### The Game of Life

The Game of Life is a *cellular automaton* invented by John Conway, a mathematician from the University of Cambridge. The game of life is not so much a "game" in the traditional sense, but rather a process that transitions over time according to a few simple rules. The process is set up as a grid of cells, each of which is "alive" or "dead" at a given point in time. At each time step, the cells live or die according to the following rules:

- 1. A cell that has fewer than two live neighbors dies (because of isolation)
- A cell that has more than 3 live neighbors dies (because of overcrowding)
- 3. A cell that is dead and has exactly 3 live neighbors comes to life
- 4. All other cells maintain their state

Although these rules seem simple, they give rise to complex and interesting patterns. For more information and a number of interesting patterns

see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conway's\_Game\_of\_Life.

In this lab, you will implement a Python program to run the Game of Life.

### Thinking about life...

As always, it is important to break the problem down into pieces and develop the program in stages so that others can understand the code and so that you can ensure that each piece is correct before building on top of it. We will break this problem down into the following steps:

- Creating a 2d array of cells
- Displaying the board (in various colors) and updating it with new data
- Allowing the user to change the state of the cells
- Implementing the update rules for the "Game of Life"
- (Optionally) Running and stopping the simulation

Before you start, you need to develop a scheme for keeping track of your data. Basically, the data you need to maintain are the states of all of the cells in the board. To do this, you should keep track of this data in a 2D array of integer values, where 0 represents an empty (off) cell and 1 represents a live (on) cell.

#### Files to start with...

Start by downloading the .zip file from the following file: life\_starter.zip

It will be easiest to place this zip file on the desktop and extract it there. There is some support code for graphically displaying your life generations (at the very bottom of the file), but that will be the final piece of

the lab. First, you'll implement the basic functionality for creating 2d arrays of data, changing them, and having them evolve according to the rules of Life...

### Step 1: Creating an empty 2d "board" of cells

First, in the life.py file, you will see this example function:

```
def createOneRow(width):
    """ returns one row of zeros of width "width"...
    You might use this in your createBoard(width, height) function """
    row = []
    for col in range(width):
        row += [0]
    return row
```

This function offers a starting-point for creating *one-dimensional* lists—but the same idea applies for building nested list structures arbitrarily deep.

### createBoard(width, height)

Building on this example, write a function named createBoard(width, height) that creates and returns a new 2D list of height rows and width columns in which all of the data elements are 0 (no graphics quite yet, just a Python list!).

#### Avoid re-implementing the createOneRow function!

Rather, use createOneRow inside your createBoard in the same way that 0 is used to accumulate individual elements in createOneRow. Here is a template -- copy and paste this and then fill in the parts you'll need to complete it:

```
def createBoard(width, height):
    """ returns a 2d array with "height" rows and "width" cols """
    A = []
    for row in range(height):
        A += SOMETHING  # What do you need to add a whole row here?
    return A
```

That's all you'll need! Again, the idea is to follow the example of createOneRow -- but instead of adding
a 0 each time, the function would add a whole row of 0s, namely the output from createOneRow!

Test out your createBoard function! For example,

```
>>> A = createBoard(5, 3)
>>> A
[[0, 0, 0, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0, 0, 0]]
```

### Printing your 2d board of cells

You no doubt noticed that when Python prints a 2d list, it blithely ignores its 2d structure and flattens it out into one line (perhaps wrapping, if needed). In order to print your board in 2d using ASCII (we will use graphics once it's working...), copy this function into your file:

```
def printBoard( A ):
    """ this function prints the 2d list-of-lists
    A without spaces (using sys.stdout.write)
    """
    for row in A:
        for col in row:
            sys.stdout.write( str(col) )
            sys.stdout.write( '\n' )
```

This printBoard function by passes Python's behavior of placing a space between items it prints by using different calls in the library: sys.stdout.write outputs a character to the screen. This is why it needs to convert the integers in the array A to strings before writing them.

Make sure your printBoard is working as follows:

```
>>> A = createBoard(5,3)
>>> printBoard(A)
```

00000

00000

00000

## Adding patterns to 2d arrays...

In order to get used to looping over 2d arrays of data, copy this function named diagonalize(A) into your file:

This function, diagonalize takes in a desired width and height. It then creates an array A and sets A's data so that it is an array whose cells are empty except for the diagonal where row == col.

