

SEQUENCES, CONTAINERS, AND DATA ABSTRACTION Meta

COMPUTER SCIENCE MENTORS 61A

February 20–February 24, 2022

Recommended Timeline

- Lists Minilecture: 10 minutes
- Lists WWPD: 5 minutes
- Lists Environment Diagram: 9 minutes
- Comprehensions: 12 minutes
- Gen List: 7 minutes
- Dictionaries Minilecture/example: 5 minutes/0 minutes
- Snapshot: 4 minutes
- Count-t: 8 minutes
- Digraph: 10 minutes

As a reminder, these times do not add up to 50 minutes because no one is expected to get through all questions in a section. This is especially true this week, because this worksheet is rather long. You should use the worksheet as a problem bank around which you can structure your section to best accommodate the needs of your students. Both before and during section, consider which questions would be most instructive and how you should budget your time.

This week, we’re providing slides! Check them out in the content team folder. Feel free to use these while you mini-lecture, and make a copy and modify them if you’d like.

Teaching sequences can be tricky because there’s a lot of material to cover, but it tends to be pretty boring “this is how this works”-type content instead of deeper conceptual, information. So please, for the love of God, do not do a detailed mini-lecture on every aspect of sequences. This will take up far too much time and will probably not be a valuable experience for your students. Before mini-lecturing, it’s valuable to ask your students what they would like you to go over specifically so that you’re not repeating a bunch of information they already know.

1 Sequences

Sequences are ordered data structures that have length and support element selection. Here are some common types of sequences you’ll be dealing with in this class:

- Lists: `[1, [2], 'a', lambda x: 5]`
- Tuples: `(1, (2,), 'a', lambda x: 5)`
- Strings: `'Hello World!'`

While each type of sequence is different, they all share a common interface for manipulating and accessing their data:

- **Item selection:** Use square brackets to select an element at an index:

```
(3, 1, 2)[0] → "3", "Hello"[-1] → "o"
```

- **Length:** The built-in `len` function returns the length of a sequence:

```
len((1, 2)) → 2
```

- **Concatenation:** Sequences can be concatenated with the `+` operator, which returns a *new* sequence:

```
[1, 2] + [3, 4] → [1, 2, 3, 4]
```

- **Membership:** The `in` operator tests for sequence membership:

```
1 in (1, 2, 3) → True, 5 not in (1, 2, 3) → True, "apple" in "snapple" → True
```

Membership in Strings vs. Lists and Tuples: As a short aside, while the `in` operator works the same for lists and tuples, checking if an element is contained within the list/tuple container, the `in` operator instead for strings checks for direct substrings rather than the existence of distinct elements within the string.

- **Looping:** Sequences can be looped through with `for` loops:

```
>>> for x in [1, 2, 3]:
...     print(x)
1
2
3
```

- **Aggregation:** Common built-in functions—including `sum`, `min`, and `max`—can take sequences and aggregate them into a single value:

```
max((3, 4, 5)) → 5
```

- **Slicing:** Slicing is a way to create a copy of all or part of a sequence. The general syntax for slicing a sequence `seq` is as follows:

```
seq[<start index>:<end index>:<step size>]
```

This evaluates to a new sequence that includes every element starting at `<start index>` and up to and *excluding* `<end index>` in `seq`, taking steps of size `<step size>`.

If we do not supply `<start index>` or `<end index>`, it will start at the beginning of the sequence and include every element up to and including the end of the sequence.

```
>>> lst = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> lst[2:]
[3, 4, 5]
>>> lst[:3]
[1, 2, 3]
>>> lst[::-1]
[5, 4, 3, 2, 1]
```

```
[5, 4, 3, 2, 1]
>>> lst[1::2]
[2, 4]
```

List comprehensions, which only apply to lists, are a concise and powerful method to create a new list from another sequence. The syntax for a list comprehension is

```
[<expression> for <element> in <sequence> if <condition>]
```

We could equivalently write the following:

```
lst = []
for <element> in <sequence>:
    if <condition>:
        lst = lst + [<expression>]
```

