowTo/Sorting>.

## 13.5 Optional parameters

We have seen built-in functions and methods that take optional arguments. It is possible to write programmer-defined functions with optional arguments, too. For example, here is a function that prints the most common words in a histogram

```
def print_most_common(hist, num=10):
    t = most_common(hist)
    print('The most common words are:')
    for freq, word in t[:num]:
        print(word, freq, sep='\t')
```

The first parameter is required; the second is optional. The **default value** of `num` is 10.

If you only provide one argument:

```
print_most_common(hist)
```

`num` gets the default value. If you provide two arguments:

```
print_most_common(hist, 20)
```

`num` gets the value of the argument instead. In other words, the optional argument **overrides** the default value.

If a function has both required and optional parameters, all the required parameters have to come first, followed by the optional ones.

## 13.6 Dictionary subtraction

Finding the words from the book that are not in the word list from `words.txt` is a problem you might recognize as set subtraction; that is, we want to find all the words from one set (the words in the book) that are not in the other (the words in the list).

`subtract` takes dictionaries `d1` and `d2` and returns a new dictionary that contains all the keys from `d1` that are not in `d2`. Since we don't really care about the values, we set them all to `None`.

```
def subtract(d1, d2):
    res = dict()
    for key in d1:
        if key not in d2:
            res[key] = None
    return res
```

To find the words in the book that are not in `words.txt`, we can use `process_file` to build a histogram for `words.txt`, and then `subtract`:

```
words = process_file('words.txt')
diff = subtract(hist, words)

print("Words in the book that aren't in the word list:")
for word in diff:
    print(word, end=' ')
```

Here are some of the results from *Emma*:

```
Words in the book that aren't in the word list:
rencontre jane's blanche woodhouses disingenuousness
friend's venice apartment ...
```

Some of these words are names and possessives. Others, like “rencontre”, are no longer in common use. But a few are common words that should really be in the list!

**Exercise 13.6.** Python provides a data structure called `set` that provides many common set operations. You can read about them in Section 19.5, or read the documentation at <http://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#types-set>.

Write a program that uses set subtraction to find words in the book that are not in the word list.  
Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/analyze\\_book2.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/analyze_book2.py).

## 13.7 Random words

To choose a random word from the histogram, the simplest algorithm is to build a list with multiple copies of each word, according to the observed frequency, and then choose from the list:

```
def random_word(h):
    t = []
    for word, freq in h.items():
        t.extend([word] * freq)

    return random.choice(t)
```

The expression `[word] * freq` creates a list with `freq` copies of the string `word`. The `extend` method is similar to `append` except that the argument is a sequence.

This algorithm works, but it is not very efficient; each time you choose a random word, it rebuilds the list, which is as big as the original book. An obvious improvement is to build the list once and then make multiple selections, but the list is still big.

An alternative is:

1. Use keys to get a list of the words in the book.
2. Build a list that contains the cumulative sum of the word frequencies (see Exercise 10.2). The last item in this list is the total number of words in the book,  $n$ .
3. Choose a random number from 1 to  $n$ . Use a bisection search (See Exercise 10.10) to find the index where the random number would be inserted in the cumulative sum.
4. Use the index to find the corresponding word in the word list.

**Exercise 13.7.** Write a program that uses this algorithm to choose a random word from the book.  
Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/analyze\\_book3.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/analyze_book3.py).

## 13.8 Markov analysis

If you choose words from the book at random, you can get a sense of the vocabulary, but you probably won't get a sentence:

this the small regard harriet which knightley's it most things

A series of random words seldom makes sense because there is no relationship between successive words. For example, in a real sentence you would expect an article like "the" to be followed by an adjective or a noun, and probably not a verb or adverb.

One way to measure these kinds of relationships is Markov analysis, which characterizes, for a given sequence of words, the probability of the words that might come next. For example, the song *Eric, the Half a Bee* begins:

Half a bee, philosophically,  
Must, ipso facto, half not be.  
But half the bee has got to be  
Vis a vis, its entity. D'you see?

But can a bee be said to be  
Or not to be an entire bee  
When half the bee is not a bee  
Due to some ancient injury?

In this text, the phrase “half the” is always followed by the word “bee”, but the phrase “the bee” might be followed by either “has” or “is”.

The result of Markov analysis is a mapping from each prefix (like “half the” and “the bee”) to all possible suffixes (like “has” and “is”).

Given this mapping, you can generate a random text by starting with any prefix and choosing at random from the possible suffixes. Next, you can combine the end of the prefix and the new suffix to form the next prefix, and repeat.

For example, if you start with the prefix “Half a”, then the next word has to be “bee”, because the prefix only appears once in the text. The next prefix is “a bee”, so the next suffix might be “philosophically”, “be” or “due”.

In this example the length of the prefix is always two, but you can do Markov analysis with any prefix length.

**Exercise 13.8.** *Markov analysis:*

1. Write a program to read a text from a file and perform Markov analysis. The result should be a dictionary that maps from prefixes to a collection of possible suffixes. The collection might be a list, tuple, or dictionary; it is up to you to make an appropriate choice. You can test your program with prefix length two, but you should write the program in a way that makes it easy to try other lengths.
2. Add a function to the previous program to generate random text based on the Markov analysis. Here is an example from *Emma* with prefix length 2:  

*He was very clever, be it sweetness or be angry, ashamed or only amused, at such a stroke. She had never thought of Hannah till you were never meant for me?" "I cannot make speeches, Emma:" he soon cut it all himself.*

*For this example, I left the punctuation attached to the words. The result is almost syntactically correct, but not quite. Semantically, it almost makes sense, but not quite.*

*What happens if you increase the prefix length? Does the random text make more sense?*
3. Once your program is working, you might want to try a mash-up: if you combine text from two or more books, the random text you generate will blend the vocabulary and phrases from the sources in interesting ways.

*Credit: This case study is based on an example from Kernighan and Pike, The Practice of Programming, Addison-Wesley, 1999.*

You should attempt this exercise before you go on; then you can download my solution from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/markov.py>. You will also need <http://thinkpython2.com/code/emma.txt>.

## 13.9 Data structures

Using Markov analysis to generate random text is fun, but there is also a point to this exercise: data structure selection. In your solution to the previous exercises, you had to choose:

- How to represent the prefixes.
- How to represent the collection of possible suffixes.
- How to represent the mapping from each prefix to the collection of possible suffixes.

The last one is easy: a dictionary is the obvious choice for a mapping from keys to corresponding values.

For the prefixes, the most obvious options are string, list of strings, or tuple of strings.

For the suffixes, one option is a list; another is a histogram (dictionary).

How should you choose? The first step is to think about the operations you will need to implement for each data structure. For the prefixes, we need to be able to remove words from the beginning and add to the end. For example, if the current prefix is “Half a”, and the next word is “bee”, you need to be able to form the next prefix, “a bee”.

Your first choice might be a list, since it is easy to add and remove elements, but we also need to be able to use the prefixes as keys in a dictionary, so that rules out lists. With tuples, you can’t append or remove, but you can use the addition operator to form a new tuple:

```
def shift(prefix, word):  
    return prefix[1:] + (word,)
```

`shift` takes a tuple of words, `prefix`, and a string, `word`, and forms a new tuple that has all the words in `prefix` except the first, and `word` added to the end.

For the collection of suffixes, the operations we need to perform include adding a new suffix (or increasing the frequency of an existing one), and choosing a random suffix.

Adding a new suffix is equally easy for the list implementation or the histogram. Choosing a random element from a list is easy; choosing from a histogram is harder to do efficiently (see Exercise 13.7).

So far we have been talking mostly about ease of implementation, but there are other factors to consider in choosing data structures. One is run time. Sometimes there is a theoretical reason to expect one data structure to be faster than other; for example, I mentioned that the `in` operator is faster for dictionaries than for lists, at least when the number of elements is large.

But often you don’t know ahead of time which implementation will be faster. One option is to implement both of them and see which is better. This approach is called **benchmarking**. A practical alternative is to choose the data structure that is easiest to implement, and then see if it is fast enough for the intended application. If so, there is no need to go on. If not, there are tools, like the `profile` module, that can identify the places in a program that take the most time.

The other factor to consider is storage space. For example, using a histogram for the collection of suffixes might take less space because you only have to store each word once, no



matter how many times it appears in the text. In some cases, saving space can also make your program run faster, and in the extreme, your program might not run at all if you run out of memory. But for many applications, space is a secondary consideration after run time.

One final thought: in this discussion, I have implied that we should use one data structure for both analysis and generation. But since these are separate phases, it would also be possible to use one structure for analysis and then convert to another structure for generation. This would be a net win if the time saved during generation exceeded the time spent in conversion.

## 13.10 Debugging

When you are debugging a program, and especially if you are working on a hard bug, there are five things to try:

**Reading:** Examine your code, read it back to yourself, and check that it says what you meant to say.

**Running:** Experiment by making changes and running different versions. Often if you display the right thing at the right place in the program, the problem becomes obvious, but sometimes you have to build scaffolding.

**Ruminating:** Take some time to think! What kind of error is it: syntax, runtime, or semantic? What information can you get from the error messages, or from the output of the program? What kind of error could cause the problem you're seeing? What did you change last, before the problem appeared?

**Rubberducking:** If you explain the problem to someone else, you sometimes find the answer before you finish asking the question. Often you don't need the other person; you could just talk to a rubber duck. And that's the origin of the well-known strategy called **rubber duck debugging**. I am not making this up; see [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rubber\\_duck\\_debugging](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rubber_duck_debugging).

**Retreating:** At some point, the best thing to do is back off, undoing recent changes, until you get back to a program that works and that you understand. Then you can start rebuilding.

Beginning programmers sometimes get stuck on one of these activities and forget the others. Each activity comes with its own failure mode.

For example, reading your code might help if the problem is a typographical error, but not if the problem is a conceptual misunderstanding. If you don't understand what your program does, you can read it 100 times and never see the error, because the error is in your head.

Running experiments can help, especially if you run small, simple tests. But if you run experiments without thinking or reading your code, you might fall into a pattern I call "random walk programming", which is the process of making random changes until the program does the right thing. Needless to say, random walk programming can take a long time.

You have to take time to think. Debugging is like an experimental science. You should have at least one hypothesis about what the problem is. If there are two or more possibilities, try to think of a test that would eliminate one of them.

But even the best debugging techniques will fail if there are too many errors, or if the code you are trying to fix is too big and complicated. Sometimes the best option is to retreat, simplifying the program until you get to something that works and that you understand.

Beginning programmers are often reluctant to retreat because they can't stand to delete a line of code (even if it's wrong). If it makes you feel better, copy your program into another file before you start stripping it down. Then you can copy the pieces back one at a time.

Finding a hard bug requires reading, running, ruminating, and sometimes retreating. If you get stuck on one of these activities, try the others.

## 13.11 Glossary

**deterministic:** Pertaining to a program that does the same thing each time it runs, given the same inputs.

**pseudorandom:** Pertaining to a sequence of numbers that appears to be random, but is generated by a deterministic program.

**default value:** The value given to an optional parameter if no argument is provided.

**override:** To replace a default value with an argument.

**benchmarking:** The process of choosing between data structures by implementing alternatives and testing them on a sample of the possible inputs.

**rubber duck debugging:** Debugging by explaining your problem to an inanimate object such as a rubber duck. Articulating the problem can help you solve it, even if the rubber duck doesn't know Python.

## 13.12 Exercises

**Exercise 13.9.** The “rank” of a word is its position in a list of words sorted by frequency: the most common word has rank 1, the second most common has rank 2, etc.

Zipf's law describes a relationship between the ranks and frequencies of words in natural languages ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zipf's\\_law](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zipf's_law)). Specifically, it predicts that the frequency,  $f$ , of the word with rank  $r$  is:

$$f = cr^{-s}$$

where  $s$  and  $c$  are parameters that depend on the language and the text. If you take the logarithm of both sides of this equation, you get:

$$\log f = \log c - s \log r$$

So if you plot  $\log f$  versus  $\log r$ , you should get a straight line with slope  $-s$  and intercept  $\log c$ .

Write a program that reads a text from a file, counts word frequencies, and prints one line for each word, in descending order of frequency, with  $\log f$  and  $\log r$ . Use the graphing program of your choice to plot the results and check whether they form a straight line. Can you estimate the value of  $s$ ?

Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/zipf.py>. To run my solution, you need the plotting module `matplotlib`. If you installed Anaconda, you already have `matplotlib`; otherwise you might have to install it.



# 第 14 章 Files

This chapter introduces the idea of “persistent” programs that keep data in permanent storage, and shows how to use different kinds of permanent storage, like files and databases.

## 14.1 Persistence

Most of the programs we have seen so far are transient in the sense that they run for a short time and produce some output, but when they end, their data disappears. If you run the program again, it starts with a clean slate.

Other programs are **persistent**: they run for a long time (or all the time); they keep at least some of their data in permanent storage (a hard drive, for example); and if they shut down and restart, they pick up where they left off.

Examples of persistent programs are operating systems, which run pretty much whenever a computer is on, and web servers, which run all the time, waiting for requests to come in on the network.

One of the simplest ways for programs to maintain their data is by reading and writing text files. We have already seen programs that read text files; in this chapter we will see programs that write them.

An alternative is to store the state of the program in a database. In this chapter I will present a simple database and a module, `pickle`, that makes it easy to store program data.

## 14.2 Reading and writing

A text file is a sequence of characters stored on a permanent medium like a hard drive, flash memory, or CD-ROM. We saw how to open and read a file in Section 9.1.

To write a file, you have to open it with mode `'w'` as a second parameter:

```
>>> fout = open('output.txt', 'w')
```

If the file already exists, opening it in write mode clears out the old data and starts fresh, so be careful! If the file doesn’t exist, a new one is created.

`open` returns a file object that provides methods for working with the file. The `write` method puts data into the file.

```
>>> line1 = "This here's the wattle,\n"
>>> fout.write(line1)
24
```

The return value is the number of characters that were written. The file object keeps track of where it is, so if you call `write` again, it adds the new data to the end of the file.

```
>>> line2 = "the emblem of our land.\n"
>>> fout.write(line2)
24
```

When you are done writing, you should close the file.

```
>>> fout.close()
```

If you don't close the file, it gets closed for you when the program ends.

### 14.3 Format operator

The argument of `write` has to be a string, so if we want to put other values in a file, we have to convert them to strings. The easiest way to do that is with `str`:

```
>>> x = 52
>>> fout.write(str(x))
```

An alternative is to use the **format operator**, `%`. When applied to integers, `%` is the modulus operator. But when the first operand is a string, `%` is the format operator.

The first operand is the **format string**, which contains one or more **format sequences**, which specify how the second operand is formatted. The result is a string.

For example, the format sequence `'%d'` means that the second operand should be formatted as a decimal integer:

```
>>> camels = 42
>>> '%d' % camels
'42'
```

The result is the string `'42'`, which is not to be confused with the integer value 42.

A format sequence can appear anywhere in the string, so you can embed a value in a sentence:

```
>>> 'I have spotted %d camels.' % camels
'I have spotted 42 camels.'
```

If there is more than one format sequence in the string, the second argument has to be a tuple. Each format sequence is matched with an element of the tuple, in order.

The following example uses `'%d'` to format an integer, `'%g'` to format a floating-point number, and `'%s'` to format a string:

```
>>> 'In %d years I have spotted %g %s.' % (3, 0.1, 'camels')
'In 3 years I have spotted 0.1 camels.'
```

The number of elements in the tuple has to match the number of format sequences in the string. Also, the types of the elements have to match the format sequences:

```
>>> '%d %d %d' % (1, 2)
TypeError: not enough arguments for format string
>>> '%d' % 'dollars'
TypeError: %d format: a number is required, not str
```

In the first example, there aren't enough elements; in the second, the element is the wrong type.

For more information on the format operator, see <https://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#printf-style-string-formatting>. A more powerful alternative is the string format method, which you can read about at <https://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#str.format>.

## 14.4 Filenames and paths

Files are organized into **directories** (also called “folders”). Every running program has a “current directory”, which is the default directory for most operations. For example, when you open a file for reading, Python looks for it in the current directory.

The `os` module provides functions for working with files and directories (“os” stands for “operating system”). `os.getcwd` returns the name of the current directory:

```
>>> import os
>>> cwd = os.getcwd()
>>> cwd
'/home/dinsdale'
```

`cwd` stands for “current working directory”. The result in this example is `/home/dinsdale`, which is the home directory of a user named `dinsdale`.

A string like `'/home/dinsdale'` that identifies a file or directory is called a **path**.

A simple filename, like `memo.txt` is also considered a path, but it is a **relative path** because it relates to the current directory. If the current directory is `/home/dinsdale`, the filename `memo.txt` would refer to `/home/dinsdale/memo.txt`.

A path that begins with `/` does not depend on the current directory; it is called an **absolute path**. To find the absolute path to a file, you can use `os.path.abspath`:

```
>>> os.path.abspath('memo.txt')
'/home/dinsdale/memo.txt'
```

`os.path` provides other functions for working with filenames and paths. For example, `os.path.exists` checks whether a file or directory exists:

```
>>> os.path.exists('memo.txt')
True
```

If it exists, `os.path.isdir` checks whether it's a directory:

```
>>> os.path.isdir('memo.txt')
False
>>> os.path.isdir('/home/dinsdale')
True
```

Similarly, `os.path.isfile` checks whether it's a file.

