

# POP

## Principles of Programming

### Assignment statement

Creating a new variable and giving it a value. Variable names can only be created with A-Z, a-z, 0-9 and underscore \_. Variable names cannot start with 0-9 or \_ must only start with A-Z and a-z.

```
new_variable = 76
```

It is conventional to use lower case for variable names. You will get a syntax error if you start a variable name with a number

To input data into python, use **input ()**

Numbers are represented as **int** to convert to an integer use **int ()**

Text is presented as **str** to convert to a string use **str ()** or use single ' ' or double quotes " "

'5' + '5' = 55 not 5 as + is treated as **concatenation** with strings

'Spam' \* 3 can be used to perform string repetition, means 'Spam' + 'Spam' + 'Spam' which gives SpamSpamSpam

Strings are **immutable** objects meaning they can be altered or changed!

To print numbers and strings together must convert numbers to strings!

**Len()** function returns how many characters in a string.

**For** and **while** loop on string

```
>>> furit = 'bannana'
>>> index = 0
>>> while index < len(furit):
    letter = furit[index]
    print(letter)
    index += 1

b
a
n
n
a
n
a

>>> for letter in furit:
    print(letter)

b
a
n
n
a
n
a
```

**Slices** - string single character given from **S[i]** where i is a character of string also called an index, start counting from 0. If index is negative it counts backwards.

String S	h	e	l	l	o
----------	---	---	---	---	---

index	S[0]	S[1]	S[2]	S[3]	S[4]
Index	S[-5]	S[-4]	S[-3]	S[-2]	S[-1]

**Substring** – slice has two apartments **S[a:b]** give a substring of length  $b - a$ , starting with character a and ending until character b but not including it. Negative number can be used. If you omit the second parameter and leave colon, the slice goes to the end of the string. Likewise if you omit the first parameter the slice goes from the beginning of string. No parameters just colon, **S[:]** just gives S. String are immutable, they cannot be changed.

**Subsequence** – slice with three parameters **S[a:b:c]**, the third is a step. If positive it increments by c. If negative -1 goes in reverse order.

String methods – **find()** is a search method, **s.find('E')** searches for E in the string S. If found returns the index of the first occurrence if not found method returns -1.

While **rfind()** returns the index of last occurrence.

If you call **find()** with three arguments **s.find(substring, left, right)**, the search is performed inside the slice **s[left:right]**. If you specify only two arguments, like **s.find(substring, left)**, the search is performed in the slice **s[left:]**, that is, starting with the character at index left to the end of the string.

String methods – **replace()** is a replace method, **s.replace(old, new)** takes the string S and replaces all occurrences of substring old with the substring new. One can pass the third argument count, like this: **s.replace(old, new, count)**. It makes **replace()** to replace only first count occurrences and then stop.

These methods don't change **s**, they return a new string:

**s.isupper()** and **s.islower()** tests if letters in **s** are uppercase or lowercase, respectively

**s.upper()** and **s.lower()** converts all letters in **s** to uppercase or lowercase, respectively

**s.isalpha()** tests if all characters in **s** are alphabetic

**s.isdigit()** tests if all characters in **s** are digits

**s.isspace()** tests if all characters in **s** are *whitespace*

*whitespace* includes spaces, tabs, newlines, and a few other nonprinting characters

**s.lstrip()**, **s.rstrip()**, **s.strip()** removes whitespace from the left end, the right end, or both ends

**s.startswith(substring)**, **s.endswith(substring)** test whether **s** starts with, or ends with, substring.

**sep.join(sequence)** inserts the string **sep** between the elements of **sequence**, and returns a new string

## format method

```
print("%c is my %s letter and my number %d number is %.5f" % ('X', 'favorite', 1, .14))
```

The **format** method looks for braces, {}, in a string, and substitutes values for those braces

- **format** is mostly used to prepare a string for printing, and often occurs within a call to

## print

- We will cover only the simplest cases of this very complex method
- Simple substitution, in order:

## String Methods

<b>find</b>	<b>rfind</b>	<b>upper</b>	<b>isupper</b>	<b>format</b>	<b>isdigit</b>
<b>replace</b>	<b>sort</b>	<b>lower</b>	<b>islower</b>	<b>isspace</b>	<b>isalpha</b>

```
>>> print('a bar is a bar, essentially'.replace('bar', 'pub', 1))
a pub is a bar, essentially
```

String methods – **count()** is a count method, **s.count(substring)** counts the number of occurrences of one string substring within another string s

```
>>> print('Abracadabra'.count('a'))
4
```

Numbers can also be presented as real numbers or floating-point number **float** to convert to floating point use **float ()**

Other casts include:

**hex()** gives string representing the hexadecimal value --base 16, 0 to 9, A to F

**oct()** gives string representing the octal value --base 8, 0 to 7

**bin()** gives string representing the binary value --base 2, 0 to 1

**chr()** gives character represented the Unicode value

**ord()** gives interger value represented the Unicode character

Bitwise operators:

- **~** is bitwise not
- **&** is bitwise and
- **|** is bitwise or
- **^** is bitwise exclusive xor
- **x >> i** shifts the bits in x to the right i places
- **x << i** shifts the bits in x to the left i places

Python has the following seven mathematical operators:

- Addition  $5 + 7$  gives 12
- Subtraction  $5 - 3$  gives 2
- Multiplication  $5 * 3$  gives 15
- Division  $4 / 3$  gives 1.3333333333333333
- Floor Division  $5 // 3$  (always rounds down) gives 1
- Exponent  $3 ** 2$  ( $3^2$ ) gives 9
- Modulus  $5 \% 2$  (gives remainder) gives 1

This operation also has a order of operation given my **PEMDAS**

- Parentheses have the highest precedence, forces expression to do what's in the brackets first!
- Exponentiation has the next highest precedence,  $1 + 3**3 = 28$  not 64
- Multiplication and division have the higher precedence than addition and subtraction,  $6 + 6*2 = 18$  not 24
- Operators with the same precedence are evaluated from left to right (except exponentiation). Use parentheses to make it obvious if unsure.
- Parenthesis `()`, Brackets `[]`, braces `{}`

The function **round ()** is also available, if one argument is present rounds to nearest integer, if two arguments present rounds to the specifies number of digits

`Round(2.4566)` gives 2

`Round(2.4566, 2)` gives 2.46

Another inbuilt function is absolute value, **abs ()**

Ex `abs(-3)` gives 3

Ex `abs(3)` gives 3

### **math module**

Import module by writing the following instruction at start of script

**import math**

It allows you to import other functions to use in your programme

**floor(x)** gives the floor of x, the largest integer less than x

**ceil(x)** gives the ceiling of x, the smallest integer great than or equal to x

**sqrt(x)** gives the square root of x

**log(x)** with one argument, it gives log of x to the base e, with two argument it gives log of x to the given base.

**e** gives mathematical constant  $e = 2.71828$

`sin(x)` gives the sine of x in radians

`asin(x)` gives arcsine of x in radian

`pi` gives the mathematical constant

`j` is the imaginary number i, doesn't use i cause engineers use it for something else

## **import math**

Is the statistics model for mean, median and mode, stdev and variance

## **Conditionals**

**If** something is true:

Do something

**Elif** something else is true:

Do this

**Else:**

Do this if both above is false

```
def ex4(a, b, c):  
    if a == b == c:  
        print(3)  
    elif a != b and b != c and a != c:  
        print(0)  
    else:  
        print(2)
```

Both if, elif and else end with a colon, **:**

And the next line after colon is indented with 4 spaces or one tab

The following operators can be used in condition statements

**<** less than

**>** greater than

**<=** less or equal, remember no such thing as **=>**

**>=** greater or equal, remember no such thing as **=<**

**==** equal

**!=** not equal

Chained operations may be used

`A == B == C`

`X <= Y <= Z`

## **Hash**

The hash symbol `#` is used to comment out text within the code so it doesn't affect the programme.