The **if** <condition> filter statement is optional. The following list comprehension doubles each odd element of [1, 2, 3, 4]:

```
>>> [i * 2 for i in [1, 2, 3, 4] if i % 2 != 0]
[2, 6]
```

Equivalent in **for** loop syntax:

```
lst = []
for i in [1, 2, 3, 4]:
    if i % 2 != 0:
        lst = lst + [i * 2]
```

A lot of information in this guide is not the full and complete picture of how Python works, but students don't need to know that. Often a little misdirection is necessary to improve initial knowledge acquisition before a more complete picture is painted later on. I would just be sure to mention the nature of sequences: a loose umbrella (not a strict definition like a class) that encompasses many different data types.

If students are confused consider bringing up specific examples of sequences. Reading rules on a page is often not actually that instructive.

1. What would Python display? Draw box-and-pointer diagrams for the following:

```
>>> a = [1, 2, 3]
>>> a
```

```
[1, 2, 3]
```

```
>>> a[2]
```

```
3
```

```
>>> a[-1]
```

```
3
```

```
>>> b = a
>>> a = a + [4, [5, 6]]
>>> a
```

```
[1, 2, 3, 4, [5, 6]]
```

```
>>> b
```

```
[1, 2, 3]
```

```
>>> c = a
>>> a = [4, 5]
>>> a
```

```
[4, 5]
```

```
>>> c
```

```
[1, 2, 3, 4, [5, 6]]
```

```
>>> d = c[3:5]
>>> c[3] = 9
>>> d
```

```
[4, [5, 6]]
```

```
>>> c[4][0] = 7
>>> d
```

```
[4, [7, 6]]
```

```
>>> c[4] = 10
>>> d
```

```
[4, [7, 6]]
```

```
>>> c
```

```
[1, 2, 3, 9, 10]
```

Teaching Tips

1. Refer to above notes on box and pointer diagrams! When going through this one, draw the box

and pointer diagrams on the board

2. Encourage students to draw box and pointer diagrams if they seem stuck
3. It can be helpful to visually go through indexing and list slicing in the box and pointer diagram
4. Python is confusing when adding on to a list with `lst += [element]` and `lst = lst + element`. The former mutates and the latter creates a new list
5. Make sure you clearly state when you're making a new list object (i.e. at `a = a + [4, [5, 6]]` and list slicing like `d = c[3:5]`)
6. Be sure to touch on negative indices and reiterate the difference between shallow and deep copies – as it's a nuance in list comprehension, we decided not to include it in the overview, but when going over this problem, please make sure to touch on this!
7. If students need additional help with shallow and deep copying, feel free to come up with your own creative iterations on the shallow and deep copying problems.

An alternative to doing a super detailed mini-lecture is going over these problems with your students and “learning by doing.”

2. What would Python display? Draw box-and-pointer diagrams to find out.

(a) `L = [1, 2, 3]`
`B = L`
`B`

`[1, 2, 3]`

(b) `A = L[1:3]`
`L[0] = A`
`L = L + A`
`B`

`[[2, 3], 2, 3]`

This is a short question to get your students to understand slicing and concatenation of lists. Honestly, a skippable problem as it's a reiteration of some aspects of the previous WWPDP problem, but feel free to do this if students don't understand the *ASSIGNMENT* of slicing/immutable list comprehensions *ba-dum-tss*.

3. Write a list comprehension that accomplishes each of the following tasks.

(a) Square all the elements of a given list, `lst`.

```
[x ** 2 for x in lst]
```

(b) Compute the dot product of two lists `lst1` and `lst2`. *Hint:* The dot product is defined as $lst1[0] \cdot lst2[0] + lst1[1] \cdot lst2[1] + \dots + lst1[n] \cdot lst2[n]$. The Python `zip` function may be useful here.

```
sum([x * y for x, y in zip(lst1, lst2)])
```

(c) Return a list of lists such that `a = [[0], [0, 1], [0, 1, 2], [0, 1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]]`.

```
a = [[x for x in range(y)] for y in range(1, 6)]
```

(d) Return the same list as above, except now excluding every instance of the number 2: `b = [[0], [0, 1], [0, 1], [0, 1, 3], [0, 1, 3, 4]]`.

```
b = [[x for x in range(y) if x != 2] for y in range(1, 6)]
```

Teaching Tips

1. It may be helpful to start with the basic list comprehension template of `[<expr> for <item> in <iterable> if <condition>]`
2. The list of list questions are tricky, so try nudging your students in the right direction by reminding them that it is completely possible to nest list comprehensions.
3. Make sure you also understand what the Python `zip` function does!