`os.listdir` returns a list of the files (and other directories) in the given directory:

```
>>> os.listdir(cwd)
['music', 'photos', 'memo.txt']
```

To demonstrate these functions, the following example “walks” through a directory, prints the names of all the files, and calls itself recursively on all the directories.

```
def walk(dirname):
    for name in os.listdir(dirname):
        path = os.path.join(dirname, name)

        if os.path.isfile(path):
            print(path)
        else:
            walk(path)
```

`os.path.join` takes a directory and a file name and joins them into a complete path.

The `os` module provides a function called `walk` that is similar to this one but more versatile. As an exercise, read the documentation and use it to print the names of the files in a given directory and its subdirectories. You can download my solution from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/walk.py>.

## 14.5 Catching exceptions

A lot of things can go wrong when you try to read and write files. If you try to open a file that doesn’t exist, you get an `IOError`:

```
>>> fin = open('bad_file')
IOError: [Errno 2] No such file or directory: 'bad_file'
```

If you don’t have permission to access a file:

```
>>> fout = open('/etc/passwd', 'w')
PermissionError: [Errno 13] Permission denied: '/etc/passwd'
```

And if you try to open a directory for reading, you get

```
>>> fin = open('/home')
IsADirectoryError: [Errno 21] Is a directory: '/home'
```

To avoid these errors, you could use functions like `os.path.exists` and `os.path.isfile`, but it would take a lot of time and code to check all the possibilities (if “Errno 21” is any indication, there are at least 21 things that can go wrong).

It is better to go ahead and try—and deal with problems if they happen—which is exactly what the `try` statement does. The syntax is similar to an `if...else` statement:

```
try:
    fin = open('bad_file')
except:
    print('Something went wrong.')
```

Python starts by executing the `try` clause. If all goes well, it skips the `except` clause and proceeds. If an exception occurs, it jumps out of the `try` clause and runs the `except` clause.

Handling an exception with a `try` statement is called **catching** an exception. In this example, the `except` clause prints an error message that is not very helpful. In general, catching an exception gives you a chance to fix the problem, or try again, or at least end the program gracefully.



## 14.6 Databases

A **database** is a file that is organized for storing data. Many databases are organized like a dictionary in the sense that they map from keys to values. The biggest difference between a database and a dictionary is that the database is on disk (or other permanent storage), so it persists after the program ends.

The module `dbm` provides an interface for creating and updating database files. As an example, I'll create a database that contains captions for image files.

Opening a database is similar to opening other files:

```
>>> import dbm
>>> db = dbm.open('captions', 'c')
```

The mode `'c'` means that the database should be created if it doesn't already exist. The result is a database object that can be used (for most operations) like a dictionary.

When you create a new item, `dbm` updates the database file.

```
>>> db['cleese.png'] = 'Photo of John Cleese.'
```

When you access one of the items, `dbm` reads the file:

```
>>> db['cleese.png']
b'Photo of John Cleese.'
```

The result is a **bytes object**, which is why it begins with `b`. A bytes object is similar to a string in many ways. When you get farther into Python, the difference becomes important, but for now we can ignore it.

If you make another assignment to an existing key, `dbm` replaces the old value:

```
>>> db['cleese.png'] = 'Photo of John Cleese doing a silly walk.'
>>> db['cleese.png']
b'Photo of John Cleese doing a silly walk.'
```

Some dictionary methods, like `keys` and `items`, don't work with database objects. But iteration with a `for` loop works:

```
for key in db:
    print(key, db[key])
```

As with other files, you should close the database when you are done:

```
>>> db.close()
```

## 14.7 Pickling

A limitation of `dbm` is that the keys and values have to be strings or bytes. If you try to use any other type, you get an error.

The `pickle` module can help. It translates almost any type of object into a string suitable for storage in a database, and then translates strings back into objects.

`pickle.dumps` takes an object as a parameter and returns a string representation (`dumps` is short for “dump string”):

```
>>> import pickle
>>> t = [1, 2, 3]
>>> pickle.dumps(t)
b'\x80\x03]q\x00(K\x01K\x02K\x03e.'
```

The format isn't obvious to human readers; it is meant to be easy for `pickle` to interpret. `pickle.loads` ("load string") reconstitutes the object:

```
>>> t1 = [1, 2, 3]
>>> s = pickle.dumps(t1)
>>> t2 = pickle.loads(s)
>>> t2
[1, 2, 3]
```

Although the new object has the same value as the old, it is not (in general) the same object:

```
>>> t1 == t2
True
>>> t1 is t2
False
```

In other words, pickling and then unpickling has the same effect as copying the object.

You can use `pickle` to store non-strings in a database. In fact, this combination is so common that it has been encapsulated in a module called `shelve`.

## 14.8 Pipes

Most operating systems provide a command-line interface, also known as a **shell**. Shells usually provide commands to navigate the file system and launch applications. For example, in Unix you can change directories with `cd`, display the contents of a directory with `ls`, and launch a web browser by typing (for example) `firefox`.

Any program that you can launch from the shell can also be launched from Python using a **pipe object**, which represents a running program.

For example, the Unix command `ls -l` normally displays the contents of the current directory in long format. You can launch `ls` with `os.popen`<sup>1</sup>:

```
>>> cmd = 'ls -l'
>>> fp = os.popen(cmd)
```

The argument is a string that contains a shell command. The return value is an object that behaves like an open file. You can read the output from the `ls` process one line at a time with `readline` or get the whole thing at once with `read`:

```
>>> res = fp.read()
```

When you are done, you close the pipe like a file:

```
>>> stat = fp.close()
>>> print(stat)
None
```

---

<sup>1</sup>`popen` is deprecated now, which means we are supposed to stop using it and start using the `subprocess` module. But for simple cases, I find `subprocess` more complicated than necessary. So I am going to keep using `popen` until they take it away.

The return value is the final status of the `ls` process; `None` means that it ended normally (with no errors).

For example, most Unix systems provide a command called `md5sum` that reads the contents of a file and computes a “checksum”. You can read about MD5 at <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Md5>. This command provides an efficient way to check whether two files have the same contents. The probability that different contents yield the same checksum is very small (that is, unlikely to happen before the universe collapses).

You can use a pipe to run `md5sum` from Python and get the result:

```
>>> filename = 'book.tex'
>>> cmd = 'md5sum ' + filename
>>> fp = os.popen(cmd)
>>> res = fp.read()
>>> stat = fp.close()
>>> print(res)
1e0033f0ed0656636de0d75144ba32e0  book.tex
>>> print(stat)
None
```

## 14.9 Writing modules

Any file that contains Python code can be imported as a module. For example, suppose you have a file named `wc.py` with the following code:

```
def linecount(filename):
    count = 0
    for line in open(filename):
        count += 1
    return count
```

```
print(linecount('wc.py'))
```

If you run this program, it reads itself and prints the number of lines in the file, which is 7. You can also import it like this:

```
>>> import wc
7
```

Now you have a module object `wc`:

```
>>> wc
<module 'wc' from 'wc.py'>
```

The module object provides `linecount`:

```
>>> wc.linecount('wc.py')
7
```

So that’s how you write modules in Python.

The only problem with this example is that when you import the module it runs the test code at the bottom. Normally when you import a module, it defines new functions but it doesn’t run them.

Programs that will be imported as modules often use the following idiom:

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    print(linecount('wc.py'))
```

`__name__` is a built-in variable that is set when the program starts. If the program is running as a script, `__name__` has the value `'__main__'`; in that case, the test code runs. Otherwise, if the module is being imported, the test code is skipped.

As an exercise, type this example into a file named `wc.py` and run it as a script. Then run the Python interpreter and `import wc`. What is the value of `__name__` when the module is being imported?

Warning: If you import a module that has already been imported, Python does nothing. It does not re-read the file, even if it has changed.

If you want to reload a module, you can use the built-in function `reload`, but it can be tricky, so the safest thing to do is restart the interpreter and then import the module again.

## 14.10 Debugging

When you are reading and writing files, you might run into problems with whitespace. These errors can be hard to debug because spaces, tabs and newlines are normally invisible:

```
>>> s = '1 2\t 3\n 4'
>>> print(s)
1 2 3
4
```

The built-in function `repr` can help. It takes any object as an argument and returns a string representation of the object. For strings, it represents whitespace characters with backslash sequences:

```
>>> print(repr(s))
'1 2\t 3\n 4'
```

This can be helpful for debugging.

One other problem you might run into is that different systems use different characters to indicate the end of a line. Some systems use a newline, represented `\n`. Others use a return character, represented `\r`. Some use both. If you move files between different systems, these inconsistencies can cause problems.

For most systems, there are applications to convert from one format to another. You can find them (and read more about this issue) at <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Newline>. Or, of course, you could write one yourself.

## 14.11 Glossary

**persistent:** Pertaining to a program that runs indefinitely and keeps at least some of its data in permanent storage.

**format operator:** An operator, `%`, that takes a format string and a tuple and generates a string that includes the elements of the tuple formatted as specified by the format string.

**format string:** A string, used with the format operator, that contains format sequences.

**format sequence:** A sequence of characters in a format string, like %d, that specifies how a value should be formatted.

**text file:** A sequence of characters stored in permanent storage like a hard drive.

**directory:** A named collection of files, also called a folder.

**path:** A string that identifies a file.

**relative path:** A path that starts from the current directory.

**absolute path:** A path that starts from the topmost directory in the file system.

**catch:** To prevent an exception from terminating a program using the try and except statements.

**database:** A file whose contents are organized like a dictionary with keys that correspond to values.

**bytes object:** An object similar to a string.

**shell:** A program that allows users to type commands and then executes them by starting other programs.

**pipe object:** An object that represents a running program, allowing a Python program to run commands and read the results.

## 14.12 Exercises

**Exercise 14.1.** Write a function called `sed` that takes as arguments a pattern string, a replacement string, and two filenames; it should read the first file and write the contents into the second file (creating it if necessary). If the pattern string appears anywhere in the file, it should be replaced with the replacement string.

If an error occurs while opening, reading, writing or closing files, your program should catch the exception, print an error message, and exit. Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/sed.py>.

**Exercise 14.2.** If you download my solution to Exercise 12.2 from [http://thinkpython2.com/code/anagram\\_sets.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/anagram_sets.py), you'll see that it creates a dictionary that maps from a sorted string of letters to the list of words that can be spelled with those letters. For example, 'opst' maps to the list ['opts', 'post', 'pots', 'spot', 'stop', 'tops'].

Write a module that imports `anagram_sets` and provides two new functions: `store_anagrams` should store the anagram dictionary in a "shelf"; `read_anagrams` should look up a word and return a list of its anagrams. Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/anagram\\_db.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/anagram_db.py).

**Exercise 14.3.** In a large collection of MP3 files, there may be more than one copy of the same song, stored in different directories or with different file names. The goal of this exercise is to search for duplicates.

1. Write a program that searches a directory and all of its subdirectories, recursively, and returns a list of complete paths for all files with a given suffix (like .mp3). Hint: `os.path` provides several useful functions for manipulating file and path names.

2. To recognize duplicates, you can use `md5sum` to compute a “checksum” for each files. If two files have the same checksum, they probably have the same contents.
3. To double-check, you can use the Unix command `diff`.

Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/find\\_duplicates.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/find_duplicates.py).

# 第15章 Classes and objects

At this point you know how to use functions to organize code and built-in types to organize data. The next step is to learn “object-oriented programming”, which uses programmer-defined types to organize both code and data. Object-oriented programming is a big topic; it will take a few chapters to get there.

Code examples from this chapter are available from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/Point1.py>; solutions to the exercises are available from [http://thinkpython2.com/code/Point1\\_soln.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/Point1_soln.py).

## 15.1 Programmer-defined types

We have used many of Python’s built-in types; now we are going to define a new type. As an example, we will create a type called `Point` that represents a point in two-dimensional space.

In mathematical notation, points are often written in parentheses with a comma separating the coordinates. For example,  $(0,0)$  represents the origin, and  $(x,y)$  represents the point  $x$  units to the right and  $y$  units up from the origin.

There are several ways we might represent points in Python:

- We could store the coordinates separately in two variables,  $x$  and  $y$ .
- We could store the coordinates as elements in a list or tuple.
- We could create a new type to represent points as objects.

Creating a new type is more complicated than the other options, but it has advantages that will be apparent soon.

A programmer-defined type is also called a **class**. A class definition looks like this:

```
class Point:
    """Represents a point in 2-D space."""
```

The header indicates that the new class is called `Point`. The body is a docstring that explains what the class is for. You can define variables and methods inside a class definition, but we will get back to that later.

Defining a class named `Point` creates a **class object**.

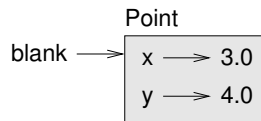


图 15.1: Object diagram.

```
>>> Point
<class '__main__.Point'>
```

Because `Point` is defined at the top level, its “full name” is `__main__.Point`.

The class object is like a factory for creating objects. To create a `Point`, you call `Point` as if it were a function.

```
>>> blank = Point()
>>> blank
<__main__.Point object at 0xb7e9d3ac>
```

The return value is a reference to a `Point` object, which we assign to `blank`.

Creating a new object is called **instantiation**, and the object is an **instance** of the class.

When you print an instance, Python tells you what class it belongs to and where it is stored in memory (the prefix `0x` means that the following number is in hexadecimal).

Every object is an instance of some class, so “object” and “instance” are interchangeable. But in this chapter I use “instance” to indicate that I am talking about a programmer-defined type.

## 15.2 Attributes

You can assign values to an instance using dot notation:

```
>>> blank.x = 3.0
>>> blank.y = 4.0
```

This syntax is similar to the syntax for selecting a variable from a module, such as `math.pi` or `string.whitespace`. In this case, though, we are assigning values to named elements of an object. These elements are called **attributes**.

As a noun, “AT-trib-ute” is pronounced with emphasis on the first syllable, as opposed to “a-TRIB-ute”, which is a verb.

Figure 15.1 is a state diagram that shows the result of these assignments. A state diagram that shows an object and its attributes is called an **object diagram**.

The variable `blank` refers to a `Point` object, which contains two attributes. Each attribute refers to a floating-point number.

You can read the value of an attribute using the same syntax:

```
>>> blank.y
4.0
>>> x = blank.x
>>> x
3.0
```



The expression `blank.x` means, “Go to the object `blank` refers to and get the value of `x`.” In the example, we assign that value to a variable named `x`. There is no conflict between the variable `x` and the attribute `x`.

You can use dot notation as part of any expression. For example:

```
>>> '(%g, %g)' % (blank.x, blank.y)
'(3.0, 4.0)'
>>> distance = math.sqrt(blank.x**2 + blank.y**2)
>>> distance
5.0
```

You can pass an instance as an argument in the usual way. For example:

```
def print_point(p):
    print('(%g, %g)' % (p.x, p.y))
```

`print_point` takes a point as an argument and displays it in mathematical notation. To invoke it, you can pass `blank` as an argument:

```
>>> print_point(blank)
(3.0, 4.0)
```

Inside the function, `p` is an alias for `blank`, so if the function modifies `p`, `blank` changes.

As an exercise, write a function called `distance_between_points` that takes two `Points` as arguments and returns the distance between them.

## 15.3 Rectangles

Sometimes it is obvious what the attributes of an object should be, but other times you have to make decisions. For example, imagine you are designing a class to represent rectangles. What attributes would you use to specify the location and size of a rectangle? You can ignore angle; to keep things simple, assume that the rectangle is either vertical or horizontal.

There are at least two possibilities:

- You could specify one corner of the rectangle (or the center), the width, and the height.
- You could specify two opposing corners.

At this point it is hard to say whether either is better than the other, so we'll implement the first one, just as an example.

Here is the class definition:

```
class Rectangle:
    """Represents a rectangle.

    attributes: width, height, corner.
```

The docstring lists the attributes: `width` and `height` are numbers; `corner` is a `Point` object that specifies the lower-left corner.

To represent a rectangle, you have to instantiate a `Rectangle` object and assign values to the attributes:

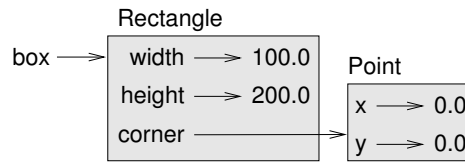


图 15.2: Object diagram.

