

Python Programming Language

Assoc. Prof. Krzysztof Małecki

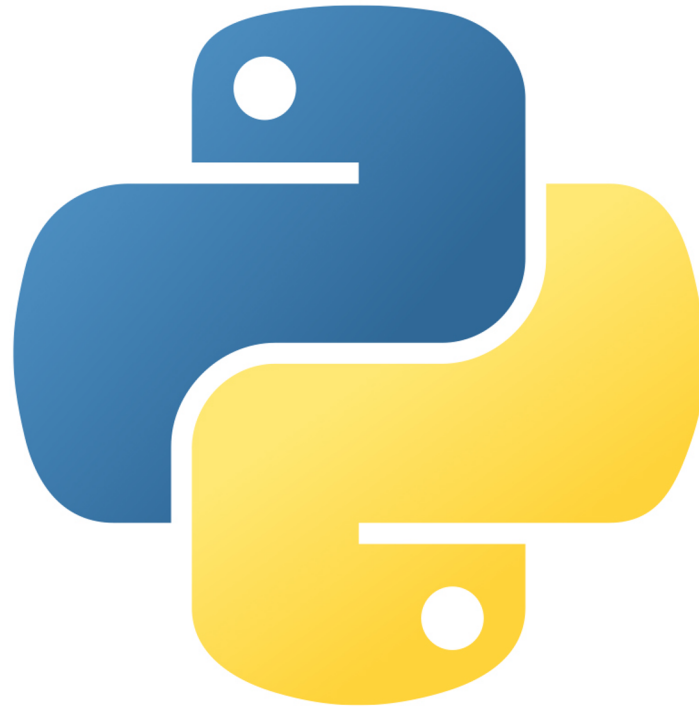
kmalecki.zut.edu.pl

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Python: from, how and who?

- Python is not a reptile - it's Monty Python from the Flying Circus
- Guido van Rossum (born 1960, Dutch) - created Python in December 1989, as he claims, actually out of boredom
- Guido joined Google in 2005 and moved to Dropbox in 2013.

Python: how it look like?



Python: what is he like?

- easy to learn and use, intuitive, with a high power of expression
- published as open source
- for general use, but also useful in dedicated applications
- shortens programming time and increases the comfort of the programmer's work

Python: has more than One Name

- two independent and incompatible versions of Python are currently in use:
 - Python 2 - kept alive due to the huge number of programs written in it (current version is 2.7)
 - Python 3 - used for new projects and treated as future-proof (current version is 3.12)

Python: what does it give us?

- the interpreter
- libraries of ready-made solutions that we can use in our code
- a simple developer environment called IDLE
- that is all we need to start our adventure with Python

Python

- two ways of work:
 - **interactive** - we type commands and Python executes them immediately
 - **non-interactive** - we write the source code in a file and then tell Python to execute that file

Python – syntax

- one statement on one line of the file
- the instruction does not end in any special way, you can insert empty lines into the code, if it improves the readability of the code
- a statement can be broken by putting a \ (backslash) at the end of a line and continuing on the next line

Example

```
print("Hello")  
print("My name is Python")
```

```
print("Hello")  
  
print \  
(\  
"My name is Python"\  
)
```

Important

- you must not put whitespace at the beginning of a line if you don't know what for you are doing it!
- a line indented from the left margin is different to Python than the line that starts with the first column
- Python is case-sensitive: X for him is completely different from x
- consequently, you must write the function names exactly as it was written in the documentation, so:
 - this is OK → `print`
 - this is not OK → `Print` `PRINT` `PrInT`

A comment

- a comment begins where the `#` (hash) sign stands on a line and ends where that line ends
- remember: the hash inside the quotes doesn't start the comment
- block comment - to select a larger area (3 apostrophes at the beginning and at the end):

```
''' ..... '''
```

A literal

- a **literal** is a data that signifies itself
- It is a literal → 3.1415926535
- It is not a literal → π

Integer literals

- written as a string of Arabic numerals, without any inclusions (e.g. spaces)
 - OK → 3000000000
 - NOT OK → 3 000 000 000
- we can precede the number with the sign: – or the sign: +
- the following literals, despite some concerns, are valid numbers:

-----123

+ - + - + - + 123

Integer literals

- if an integer literal begins with the prefix 0o (zero o), it means it was written in octal, for example:

0o20

and it is a value... $16_{(10)}$

- if an integer literal begins with the prefix 0x (zero x), it means that it was written in hexadecimal, for example:

0x20

and it is a value... $32_{(10)}$

Integer literals

- if an integer literal begins with the prefix 0b (zero b), it means it was written in binary, for example:

0b20

and it is a value... ??₍₁₀₎

- ...but this example is OK:

0b110

and it is a value... 6₍₁₀₎

Attention

- letters o, x and b can be uppercase:

0xFF 0XFF

0b0110 0B0110

0o777 00777

- although the last one looks quite risky (note how much it depends on the font used - that's why there are special fonts for developers - e.g. Monaco is used in this presentation)

Real (floating point) literals:

- instead of the decimal comma (in Poland), we definitely use a dot!

2.49

- if there would only be a zero before the dot, it can be omitted (both literals below mean the same number):

0.49

.49

Real (floating point) literals:

- if there would only be a zero after the dot, it can be omitted (both literals below mean the same number):

49.0

49.

- but ... omitting the dot - although it seems to be meaningless - changes the character of the literal and therefore requires a moment of reflection:

49 → it is an integer literal

49. → it is a real literal

Important

- the difference in the type of literal results in a different way of representing the number in computer memory, and hence in a completely different arithmetic used by the computer

Real (floating point) literals:

- very large and very small (as to the absolute value of a number) - real numbers can be written in the so-called scientific notation, e.g.

2.89E10 $\rightarrow 2.89 \cdot 10^{10}$

0.342E-20 $\rightarrow 0.342 \cdot 10^{-20}$

Logical literals

- they are used to write two elementary logical values, that is, true and false

True

False

- these literals should be written literally, for example, not like:

TRUE or false

Arithmetic literals

3 + 7.5 → 10.5

3 - 7.5 → -4.5

3 * 7.5 → 22.5

3 / 7.5 → 0.4

10 // 4 → 2 //integer division

10 % 3 → 1 //modulo division (the rest of the division)

2 ** 8 → 256 // exponentiation

Operator priorities (from highest to lowest)

1. **

2. * / % //

3. + -

but:

- the natural order of calculations can be changed using brackets
- we use only normal brackets (and)
- pairs of brackets can be freely nested, for example:

(((((2 + 2))))))

- specialized editors (e.g. IDLE, PyCharm) will help us with this 😊

Bitwise operators

- the operators **described earlier** work equally well with real and integers
- besides them, there are only **integer operators**
- these are the so-called **bitwise operators**, because they affect each bit of data separately

bin() function

- useful for experiments with bitwise operators

`bin(x):`

- an argument: integer
- the result: the binary form of the argument

`print(bin(15)) → 0b1111`

hex() function

hex(x):

- an argument: integer
- the result: the hexadecimal form of the argument

`print(hex(15))` → 0xf

Bitwise operators

<code>~X</code>	→	negation	<code>print(bin(~0b011))</code> → <code>-0b100</code>
<code>x & y</code>	→	bit product	<code>print(bin(0b110 & 0b011))</code> → <code>0b10</code>
<code>x y</code>	→	bit sum	<code>print(bin(0b110 0b011))</code> → <code>0b111</code>
<code>x ^ y</code>	→	xor	<code>print(bin(0b110 ^ 0b011))</code> → <code>0b101</code>
<code>x << y</code>	→	left shift	<code>print(bin(0b110 << 2))</code> → <code>0b11000</code> <code>print(0b110 << 2)</code> → <code>24</code>
<code>x >> y</code>	→	right shift	<code>print(bin(0b110 >> 1))</code> → <code>0b11</code> <code>print(0b110 >> 1)</code> → <code>3</code>

Relational operators

`x > y`

`x >= y`

`x < y`

`x <= y`

`x == y`

`x != y`

the result of these operators is always True or False

Abbreviated operators

- the convention is as follows:

$A = A \text{ OP } B \rightarrow A \text{ OP} = B$

$A = A + B \rightarrow A += B$

$A = A - B \rightarrow A -= B$


$A = A * B \rightarrow A *= B$


$A = A / B \rightarrow A /= B$


$A = A // B \rightarrow A //= B$


$A = A ** B \rightarrow A ** = B$


Abbreviated operators

`A = A << B`  `A <<= B`

`A = A >> B`  `A >>= B`

`A = A & B`  `A &= B`

`A = A | B`  `A |= B`

`A = A ^ B`  `A ^= B`

Variables – rules of name

- can contain letters (upper and lower case), numbers and the character _ (underscore)
- may contain national characters
- uppercase and lowercase letters are treated as different
- cannot start with a digit
- the use of certain variable **must be** preceded by giving the value for this variable