I think it's probably not necessary to go over all of these with your students, just do enough to where they're comfortable with things.

4. Fill in the methods below according to the doctests.

```
def gen_list(n):
    """
    Returns a nested list structure of n elements where the
    ith element is a list from 0 (inclusive) to i (exclusive).
    >>> gen_list(3)
    [[0], [0, 1], [0, 1, 2]]
    >>> gen_list(5)
    [[0], [0, 1], [0, 1, 2], [0, 1, 2, 3], [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]]
    """
    return _____
```

For an additional challenge, try out the following:

```
def gen_increasing(n):
    """
```

```

Returns a nested list structure of n elements where the
ith element of each list is one more than the previous
element (even if the previous is in a prior sublist).
>>> gen_increasing(3)
[[0], [1, 2], [3, 4, 5]]
>>> gen_increasing(5)
[[0], [1, 2], [3, 4, 5], [6, 7, 8, 9], [10, 11, 12, 13,
14]]
"""
return _____

```

Hint: You can sum ranges. E.g. `sum(range(3))` gives us $0 + 1 + 2 = 3$.

```

def gen_list(n):
    return [[i for i in range(j+1)] for j in range(n)]

def gen_increasing(n):
    return [[i for i in range(sum(range(j+1)), sum(range(j+1)) + j+1)]
            for j in range(n)]

\textit{An alternate solution for gen_increasing is:}
def gen_increasing(n):
    return [[i + sum(range(j + 1)) for i in range(j + 1)] for j in
            range(n)]

```

The additional challenge is harder and is not necessary to go over if there is no time for it. It gives good practice on thinking about using other tools to help put everything in one line (i.e. `range`), so encourage students to try it on their own.

2 Dictionaries

Dictionaries are another useful Python data structure that store a collection of items. However, instead of assigning each item a numerical index, each **value** in a dictionary is mapped to by some **key**.

Dictionaries are denoted with curly braces and use much of the same syntax as sequences—including item selection with square brackets, membership testing with `in`, and length checking with `len`. Consider the following “Big” example:

```

>>> big_game_wins = {"Cal": 48, "Stanford": 65}
>>> big_game_wins
{"Cal": 48, "Stanford": 65}
>>> big_game_wins["Stanford"]
65
>>> big_game_wins["Cal"]
48
>>> big_game_wins["Cal"] += 1
>>> big_game_wins["Cal"]
49

```

```

>>> list(big_game_wins.keys())
["Cal", "Stanford"]
>>> list(big_game_wins.values())
[49, 65]

>>> "Cal" in big_game_wins
True
>>> "Tie" in big_game_wins
False
>>> 65 in big_game_wins
False

>>> big_game_wins["Tie"]
KeyError: Tie
>>> big_game_wins["Tie"] = 11
>>> big_game_wins["Tie"]
11

```

Here, I decided to not list out everything a dictionary can do but rather teach by giving a long example. I find that students tend to glaze over when they're asked to look at something that long, so I really recommend walking through the whole process.

From a technical standpoint, dictionaries are ordered in Python. But your students don't need to know that.