```

box = Rectangle()
box.width = 100.0
box.height = 200.0
box.corner = Point()
box.corner.x = 0.0
box.corner.y = 0.0

```

The expression `box.corner.x` means, “Go to the object `box` refers to and select the attribute named `corner`; then go to that object and select the attribute named `x`.”

Figure 15.2 shows the state of this object. An object that is an attribute of another object is **embedded**.

## 15.4 Instances as return values

Functions can return instances. For example, `find_center` takes a `Rectangle` as an argument and returns a `Point` that contains the coordinates of the center of the `Rectangle`:

```

def find_center(rect):
    p = Point()
    p.x = rect.corner.x + rect.width/2
    p.y = rect.corner.y + rect.height/2
    return p

```

Here is an example that passes `box` as an argument and assigns the resulting `Point` to `center`:

```

>>> center = find_center(box)
>>> print_point(center)
(50, 100)

```

## 15.5 Objects are mutable

You can change the state of an object by making an assignment to one of its attributes. For example, to change the size of a rectangle without changing its position, you can modify the values of `width` and `height`:

```

box.width = box.width + 50
box.height = box.height + 100

```

You can also write functions that modify objects. For example, `grow_rectangle` takes a `Rectangle` object and two numbers, `dwidth` and `dheight`, and adds the numbers to the width and height of the rectangle:

```
def grow_rectangle(rect, dwidth, dheight):
    rect.width += dwidth
    rect.height += dheight
```

Here is an example that demonstrates the effect:

```
>>> box.width, box.height
(150.0, 300.0)
>>> grow_rectangle(box, 50, 100)
>>> box.width, box.height
(200.0, 400.0)
```

Inside the function, `rect` is an alias for `box`, so when the function modifies `rect`, `box` changes.

As an exercise, write a function named `move_rectangle` that takes a `Rectangle` and two numbers named `dx` and `dy`. It should change the location of the rectangle by adding `dx` to the `x` coordinate of `corner` and adding `dy` to the `y` coordinate of `corner`.

## 15.6 Copying

Aliasing can make a program difficult to read because changes in one place might have unexpected effects in another place. It is hard to keep track of all the variables that might refer to a given object.

Copying an object is often an alternative to aliasing. The `copy` module contains a function called `copy` that can duplicate any object:

```
>>> p1 = Point()
>>> p1.x = 3.0
>>> p1.y = 4.0
```

```
>>> import copy
>>> p2 = copy.copy(p1)
```

`p1` and `p2` contain the same data, but they are not the same `Point`.

```
>>> print_point(p1)
(3, 4)
>>> print_point(p2)
(3, 4)
>>> p1 is p2
False
>>> p1 == p2
False
```

The `is` operator indicates that `p1` and `p2` are not the same object, which is what we expected. But you might have expected `==` to yield `True` because these points contain the same data. In that case, you will be disappointed to learn that for instances, the default behavior of the `==` operator is the same as the `is` operator; it checks object identity, not object equivalence. That's because for programmer-defined types, Python doesn't know what should be considered equivalent. At least, not yet.

If you use `copy.copy` to duplicate a `Rectangle`, you will find that it copies the `Rectangle` object but not the embedded `Point`.

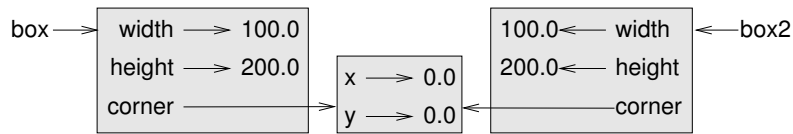


图 15.3: Object diagram.

```

>>> box2 = copy.copy(box)
>>> box2 is box
False
>>> box2.corner is box.corner
True

```

Figure 15.3 shows what the object diagram looks like. This operation is called a **shallow copy** because it copies the object and any references it contains, but not the embedded objects.

For most applications, this is not what you want. In this example, invoking `grow_rectangle` on one of the Rectangles would not affect the other, but invoking `move_rectangle` on either would affect both! This behavior is confusing and error-prone.

Fortunately, the `copy` module provides a method named `deepcopy` that copies not only the object but also the objects it refers to, and the objects *they* refer to, and so on. You will not be surprised to learn that this operation is called a **deep copy**.

```

>>> box3 = copy.deepcopy(box)
>>> box3 is box
False
>>> box3.corner is box.corner
False

```

`box3` and `box` are completely separate objects.

As an exercise, write a version of `move_rectangle` that creates and returns a new `Rectangle` instead of modifying the old one.

## 15.7 Debugging

When you start working with objects, you are likely to encounter some new exceptions. If you try to access an attribute that doesn't exist, you get an `AttributeError`:

```

>>> p = Point()
>>> p.x = 3
>>> p.y = 4
>>> p.z
AttributeError: Point instance has no attribute 'z'

```

If you are not sure what type an object is, you can ask:

```

>>> type(p)
<class '__main__.Point'>

```

You can also use `isinstance` to check whether an object is an instance of a class:

```
>>> isinstance(p, Point)
True
```

If you are not sure whether an object has a particular attribute, you can use the built-in function `hasattr`:

```
>>> hasattr(p, 'x')
True
>>> hasattr(p, 'z')
False
```

The first argument can be any object; the second argument is a *string* that contains the name of the attribute.

You can also use a `try` statement to see if the object has the attributes you need:

```
try:
    x = p.x
except AttributeError:
    x = 0
```

This approach can make it easier to write functions that work with different types; more on that topic is coming up in Section 17.9.

## 15.8 Glossary

**class:** A programmer-defined type. A class definition creates a new class object.

**class object:** An object that contains information about a programmer-defined type. The class object can be used to create instances of the type.

**instance:** An object that belongs to a class.

**instantiate:** To create a new object.

**attribute:** One of the named values associated with an object.

**embedded object:** An object that is stored as an attribute of another object.

**shallow copy:** To copy the contents of an object, including any references to embedded objects; implemented by the `copy` function in the `copy` module.

**deep copy:** To copy the contents of an object as well as any embedded objects, and any objects embedded in them, and so on; implemented by the `deepcopy` function in the `copy` module.

**object diagram:** A diagram that shows objects, their attributes, and the values of the attributes.

## 15.9 Exercises

**Exercise 15.1.** Write a definition for a class named `Circle` with attributes `center` and `radius`, where `center` is a `Point` object and `radius` is a number.

Instantiate a `Circle` object that represents a circle with its center at (150, 100) and radius 75.

Write a function named `point_in_circle` that takes a `Circle` and a `Point` and returns `True` if the `Point` lies in or on the boundary of the circle.

Write a function named `rect_in_circle` that takes a `Circle` and a `Rectangle` and returns `True` if the `Rectangle` lies entirely in or on the boundary of the circle.

Write a function named `rect_circle_overlap` that takes a `Circle` and a `Rectangle` and returns `True` if any of the corners of the `Rectangle` fall inside the `Circle`. Or as a more challenging version, return `True` if any part of the `Rectangle` falls inside the `Circle`.

Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/Circle.py>.

**Exercise 15.2.** Write a function called `draw_rect` that takes a `Turtle` object and a `Rectangle` and uses the `Turtle` to draw the `Rectangle`. See Chapter 4 for examples using `Turtle` objects.

Write a function called `draw_circle` that takes a `Turtle` and a `Circle` and draws the `Circle`.

Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/draw.py>.

## 第16章 Classes and functions

Now that we know how to create new types, the next step is to write functions that take programmer-defined objects as parameters and return them as results. In this chapter I also present “functional programming style” and two new program development plans.

Code examples from this chapter are available from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time1.py>. Solutions to the exercises are at [http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time1\\_soln.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time1_soln.py).

### 16.1 Time

As another example of a programmer-defined type, we’ll define a class called `Time` that records the time of day. The class definition looks like this:

```
class Time:
    """Represents the time of day.

    attributes: hour, minute, second
    """
```

We can create a new `Time` object and assign attributes for hours, minutes, and seconds:

```
time = Time()
time.hour = 11
time.minute = 59
time.second = 30
```

The state diagram for the `Time` object looks like Figure 16.1.

As an exercise, write a function called `print_time` that takes a `Time` object and prints it in the form `hour:minute:second`. Hint: the format sequence `'%.2d'` prints an integer using at least two digits, including a leading zero if necessary.

Write a boolean function called `is_after` that takes two `Time` objects, `t1` and `t2`, and returns `True` if `t1` follows `t2` chronologically and `False` otherwise. Challenge: don’t use an `if` statement.

### 16.2 Pure functions

In the next few sections, we’ll write two functions that add time values. They demonstrate two kinds of functions: pure functions and modifiers. They also demonstrate a develop-

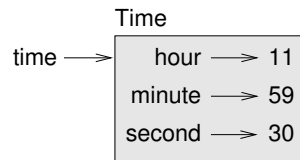


图 16.1: Object diagram.

ment plan I'll call **prototype and patch**, which is a way of tackling a complex problem by starting with a simple prototype and incrementally dealing with the complications.

Here is a simple prototype of `add_time`:

```
def add_time(t1, t2):
    sum = Time()
    sum.hour = t1.hour + t2.hour
    sum.minute = t1.minute + t2.minute
    sum.second = t1.second + t2.second
    return sum
```

The function creates a new `Time` object, initializes its attributes, and returns a reference to the new object. This is called a **pure function** because it does not modify any of the objects passed to it as arguments and it has no effect, like displaying a value or getting user input, other than returning a value.

To test this function, I'll create two `Time` objects: `start` contains the start time of a movie, like *Monty Python and the Holy Grail*, and `duration` contains the run time of the movie, which is one hour 35 minutes.

`add_time` figures out when the movie will be done.

```
>>> start = Time()
>>> start.hour = 9
>>> start.minute = 45
>>> start.second = 0

>>> duration = Time()
>>> duration.hour = 1
>>> duration.minute = 35
>>> duration.second = 0

>>> done = add_time(start, duration)
>>> print_time(done)
10:80:00
```

The result, 10:80:00 might not be what you were hoping for. The problem is that this function does not deal with cases where the number of seconds or minutes adds up to more than sixty. When that happens, we have to “carry” the extra seconds into the minute column or the extra minutes into the hour column.

Here's an improved version:

```
def add_time(t1, t2):
    sum = Time()
    sum.hour = t1.hour + t2.hour
```



```
sum.minute = t1.minute + t2.minute
sum.second = t1.second + t2.second

if sum.second >= 60:
    sum.second -= 60
    sum.minute += 1

if sum.minute >= 60:
    sum.minute -= 60
    sum.hour += 1

return sum
```

Although this function is correct, it is starting to get big. We will see a shorter alternative later.

## 16.3 Modifiers

Sometimes it is useful for a function to modify the objects it gets as parameters. In that case, the changes are visible to the caller. Functions that work this way are called **modifiers**.

`increment`, which adds a given number of seconds to a `Time` object, can be written naturally as a modifier. Here is a rough draft:

```
def increment(time, seconds):
    time.second += seconds

    if time.second >= 60:
        time.second -= 60
        time.minute += 1

    if time.minute >= 60:
        time.minute -= 60
        time.hour += 1
```

The first line performs the basic operation; the remainder deals with the special cases we saw before.

Is this function correct? What happens if `seconds` is much greater than sixty?

In that case, it is not enough to carry once; we have to keep doing it until `time.second` is less than sixty. One solution is to replace the `if` statements with `while` statements. That would make the function correct, but not very efficient. As an exercise, write a correct version of `increment` that doesn't contain any loops.

Anything that can be done with modifiers can also be done with pure functions. In fact, some programming languages only allow pure functions. There is some evidence that programs that use pure functions are faster to develop and less error-prone than programs that use modifiers. But modifiers are convenient at times, and functional programs tend to be less efficient.

In general, I recommend that you write pure functions whenever it is reasonable and resort to modifiers only if there is a compelling advantage. This approach might be called a **functional programming style**.

As an exercise, write a “pure” version of `increment` that creates and returns a new `Time` object rather than modifying the parameter.

## 16.4 Prototyping versus planning

The development plan I am demonstrating is called “prototype and patch”. For each function, I wrote a prototype that performed the basic calculation and then tested it, patching errors along the way.

This approach can be effective, especially if you don’t yet have a deep understanding of the problem. But incremental corrections can generate code that is unnecessarily complicated—since it deals with many special cases—and unreliable—since it is hard to know if you have found all the errors.

An alternative is **designed development**, in which high-level insight into the problem can make the programming much easier. In this case, the insight is that a `Time` object is really a three-digit number in base 60 (see <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexagesimal>). The second attribute is the “ones column”, the minute attribute is the “sixties column”, and the hour attribute is the “thirty-six hundreds column”.

When we wrote `add_time` and `increment`, we were effectively doing addition in base 60, which is why we had to carry from one column to the next.

This observation suggests another approach to the whole problem—we can convert `Time` objects to integers and take advantage of the fact that the computer knows how to do integer arithmetic.

Here is a function that converts `Times` to integers:

```
def time_to_int(time):
    minutes = time.hour * 60 + time.minute
    seconds = minutes * 60 + time.second
    return seconds
```

And here is a function that converts an integer to a `Time` (recall that `divmod` divides the first argument by the second and returns the quotient and remainder as a tuple).

```
def int_to_time(seconds):
    time = Time()
    minutes, time.second = divmod(seconds, 60)
    time.hour, time.minute = divmod(minutes, 60)
    return time
```

You might have to think a bit, and run some tests, to convince yourself that these functions are correct. One way to test them is to check that `time_to_int(int_to_time(x)) == x` for many values of `x`. This is an example of a consistency check.

Once you are convinced they are correct, you can use them to rewrite `add_time`:

```
def add_time(t1, t2):
    seconds = time_to_int(t1) + time_to_int(t2)
    return int_to_time(seconds)
```

This version is shorter than the original, and easier to verify. As an exercise, rewrite `increment` using `time_to_int` and `int_to_time`.

In some ways, converting from base 60 to base 10 and back is harder than just dealing with times. Base conversion is more abstract; our intuition for dealing with time values is better.

But if we have the insight to treat times as base 60 numbers and make the investment of writing the conversion functions (`time_to_int` and `int_to_time`), we get a program that is shorter, easier to read and debug, and more reliable.

It is also easier to add features later. For example, imagine subtracting two `Times` to find the duration between them. The naive approach would be to implement subtraction with borrowing. Using the conversion functions would be easier and more likely to be correct.

Ironically, sometimes making a problem harder (or more general) makes it easier (because there are fewer special cases and fewer opportunities for error).

## 16.5 Debugging

A `Time` object is well-formed if the values of `minute` and `second` are between 0 and 60 (including 0 but not 60) and if `hour` is positive. `hour` and `minute` should be integer values, but we might allow `second` to have a fraction part.

Requirements like these are called **invariants** because they should always be true. To put it a different way, if they are not true, something has gone wrong.

Writing code to check invariants can help detect errors and find their causes. For example, you might have a function like `valid_time` that takes a `Time` object and returns `False` if it violates an invariant:

```
def valid_time(time):
    if time.hour < 0 or time.minute < 0 or time.second < 0:
        return False
    if time.minute >= 60 or time.second >= 60:
        return False
    return True
```

At the beginning of each function you could check the arguments to make sure they are valid:

```
def add_time(t1, t2):
    if not valid_time(t1) or not valid_time(t2):
        raise ValueError('invalid Time object in add_time')
    seconds = time_to_int(t1) + time_to_int(t2)
    return int_to_time(seconds)
```

Or you could use an **assert statement**, which checks a given invariant and raises an exception if it fails:

```
def add_time(t1, t2):
    assert valid_time(t1) and valid_time(t2)
    seconds = time_to_int(t1) + time_to_int(t2)
    return int_to_time(seconds)
```

`assert` statements are useful because they distinguish code that deals with normal conditions from code that checks for errors.

## 16.6 Glossary

**prototype and patch:** A development plan that involves writing a rough draft of a program, testing, and correcting errors as they are found.

**designed development:** A development plan that involves high-level insight into the problem and more planning than incremental development or prototype development.

**pure function:** A function that does not modify any of the objects it receives as arguments. Most pure functions are fruitful.

**modifier:** A function that changes one or more of the objects it receives as arguments. Most modifiers are void; that is, they return `None`.

**functional programming style:** A style of program design in which the majority of functions are pure.

**invariant:** A condition that should always be true during the execution of a program.

**assert statement:** A statement that check a condition and raises an exception if it fails.

## 16.7 Exercises

Code examples from this chapter are available from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time1.py>; solutions to the exercises are available from [http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time1\\_soln.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time1_soln.py).

**Exercise 16.1.** Write a function called `mul_time` that takes a `Time` object and a number and returns a new `Time` object that contains the product of the original `Time` and the number.

Then use `mul_time` to write a function that takes a `Time` object that represents the finishing time in a race, and a number that represents the distance, and returns a `Time` object that represents the average pace (time per mile).

**Exercise 16.2.** The `datetime` module provides `time` objects that are similar to the `Time` objects in this chapter, but they provide a rich set of methods and operators. Read the documentation at <http://docs.python.org/3/library/datetime.html>.

1. Use the `datetime` module to write a program that gets the current date and prints the day of the week.
2. Write a program that takes a birthday as input and prints the user's age and the number of days, hours, minutes and seconds until their next birthday.
3. For two people born on different days, there is a day when one is twice as old as the other. That's their Double Day. Write a program that takes two birth dates and computes their Double Day.
4. For a little more challenge, write the more general version that computes the day when one person is  $n$  times older than the other.

Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/double.py>

## 第17章 Classes and methods

Although we are using some of Python's object-oriented features, the programs from the last two chapters are not really object-oriented because they don't represent the relationships between programmer-defined types and the functions that operate on them. The next step is to transform those functions into methods that make the relationships explicit.

Code examples from this chapter are available from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time2.py>, and solutions to the exercises are in [http://thinkpython2.com/code/Point2\\_soln.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/Point2_soln.py).

### 17.1 Object-oriented features

Python is an **object-oriented programming language**, which means that it provides features that support object-oriented programming, which has these defining characteristics:

- Programs include class and method definitions.
- Most of the computation is expressed in terms of operations on objects.
- Objects often represent things in the real world, and methods often correspond to the ways things in the real world interact.

For example, the `Time` class defined in Chapter 16 corresponds to the way people record the time of day, and the functions we defined correspond to the kinds of things people do with times. Similarly, the `Point` and `Rectangle` classes in Chapter 15 correspond to the mathematical concepts of a point and a rectangle.

So far, we have not taken advantage of the features Python provides to support object-oriented programming. These features are not strictly necessary; most of them provide alternative syntax for things we have already done. But in many cases, the alternative is more concise and more accurately conveys the structure of the program.

For example, in `Time1.py` there is no obvious connection between the class definition and the function definitions that follow. With some examination, it is apparent that every function takes at least one `Time` object as an argument.

This observation is the motivation for **methods**; a method is a function that is associated with a particular class. We have seen methods for strings, lists, dictionaries and tuples. In this chapter, we will define methods for programmer-defined types.

Methods are semantically the same as functions, but there are two syntactic differences:

- Methods are defined inside a class definition in order to make the relationship between the class and the method explicit.
- The syntax for invoking a method is different from the syntax for calling a function.

In the next few sections, we will take the functions from the previous two chapters and transform them into methods. This transformation is purely mechanical; you can do it by following a sequence of steps. If you are comfortable converting from one form to another, you will be able to choose the best form for whatever you are doing.

## 17.2 Printing objects

In Chapter 16, we defined a class named `Time` and in Section 16.1, you wrote a function named `print_time`:

```
class Time:
    """Represents the time of day."""

def print_time(time):
    print('%02d:%02d:%02d' % (time.hour, time.minute, time.second))
```

To call this function, you have to pass a `Time` object as an argument:

```
>>> start = Time()
>>> start.hour = 9
>>> start.minute = 45
>>> start.second = 00
>>> print_time(start)
09:45:00
```

To make `print_time` a method, all we have to do is move the function definition inside the class definition. Notice the change in indentation.