Try displaying the result with

```
>>> A = diagonalize(7,6)
```

```
>>> A
[[1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0], [0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
[0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0],
[0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0]]
>>> printBoard(A)
1000000
0100000
0001000
0000100
```

Take a moment to note the direction the diagonal is running—that indicates which way the *rows* of the board are being displayed: top-to-bottom, in this case.

Also, this example shows that the height and width do not have to be the same -- though it's certainly ok if they are.

## More patterns...

### innerCells(w,h)

Based on the example of diagonalize, write a variation named innerCells(w,h) which returns a 2d array of **all** live cells - with the value of 1 - **except** for a one-cell-wide border of empty cells (with the value of 0) around the edge of the 2d array.

For example, you might try

```
>>> A = innerCells(5,5)
>>> printBoard(A)
00000
01110
```

**Hint:** Consider the usual pair of nested loops for this one -- except here, the ranges run from 1 to height-1 and from 1 to width-1 instead of the full extent of the board!

#### randomCells(w,h)

Next, create a function named randomCells(w,h) which returns an array of randomly-assigned 1's and 0's except that the outer edge of the array is still completely empty (all 0's) as in the case ofinnerCells.

Here is one of our runs -- note the safety margin  $\bigcirc$ !

```
>>> A = randomCells(10,10)
```

>>> printBoard(A)

You might recall that random.choice([0,1]) will return either a 0 or a 1. You will need to import random to use it!

## copy(A)

Each of updating functions so far creates a new set of cells without regard to an old "generation" that it might depend on. Conway's game of life, on the other hand, follows a set of cells by changing one generation into the next.

To see why copy(A) is a crucial helper function for this process, try the following commands:

```
>>> oldA = createBoard(2,2) # create a 2x2 empty board
>>> printBoard(oldA)
                           # show it
00
00
>>> newA = oldA
                            # create a false ("shallow") copy
>>> printBoard(newA)
                            # show it
00
00
>>> oldA[0][0] = 1
                           # set oldA's upper left corner to 1
>>> printBoard(oldA)
                           # the upper left will be 1
10
00
>>> printBoard(newA)
                           # but newA has changed, too!!
10
00
```

Here we have made a "copy" of oldA, where we have named the copy newA. However, newA is simply a copy to the *reference* to the original data in oldA! As a result, when oldA's data changes, so does newA's data, even though we never touched newA's data!

The above example shows **shallow** copying: the copying of a *reference* to data, rather than making a full copy of all of the data.

Making a full copy of all of the data is called *deep* copying.

For this part of the lab, write a function named <code>copy(A)</code>, which will make a *deep* copy of the 2d array A. Thus, <code>copy</code> will take in a 2d array A and it will output a new 2d array of data that has the same pattern as the input array.

To make sure you output new data, use createBoard to get a brand new array of the same size as the input array. Remember that you can get the number of rows (the height) in A with len(A) and the number of columns (the width) in A with len(A[0]).

To make sure that your output data has the same pattern of 0s and 1s as the input array, you will want to use a pair of nested loops that *sets* the output array values to be equal to the input array values. Again, the output array will not reference the same data in the computer's memory, but it will have a "deep copy" of that data.

Make sure your copy function is working properly with this example:

```
>>> oldA = createBoard(2,2)
>>> printBoard(oldA)

00

00

>>> newA = copy( oldA )

>>> printBoard(newA)

00

00

>>> oldA[0][0] = 1

>>> printBoard(oldA)

10
```

00

```
>>> printBoard(newA)
00
00
```

This time, newA has not changed just because oldA did!

## innerReverse( A )

Copying is a very simple -- and not overly interesting -- way that a new "generation" of array elements might depend on a previous generation of elements.

Next you'll write a function that *changes* one generation of cells into a new generation.

To that end, write a function <code>innerReverse( A )</code> that takes an old 2d array (or "generation") and then creates a new generation of the same shape and size (either with <code>copy</code>, above, or <code>createBoard</code>).