1. Complete the function `snapshot`, which takes a single-argument function `f` and a list `snap_inputs` and returns a "snapshot" of `f` on `snap_inputs`. A "snapshot" is a dictionary where the keys are the provided `snap_inputs` and the values are the corresponding outputs of `f` on each input.

```

def snapshot(f, snap_inputs):
    """
    >>> snapshot(lambda x: x**2, [1, 2, 3])
    {1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9}
    """

    snap = _____

    _____:

    _____

    return snap

def snapshot(f, snap_inputs):
    snap = {}
    for snap_input in snap_inputs:
        snap[snap_input] = f(snap_input)
    return snap

```


One way to think of a dictionary is as a function (in the mathematical sense) with a finite domain: you provide it an input and it gives you some output. The idea behind this problem is to exercise that connection by having students convert between functions defined by rules that often have unlimited domains (e.g. $f(x) = x^2$) and finite functions that are defined by directly spelling out the outputs of a function. That's why this problem is called "snapshot"—it's a small snapshot of a function's behavior over a limited domain.

This problem is pretty easy, so you can probably skip over it if your students are strapped for time or if you think they probably don't need it. If they seem to be struggling understanding the basics of dictionaries this is a good way to ease them into the more difficult problems.

2. Write a function `count_t`, which takes in a dictionary `d` and a string `word`. The function should count the instances of the letter "t" in `word` and add a key-value pair to the dictionary. The key will be `word` and the value will be the number of "t"s in `word`

```
def count_t(d, word):  
    """  
    >>> words = {}  
    >>> count_t(words, "tatter")  
    >>> words["tatter"]  
    3  
    >>> count_t(words, "tree")  
    >>> words  
    {'tatter': 3, 'tree': 1}  
    """
```

```
    _____  
  
    for _____:  
        if _____:  
            _____  
            _____  
            _____
```

```
count = 0  
for c in word:  
    if c == 't':  
        count += 1  
d[word] = count
```

Teaching Tips

1. Remind students of the general structure of dictionaries (map keys to values)
2. to access the value of dictionary using key, the syntax is `dictionary[key]`, which is also used for assignment

3. A *digraph* is any pair of immediately adjacent letters; for example, “otto” contains three digraphs: “ot”, “tt”, and “to”. Write a function `count_digraphs`, which takes a piece of text and a list of letters alphabet and analyzes the frequency of digraphs in text. Specifically, `count_digraphs` returns a dictionary whose keys are the valid digraphs of text and whose values are the number of times each digraph occurred. (A digraph is valid if it is formed out of letters from the specified alphabet.)

```
def count_digraphs(text, alphabet):
    """
    >>> count_digraphs("otto", ['o', 't'])
    {'ot': 1, 'tt': 1, 'to': 1}
    >>> count_digraphs("otto", ['t'])
    {'tt': 1}
    >>> count_digraphs("6161 6", ['6', '1'])
    {'61': 2, '16': 1}
    """

    freq = {}

    _____:

    if _____:

        digraph = _____

        _____

        _____

        _____

    return freq


def count_digraphs(text, alphabet):
    freq = {}
    for i in range(len(text) - 1):
        if text[i] in alphabet and text[i + 1] in alphabet:
            digraph = text[i] + text[i + 1]
            if digraph in freq:
                freq[digraph] += 1
            else:
                freq[digraph] = 1
    return freq
```

What’s the point of this question? Well, analyzing the frequency of digraphs can be valuable in all sorts of situations, including cryptanalysis. But in a more general sense, using dictionaries to count things is very common. So hopefully this problem will give students some guidance on that front.

Students will probably need to look at the doc tests to fully understand the problem, including what

we mean by ‘valid’ and whether spaces should count or not.

If your students are completely lost, walk through the doctests with them, and ask them how they would find digraphs by hand, and try and lead them to understand what two elements they should be checking in each iteration.

Students will likely find a significant amount of trouble in differentiating what to do when the digraph is present in the dictionary and when it is not. If they are stuck on this,, here are some leading questions you could ask:

- What happens when we encounter a digraph we haven’t seen before?
- What happens when we try to add a digraph to the dictionary that’s not already in there?
- What do we need to know is true before we can add onto the digraph that’s already in the dictionary? How can we do that?

This problem is pretty difficult, so its a good one to do if your students were able to understand the other problems pretty well. If you don’t get to this one or don’t think all your students are ready for this level of difficulty, remind students all solutions are online so they can review it on their own.