The operator = (assignment operator)

- the effect: assigning the value of the expression being on the right side of the operator to the variable listed on the left
- the result: the value of the expression being on the right side of =

- it means that the assignment:

`a = b = c = d = 1`

should be understood as a sequence of assignments:

`a = (b = (c = (d = 1)))`

- and consequently:

`a = 1`

`b = 1`

`c = 1`

`d = 1`

Remember

- Python likes short forms of expressions:

`a = 1`

`b = 2`

`a, b = b, a`

```
>>> a=1
>>> b=2
>>> print(a,b)
1 2
>>> a,b=b,a
>>> print(a,b)
2 1
```

input() - variant #1

- we will use it to take data from the user

input()

- an argument: none
- the effect: loading **a line of data** from the console
- the result: user-entered string
- e.g.:

```
text = input()
```

input() - variant #2

- we will use it to take data from the user

`input(x)`

- an argument: hint for the user
- the effect: loading **a line of data** from the console
- the result: user-entered string
- e.g.:

```
text = input("Give a string: ")
```

Remember

- `input()` function always loads text (string)
- string is not a number (even if it consists of digits)
- if you want to use the entered text as a number, you have to **convert explicitly** (transforming a string to the internal representation of a number)

Example

```
>>> x=input()
```

```
123
```

```
>>> y=x/3
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

```
  File "<pyshell#6>", line 1, in <module>
```

```
    y=x/3
```

```
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for  
/: 'str' and 'int'
```

```
>>> y=int(x)/3
```

```
>>> print(y)
```

```
41.0
```

int()

converts a string to an integer

`int(x)`

an argument: a string representing the number

the effect: a string conversion to an integer

the result: a converted number

attention: gives an exception on failure

e.g.:

```
number = int(input())
```

float()

converts a string to a float

`float(x)`

an argument: a string representing the number

the effect: a string conversion to a float

the result: a converted number

attention: gives an exception on failure

e.g.:

```
price = float(input())
```

Remember

- the `int()` and `float()` functions trust that the argument passed to them is really a notation of a number
- otherwise the functions will be disappointed...

```
>>> x=int(input())
bulbulator
>>> y=x/3
```

Traceback (most recent call last):

File "<pyshell#12>", line 1, in <module>

`x=int(input())`

ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10:
'bulbulator'

Example

- a program that squares a number:

```
number=float(input("Enter a number, please: "))  
square=number ** 2  
print("Square of ", number, " is ", square)
```

A module

- a **module** is a code that does not run directly, and you use the facilities it contains (e.g. functions)
- to use a certain facility, it **must be imported** from the module

`math`

- this module contains a number of mathematical functions

`sqrt`

- a certain function from `math` module, computing the square root

Import – variant #1

```
import math
```

the effect:

- all the facilities of the `math` module become available, but...
- they should be identified with the so-called **qualified name**, e.g. ::

```
y = math.sqrt(x)
```

Import – variant #2

```
from math import sqrt
```

the effect:

- only the explicitly mentioned facilities from the `math` module become available, but ...
- they do not need to be identified by a **qualified name**

```
y = sqrt(x)
```

Can we take a negative number to the root?

Traceback (most recent call last):

File "prog.py", line 4, in <module>

y=sqrt(number)

ValueError: math domain error

We need to branch the code

- if the value is non-negative, we will take the square root
- otherwise we will do nothing

if – variant #1

if expression:

a part of code

expression:

- logical (boolean) expression
- if it is **True**, the **if** instruction determines that some statements **must be executed**
- **otherwise** a part of code **will be omitted**

Remember

- statements being the content of an `if` instruction is indicated by the indentation level in Python! (relative to the left margin)
- indentation can be obtained with `spaces` or `tabs`
- the second option is recommended
- mixing both variants is **risky**
- returning to the previous indent level marks the end of the `if`

Example