However, the new generation should be the "opposite" of A's cells everywhere except on the outer edge. In the same spirit as innerCells, you should make sure that the new generation's outer edge of cells are always all 0.

However, for inner cells - those not on the edge - where A[row][col] is a 1, the new array's value will be a 0 - and vice versa.

Try out your innerReverse function by displaying an example. This one uses randomCells:

```
>>> A = randomCells(8,8)
>>> printBoard(A)

00000000
01011010
00110010
001111110
00101010
011111010
```

0000000

Aside: You might point out that it would be possible to simply change the old input A, rather than create and return new data -- this is true for simply reversing the pattern of array elements, but it is *not* true when implementing the rules of Conway's Game of Life - there, changing cells without copying would change the number of neighbors of other cells!

## Conway's Game of Life

So, for this step, create a function named next\_life\_generation( A ). Here is a starting signature:

```
def next_life_generation( A ):
    """ makes a copy of A and then advanced one
        generation of Conway's game of life within
        the *inner cells* of that copy.
        The outer edge always stays 0.
```

This next\_life\_generation function should take in a 2d array A, representing the "old" generation of cells, and it should output the *next generation* of cells, each either 0 or 1, based on John Conway's rules for the *Game of Life*:

- 1. All edge cells stay zero (0) (but see the extra challenges, below)
- 2. A cell that has fewer than two live neighbors dies (because of loneliness)
- 3. A cell that has more than 3 live neighbors dies (because of over-crowding)
- 4. A cell that is dead and has exactly 3 live neighbors comes to life
- 5. All other cells maintain their state

For concreteness, let's call the new generation of cells you're returning newA in order to contrast it with A.

As suggested in innerReverse, always keep all of the outer-edge cells empty!. This is simply a matter of limiting your loops to an appropriate range. However, it greatly simplifies the four update rules, above, because it means that you will only update the interior cells, each of which has a full set of eight neighbors without going out of bounds.

It will help to write a helper function, <code>countNeighbors( row, col, A)</code>, that returns the number of live neighbors for a cell in the board A at a particular row and col.

Warnings/hints: There are a few things to keep in mind:

- Only count neighbors within the old generation A. Change only the new generation, newA.
- Be sure to set every value of newA (the new data), whether or not it differs from A.
- A cell is **NOT** a neighbor of itself.
- A 2x2 square of cells is statically stable (if isolated) you might try it on a small grid for testing purposes
- A 3x1 line of cells oscillates with period 2 (if isolated)—also a good pattern to test.

Here is a set of tests to try based on the last suggestion in the list above:

```
00100
00100
00000
>>> A2 = next_life_generation( A )
>>> printBoard(A2)
00000
00000
01110
00000
00000
>>> A3 = next_life_generation( A2 )
>>> printBoard(A3)
00000
00100
00100
00100
00000
```

Once your Game of Life is working, look for some of the other common patterns, e.g., other statically stable forms ("rocks"), as well as oscillators ("plants") and others that will move across the screen, known as gliders ("animals/birds").

# Graphical Life!

and so on....

Once your next\_life\_generation code is working, open and run the file lifegraphics.py.

This file is counting on these things:

- you have life.py in the same directory
- you have written next\_life\_generation correctly in that file (named life.py)

It handles four keypresses:

```
PAUSE: 'p'

RESUME: 'Return'/'Enter'

RESET: 'Space'

CLOSE: 'Esc'
```

and you can start the simulation (using a 20x20 environment) with start():

```
>>> start()
```

This call to start() should create a 20x20 2d array of cells, fill them randomly, and then continually call your next\_life\_generation function in order to update to the next generation.

To pause the simulation, click the window and hit the p key.

When paused, you should be able to change the state of cells by clicking in them...

To resume, hit the Enter key (with the focus in that window).

You should be able to close the window by the usual method of clicking the X in the corner -- or by hitting the Escape key (Esc) with the focus in the life window.

#### Colorful Life!

You can change the colors used to represent 0 and 1 using the provided setColor function. For example, from the prompt you get after loading the lifegraphics.py file:

```
>>> setColor( 0, "black" )
>>> setColor( 1, "gold" )
>>> start()
```

will provide a black and gold color scheme.