```
class Time:
    def print_time(time):
        print('%02d:%02d:%02d' % (time.hour, time.minute, time.second))
```

Now there are two ways to call `print_time`. The first (and less common) way is to use function syntax:

```
>>> Time.print_time(start)
09:45:00
```

In this use of dot notation, `Time` is the name of the class, and `print_time` is the name of the method. `start` is passed as a parameter.

The second (and more concise) way is to use method syntax:

```
>>> start.print_time()
09:45:00
```

In this use of dot notation, `print_time` is the name of the method (again), and `start` is the object the method is invoked on, which is called the **subject**. Just as the subject of a sentence is what the sentence is about, the subject of a method invocation is what the method is about.

Inside the method, the subject is assigned to the first parameter, so in this case `start` is assigned to `time`.

By convention, the first parameter of a method is called `self`, so it would be more common to write `print_time` like this:

```
class Time:
    def print_time(self):
        print('%0.2d:%0.2d:%0.2d' % (self.hour, self.minute, self.second))
```

The reason for this convention is an implicit metaphor:

- The syntax for a function call, `print_time(start)`, suggests that the function is the active agent. It says something like, “Hey `print_time`! Here’s an object for you to print.”
- In object-oriented programming, the objects are the active agents. A method invocation like `start.print_time()` says “Hey `start`! Please print yourself.”

This change in perspective might be more polite, but it is not obvious that it is useful. In the examples we have seen so far, it may not be. But sometimes shifting responsibility from the functions onto the objects makes it possible to write more versatile functions (or methods), and makes it easier to maintain and reuse code.

As an exercise, rewrite `time_to_int` (from Section 16.4) as a method. You might be tempted to rewrite `int_to_time` as a method, too, but that doesn’t really make sense because there would be no object to invoke it on.

## 17.3 Another example

Here’s a version of `increment` (from Section 16.3) rewritten as a method:

```
# inside class Time:

    def increment(self, seconds):
        seconds += self.time_to_int()
        return int_to_time(seconds)
```

This version assumes that `time_to_int` is written as a method. Also, note that it is a pure function, not a modifier.

Here’s how you would invoke `increment`:

```
>>> start.print_time()
09:45:00
>>> end = start.increment(1337)
>>> end.print_time()
10:07:17
```

The subject, `start`, gets assigned to the first parameter, `self`. The argument, `1337`, gets assigned to the second parameter, `seconds`.

This mechanism can be confusing, especially if you make an error. For example, if you invoke `increment` with two arguments, you get:

```
>>> end = start.increment(1337, 460)
TypeError: increment() takes 2 positional arguments but 3 were given
```

The error message is initially confusing, because there are only two arguments in parentheses. But the subject is also considered an argument, so all together that's three.

By the way, a **positional argument** is an argument that doesn't have a parameter name; that is, it is not a keyword argument. In this function call:

```
sketch(parrot, cage, dead=True)
```

parrot and cage are positional, and dead is a keyword argument.

## 17.4 A more complicated example

Rewriting `is_after` (from Section 16.1) is slightly more complicated because it takes two `Time` objects as parameters. In this case it is conventional to name the first parameter `self` and the second parameter `other`:

```
# inside class Time:
```

```
def is_after(self, other):
    return self.time_to_int() > other.time_to_int()
```

To use this method, you have to invoke it on one object and pass the other as an argument:

```
>>> end.is_after(start)
True
```

One nice thing about this syntax is that it almost reads like English: "end is after start?"

## 17.5 The `__init__` method

The `init` method (short for "initialization") is a special method that gets invoked when an object is instantiated. Its full name is `__init__` (two underscore characters, followed by `init`, and then two more underscores). An `init` method for the `Time` class might look like this:

```
# inside class Time:
```

```
def __init__(self, hour=0, minute=0, second=0):
    self.hour = hour
    self.minute = minute
    self.second = second
```

It is common for the parameters of `__init__` to have the same names as the attributes. The statement

```
self.hour = hour
```

stores the value of the parameter `hour` as an attribute of `self`.

The parameters are optional, so if you call `Time` with no arguments, you get the default values.

```
>>> time = Time()
>>> time.print_time()
00:00:00
```



If you provide one argument, it overrides hour:

```
>>> time = Time (9)
>>> time.print_time()
09:00:00
```

If you provide two arguments, they override hour and minute.

```
>>> time = Time(9, 45)
>>> time.print_time()
09:45:00
```

And if you provide three arguments, they override all three default values.

As an exercise, write an `init` method for the `Point` class that takes `x` and `y` as optional parameters and assigns them to the corresponding attributes.

## 17.6 The `__str__` method

`__str__` is a special method, like `__init__`, that is supposed to return a string representation of an object.

For example, here is a `str` method for `Time` objects:

```
# inside class Time:

    def __str__(self):
        return '%.2d:%.2d:%.2d' % (self.hour, self.minute, self.second)
```

When you print an object, Python invokes the `str` method:

```
>>> time = Time(9, 45)
>>> print(time)
09:45:00
```

When I write a new class, I almost always start by writing `__init__`, which makes it easier to instantiate objects, and `__str__`, which is useful for debugging.

As an exercise, write a `str` method for the `Point` class. Create a `Point` object and print it.

## 17.7 Operator overloading

By defining other special methods, you can specify the behavior of operators on programmer-defined types. For example, if you define a method named `__add__` for the `Time` class, you can use the `+` operator on `Time` objects.

Here is what the definition might look like:

```
# inside class Time:

    def __add__(self, other):
        seconds = self.time_to_int() + other.time_to_int()
        return int_to_time(seconds)
```

And here is how you could use it:

```
>>> start = Time(9, 45)
>>> duration = Time(1, 35)
>>> print(start + duration)
11:20:00
```

When you apply the + operator to Time objects, Python invokes `__add__`. When you print the result, Python invokes `__str__`. So there is a lot happening behind the scenes!

Changing the behavior of an operator so that it works with programmer-defined types is called **operator overloading**. For every operator in Python there is a corresponding special method, like `__add__`. For more details, see <http://docs.python.org/3/reference/datamodel.html#specialnames>.

As an exercise, write an add method for the Point class.

## 17.8 Type-based dispatch

In the previous section we added two Time objects, but you also might want to add an integer to a Time object. The following is a version of `__add__` that checks the type of other and invokes either `add_time` or `increment`:

```
# inside class Time:

    def __add__(self, other):
        if isinstance(other, Time):
            return self.add_time(other)
        else:
            return self.increment(other)

    def add_time(self, other):
        seconds = self.time_to_int() + other.time_to_int()
        return int_to_time(seconds)

    def increment(self, seconds):
        seconds += self.time_to_int()
        return int_to_time(seconds)
```

The built-in function `isinstance` takes a value and a class object, and returns True if the value is an instance of the class.

If `other` is a Time object, `__add__` invokes `add_time`. Otherwise it assumes that the parameter is a number and invokes `increment`. This operation is called a **type-based dispatch** because it dispatches the computation to different methods based on the type of the arguments.

Here are examples that use the + operator with different types:

```
>>> start = Time(9, 45)
>>> duration = Time(1, 35)
>>> print(start + duration)
11:20:00
>>> print(start + 1337)
10:07:17
```

Unfortunately, this implementation of addition is not commutative. If the integer is the first operand, you get

```
>>> print(1337 + start)
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'int' and 'instance'
```

The problem is, instead of asking the Time object to add an integer, Python is asking an integer to add a Time object, and it doesn't know how. But there is a clever solution for this problem: the special method `__radd__`, which stands for “right-side add”. This method is invoked when a Time object appears on the right side of the `+` operator. Here's the definition:

```
# inside class Time:

    def __radd__(self, other):
        return self.__add__(other)
```

And here's how it's used:

```
>>> print(1337 + start)
10:07:17
```

As an exercise, write an add method for Points that works with either a Point object or a tuple:

- If the second operand is a Point, the method should return a new Point whose *x* coordinate is the sum of the *x* coordinates of the operands, and likewise for the *y* coordinates.
- If the second operand is a tuple, the method should add the first element of the tuple to the *x* coordinate and the second element to the *y* coordinate, and return a new Point with the result.

## 17.9 Polymorphism

Type-based dispatch is useful when it is necessary, but (fortunately) it is not always necessary. Often you can avoid it by writing functions that work correctly for arguments with different types.

Many of the functions we wrote for strings also work for other sequence types. For example, in Section 11.2 we used `histogram` to count the number of times each letter appears in a word.

```
def histogram(s):
    d = dict()
    for c in s:
        if c not in d:
            d[c] = 1
        else:
            d[c] = d[c]+1
    return d
```

This function also works for lists, tuples, and even dictionaries, as long as the elements of *s* are hashable, so they can be used as keys in *d*.

```
>>> t = ['spam', 'egg', 'spam', 'spam', 'bacon', 'spam']
>>> histogram(t)
{'bacon': 1, 'egg': 1, 'spam': 4}
```

Functions that work with several types are called **polymorphic**. Polymorphism can facilitate code reuse. For example, the built-in function `sum`, which adds the elements of a sequence, works as long as the elements of the sequence support addition.

Since `Time` objects provide an `add` method, they work with `sum`:

```
>>> t1 = Time(7, 43)
>>> t2 = Time(7, 41)
>>> t3 = Time(7, 37)
>>> total = sum([t1, t2, t3])
>>> print(total)
23:01:00
```

In general, if all of the operations inside a function work with a given type, the function works with that type.

The best kind of polymorphism is the unintentional kind, where you discover that a function you already wrote can be applied to a type you never planned for.

## 17.10 Debugging

It is legal to add attributes to objects at any point in the execution of a program, but if you have objects with the same type that don't have the same attributes, it is easy to make mistakes. It is considered a good idea to initialize all of an object's attributes in the `init` method.

If you are not sure whether an object has a particular attribute, you can use the built-in function `hasattr` (see Section 15.7).

Another way to access attributes is the built-in function `vars`, which takes an object and returns a dictionary that maps from attribute names (as strings) to their values:

```
>>> p = Point(3, 4)
>>> vars(p)
{'y': 4, 'x': 3}
```

For purposes of debugging, you might find it useful to keep this function handy:

```
def print_attributes(obj):
    for attr in vars(obj):
        print(attr, getattr(obj, attr))
```

`print_attributes` traverses the dictionary and prints each attribute name and its corresponding value.

The built-in function `getattr` takes an object and an attribute name (as a string) and returns the attribute's value.

## 17.11 Interface and implementation

One of the goals of object-oriented design is to make software more maintainable, which means that you can keep the program working when other parts of the system change, and modify the program to meet new requirements.

A design principle that helps achieve that goal is to keep interfaces separate from implementations. For objects, that means that the methods a class provides should not depend on how the attributes are represented.

For example, in this chapter we developed a class that represents a time of day. Methods provided by this class include `time_to_int`, `is_after`, and `add_time`.

We could implement those methods in several ways. The details of the implementation depend on how we represent time. In this chapter, the attributes of a `Time` object are `hour`, `minute`, and `second`.

As an alternative, we could replace these attributes with a single integer representing the number of seconds since midnight. This implementation would make some methods, like `is_after`, easier to write, but it makes other methods harder.

After you deploy a new class, you might discover a better implementation. If other parts of the program are using your class, it might be time-consuming and error-prone to change the interface.

But if you designed the interface carefully, you can change the implementation without changing the interface, which means that other parts of the program don't have to change.

## 17.12 Glossary

**object-oriented language:** A language that provides features, such as programmer-defined types and methods, that facilitate object-oriented programming.

**object-oriented programming:** A style of programming in which data and the operations that manipulate it are organized into classes and methods.

**method:** A function that is defined inside a class definition and is invoked on instances of that class.

**subject:** The object a method is invoked on.

**positional argument:** An argument that does not include a parameter name, so it is not a keyword argument.

**operator overloading:** Changing the behavior of an operator like `+` so it works with a programmer-defined type.

**type-based dispatch:** A programming pattern that checks the type of an operand and invokes different functions for different types.

**polymorphic:** Pertaining to a function that can work with more than one type.

## 17.13 Exercises

**Exercise 17.1.** Download the code from this chapter from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time2.py>. Change the attributes of `Time` to be a single integer representing seconds since midnight. Then modify the methods (and the function `int_to_time`) to work with the new implementation. You should not have to modify the test code in `main`. When you are done, the output should be the same as before. Solution: [http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time2\\_soln.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/Time2_soln.py).

**Exercise 17.2.** This exercise is a cautionary tale about one of the most common, and difficult to find, errors in Python. Write a definition for a class named `Kangaroo` with the following methods:

1. An `__init__` method that initializes an attribute named `pouch_contents` to an empty list.
2. A method named `put_in_pouch` that takes an object of any type and adds it to `pouch_contents`.
3. A `__str__` method that returns a string representation of the `Kangaroo` object and the contents of the pouch.

Test your code by creating two `Kangaroo` objects, assigning them to variables named `kanga` and `roo`, and then adding `roo` to the contents of `kanga`'s pouch.

Download <http://thinkpython2.com/code/BadKangaroo.py>. It contains a solution to the previous problem with one big, nasty bug. Find and fix the bug.

If you get stuck, you can download <http://thinkpython2.com/code/GoodKangaroo.py>, which explains the problem and demonstrates a solution.

## 第18章 Inheritance

The language feature most often associated with object-oriented programming is **inheritance**. Inheritance is the ability to define a new class that is a modified version of an existing class. In this chapter I demonstrate inheritance using classes that represent playing cards, decks of cards, and poker hands.

If you don't play poker, you can read about it at <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poker>, but you don't have to; I'll tell you what you need to know for the exercises.

Code examples from this chapter are available from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/Card.py>.

### 18.1 Card objects

There are fifty-two cards in a deck, each of which belongs to one of four suits and one of thirteen ranks. The suits are Spades, Hearts, Diamonds, and Clubs (in descending order in bridge). The ranks are Ace, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, Jack, Queen, and King. Depending on the game that you are playing, an Ace may be higher than King or lower than 2.

If we want to define a new object to represent a playing card, it is obvious what the attributes should be: `rank` and `suit`. It is not as obvious what type the attributes should be. One possibility is to use strings containing words like 'Spade' for suits and 'Queen' for ranks. One problem with this implementation is that it would not be easy to compare cards to see which had a higher rank or suit.

An alternative is to use integers to **encode** the ranks and suits. In this context, “encode” means that we are going to define a mapping between numbers and suits, or between numbers and ranks. This kind of encoding is not meant to be a secret (that would be “encryption”).

For example, this table shows the suits and the corresponding integer codes:

|          |   |   |
|----------|---|---|
| Spades   | ↦ | 3 |
| Hearts   | ↦ | 2 |
| Diamonds | ↦ | 1 |
| Clubs    | ↦ | 0 |

This code makes it easy to compare cards; because higher suits map to higher numbers, we can compare suits by comparing their codes.

The mapping for ranks is fairly obvious; each of the numerical ranks maps to the corresponding integer, and for face cards:

```
Jack    ↦    11
Queen   ↦    12
King    ↦    13
```

I am using the  $\mapsto$  symbol to make it clear that these mappings are not part of the Python program. They are part of the program design, but they don't appear explicitly in the code.

The class definition for `Card` looks like this:

```
class Card:
    """Represents a standard playing card."""

    def __init__(self, suit=0, rank=2):
        self.suit = suit
        self.rank = rank
```

As usual, the `init` method takes an optional parameter for each attribute. The default card is the 2 of Clubs.

To create a `Card`, you call `Card` with the suit and rank of the card you want.