```
from math import sqrt

number=float(input("Enter a number, please: "))
if number >= 0.0:
    s=sqrt(number)
    print(s)
```

if – variant #2

`if` *expression*:

a part of code1

`else`:

a part of code2

`expression`:

- if `expression` is `True`, the `if` instruction consider that *a part of code1 must be executed*
- otherwise *a part of code2 will be executed*

if – variant #3

`if expression1:`

a part of code1

`elif expression2:`

a part of code2

`else:`

a part of code3

expression:

- if `expression1` is `True`, the `if` instruction consider that *a part of code1* **must be executed**
- if `expression1` is `False`, `expression2` will be checked and if it is `True`, *a part of code2* will be executed
- otherwise *a part of code3* will be executed

Example

```
from math import sqrt

number=float(input("Enter a number, please: "))
if number == 0.0:
    print("It is known without computing..., zero!")
elif number > 0.0:
    s=sqrt(number)
    print(s)
else:
    print("You entered incorrect data!")
print("The end")
```

if – some remarks

- the phrase `elif` can appear multiple times, but only after an `if`
- the phrase `elif` may also not appear at all
- the `else` phrase may occur **only once** and must be **the last one**
- none of these phrases can occur without the previous `if` !!!

while – variant #1

```
while expression1:  
    code1
```

- as long as *expression1* equals True, the while statement will execute *code1*
- if *expression1* is False, *code1* will be skipped

while – variant #2

```
while expression1:  
    code1  
else:  
    code2
```

- as long as *expression1* equals True, the while statement will execute *code1*
- if *expression1* is False, *code2* will be executed (at least once)

Remember

- if one if / while / ... statement is contained in another if / while / ... statement, it manifests itself with increasing indentation
- be careful when you use indentation - wrong indents will result in **bad code behaviour**
- errors of this kind are **difficult to find** 😞

a `sleep()` function from `time` module

suspending the program for the number of seconds indicated

`sleep(n)`

an argument: the number of seconds

the effect: waiting for the indicated number of seconds

- e.g.:

`time.sleep(3600)` ← wait one hour

Example1 of while

```
from time import sleep

timer=int(input("Enter a number of seconds: "))
while timer > 0:
    print(timer, "...")
    timer = timer - 1
    sleep(1)
print("The countdown is complete. Boom!")
```

Example2 of while (a better ver.)

```
from time import sleep

timer = 0
while timer <= 0:
    timer=int(input("Enter a number of seconds: "))
    if timer <= 0:
        print("Enter a non-negative value!")
while timer > 0:
    print(timer, "...")
    timer = timer - 1
    sleep(1)
print("The countdown is complete. Boom!")
```

print() – a little explanation

A set of `print()` statements as:

```
print("Cat")  
print("and")  
print("dog")
```

will display on the screen:

```
Cat  
and  
dog
```

print() – a little explanation

...but a set of `print()` statements as:

```
print("Cat", end=" ")  
print("and", end=" ")  
print("dog")
```

will display on the screen:

Cat and dog

print() – a little explanation

...but a set of `print()` statements as:

```
print("Cat", end="")  
print("and", end="")  
print("dog")
```

will display on the screen:

Catanddog

for – variant #1

```
for x in range(min,max):  
    part of code
```

the so-called **control variable** -
assumes successive values in
subsequent loops; it still has the
last used value after the loop is
finished

function that creates a range (a
list) with extremes defined by
parameters

Attention!!!

`range(x,y)`
generates a list of values:
`x, x+1, x+2, ... , y-2, y-1`

`range(0,max)`
can be shortened:
`range(max)`

for – variant #2

```
for x in range(min,max):  
    code1  
else:  
    code2
```

- *code2* will be executed when the values after the **in** phrase are finished

for – variant #2

```
for number in range(0,5):  
    print(number, end=" ")  
else:  
    print("!")
```

```
0 1 2 3 4 !
```

for

```
for x in reversed(range(min,max)):
```

function that inverts the obtained
range (list)

```
for number in reversed(range(0,5)):  
    print(number, end=" ")
```

4 3 2 1 0

Statements that control the execution of a loop

- if you want to exit the loop earlier than the loop timer indicates

`break`

- if you want to start the next iteration of the loop earlier

`continue`

and finally a riddle - what this program does?

```
for w in range(3):
    x = 20
    s = 1
    for l in range(5):
        for spaces in range(x):
            print(end=" ")
        for stars in range(s):
            print("*", end="")
        print()
        x = x - 1
        s = s + 2
```



```
      *
    ***
  *****
*****
*****
      *
    ***
  *****
*****
*****
      *
    ***
  *****
*****
*****
```



Thank you for your attention

see you at the next lecture