## **Boolean expressions**

**True** and **False** are special types called bool, use type () to see

## Debugging

Python gives three kinds of errors, syntax errors, runtime errors and semantic errors.

- An error is a mistake in your code and it's your fault.
- An exception is a mistake that isn't in your code and isn't your fault but can't be ignored

**Syntax** error refers to the structure of the programme and the rules about that structure

**Runtime Error** does not appear until after the programme has run, these errors are called exceptions. **NameErrors**, misspelt or not consistent, local variables.

**TypeErrors** using non-integer index on list, string or tuple. **IndexError** when you go outside the index range of a string, list, tuple. **KeyError** accessing an element of a dictionary that key doesn't contain. **AttributeError** check spelling n vars for what exists, if nonetype is none problem not attribute but object. Index error is array right size and index right value

**Semantic Error** will allow your programme to run without generating any error messages, but it will not do the right thing

Use **PRINT** statement through code to see if certain parts are working. **Assert** checked by computer by Boolean expression and gives Assertion Errors if False. Catch exception using try: , except something :, except something else:, finally:

```
def get_int(prompt):  
    """Gets an integer from the user"""  
    try:  
        age = int(input(prompt))  
        return age  
    except ValueError:  
        print("That's not an integer!")  
        return get_int(prompt)  
  
>>> get_int("What is your age? ")  
What is your age? fh  
That's not an integer!  
What is your age? dffdf  
That's not an integer!  
What is your age? 99  
99
```

**Shorthand** code example are

A = A + B     same as A += B

A = A - B     same as A -= B

A = A \* B     same as A \*= B

**Loops** can use loops to repeat things using the **for** and **while** loops

```

for i in range(a,b):
    print(u)

names = [ "Tom", "Barry", "Ben"]
for name in names:
    print(name)

```

**Range** Function `range(min_value, max_value)` generates a sequence with numbers `min_value, min_value + 1, ..., max_value - 1`. NB the last number is not included so pay attention that maximum value in `range()` is `n + 1` to make `i` equal to `n` on the last step. When only one argument in `range` it is considered the max value and min value set to zero eg `range(max_value)`. Use indentation to control what instructions are affected by `for` and which aren't. To iterate over a decreasing sequence, we can use an extended form of `range()` with three arguments - `range(min_value, max_value, step)`. When omitted, the step is implicitly equal to 1, third argument cannot be zero.

```

for i in range (10, 0, -2):
    print(i**2)

names = [ "Tom", "Barry", "Ben"]
for name in names:
    print(name)

```

**while** loop is simple and based on Boolean true false logic. If true statements executed if false does nothing

```

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

```

**break** statement is used to exit loop early

```

for I in range (1, 6):
    if I == 4:
        break

```

**continue** statement is used to skip rest of loop and start from the top

```

for I in range (1, 6):
    if I == 4:
        continue

```

**yield** statement not covered

**break, continue** only makes sense within an **if** statement

**pass** statement is used as a placeholder where a statement is needed but not known yet

```
if illegal_alien(candidate):
    pass
else:
    hire(candidate)
```

**Print** function by default prints all its arguments separating them by a space and the puts a newline symbol after it. The separator can be change with **sep =** and the end line can be change by **end =**

**Functions** to create a function of your own use **def** this creates a function or a series of

statements to be executed but doesn't run it, one function might be the starting point this, by convention this function is called **main** and usually has no parameters and is called by running **main()**. Use triple quotes to define what the function does, the function as many arguments as parameters **function\_name ( argument1 , ..., argumentN )**. Scope of variable names in a function are by default **local variables**. Functions end in three ways with return being a value, None, end. A function is pure if the only info it gets is from its parameters and the only info it produces is the value in return.

A **global variable** is one whose scope is the entire program can complicate debugging and understanding of program. Make a variable global by declaring it outside of function or in function using **global**.