```
queen_of_diamonds = Card(1, 12)
```

## 18.2 Class attributes

In order to print `Card` objects in a way that people can easily read, we need a mapping from the integer codes to the corresponding ranks and suits. A natural way to do that is with lists of strings. We assign these lists to **class attributes**:

```
# inside class Card:

suit_names = ['Clubs', 'Diamonds', 'Hearts', 'Spades']
rank_names = [None, 'Ace', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7',
               '8', '9', '10', 'Jack', 'Queen', 'King']

def __str__(self):
    return '%s of %s' % (Card.rank_names[self.rank],
                         Card.suit_names[self.suit])
```

Variables like `suit_names` and `rank_names`, which are defined inside a class but outside of any method, are called class attributes because they are associated with the class object `Card`.

This term distinguishes them from variables like `suit` and `rank`, which are called **instance attributes** because they are associated with a particular instance.

Both kinds of attribute are accessed using dot notation. For example, in `__str__`, `self` is a `Card` object, and `self.rank` is its rank. Similarly, `Card` is a class object, and `Card.rank_names` is a list of strings associated with the class.

Every card has its own `suit` and `rank`, but there is only one copy of `suit_names` and `rank_names`.



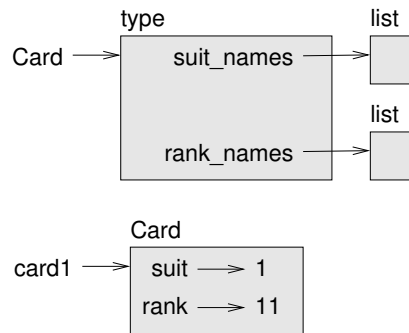


图 18.1: Object diagram.

Putting it all together, the expression `Card.rank_names[self.rank]` means “use the attribute `rank` from the object `self` as an index into the list `rank_names` from the class `Card`, and select the appropriate string.”

The first element of `rank_names` is `None` because there is no card with rank zero. By including `None` as a place-keeper, we get a mapping with the nice property that the index 2 maps to the string `'2'`, and so on. To avoid this tweak, we could have used a dictionary instead of a list.

With the methods we have so far, we can create and print cards:

```
>>> card1 = Card(2, 11)
>>> print(card1)
Jack of Hearts
```

Figure 18.1 is a diagram of the `Card` class object and one `Card` instance. `Card` is a class object; its type is `type`. `card1` is an instance of `Card`, so its type is `Card`. To save space, I didn’t draw the contents of `suit_names` and `rank_names`.

## 18.3 Comparing cards

For built-in types, there are relational operators (`<`, `>`, `==`, etc.) that compare values and determine when one is greater than, less than, or equal to another. For programmer-defined types, we can override the behavior of the built-in operators by providing a method named `__lt__`, which stands for “less than”.

`__lt__` takes two parameters, `self` and `other`, and returns `True` if `self` is strictly less than `other`.

The correct ordering for cards is not obvious. For example, which is better, the 3 of Clubs or the 2 of Diamonds? One has a higher rank, but the other has a higher suit. In order to compare cards, you have to decide whether rank or suit is more important.

The answer might depend on what game you are playing, but to keep things simple, we’ll make the arbitrary choice that suit is more important, so all of the Spades outrank all of the Diamonds, and so on.

With that decided, we can write `__lt__`:

```
# inside class Card:

    def __lt__(self, other):
        # check the suits
        if self.suit < other.suit: return True
        if self.suit > other.suit: return False

        # suits are the same... check ranks
        return self.rank < other.rank
```

You can write this more concisely using tuple comparison:

```
# inside class Card:

    def __lt__(self, other):
        t1 = self.suit, self.rank
        t2 = other.suit, other.rank
        return t1 < t2
```

As an exercise, write an `__lt__` method for `Time` objects. You can use tuple comparison, but you also might consider comparing integers.

## 18.4 Decks

Now that we have `Cards`, the next step is to define `Decks`. Since a deck is made up of cards, it is natural for each `Deck` to contain a list of cards as an attribute.

The following is a class definition for `Deck`. The `init` method creates the attribute `cards` and generates the standard set of fifty-two cards:

```
class Deck:

    def __init__(self):
        self.cards = []
        for suit in range(4):
            for rank in range(1, 14):
                card = Card(suit, rank)
                self.cards.append(card)
```

The easiest way to populate the deck is with a nested loop. The outer loop enumerates the suits from 0 to 3. The inner loop enumerates the ranks from 1 to 13. Each iteration creates a new `Card` with the current suit and rank, and appends it to `self.cards`.

## 18.5 Printing the deck

Here is a `__str__` method for `Deck`:

```
# inside class Deck:

    def __str__(self):
        res = []
        for card in self.cards:
```

```

        res.append(str(card))
    return '\n'.join(res)

```

This method demonstrates an efficient way to accumulate a large string: building a list of strings and then using the string method `join`. The built-in function `str` invokes the `__str__` method on each card and returns the string representation.

Since we invoke `join` on a newline character, the cards are separated by newlines. Here's what the result looks like:

```

>>> deck = Deck()
>>> print(deck)
Ace of Clubs
2 of Clubs
3 of Clubs
...
10 of Spades
Jack of Spades
Queen of Spades
King of Spades

```

Even though the result appears on 52 lines, it is one long string that contains newlines.

## 18.6 Add, remove, shuffle and sort

To deal cards, we would like a method that removes a card from the deck and returns it. The list method `pop` provides a convenient way to do that:

```

# inside class Deck:

    def pop_card(self):
        return self.cards.pop()

```

Since `pop` removes the *last* card in the list, we are dealing from the bottom of the deck.

To add a card, we can use the list method `append`:

```

# inside class Deck:

    def add_card(self, card):
        self.cards.append(card)

```

A method like this that uses another method without doing much work is sometimes called a **veneer**. The metaphor comes from woodworking, where a veneer is a thin layer of good quality wood glued to the surface of a cheaper piece of wood to improve the appearance.

In this case `add_card` is a “thin” method that expresses a list operation in terms appropriate for decks. It improves the appearance, or interface, of the implementation.

As another example, we can write a `Deck` method named `shuffle` using the function `shuffle` from the `random` module:

```

# inside class Deck:

    def shuffle(self):
        random.shuffle(self.cards)

```

Don't forget to import random.

As an exercise, write a Deck method named `sort` that uses the list method `sort` to sort the cards in a Deck. `sort` uses the `__lt__` method we defined to determine the order.

## 18.7 Inheritance

Inheritance is the ability to define a new class that is a modified version of an existing class. As an example, let's say we want a class to represent a "hand", that is, the cards held by one player. A hand is similar to a deck: both are made up of a collection of cards, and both require operations like adding and removing cards.

A hand is also different from a deck; there are operations we want for hands that don't make sense for a deck. For example, in poker we might compare two hands to see which one wins. In bridge, we might compute a score for a hand in order to make a bid.

This relationship between classes—similar, but different—lends itself to inheritance. To define a new class that inherits from an existing class, you put the name of the existing class in parentheses:

```
class Hand(Deck):
    """Represents a hand of playing cards."""
```

This definition indicates that `Hand` inherits from `Deck`; that means we can use methods like `pop_card` and `add_card` for Hands as well as Decks.

When a new class inherits from an existing one, the existing one is called the **parent** and the new class is called the **child**.

In this example, `Hand` inherits `__init__` from `Deck`, but it doesn't really do what we want: instead of populating the hand with 52 new cards, the `init` method for Hands should initialize cards with an empty list.

If we provide an `init` method in the `Hand` class, it overrides the one in the `Deck` class:

```
# inside class Hand:

    def __init__(self, label=''):
        self.cards = []
        self.label = label
```

When you create a `Hand`, Python invokes this `init` method, not the one in `Deck`.

```
>>> hand = Hand('new hand')
>>> hand.cards
[]
>>> hand.label
'new hand'
```

The other methods are inherited from `Deck`, so we can use `pop_card` and `add_card` to deal a card:

```
>>> deck = Deck()
>>> card = deck.pop_card()
>>> hand.add_card(card)
>>> print(hand)
King of Spades
```

A natural next step is to encapsulate this code in a method called `move_cards`:

```
# inside class Deck:
```

```
def move_cards(self, hand, num):
    for i in range(num):
        hand.add_card(self.pop_card())
```

`move_cards` takes two arguments, a `Hand` object and the number of cards to deal. It modifies both `self` and `hand`, and returns `None`.

In some games, cards are moved from one hand to another, or from a hand back to the deck. You can use `move_cards` for any of these operations: `self` can be either a `Deck` or a `Hand`, and `hand`, despite the name, can also be a `Deck`.

Inheritance is a useful feature. Some programs that would be repetitive without inheritance can be written more elegantly with it. Inheritance can facilitate code reuse, since you can customize the behavior of parent classes without having to modify them. In some cases, the inheritance structure reflects the natural structure of the problem, which makes the design easier to understand.

On the other hand, inheritance can make programs difficult to read. When a method is invoked, it is sometimes not clear where to find its definition. The relevant code may be spread across several modules. Also, many of the things that can be done using inheritance can be done as well or better without it.

## 18.8 Class diagrams

So far we have seen stack diagrams, which show the state of a program, and object diagrams, which show the attributes of an object and their values. These diagrams represent a snapshot in the execution of a program, so they change as the program runs.

They are also highly detailed; for some purposes, too detailed. A class diagram is a more abstract representation of the structure of a program. Instead of showing individual objects, it shows classes and the relationships between them.

There are several kinds of relationship between classes:

- Objects in one class might contain references to objects in another class. For example, each `Rectangle` contains a reference to a `Point`, and each `Deck` contains references to many `Cards`. This kind of relationship is called **HAS-A**, as in, “a `Rectangle` has a `Point`.”
- One class might inherit from another. This relationship is called **IS-A**, as in, “a `Hand` is a kind of a `Deck`.”
- One class might depend on another in the sense that objects in one class take objects in the second class as parameters, or use objects in the second class as part of a computation. This kind of relationship is called a **dependency**.

A **class diagram** is a graphical representation of these relationships. For example, Figure 18.2 shows the relationships between `Card`, `Deck` and `Hand`.

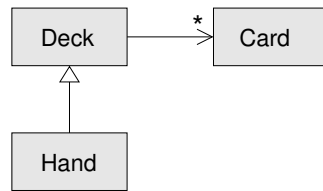


图 18.2: Class diagram.

The arrow with a hollow triangle head represents an IS-A relationship; in this case it indicates that Hand inherits from Deck.

The standard arrow head represents a HAS-A relationship; in this case a Deck has references to Card objects.

The star (\*) near the arrow head is a **multiplicity**; it indicates how many Cards a Deck has. A multiplicity can be a simple number, like 52, a range, like 5..7 or a star, which indicates that a Deck can have any number of Cards.

There are no dependencies in this diagram. They would normally be shown with a dashed arrow. Or if there are a lot of dependencies, they are sometimes omitted.

A more detailed diagram might show that a Deck actually contains a *list* of Cards, but built-in types like list and dict are usually not included in class diagrams.

## 18.9 Debugging

Inheritance can make debugging difficult because when you invoke a method on an object, it might be hard to figure out which method will be invoked.

Suppose you are writing a function that works with Hand objects. You would like it to work with all kinds of Hands, like PokerHands, BridgeHands, etc. If you invoke a method like `shuffle`, you might get the one defined in Deck, but if any of the subclasses override this method, you'll get that version instead. This behavior is usually a good thing, but it can be confusing.

Any time you are unsure about the flow of execution through your program, the simplest solution is to add print statements at the beginning of the relevant methods. If `Deck.shuffle` prints a message that says something like `Running Deck.shuffle`, then as the program runs it traces the flow of execution.

As an alternative, you could use this function, which takes an object and a method name (as a string) and returns the class that provides the definition of the method:

```
def find_defining_class(obj, meth_name):
    for ty in type(obj).mro():
        if meth_name in ty.__dict__:
            return ty
```

Here's an example:

```
>>> hand = Hand()
>>> find_defining_class(hand, 'shuffle')
<class '__main__.Deck'>
```

So the `shuffle` method for this `Hand` is the one in `Deck`.

`find_defining_class` uses the `mro` method to get the list of class objects (types) that will be searched for methods. “MRO” stands for “method resolution order”, which is the sequence of classes Python searches to “resolve” a method name.

Here’s a design suggestion: when you override a method, the interface of the new method should be the same as the old. It should take the same parameters, return the same type, and obey the same preconditions and postconditions. If you follow this rule, you will find that any function designed to work with an instance of a parent class, like a `Deck`, will also work with instances of child classes like a `Hand` and `PokerHand`.

If you violate this rule, which is called the “Liskov substitution principle”, your code will collapse like (sorry) a house of cards.

## 18.10 Data encapsulation

The previous chapters demonstrate a development plan we might call “object-oriented design”. We identified objects we needed—like `Point`, `Rectangle` and `Time`—and defined classes to represent them. In each case there is an obvious correspondence between the object and some entity in the real world (or at least a mathematical world).

But sometimes it is less obvious what objects you need and how they should interact. In that case you need a different development plan. In the same way that we discovered function interfaces by encapsulation and generalization, we can discover class interfaces by **data encapsulation**.

Markov analysis, from Section 13.8, provides a good example. If you download my code from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/markov.py>, you’ll see that it uses two global variables—`suffix_map` and `prefix`—that are read and written from several functions.

```
suffix_map = {}
prefix = ()
```

Because these variables are global, we can only run one analysis at a time. If we read two texts, their prefixes and suffixes would be added to the same data structures (which makes for some interesting generated text).

To run multiple analyses, and keep them separate, we can encapsulate the state of each analysis in an object. Here’s what that looks like:

```
class Markov:

    def __init__(self):
        self.suffix_map = {}
        self.prefix = ()
```

Next, we transform the functions into methods. For example, here’s `process_word`:

```
def process_word(self, word, order=2):
    if len(self.prefix) < order:
        self.prefix += (word,)
    return
```

```

try:
    self.suffix_map[self.prefix].append(word)
except KeyError:
    # if there is no entry for this prefix, make one
    self.suffix_map[self.prefix] = [word]

self.prefix = shift(self.prefix, word)

```

Transforming a program like this—changing the design without changing the behavior—is another example of refactoring (see Section 4.7).

This example suggests a development plan for designing objects and methods:

1. Start by writing functions that read and write global variables (when necessary).
2. Once you get the program working, look for associations between global variables and the functions that use them.
3. Encapsulate related variables as attributes of an object.
4. Transform the associated functions into methods of the new class.

As an exercise, download my Markov code from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/markov.py>, and follow the steps described above to encapsulate the global variables as attributes of a new class called Markov. Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/markov2.py>.

## 18.11 Glossary

**encode:** To represent one set of values using another set of values by constructing a mapping between them.

**class attribute:** An attribute associated with a class object. Class attributes are defined inside a class definition but outside any method.

**instance attribute:** An attribute associated with an instance of a class.

**veneer:** A method or function that provides a different interface to another function without doing much computation.

**inheritance:** The ability to define a new class that is a modified version of a previously defined class.

**parent class:** The class from which a child class inherits.

**child class:** A new class created by inheriting from an existing class; also called a “subclass”.

**IS-A relationship:** A relationship between a child class and its parent class.

**HAS-A relationship:** A relationship between two classes where instances of one class contain references to instances of the other.

**dependency:** A relationship between two classes where instances of one class use instances of the other class, but do not store them as attributes.



**class diagram:** A diagram that shows the classes in a program and the relationships between them.

**multiplicity:** A notation in a class diagram that shows, for a HAS-A relationship, how many references there are to instances of another class.

**data encapsulation:** A program development plan that involves a prototype using global variables and a final version that makes the global variables into instance attributes.

## 18.12 Exercises

**Exercise 18.1.** *For the following program, draw a UML class diagram that shows these classes and the relationships among them.*