<pre>foo = 77  def bar():     foo = 33     print (foo)  bar() #prints 33</pre>	<pre>foo = 77  def main():     global foo     print (foo)  main() # prints 77</pre>
--	---

**Nonlocal** variables are used in nested functions to make it local in other functions but not the nested function

<pre>def average(x, y):     sum = 0     def add(x, y):         nonlocal sum         sum = x + y     add(x, y)     return sum / 2 # average(3,5) returns 4</pre>	<pre>def average2(x, y):     sum = 0     def add(x, y):         sum = x + y     add(x, y)     return sum / 2 # average(3,5) returns 0</pre>
---	---



Code that appears after a return statement, or any other place the flow of execution can never reach, is called **dead code**.

**Lambdas** are anonymous functions because they are used as a parameter to some other function, **lambda arg\_1, ..., arg\_N: expression**

```
>>> lst = ['Betsy', 'goes', 'to', 'the', 'University',
           'of', 'Pennsylvania']

>>> sorted(lst, key = lambda x: x.lower())

['Betsy', 'goes', 'of', 'Pennsylvania', 'the', 'to', 'University']
```

Lambda functions are used along with built-in functions like filter() and map().

**Map()** applies a function to all the items in an input list

```
def multiply(x):
    return (x * x)

def add(x):
    return (x + x)

func = [add, multiply]
for i in range(5):
    value = list(map(lambda x: x(i), func))
    print(value)
```

[0, 0]  
[2, 1]  
[4, 4]  
[6, 9]  
[8, 16]

**Filter** as the name suggests creates a list of elements for which the condition returns True

**Version Control git Commands** that are used in version control and git bash/git hub

**cd** ~ change directory uses double quotes not like CMD

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP (master)
$ cd "I:\POP\Worksheets\Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02"
```

**git clone** ~ Makes a copy of a depository and save in a local directory location sometimes asks for username and password

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP (master)
$ git clone https://github.com/BBK-DCSIS-PoP-I-2017-18/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02.git
Cloning into 'Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02'...
fatal: HttpRequestException encountered.
An error occurred while sending the request.
Username for 'https://github.com': mconwa02
remote: Counting objects: 19, done.
remote: Total 19 (delta 0), reused 0 (delta 0), pack-reused 19
Unpacking objects: 100% (19/19), done.
Checking connectivity: 19, done.
```

**git init** ~ initialise git for the project

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP/worksheets/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02 (master)
$ git init
Reinitialized existing Git repository in I:/POP/worksheets/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02/.git/
```

**git remote add origin** http://blahblah ~ no quotes git

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP (master)
$ git remote add origin https://github.com/BBK-DCSIS-PoP-I-2017-18/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02.git
```

**git pull origin master** ~ pulls down the dictory from github to start working on

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP (master)
$ git pull origin master
```

**git add .** ~ adds all file changes use commit straight after

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP/worksheets/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02 (master)
$ git add .
```

**git add filename** ~ adds changes of named file use commit straight after

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP/worksheets/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02 (master)
$ git add TestConeVolumeCalculator.py
```

**git commit -m "I added such and such"**

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP/worksheets/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02 (master)
$ git commit -m "update test code"
[master 7ed7852] update test code
1 file changed, 20 insertions(+)
```

**git status** ~ shows files that have had changes, red deleted/added, or tree clean

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP/worksheets/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02 (master)
$ git status
On branch master
Your branch is up-to-date with 'origin/master'.

nothing to commit, working tree clean
```

```
Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP (master)
$ git status
On branch master
Untracked files:
  (use "git add <file>..." to include in what will be committed)

    Assignments/
    worksheets/
    git bash .txt
    git cmd.txt
    worksheet-object-oriented-programming-mconwa02/

nothing added to commit but untracked files present (use "git add" to track)
```

**git log** ~ shows a list of adds and commits, use q to quit

```

Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP/Worksheets/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02 (master)
$ git log
commit 3d63a2979429f2839d72a9cbc1e6f1d27372c200 (HEAD -> master, origin/master, origin/HEAD)
Author: Michelle Conway <32267382+mconwa02@users.noreply.github.com>
Date: Sun Oct 22 16:56:31 2017 +0100

    Check and QC'd Volume of a cone

commit 74ef60e7c941d609c7f000b44a382049f8819ca3
Author: Keith Mannock <keith@dcsc.bbk.ac.uk>
Date: Wed Oct 11 13:58:43 2017 +0100

    Pytest added

commit c53493f07a19659bdb6e8992212733db5553f7b6
Author: Keith Mannock <keith@dcsc.bbk.ac.uk>
Date: Sun Sep 17 21:49:29 2017 +0100

```

**git push origin master** ~ push up all the changes and commits back to GitHub

```

Michelle Conway@LAPTOP-SUCEBC4G MINGW64 /i/POP/Worksheets/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02 (master)
$ git push origin master
fatal: HttpRequestException encountered.
An error occurred while sending the request.
Username for 'https://github.com': mconwa02
Counting objects: 3, done.
Delta compression using up to 4 threads.
Compressing objects: 100% (3/3), done.
Writing objects: 100% (3/3), 290 bytes | 1024 bytes/s, done.
Total 3 (delta 2), reused 0 (delta 0)
remote: Resolving deltas: 100% (2/2), completed with 2 local objects.
To https://github.com/BBK-DCSIS-PoP-I-2017-18/Volume-of-a-Cone-Calculator-mconwa02.git
3d63a29..7ed7852 master -> master

```

## import random

**Random** module is used to generate random numbers like **randint(1,6)** generates whole integer values from 1 to and including 6.

**random.random()** returns a float **N** in the range  $0 \leq N < 1.0$

**random.randint(a, b)** returns an integer value between **a** and **b**, inclusive

**random.shuffle(seq)** randomizes the sequence **seq** in place

**random.choice(seq)** returns a randomly chosen element of **seq**

```

>>> import random
>>> random.random()
0.814222452910484
>>> random.random()
0.2582303635035226
>>> a = [3, 5, 6, 7, 2, 5]
>>> random.shuffle(a)
>>> a
[5, 2, 7, 5, 6, 3]
>>> a
[5, 2, 7, 5, 6, 3]
>>> random.choice(a)
3

>>> from random import randint
>>> randint(1,6)
2
>>> randint(1,6)
5
>>> randint(1,6)
1
>>> randint(1,6)
6
>>> random.seed(3)
>>> random.random()
0.23796462709189137
>>> random.seed(3)
>>> random.random()
0.23796462709189137

```

`random.seed(i)` initializes the random number generator with the integer `i`, lets you use the same random sequence each time, like `set.seed` in R

From `collections` import `Counter`

Turns a sequence of values into a dictionary mapping keys to counts and gives most common values.

```

>>> from collections import Counter
>>> A = "word the is nothing betw tword if ther is happy and word"
>>> words = Counter(A)
>>> words
Counter({' ': 11, 't': 5, 'w': 4, 'o': 4, 'r': 4, 'd': 4, 'h': 4, 'i': 4, 'e': 3, 'n': 3, 's': 2, 'a': 2, 'p': 2, 'g': 1, 'b': 1, 'f': 1, 'y': 1})
>>> words.most_common(5)
[(' ', 11), ('t', 5), ('w', 4), ('o', 4), ('r', 4)]

```

You can also use `randrange(1, 10)` uses the same principal as `range` function doesn't include last value 10 so only prints integers 1 to 9.

```

>>> from random import randrange
>>> randrange(1, 10)
5
>>> randrange(1, 10)
6
>>> randrange(1, 10)
5
>>> randrange(1, 10)
2

```

**List** ~ sometimes called arrays

A list is a sequence of elements numbered from 0 just like characters in a string and are mutable. Like string also does negative index, which means you start at the last element and go left.

**Len()** to get the number of elements in a list. To create a new list, the simplest is to enclose the elements in square brackets. The elements of a list don't have to be the same type.