```
class PingPongParent:
    pass

class Ping(PingPongParent):
    def __init__(self, pong):
        self.pong = pong

class Pong(PingPongParent):
    def __init__(self, pings=None):
        if pings is None:
            self.pings = []
        else:
            self.pings = pings

    def add_ping(self, ping):
        self.pings.append(ping)

pong = Pong()
ping = Ping(pong)
pong.add_ping(ping)
```

**Exercise 18.2.** *Write a Deck method called `deal_hands` that takes two parameters, the number of hands and the number of cards per hand. It should create the appropriate number of Hand objects, deal the appropriate number of cards per hand, and return a list of Hands.*

**Exercise 18.3.** *The following are the possible hands in poker, in increasing order of value and decreasing order of probability:*

**pair:** *two cards with the same rank*

**two pair:** *two pairs of cards with the same rank*

**three of a kind:** *three cards with the same rank*

**straight:** *five cards with ranks in sequence (aces can be high or low, so Ace-2-3-4-5 is a straight and so is 10-Jack-Queen-King-Ace, but Queen-King-Ace-2-3 is not.)*

**flush:** *five cards with the same suit*

**full house:** *three cards with one rank, two cards with another*

**four of a kind:** *four cards with the same rank*

**straight flush:** *five cards in sequence (as defined above) and with the same suit*

*The goal of these exercises is to estimate the probability of drawing these various hands.*

1. Download the following files from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/>:  
`Card.py` : A complete version of the `Card`, `Deck` and `Hand` classes in this chapter.  
`PokerHand.py` : An incomplete implementation of a class that represents a poker hand, and some code that tests it.
2. If you run `PokerHand.py`, it deals seven 7-card poker hands and checks to see if any of them contains a flush. Read this code carefully before you go on.
3. Add methods to `PokerHand.py` named `has_pair`, `has_twopair`, etc. that return `True` or `False` according to whether or not the hand meets the relevant criteria. Your code should work correctly for “hands” that contain any number of cards (although 5 and 7 are the most common sizes).
4. Write a method named `classify` that figures out the highest-value classification for a hand and sets the `label` attribute accordingly. For example, a 7-card hand might contain a flush and a pair; it should be labeled “flush”.
5. When you are convinced that your classification methods are working, the next step is to estimate the probabilities of the various hands. Write a function in `PokerHand.py` that shuffles a deck of cards, divides it into hands, classifies the hands, and counts the number of times various classifications appear.
6. Print a table of the classifications and their probabilities. Run your program with larger and larger numbers of hands until the output values converge to a reasonable degree of accuracy. Compare your results to the values at [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hand\\_rankings](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hand_rankings).

Solution: <http://thinkpython2.com/code/PokerHandSoln.py>.

## 第19章 利器

One of my goals for this book has been to teach you as little Python as possible. When there were two ways to do something, I picked one and avoided mentioning the other. Or sometimes I put the second one into an exercise.

Now I want to go back for some of the good bits that got left behind. Python provides a number of features that are not really necessary—you can write good code without them—but with them you can sometimes write code that’s more concise, readable or efficient, and sometimes all three.

### 19.1 Conditional expressions

We saw conditional statements in Section 5.4. Conditional statements are often used to choose one of two values; for example:

```
if x > 0:
    y = math.log(x)
else:
    y = float('nan')
```

This statement checks whether `x` is positive. If so, it computes `math.log`. If not, `math.log` would raise a `ValueError`. To avoid stopping the program, we generate a “NaN”, which is a special floating-point value that represents “Not a Number”.

We can write this statement more concisely using a **conditional expression**:

```
y = math.log(x) if x > 0 else float('nan')
```

You can almost read this line like English: “`y` gets `log-x` if `x` is greater than 0; otherwise it gets NaN”.

Recursive functions can sometimes be rewritten using conditional expressions. For example, here is a recursive version of `factorial`:

```
def factorial(n):
    if n == 0:
        return 1
    else:
        return n * factorial(n-1)
```

We can rewrite it like this:

```
def factorial(n):
    return 1 if n == 0 else n * factorial(n-1)
```

Another use of conditional expressions is handling optional arguments. For example, here is the `init` method from `GoodKangaroo` (see Exercise 17.2):

```
def __init__(self, name, contents=None):
    self.name = name
    if contents == None:
        contents = []
    self.pouch_contents = contents
```

We can rewrite this one like this:

```
def __init__(self, name, contents=None):
    self.name = name
    self.pouch_contents = [] if contents == None else contents
```

In general, you can replace a conditional statement with a conditional expression if both branches contain simple expressions that are either returned or assigned to the same variable.

## 19.2 List comprehensions

In Section 10.7 we saw the `map` and `filter` patterns. For example, this function takes a list of strings, maps the string method `capitalize` to the elements, and returns a new list of strings:

```
def capitalize_all(t):
    res = []
    for s in t:
        res.append(s.capitalize())
    return res
```

We can write this more concisely using a **list comprehension**:

```
def capitalize_all(t):
    return [s.capitalize() for s in t]
```

The bracket operators indicate that we are constructing a new list. The expression inside the brackets specifies the elements of the list, and the `for` clause indicates what sequence we are traversing.

The syntax of a list comprehension is a little awkward because the loop variable, `s` in this example, appears in the expression before we get to the definition.

List comprehensions can also be used for filtering. For example, this function selects only the elements of `t` that are upper case, and returns a new list:

```
def only_upper(t):
    res = []
    for s in t:
        if s.isupper():
            res.append(s)
    return res
```

We can rewrite it using a list comprehension

```
def only_upper(t):
    return [s for s in t if s.isupper()]
```

List comprehensions are concise and easy to read, at least for simple expressions. And they are usually faster than the equivalent for loops, sometimes much faster. So if you are mad at me for not mentioning them earlier, I understand.

But, in my defense, list comprehensions are harder to debug because you can't put a print statement inside the loop. I suggest that you use them only if the computation is simple enough that you are likely to get it right the first time. And for beginners that means never.

## 19.3 Generator expressions

**Generator expressions** are similar to list comprehensions, but with parentheses instead of square brackets:

```
>>> g = (x**2 for x in range(5))
>>> g
<generator object <genexpr> at 0x7f4c45a786c0>
```

The result is a generator object that knows how to iterate through a sequence of values. But unlike a list comprehension, it does not compute the values all at once; it waits to be asked. The built-in function `next` gets the next value from the generator:

```
>>> next(g)
0
>>> next(g)
1
```

When you get to the end of the sequence, `next` raises a `StopIteration` exception. You can also use a `for` loop to iterate through the values:

```
>>> for val in g:
...     print(val)
4
9
16
```

The generator object keeps track of where it is in the sequence, so the `for` loop picks up where `next` left off. Once the generator is exhausted, it continues to raise `StopIteration`:

```
>>> next(g)
StopIteration
```

Generator expressions are often used with functions like `sum`, `max`, and `min`:

```
>>> sum(x**2 for x in range(5))
30
```

## 19.4 any and all

Python provides a built-in function, `any`, that takes a sequence of boolean values and returns `True` if any of the values are `True`. It works on lists:

```
>>> any([False, False, True])
True
```

But it is often used with generator expressions:

```
>>> any(letter == 't' for letter in 'monty')
True
```

That example isn't very useful because it does the same thing as the `in` operator. But we could use `any` to rewrite some of the search functions we wrote in Section 9.3. For example, we could write `avoids` like this:

```
def avoids(word, forbidden):
    return not any(letter in forbidden for letter in word)
```

The function almost reads like English, “word avoids forbidden if there are not any forbidden letters in word.”

Using `any` with a generator expression is efficient because it stops immediately if it finds a `True` value, so it doesn't have to evaluate the whole sequence.

Python provides another built-in function, `all`, that returns `True` if every element of the sequence is `True`. As an exercise, use `all` to re-write `uses_all` from Section 9.3.

## 19.5 Sets

In Section 13.6 I use dictionaries to find the words that appear in a document but not in a word list. The function I wrote takes `d1`, which contains the words from the document as keys, and `d2`, which contains the list of words. It returns a dictionary that contains the keys from `d1` that are not in `d2`.

```
def subtract(d1, d2):
    res = dict()
    for key in d1:
        if key not in d2:
            res[key] = None
    return res
```

In all of these dictionaries, the values are `None` because we never use them. As a result, we waste some storage space.

Python provides another built-in type, called a *set*, that behaves like a collection of dictionary keys with no values. Adding elements to a set is fast; so is checking membership. And sets provide methods and operators to compute common set operations.

For example, set subtraction is available as a method called `difference` or as an operator, `-`. So we can rewrite `subtract` like this:

```
def subtract(d1, d2):
    return set(d1) - set(d2)
```

The result is a set instead of a dictionary, but for operations like iteration, the behavior is the same.

Some of the exercises in this book can be done concisely and efficiently with sets. For example, here is a solution to `has_duplicates`, from Exercise 10.7, that uses a dictionary:

```
def has_duplicates(t):
    d = {}
    for x in t:
```

```

    if x in d:
        return True
    d[x] = True
    return False

```

When an element appears for the first time, it is added to the dictionary. If the same element appears again, the function returns True.

Using sets, we can write the same function like this:

```

def has_duplicates(t):
    return len(set(t)) < len(t)

```

An element can only appear in a set once, so if an element in `t` appears more than once, the set will be smaller than `t`. If there are no duplicates, the set will be the same size as `t`.

We can also use sets to do some of the exercises in Chapter 9. For example, here's a version of `uses_only` with a loop:

```

def uses_only(word, available):
    for letter in word:
        if letter not in available:
            return False
    return True

```

`uses_only` checks whether all letters in `word` are in `available`. We can rewrite it like this:

```

def uses_only(word, available):
    return set(word) <= set(available)

```

The `<=` operator checks whether one set is a subset of another, including the possibility that they are equal, which is true if all the letters in `word` appear in `available`.

As an exercise, rewrite `avoids` using sets.

## 19.6 Counters

A Counter is like a set, except that if an element appears more than once, the Counter keeps track of how many times it appears. If you are familiar with the mathematical idea of a **multiset**, a Counter is a natural way to represent a multiset.

Counter is defined in a standard module called `collections`, so you have to import it. You can initialize a Counter with a string, list, or anything else that supports iteration:

```

>>> from collections import Counter
>>> count = Counter('parrot')
>>> count
Counter({'r': 2, 't': 1, 'o': 1, 'p': 1, 'a': 1})

```

Counters behave like dictionaries in many ways; they map from each key to the number of times it appears. As in dictionaries, the keys have to be hashable.

Unlike dictionaries, Counters don't raise an exception if you access an element that doesn't appear. Instead, they return 0:

```

>>> count['d']
0

```

We can use Counters to rewrite `is_anagram` from Exercise 10.6:

```
def is_anagram(word1, word2):
    return Counter(word1) == Counter(word2)
```

If two words are anagrams, they contain the same letters with the same counts, so their Counters are equivalent.

Counters provide methods and operators to perform set-like operations, including addition, subtraction, union and intersection. And they provide an often-useful method, `most_common`, which returns a list of value-frequency pairs, sorted from most common to least:

```
>>> count = Counter('parrot')
>>> for val, freq in count.most_common(3):
...     print(val, freq)
r 2
p 1
a 1
```

## 19.7 defaultdict

The `collections` module also provides `defaultdict`, which is like a dictionary except that if you access a key that doesn't exist, it can generate a new value on the fly.

When you create a `defaultdict`, you provide a function that's used to create new values. A function used to create objects is sometimes called a **factory**. The built-in functions that create lists, sets, and other types can be used as factories:

```
>>> from collections import defaultdict
>>> d = defaultdict(list)
```

Notice that the argument is `list`, which is a class object, not `list()`, which is a new list. The function you provide doesn't get called unless you access a key that doesn't exist.

```
>>> t = d['new key']
>>> t
[]
```

The new list, which we're calling `t`, is also added to the dictionary. So if we modify `t`, the change appears in `d`:

```
>>> t.append('new value')
>>> d
defaultdict(<class 'list'>, {'new key': ['new value']})
```

If you are making a dictionary of lists, you can often write simpler code using `defaultdict`. In my solution to Exercise 12.2, which you can get from [http://thinkpython2.com/code/anagram\\_sets.py](http://thinkpython2.com/code/anagram_sets.py), I make a dictionary that maps from a sorted string of letters to the list of words that can be spelled with those letters. For example, `'opst'` maps to the list `['opts', 'post', 'pots', 'spot', 'stop', 'tops']`.

Here's the original code:

```
def all_anagrams(filename):
    d = {}
    for line in open(filename):
```



```

        word = line.strip().lower()
        t = signature(word)
        if t not in d:
            d[t] = [word]
        else:
            d[t].append(word)
    return d

```

This can be simplified using `setdefault`, which you might have used in Exercise 11.2:

```

def all_anagrams(filename):
    d = {}
    for line in open(filename):
        word = line.strip().lower()
        t = signature(word)
        d.setdefault(t, []).append(word)
    return d

```

This solution has the drawback that it makes a new list every time, regardless of whether it is needed. For lists, that's no big deal, but if the factory function is complicated, it might be.

We can avoid this problem and simplify the code using a `defaultdict`:

```

def all_anagrams(filename):
    d = defaultdict(list)
    for line in open(filename):
        word = line.strip().lower()
        t = signature(word)
        d[t].append(word)
    return d

```

My solution to Exercise 18.3, which you can download from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/PokerHandSoln.py>, uses `setdefault` in the function `has_straightflush`. This solution has the drawback of creating a `Hand` object every time through the loop, whether it is needed or not. As an exercise, rewrite it using a `defaultdict`.

## 19.8 Named tuples

Many simple objects are basically collections of related values. For example, the `Point` object defined in Chapter 15 contains two numbers, `x` and `y`. When you define a class like this, you usually start with an `init` method and a `str` method:

```

class Point:

    def __init__(self, x=0, y=0):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y

    def __str__(self):
        return '(%g, %g)' % (self.x, self.y)

```

This is a lot of code to convey a small amount of information. Python provides a more concise way to say the same thing:

```
from collections import namedtuple
Point = namedtuple('Point', ['x', 'y'])
```

The first argument is the name of the class you want to create. The second is a list of the attributes Point objects should have, as strings. The return value from `namedtuple` is a class object:

```
>>> Point
<class '__main__.Point'>
```

Point automatically provides methods like `__init__` and `__str__` so you don't have to write them.

To create a Point object, you use the Point class as a function:

```
>>> p = Point(1, 2)
>>> p
Point(x=1, y=2)
```

The `init` method assigns the arguments to attributes using the names you provided. The `str` method prints a representation of the Point object and its attributes.

You can access the elements of the named tuple by name:

```
>>> p.x, p.y
(1, 2)
```

But you can also treat a named tuple as a tuple:

```
>>> p[0], p[1]
(1, 2)
```

```
>>> x, y = p
>>> x, y
(1, 2)
```

Named tuples provide a quick way to define simple classes. The drawback is that simple classes don't always stay simple. You might decide later that you want to add methods to a named tuple. In that case, you could define a new class that inherits from the named tuple:

```
class Pointier(Point):
    # add more methods here
```

Or you could switch to a conventional class definition.

## 19.9 Gathering keyword args

In Section 12.4, we saw how to write a function that gathers its arguments into a tuple:

```
def printall(*args):
    print(args)
```

You can call this function with any number of positional arguments (that is, arguments that don't have keywords):

```
>>> printall(1, 2.0, '3')
(1, 2.0, '3')
```

But the `*` operator doesn't gather keyword arguments:

```
>>> printall(1, 2.0, third='3')
TypeError: printall() got an unexpected keyword argument 'third'
```

To gather keyword arguments, you can use the `**` operator:

```
def printall(*args, **kwargs):
    print(args, kwargs)
```

You can call the keyword gathering parameter anything you want, but `kwargs` is a common choice. The result is a dictionary that maps from keywords to values:

```
>>> printall(1, 2.0, third='3')
(1, 2.0) {'third': '3'}
```

If you have a dictionary of keywords and values, you can use the scatter operator, `**` to call a function:

```
>>> d = dict(x=1, y=2)
>>> Point(**d)
Point(x=1, y=2)
```

Without the scatter operator, the function would treat `d` as a single positional argument, so it would assign `d` to `x` and complain because there's nothing to assign to `y`:

```
>>> d = dict(x=1, y=2)
>>> Point(d)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: __new__() missing 1 required positional argument: 'y'
```

When you are working with functions that have a large number of parameters, it is often useful to create and pass around dictionaries that specify frequently used options.

## 19.10 Glossary

**conditional expression:** An expression that has one of two values, depending on a condition.

**list comprehension:** An expression with a `for` loop in square brackets that yields a new list.

**generator expression:** An expression with a `for` loop in parentheses that yields a generator object.

**multiset:** A mathematical entity that represents a mapping between the elements of a set and the number of times they appear.

**factory:** A function, usually passed as a parameter, used to create objects.

## 19.11 Exercises

**Exercise 19.1.** *The following is a function that computes the binomial coefficient recursively.*

```
def binomial_coeff(n, k):
    """Compute the binomial coefficient "n choose k".