```
>>> Primes = [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13]
>>> Primes[-1]
13
>>> len(Primes)
6
```

Unlike strings the elements are interactable in a list. In operator works on Boolean logic

```
>>> a = [2,4,3,b,7]
>>> 7 in a
True
>>> 9 in a
False

>>> Rainbow = ['Red', 'Orange', 'Yellow', 'Green', 'Blue', 'Indigo', 'Violet']
>>> print(Rainbow[0])
Red
>>> Rainbow[0] = 'red'
>>> for i in range(len(Rainbow)):
    print(Rainbow[i])

red
Orange
Yellow
Green
Blue
Indigo
Violet
```

Several ways to create a list. Can create an empty list using **= []** or **list()** and add items to it using **append** method. **Extend** method takes a list as an argument and appends all the elements. Or create a dummy list and replace the elements.

```
>>> a = []
>>> a.append(55)
>>> print(a)
[55]

>>> a = ['d']*10
>>> a[0]= "T"
>>> a[1]='G'
>>> print(a)
['T', 'G', 'd', 'd', 'd', 'd', 'd', 'd', 'd', 'd']

>>> t1 = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> t2 = ['d', 'e']
>>> t1.extend(t2)
>>> t1
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e']
```

**Sort()** arranges the elements of the list from low to high

```
>>> t = ['d', 'c', 'e', 'b', 'a']
>>> t
['d', 'c', 'e', 'b', 'a']
>>> t.sort()
>>> t
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e']
```

Or if you don't want to mess up the list used sorted

```
>>> t = ['d','c', 'e', 'b','a']
>>> t
['d', 'c', 'e', 'b', 'a']
>>> x = sorted(t)
>>> x
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e']
>>> t
['d', 'c', 'e', 'b', 'a']
```

You can also define list using concatenation (addition) or repetition (multiplying)

```
>>> a = [1, 2, 3]
>>> b = [4, 5]
>>> c = a + b
>>> print(c)
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

>>> b = [4, 5]
>>> d = b*3
>>> print(d)
[4, 5, 4, 5, 4, 5]
>>> print([0,1]*3)
[0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1]
```

You can use a **for loop** and print to print elements of a list in one line or one item per line.

Here the index *i* is changed then the element *a[i]* is displayed. While *elem* is not an index but rather a value of the variable that take values

```
>>> a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> for i in range(len(a)):
    print(a[i])

1
2
3
4
5

>>> for i in range(len(a)):
    print(a[i], end = ' ')

1 2 3 4 5

>>> a = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> for i in range(len(a)):
    print(a[i], end = ' ')

12345
```

Here is a clever way to **find** all numbers in a string. You loop through each element see if it is any digit 0-9 with find function returns -1 if symbol isn't in number string so numbers get **append** to empty list

```

>>> s = 'ab12c59p7dq'
>>> digits = []
>>> for symbol in s:
>>>     if '1234567890'.find(symbol) != -1:
>>>         digits.append(int(symbol))

>>> print(digits)
[1, 2, 5, 9, 7]

```

**List slices** work in the same way as string slices, it uses the indexes

```

>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e']
>>> t[2:4]
['c', 'd']
>>> t[: ]
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e']
>>> t[2:]
['c', 'd', 'e']
>>> t[:4]
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']

```

**Split()** is a string method which returns a list of strings after cutting the initial string by spaces. Watch out for **input()** it puts everything in as strings so if you want a list of numbers you have to convert them using **int()**.

```

>>> a = input().split()
3 5 2 5 3 5 3
>>> print(a)
['3', '5', '2', '5', '3', '5', '3']
>>> for i in range(len(a)):
>>>     a[i] = int(a[i])

```

Or this can be shortened too....

```

>>> print('')
>>> a = [int(s) for s in input().split()]
3 5 2 5 3 5 3 3 4
>>> print(a)
[3, 5, 2, 5, 3, 5, 3, 3, 4]

```

**Split** can also use an optional parameter to separate items in a string like **split('.')**

```

>>> a = '192.168.0.1'.split('.')
>>> print(a)
['192', '168', '0', '1']

```

**Join** method displays a list of strings in one-line commands....

```

>>> a = ['red', 'green', 'blue']
>>> print(' '.join(a))
red green blue
>>> print(''.join(a))
redgreenblue
>>> print('***'.join(a))
red***green***blue

```

In joins if the list is numbers you have to convert to strings!

```
>>> a = [1, 2, 3]
>>> print(' '.join([str(s) for s in a]))
1 2 3
```

Substrings and sequences can be done on lists the same as strings. With negative three arguments giving opposite order.

Deleting elements, you can remove by the index with **pop** if you don't provide an index last element is deleted or delete an element using **del**.

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c'] >>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c'] >>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> t.pop(1) >>> t.pop() >>> del t[2]
'b' 'c' >>> t
['a', 'b']
```

You can also use **remove** if you know the element or index you want to remove.

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c'] >>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> t.remove(t[2]) >>> t.remove('a')
>>> t >>> t
['a', 'b'] ['b', 'c']
```

To remove more than one element, you can use `del` with a slice index:

To convert from a string to a list of characters, you can use list

```
>>> t = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f'] >>> s = 'spam'
>>> del t[1:5] >>> t = list(s)
>>> t >>> t
['a', 'f'] ['s', 'p', 'a', 'm']
```

Lists unlike strings are **mutable** objects you can assign a list item to a new value. it is often useful to make a copy before performing operations that modify lists.

```
>>> t = [3,1,2]
>>> t2 = t[:]
>>> t2.sort()
>>> t
[3, 1, 2]
>>> t2
[1, 2, 3]
```

Please note that  $A[i]$  is not a slice but an item.

```
>>> A = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]
>>> A[2:4] = [7, 8, 9]
>>> print(A)
[1, 2, 7, 8, 9, 5, 6, 7]
>>> A[::2] = [10, 20, 30, 40]
>>> print(A)
[1, 40, 7, 30, 9, 20, 6, 10]
```



## List Methods

sort	isupper	join	pop	remove	lower
append	islower	split	del	count	upper

## List operations

<b>A is b</b>	Check if two lists are equal, return true or false
<b>x in A</b>	Check if item in A, return true or false
<b>x not in A</b>	Check item not in A, return true or false
<b>min(a)</b>	Smallest element in list A
<b>max(a)</b>	Largest element in list A
<b>A.index(x)</b>	Index of first occurrence in list, none give exception ValueError
<b>A.count(x)</b>	The number of occurrences of element x in the list

A **set** is an immutable, unordered collection of values, containing no duplicates. A set can be set by naming all elements in brackets {} or as a string in set() or an empty set can be obtained by set() cannot use {} because that's a dictionary! Elements of a set can be a number, string, tuple so mutable (changeable) data types cannot be elements of sets. So, lists can't be an element of a set!

For loop can be used in sets and len()

```
>>> set_A = {3,5,2,3}
>>> for elem in set_A:
    print(elem)

2
3
5
>>> len(set_A)
3

>>> set_B = set('eyegyebdhey')
>>> for elem in set_B:
    print(elem, end = ' ')

h g b y d e
>>> len(set_B)
6
```

To check if an element is in a set use **in** and to add elements to a set use **add**

```
>>> A = {1, 2, 3}
>>> print(1 in A, 4 not in A)
True True
>>> A.add(4)
>>> A
{1, 2, 3, 4}
```

There are two methods to remove elements from a set use discard and remove, both delete but if element not there remove throw an error discard doesn't. Pop removes the element at the top. Sets can be transformed to lists using list.

```

>>> B = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}
>>> B.remove(5)
>>> B.discard(6)
>>> B.remove(6)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#30>", line 1, in <module>
    B.remove(6)
KeyError: 6
>>> B.pop()
1
>>> B
{2, 3, 4}

```

Can add elements to a set using add.