    n: number of trials
    k: number of successes

    returns: int
    """
    if k == 0:
        return 1
    if n == 0:
        return 0

    res = binomial_coeff(n-1, k) + binomial_coeff(n-1, k-1)
    return res
```

*Rewrite the body of the function using nested conditional expressions.*

*One note: this function is not very efficient because it ends up computing the same values over and over. You could make it more efficient by memoizing (see Section 11.6). But you will find that it's harder to memoize if you write it using conditional expressions.*

# 第 A 章 Debugging

When you are debugging, you should distinguish among different kinds of errors in order to track them down more quickly:

- Syntax errors are discovered by the interpreter when it is translating the source code into byte code. They indicate that there is something wrong with the structure of the program. Example: Omitting the colon at the end of a `def` statement generates the somewhat redundant message `SyntaxError: invalid syntax`.
- Runtime errors are produced by the interpreter if something goes wrong while the program is running. Most runtime error messages include information about where the error occurred and what functions were executing. Example: An infinite recursion eventually causes the runtime error “maximum recursion depth exceeded”.
- Semantic errors are problems with a program that runs without producing error messages but doesn’t do the right thing. Example: An expression may not be evaluated in the order you expect, yielding an incorrect result.

The first step in debugging is to figure out which kind of error you are dealing with. Although the following sections are organized by error type, some techniques are applicable in more than one situation.

## A.1 Syntax errors

Syntax errors are usually easy to fix once you figure out what they are. Unfortunately, the error messages are often not helpful. The most common messages are `SyntaxError: invalid syntax` and `SyntaxError: invalid token`, neither of which is very informative.

On the other hand, the message does tell you where in the program the problem occurred. Actually, it tells you where Python noticed a problem, which is not necessarily where the error is. Sometimes the error is prior to the location of the error message, often on the preceding line.

If you are building the program incrementally, you should have a good idea about where the error is. It will be in the last line you added.

If you are copying code from a book, start by comparing your code to the book's code very carefully. Check every character. At the same time, remember that the book might be wrong, so if you see something that looks like a syntax error, it might be.

Here are some ways to avoid the most common syntax errors:

1. Make sure you are not using a Python keyword for a variable name.
2. Check that you have a colon at the end of the header of every compound statement, including `for`, `while`, `if`, and `def` statements.
3. Make sure that any strings in the code have matching quotation marks. Make sure that all quotation marks are "straight quotes", not "curly quotes".
4. If you have multiline strings with triple quotes (single or double), make sure you have terminated the string properly. An unterminated string may cause an invalid token error at the end of your program, or it may treat the following part of the program as a string until it comes to the next string. In the second case, it might not produce an error message at all!
5. An unclosed opening operator—`(`, `{`, or `[`—makes Python continue with the next line as part of the current statement. Generally, an error occurs almost immediately in the next line.
6. Check for the classic `=` instead of `==` inside a conditional.
7. Check the indentation to make sure it lines up the way it is supposed to. Python can handle space and tabs, but if you mix them it can cause problems. The best way to avoid this problem is to use a text editor that knows about Python and generates consistent indentation.
8. If you have non-ASCII characters in the code (including strings and comments), that might cause a problem, although Python 3 usually handles non-ASCII characters. Be careful if you paste in text from a web page or other source.

If nothing works, move on to the next section...

### A.1.1 I keep making changes and it makes no difference.

If the interpreter says there is an error and you don't see it, that might be because you and the interpreter are not looking at the same code. Check your programming environment to make sure that the program you are editing is the one Python is trying to run.

If you are not sure, try putting an obvious and deliberate syntax error at the beginning of the program. Now run it again. If the interpreter doesn't find the new error, you are not running the new code.

There are a few likely culprits:

- You edited the file and forgot to save the changes before running it again. Some programming environments do this for you, but some don't.
- You changed the name of the file, but you are still running the old name.

- Something in your development environment is configured incorrectly.
- If you are writing a module and using `import`, make sure you don't give your module the same name as one of the standard Python modules.
- If you are using `import` to read a module, remember that you have to restart the interpreter or use `reload` to read a modified file. If you import the module again, it doesn't do anything.

If you get stuck and you can't figure out what is going on, one approach is to start again with a new program like "Hello, World!", and make sure you can get a known program to run. Then gradually add the pieces of the original program to the new one.

## A.2 Runtime errors

Once your program is syntactically correct, Python can read it and at least start running it. What could possibly go wrong?

### A.2.1 My program does absolutely nothing.

This problem is most common when your file consists of functions and classes but does not actually invoke a function to start execution. This may be intentional if you only plan to import this module to supply classes and functions.

If it is not intentional, make sure there is a function call in the program, and make sure the flow of execution reaches it (see "Flow of Execution" below).

### A.2.2 My program hangs.

If a program stops and seems to be doing nothing, it is "hanging". Often that means that it is caught in an infinite loop or infinite recursion.

- If there is a particular loop that you suspect is the problem, add a `print` statement immediately before the loop that says "entering the loop" and another immediately after that says "exiting the loop".

Run the program. If you get the first message and not the second, you've got an infinite loop. Go to the "Infinite Loop" section below.

- Most of the time, an infinite recursion will cause the program to run for a while and then produce a "RuntimeError: Maximum recursion depth exceeded" error. If that happens, go to the "Infinite Recursion" section below.

If you are not getting this error but you suspect there is a problem with a recursive method or function, you can still use the techniques in the "Infinite Recursion" section.

- If neither of those steps works, start testing other loops and other recursive functions and methods.
- If that doesn't work, then it is possible that you don't understand the flow of execution in your program. Go to the "Flow of Execution" section below.

### Infinite Loop

If you think you have an infinite loop and you think you know what loop is causing the problem, add a print statement at the end of the loop that prints the values of the variables in the condition and the value of the condition.

For example:

```
while x > 0 and y < 0 :  
    # do something to x  
    # do something to y  
  
    print('x: ', x)  
    print('y: ', y)  
    print("condition: ", (x > 0 and y < 0))
```

Now when you run the program, you will see three lines of output for each time through the loop. The last time through the loop, the condition should be `False`. If the loop keeps going, you will be able to see the values of `x` and `y`, and you might figure out why they are not being updated correctly.

### Infinite Recursion

Most of the time, infinite recursion causes the program to run for a while and then produce a `Maximum recursion depth exceeded error`.

If you suspect that a function is causing an infinite recursion, make sure that there is a base case. There should be some condition that causes the function to return without making a recursive invocation. If not, you need to rethink the algorithm and identify a base case.

If there is a base case but the program doesn't seem to be reaching it, add a print statement at the beginning of the function that prints the parameters. Now when you run the program, you will see a few lines of output every time the function is invoked, and you will see the parameter values. If the parameters are not moving toward the base case, you will get some ideas about why not.

### Flow of Execution

If you are not sure how the flow of execution is moving through your program, add print statements to the beginning of each function with a message like "entering function `foo`", where `foo` is the name of the function.

Now when you run the program, it will print a trace of each function as it is invoked.

### A.2.3 When I run the program I get an exception.

If something goes wrong during runtime, Python prints a message that includes the name of the exception, the line of the program where the problem occurred, and a traceback.

The traceback identifies the function that is currently running, and then the function that called it, and then the function that called *that*, and so on. In other words, it traces the



sequence of function calls that got you to where you are, including the line number in your file where each call occurred.

The first step is to examine the place in the program where the error occurred and see if you can figure out what happened. These are some of the most common runtime errors:

**NameError:** You are trying to use a variable that doesn't exist in the current environment. Check if the name is spelled right, or at least consistently. And remember that local variables are local; you cannot refer to them from outside the function where they are defined.

**TypeError:** There are several possible causes:

- You are trying to use a value improperly. Example: indexing a string, list, or tuple with something other than an integer.
- There is a mismatch between the items in a format string and the items passed for conversion. This can happen if either the number of items does not match or an invalid conversion is called for.
- You are passing the wrong number of arguments to a function. For methods, look at the method definition and check that the first parameter is `self`. Then look at the method invocation; make sure you are invoking the method on an object with the right type and providing the other arguments correctly.

**KeyError:** You are trying to access an element of a dictionary using a key that the dictionary does not contain. If the keys are strings, remember that capitalization matters.

**AttributeError:** You are trying to access an attribute or method that does not exist. Check the spelling! You can use the built-in function `vars` to list the attributes that do exist.

If an `AttributeError` indicates that an object has `NoneType`, that means that it is `None`. So the problem is not the attribute name, but the object.

The reason the object is `None` might be that you forgot to return a value from a function; if you get to the end of a function without hitting a `return` statement, it returns `None`. Another common cause is using the result from a list method, like `sort`, that returns `None`.

**IndexError:** The index you are using to access a list, string, or tuple is greater than its length minus one. Immediately before the site of the error, add a `print` statement to display the value of the index and the length of the array. Is the array the right size? Is the index the right value?

The Python debugger (`pdb`) is useful for tracking down exceptions because it allows you to examine the state of the program immediately before the error. You can read about `pdb` at <https://docs.python.org/3/library/pdb.html>.

#### A.2.4 I added so many print statements I get inundated with output.

One of the problems with using `print` statements for debugging is that you can end up buried in output. There are two ways to proceed: simplify the output or simplify the program.

To simplify the output, you can remove or comment out `print` statements that aren't helping, or combine them, or format the output so it is easier to understand.

To simplify the program, there are several things you can do. First, scale down the problem the program is working on. For example, if you are searching a list, search a *small* list. If the program takes input from the user, give it the simplest input that causes the problem.

Second, clean up the program. Remove dead code and reorganize the program to make it as easy to read as possible. For example, if you suspect that the problem is in a deeply nested part of the program, try rewriting that part with simpler structure. If you suspect a large function, try splitting it into smaller functions and testing them separately.

Often the process of finding the minimal test case leads you to the bug. If you find that a program works in one situation but not in another, that gives you a clue about what is going on.

Similarly, rewriting a piece of code can help you find subtle bugs. If you make a change that you think shouldn't affect the program, and it does, that can tip you off.

## A.3 Semantic errors

In some ways, semantic errors are the hardest to debug, because the interpreter provides no information about what is wrong. Only you know what the program is supposed to do.

The first step is to make a connection between the program text and the behavior you are seeing. You need a hypothesis about what the program is actually doing. One of the things that makes that hard is that computers run so fast.

You will often wish that you could slow the program down to human speed, and with some debuggers you can. But the time it takes to insert a few well-placed `print` statements is often short compared to setting up the debugger, inserting and removing breakpoints, and "stepping" the program to where the error is occurring.

### A.3.1 My program doesn't work.

You should ask yourself these questions:

- Is there something the program was supposed to do but which doesn't seem to be happening? Find the section of the code that performs that function and make sure it is executing when you think it should.
- Is something happening that shouldn't? Find code in your program that performs that function and see if it is executing when it shouldn't.
- Is a section of code producing an effect that is not what you expected? Make sure that you understand the code in question, especially if it involves functions or methods in other Python modules. Read the documentation for the functions you call. Try them out by writing simple test cases and checking the results.

In order to program, you need a mental model of how programs work. If you write a program that doesn't do what you expect, often the problem is not in the program; it's in your mental model.

The best way to correct your mental model is to break the program into its components (usually the functions and methods) and test each component independently. Once you find the discrepancy between your model and reality, you can solve the problem.

Of course, you should be building and testing components as you develop the program. If you encounter a problem, there should be only a small amount of new code that is not known to be correct.

### A.3.2 I've got a big hairy expression and it doesn't do what I expect.

Writing complex expressions is fine as long as they are readable, but they can be hard to debug. It is often a good idea to break a complex expression into a series of assignments to temporary variables.

For example:

```
self.hands[i].addCard(self.hands[self.findNeighbor(i)].popCard())
```

This can be rewritten as:

```
neighbor = self.findNeighbor(i)
pickedCard = self.hands[neighbor].popCard()
self.hands[i].addCard(pickedCard)
```

The explicit version is easier to read because the variable names provide additional documentation, and it is easier to debug because you can check the types of the intermediate variables and display their values.

Another problem that can occur with big expressions is that the order of evaluation may not be what you expect. For example, if you are translating the expression  $\frac{x}{2\pi}$  into Python, you might write:

```
y = x / 2 * math.pi
```

That is not correct because multiplication and division have the same precedence and are evaluated from left to right. So this expression computes  $x\pi/2$ .

A good way to debug expressions is to add parentheses to make the order of evaluation explicit:

```
y = x / (2 * math.pi)
```

Whenever you are not sure of the order of evaluation, use parentheses. Not only will the program be correct (in the sense of doing what you intended), it will also be more readable for other people who haven't memorized the order of operations.

### A.3.3 I've got a function that doesn't return what I expect.

If you have a return statement with a complex expression, you don't have a chance to print the result before returning. Again, you can use a temporary variable. For example, instead of:

```
return self.hands[i].removeMatches()
```

you could write:

```
count = self.hands[i].removeMatches()
return count
```

Now you have the opportunity to display the value of `count` before returning.

### A.3.4 I'm really, really stuck and I need help.

First, try getting away from the computer for a few minutes. Computers emit waves that affect the brain, causing these symptoms:

- Frustration and rage.
- Superstitious beliefs (“the computer hates me”) and magical thinking (“the program only works when I wear my hat backward”).
- Random walk programming (the attempt to program by writing every possible program and choosing the one that does the right thing).

If you find yourself suffering from any of these symptoms, get up and go for a walk. When you are calm, think about the program. What is it doing? What are some possible causes of that behavior? When was the last time you had a working program, and what did you do next?

Sometimes it just takes time to find a bug. I often find bugs when I am away from the computer and let my mind wander. Some of the best places to find bugs are trains, showers, and in bed, just before you fall asleep.

### A.3.5 No, I really need help.

It happens. Even the best programmers occasionally get stuck. Sometimes you work on a program so long that you can't see the error. You need a fresh pair of eyes.

Before you bring someone else in, make sure you are prepared. Your program should be as simple as possible, and you should be working on the smallest input that causes the error. You should have `print` statements in the appropriate places (and the output they produce should be comprehensible). You should understand the problem well enough to describe it concisely.

When you bring someone in to help, be sure to give them the information they need:

- If there is an error message, what is it and what part of the program does it indicate?
- What was the last thing you did before this error occurred? What were the last lines of code that you wrote, or what is the new test case that fails?
- What have you tried so far, and what have you learned?

When you find the bug, take a second to think about what you could have done to find it faster. Next time you see something similar, you will be able to find the bug more quickly.

Remember, the goal is not just to make the program work. The goal is to learn how to make the program work.

## 第 B 章 Analysis of Algorithms

This appendix is an edited excerpt from *Think Complexity*, by Allen B. Downey, also published by O'Reilly Media (2012). When you are done with this book, you might want to move on to that one.

**Analysis of algorithms** is a branch of computer science that studies the performance of algorithms, especially their run time and space requirements. See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Analysis\\_of\\_algorithms](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Analysis_of_algorithms).

The practical goal of algorithm analysis is to predict the performance of different algorithms in order to guide design decisions.

During the 2008 United States Presidential Campaign, candidate Barack Obama was asked to perform an impromptu analysis when he visited Google. Chief executive Eric Schmidt jokingly asked him for “the most efficient way to sort a million 32-bit integers.” Obama had apparently been tipped off, because he quickly replied, “I think the bubble sort would be the wrong way to go.” See [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=k4RRi\\_ntQc8](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=k4RRi_ntQc8).

This is true: bubble sort is conceptually simple but slow for large datasets. The answer Schmidt was probably looking for is “radix sort” ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Radix\\_sort](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Radix_sort))<sup>1</sup>.

The goal of algorithm analysis is to make meaningful comparisons between algorithms, but there are some problems:

- The relative performance of the algorithms might depend on characteristics of the hardware, so one algorithm might be faster on Machine A, another on Machine B. The general solution to this problem is to specify a **machine model** and analyze the number of steps, or operations, an algorithm requires under a given model.
- Relative performance might depend on the details of the dataset. For example, some sorting algorithms run faster if the data are already partially sorted; other algorithms run slower in this case. A common way to avoid this problem is to analyze the **worst case** scenario. It is sometimes useful to analyze average case performance, but that’s usually harder, and it might not be obvious what set of cases to average over.

---

<sup>1</sup> But if you get a question like this in an interview, I think a better answer is, “The fastest way to sort a million integers is to use whatever sort function is provided by the language I’m using. Its performance is good enough for the vast majority of applications, but if it turned out that my application was too slow, I would use a profiler to see where the time was being spent. If it looked like a faster sort algorithm would have a significant effect on performance, then I would look around for a good implementation of radix sort.”

- Relative performance also depends on the size of the problem. A sorting algorithm that is fast for small lists might be slow for long lists. The usual solution to this problem is to express run time (or number of operations) as a function of problem size, and group functions into categories depending on how quickly they grow as problem size increases.

The good thing about this kind of comparison is that it lends itself to simple classification of algorithms. For example, if I know that the run time of Algorithm A tends to be proportional to the size of the input,  $n$ , and Algorithm B tends to be proportional to  $n^2$ , then I expect A to be faster than B, at least for large values of  $n$ .

This kind of analysis comes with some caveats, but we'll get to that later.

## B.1 Order of growth

Suppose you have analyzed two algorithms and expressed their run times in terms of the size of the input: Algorithm A takes  $100n + 1$  steps to solve a problem with size  $n$ ; Algorithm B takes  $n^2 + n + 1$  steps.

The following table shows the run time of these algorithms for different problem sizes:

| Input size | Run time of Algorithm A | Run time of Algorithm B |
|------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 10         | 1 001                   | 111                     |
| 100        | 10 001                  | 10 101                  |
| 1 000      | 100 001                 | 1 001 001               |
| 10 000     | 1 000 001               | 100 010 001             |

At  $n = 10$ , Algorithm A looks pretty bad; it takes almost 10 times longer than Algorithm B. But for  $n = 100$  they are about the same, and for larger values A is much better.

The fundamental reason is that for large values of  $n$ , any function that contains an  $n^2$  term will grow faster than a function whose leading term is  $n$ . The **leading term** is the term with the highest exponent.

For Algorithm A, the leading term has a large coefficient, 100, which is why B does better than A for small  $n$ . But regardless of the coefficients, there will always be some value of  $n$  where  $an^2 > bn$ , for any values of  $a$  and  $b$ .

The same argument applies to the non-leading terms. Even if the run time of Algorithm A were  $n + 1000000$ , it would still be better than Algorithm B for sufficiently large  $n$ .

In general, we expect an algorithm with a smaller leading term to be a better algorithm for large problems, but for smaller problems, there may be a **crossover point** where another algorithm is better. The location of the crossover point depends on the details of the algorithms, the inputs, and the hardware, so it is usually ignored for purposes of algorithmic analysis. But that doesn't mean you can forget about it.

If two algorithms have the same leading order term, it is hard to say which is better; again, the answer depends on the details. So for algorithmic analysis, functions with the same leading term are considered equivalent, even if they have different coefficients.

An **order of growth** is a set of functions whose growth behavior is considered equivalent. For example,  $2n$ ,  $100n$  and  $n + 1$  belong to the same order of growth, which is written  $O(n)$  in **Big-Oh notation** and often called **linear** because every function in the set grows linearly with  $n$ .

All functions with the leading term  $n^2$  belong to  $O(n^2)$ ; they are called **quadratic**.

The following table shows some of the orders of growth that appear most commonly in algorithmic analysis, in increasing order of badness.

| Order of growth | Name                       |
|-----------------|----------------------------|
| $O(1)$          | constant                   |
| $O(\log_b n)$   | logarithmic (for any $b$ ) |
| $O(n)$          | linear                     |
| $O(n \log_b n)$ | linearithmic               |
| $O(n^2)$        | quadratic                  |
| $O(n^3)$        | cubic                      |
| $O(c^n)$        | exponential (for any $c$ ) |

For the logarithmic terms, the base of the logarithm doesn't matter; changing bases is the equivalent of multiplying by a constant, which doesn't change the order of growth. Similarly, all exponential functions belong to the same order of growth regardless of the base of the exponent. Exponential functions grow very quickly, so exponential algorithms are only useful for small problems.

**Exercise B.1.** Read the Wikipedia page on Big-Oh notation at [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big\\_O\\_notation](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big_O_notation) and answer the following questions:

1. What is the order of growth of  $n^3 + n^2$ ? What about  $1000000n^3 + n^2$ ? What about  $n^3 + 1000000n^2$ ?
2. What is the order of growth of  $(n^2 + n) \cdot (n + 1)$ ? Before you start multiplying, remember that you only need the leading term.
3. If  $f$  is in  $O(g)$ , for some unspecified function  $g$ , what can we say about  $af + b$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants?
4. If  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are in  $O(g)$ , what can we say about  $f_1 + f_2$ ?
5. If  $f_1$  is in  $O(g)$  and  $f_2$  is in  $O(h)$ , what can we say about  $f_1 + f_2$ ?
6. If  $f_1$  is in  $O(g)$  and  $f_2$  is  $O(h)$ , what can we say about  $f_1 \cdot f_2$ ?

Programmers who care about performance often find this kind of analysis hard to swallow. They have a point: sometimes the coefficients and the non-leading terms make a real difference. Sometimes the details of the hardware, the programming language, and the characteristics of the input make a big difference. And for small problems, order of growth is irrelevant.

But if you keep those caveats in mind, algorithmic analysis is a useful tool. At least for large problems, the “better” algorithm is usually better, and sometimes it is *much* better. The difference between two algorithms with the same order of growth is usually a constant factor, but the difference between a good algorithm and a bad algorithm is unbounded!

## B.2 Analysis of basic Python operations

In Python, most arithmetic operations are constant time; multiplication usually takes longer than addition and subtraction, and division takes even longer, but these run times don't depend on the magnitude of the operands. Very large integers are an exception; in that case the run time increases with the number of digits.

Indexing operations—reading or writing elements in a sequence or dictionary—are also constant time, regardless of the size of the data structure.

A for loop that traverses a sequence or dictionary is usually linear, as long as all of the operations in the body of the loop are constant time. For example, adding up the elements of a list is linear:

```
total = 0
for x in t:
    total += x
```

The built-in function `sum` is also linear because it does the same thing, but it tends to be faster because it is a more efficient implementation; in the language of algorithmic analysis, it has a smaller leading coefficient.

As a rule of thumb, if the body of a loop is in  $O(n^a)$  then the whole loop is in  $O(n^{a+1})$ . The exception is if you can show that the loop exits after a constant number of iterations. If a loop runs  $k$  times regardless of  $n$ , then the loop is in  $O(n^a)$ , even for large  $k$ .

Multiplying by  $k$  doesn't change the order of growth, but neither does dividing. So if the body of a loop is in  $O(n^a)$  and it runs  $n/k$  times, the loop is in  $O(n^{a+1})$ , even for large  $k$ .

Most string and tuple operations are linear, except indexing and `len`, which are constant time. The built-in functions `min` and `max` are linear. The run-time of a slice operation is proportional to the length of the output, but independent of the size of the input.

String concatenation is linear; the run time depends on the sum of the lengths of the operands.

All string methods are linear, but if the lengths of the strings are bounded by a constant—for example, operations on single characters—they are considered constant time. The string method `join` is linear; the run time depends on the total length of the strings.

Most list methods are linear, but there are some exceptions:

- Adding an element to the end of a list is constant time on average; when it runs out of room it occasionally gets copied to a bigger location, but the total time for  $n$  operations is  $O(n)$ , so the average time for each operation is  $O(1)$ .
- Removing an element from the end of a list is constant time.
- Sorting is  $O(n \log n)$ .

Most dictionary operations and methods are constant time, but there are some exceptions:

- The run time of `update` is proportional to the size of the dictionary passed as a parameter, not the dictionary being updated.
- `keys`, `values` and `items` are constant time because they return iterators. But if you loop through the iterators, the loop will be linear.



The performance of dictionaries is one of the minor miracles of computer science. We will see how they work in Section B.4.

**Exercise B.2.** Read the Wikipedia page on sorting algorithms at [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sorting\\_algorithm](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sorting_algorithm) and answer the following questions:

1. What is a “comparison sort?” What is the best worst-case order of growth for a comparison sort? What is the best worst-case order of growth for any sort algorithm?
2. What is the order of growth of bubble sort, and why does Barack Obama think it is “the wrong way to go?”
3. What is the order of growth of radix sort? What preconditions do we need to use it?
4. What is a stable sort and why might it matter in practice?
5. What is the worst sorting algorithm (that has a name)?
6. What sort algorithm does the C library use? What sort algorithm does Python use? Are these algorithms stable? You might have to Google around to find these answers.
7. Many of the non-comparison sorts are linear, so why does Python use an  $O(n \log n)$  comparison sort?

## B.3 Analysis of search algorithms

A **search** is an algorithm that takes a collection and a target item and determines whether the target is in the collection, often returning the index of the target.

The simplest search algorithm is a “linear search”, which traverses the items of the collection in order, stopping if it finds the target. In the worst case it has to traverse the entire collection, so the run time is linear.

The `in` operator for sequences uses a linear search; so do string methods like `find` and `count`.

If the elements of the sequence are in order, you can use a **bisection search**, which is  $O(\log n)$ . Bisection search is similar to the algorithm you might use to look a word up in a dictionary (a paper dictionary, not the data structure). Instead of starting at the beginning and checking each item in order, you start with the item in the middle and check whether the word you are looking for comes before or after. If it comes before, then you search the first half of the sequence. Otherwise you search the second half. Either way, you cut the number of remaining items in half.

If the sequence has 1,000,000 items, it will take about 20 steps to find the word or conclude that it’s not there. So that’s about 50,000 times faster than a linear search.

Bisection search can be much faster than linear search, but it requires the sequence to be in order, which might require extra work.

There is another data structure, called a **hashtable** that is even faster—it can do a search in constant time—and it doesn’t require the items to be sorted. Python dictionaries are implemented using hashtables, which is why most dictionary operations, including the `in` operator, are constant time.

## B.4 Hashtables

To explain how hashtables work and why their performance is so good, I start with a simple implementation of a map and gradually improve it until it's a hashtable.

I use Python to demonstrate these implementations, but in real life you wouldn't write code like this in Python; you would just use a dictionary! So for the rest of this chapter, you have to imagine that dictionaries don't exist and you want to implement a data structure that maps from keys to values. The operations you have to implement are:

`add(k, v)`: Add a new item that maps from key `k` to value `v`. With a Python dictionary, `d`, this operation is written `d[k] = v`.

`get(k)`: Look up and return the value that corresponds to key `k`. With a Python dictionary, `d`, this operation is written `d[k]` or `d.get(k)`.

For now, I assume that each key only appears once. The simplest implementation of this interface uses a list of tuples, where each tuple is a key-value pair.

```
class LinearMap:
```

```
    def __init__(self):
        self.items = []

    def add(self, k, v):
        self.items.append((k, v))

    def get(self, k):
        for key, val in self.items:
            if key == k:
                return val
        raise KeyError
```

`add` appends a key-value tuple to the list of items, which takes constant time.

`get` uses a for loop to search the list: if it finds the target key it returns the corresponding value; otherwise it raises a `KeyError`. So `get` is linear.

An alternative is to keep the list sorted by key. Then `get` could use a bisection search, which is  $O(\log n)$ . But inserting a new item in the middle of a list is linear, so this might not be the best option. There are other data structures that can implement `add` and `get` in log time, but that's still not as good as constant time, so let's move on.

One way to improve `LinearMap` is to break the list of key-value pairs into smaller lists. Here's an implementation called `BetterMap`, which is a list of 100 `LinearMaps`. As we'll see in a second, the order of growth for `get` is still linear, but `BetterMap` is a step on the path toward hashtables:

```
class BetterMap:
```

```
    def __init__(self, n=100):
        self.maps = []
        for i in range(n):
            self.maps.append(LinearMap())
```

```

def find_map(self, k):
    index = hash(k) % len(self.maps)
    return self.maps[index]

def add(self, k, v):
    m = self.find_map(k)
    m.add(k, v)

def get(self, k):
    m = self.find_map(k)
    return m.get(k)

```

`__init__` makes a list of  $n$  LinearMaps.

`find_map` is used by `add` and `get` to figure out which map to put the new item in, or which map to search.

`find_map` uses the built-in function `hash`, which takes almost any Python object and returns an integer. A limitation of this implementation is that it only works with hashable keys. Mutable types like lists and dictionaries are unhashable.

Hashable objects that are considered equivalent return the same hash value, but the converse is not necessarily true: two objects with different values can return the same hash value.

`find_map` uses the modulus operator to wrap the hash values into the range from 0 to `len(self.maps)`, so the result is a legal index into the list. Of course, this means that many different hash values will wrap onto the same index. But if the hash function spreads things out pretty evenly (which is what hash functions are designed to do), then we expect  $n/100$  items per LinearMap.

Since the run time of `LinearMap.get` is proportional to the number of items, we expect `BetterMap` to be about 100 times faster than `LinearMap`. The order of growth is still linear, but the leading coefficient is smaller. That's nice, but still not as good as a hashtable.

Here (finally) is the crucial idea that makes hashtables fast: if you can keep the maximum length of the LinearMaps bounded, `LinearMap.get` is constant time. All you have to do is keep track of the number of items and when the number of items per LinearMap exceeds a threshold, resize the hashtable by adding more LinearMaps.

Here is an implementation of a hashtable:

```

class HashMap:

    def __init__(self):
        self.maps = BetterMap(2)
        self.num = 0

    def get(self, k):
        return self.maps.get(k)

    def add(self, k, v):
        if self.num == len(self.maps.maps):

```

```

        self.resize()

    self.maps.add(k, v)
    self.num += 1

def resize(self):
    new_maps = BetterMap(self.num * 2)

    for m in self.maps.maps:
        for k, v in m.items:
            new_maps.add(k, v)

    self.maps = new_maps
__init__ creates a BetterMap and initializes num, which keeps track of the number of items.

```

`get` just dispatches to `BetterMap`. The real work happens in `add`, which checks the number of items and the size of the `BetterMap`: if they are equal, the average number of items per `LinearMap` is 1, so it calls `resize`.

`resize` make a new `BetterMap`, twice as big as the previous one, and then “rehashes” the items from the old map to the new.

Rehashing is necessary because changing the number of `LinearMaps` changes the denominator of the modulus operator in `find_map`. That means that some objects that used to hash into the same `LinearMap` will get split up (which is what we wanted, right?).

Rehashing is linear, so `resize` is linear, which might seem bad, since I promised that `add` would be constant time. But remember that we don’t have to `resize` every time, so `add` is usually constant time and only occasionally linear. The total amount of work to run `add`  $n$  times is proportional to  $n$ , so the average time of each `add` is constant time!

To see how this works, think about starting with an empty `HashTable` and adding a sequence of items. We start with 2 `LinearMaps`, so the first 2 adds are fast (no resizing required). Let’s say that they take one unit of work each. The next add requires a `resize`, so we have to rehash the first two items (let’s call that 2 more units of work) and then add the third item (one more unit). Adding the next item costs 1 unit, so the total so far is 6 units of work for 4 items.

The next add costs 5 units, but the next three are only one unit each, so the total is 14 units for the first 8 adds.

The next add costs 9 units, but then we can add 7 more before the next `resize`, so the total is 30 units for the first 16 adds.

After 32 adds, the total cost is 62 units, and I hope you are starting to see a pattern. After  $n$  adds, where  $n$  is a power of two, the total cost is  $2n - 2$  units, so the average work per add is a little less than 2 units. When  $n$  is a power of two, that’s the best case; for other values of  $n$  the average work is a little higher, but that’s not important. The important thing is that it is  $O(1)$ .

Figure B.1 shows how this works graphically. Each block represents a unit of work. The columns show the total work for each add in order from left to right: the first two adds cost 1 unit each, the third costs 3 units, etc.

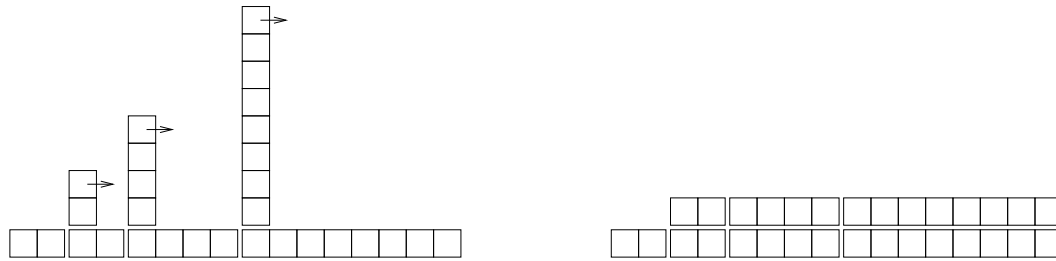


图 B.1: The cost of a hashtable add.

The extra work of rehashing appears as a sequence of increasingly tall towers with increasing space between them. Now if you knock over the towers, spreading the cost of resizing over all adds, you can see graphically that the total cost after  $n$  adds is  $2n - 2$ .

An important feature of this algorithm is that when we resize the HashTable it grows geometrically; that is, we multiply the size by a constant. If you increase the size arithmetically—adding a fixed number each time—the average time per add is linear.

You can download my implementation of HashMap from <http://thinkpython2.com/code/Map.py>, but remember that there is no reason to use it; if you want a map, just use a Python dictionary.

## B.5 Glossary

**analysis of algorithms:** A way to compare algorithms in terms of their run time and/or space requirements.

**machine model:** A simplified representation of a computer used to describe algorithms.

**worst case:** The input that makes a given algorithm run slowest (or require the most space).

**leading term:** In a polynomial, the term with the highest exponent.

**crossover point:** The problem size where two algorithms require the same run time or space.

**order of growth:** A set of functions that all grow in a way considered equivalent for purposes of analysis of algorithms. For example, all functions that grow linearly belong to the same order of growth.

**Big-Oh notation:** Notation for representing an order of growth; for example,  $O(n)$  represents the set of functions that grow linearly.

**linear:** An algorithm whose run time is proportional to problem size, at least for large problem sizes.

**quadratic:** An algorithm whose run time is proportional to  $n^2$ , where  $n$  is a measure of problem size.

**search:** The problem of locating an element of a collection (like a list or dictionary) or determining that it is not present.

**hashtable:** A data structure that represents a collection of key-value pairs and performs search in constant time.