```

>>> B = {2,4,5,2,5,6,3,5,3,4,}
>>> B
{2, 3, 4, 5, 6}
>>> type(B)
<class 'set'>
>>> B.add(9)
>>> B
{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9}

```

<b>A   B A.union(B)</b>	Returns a set which is the union of sets A and B.
<b>A  = B A.update(B)</b>	Adds all elements of array B to the set A.
<b>A &amp; B A.intersection(B)</b>	Returns a set which is the intersection of sets A and B.
<b>A &amp;= B A.intersection_update(B)</b>	Leaves in the set A only items that belong to the set B.
<b>A - B A.difference(B)</b>	Returns the set difference of A and B (the elements included in A, but not included in B).
<b>A -= B A.difference_update(B)</b>	Removes all elements of B from the set A.
<b>A ^ B A.symmetric_difference(B)</b>	Returns the symmetric difference of sets A and B (the elements belonging to either A or B, but not to both sets simultaneously).
<b>A ^= B A.symmetric_difference_update(B)</b>	Writes in A the symmetric difference of sets A and B.
<b>A &lt;= B A.issubset(B)</b>	Returns true if A is a subset of B.
<b>A &gt;= B A.issuperset(B)</b>	Returns true if B is a subset of A.
<b>A &lt; B</b>	Equivalent to A <= B and A != B
<b>A &gt; B</b>	Equivalent to A >= B and A != B

A **dictionary** associates immutable **keys** with values, you can index into a dictionary like you would a list, but the “indices” are keys, not necessarily integers! Lists are not allowed be used a keys because they are mutable and keys need to be immutable for the hashing mapping to work.

Dictionaries have a method called **items** that returns a sequence of tuples, where each tuple is a key-value pair in no order. Likes use **keys()** for keys and **values()** for values

```
>>> d = {'a':0, 'b':1, 'c':2}
>>> t = d.items()
>>> t
dict_items([('a', 0), ('b', 1), ('c', 2)])
>>> for key, value in d.items():
    print(key, value)
```

```
>>> d = {'a':1, 'b':2, 'c':3}
>>> for key in d.keys():
    print(key)
```

```
>>> for val in d.values():
    print(val)
```

```
a 0
b 1
c 2
```

```
a
b
c
```

```
1
2
3
```

Using **zip** in **dict** gives an easy way to create a dictionary. An empty dictionary can be created with **dict()** Or use squiggly brackets **{}**

```
>>> d = dict(zip('abc', range(3)))
>>> d
{'a': 0, 'b': 1, 'c': 2}
```

The order of the items in a dictionary are unpredictable as numerical indices is not used. The **in** operator used to check if value in dictionary. Python uses hash table to search in a dictionary, so the time is always the same for a search unlike lists.

Dictionary can be used as counters

```
def histogram(s):
    d = dict()
    for c in s:
        if c not in d:
            d[c] = 1
        else:
            d[c] += 1
    return d
```

```
>>> histogram('shucnriivngcnf')
{'s': 1, 'h': 1, 'u': 1, 'c': 2, 'n': 3, 'r': 1, 'i': 1, 'v': 1, 'g': 1, 'f': 1}
```

To return key values in a dictionary like a list you use **[]** and index or dictionary you use **get**. We can provide a default value when key not in dictionary

```

>>> h = histogram('parrot')
>>> h.get('p', 3)
1
>>> h.get('p', 1)
1
>>> h.get('x', 3)
3
>>> h
{'p': 1, 'a': 1, 'r': 2, 'o': 1, 't': 1}

```

```

def histogram2(s):
    """using get to make this faster"""
    d = dict()
    for c in s:
        d[c] = d.get(c, 0) + 1
    return d

```

To sort a dictionary use sorted

```

>>> h = histogram('parrot')
>>> for key in sorted(h):
    print(key, h[key])

```

```

a 1
o 1
p 1
r 2
t 1

```

Reverse sort using reserve = TRUE

```

>>> words = Counter(A)
>>> words
Counter({' ': 11, 't': 5, 'w': 4, 'o': 4, 'r': 4, 'd': 4, 'h': 4, 'i': 4, 'e': 3, 'n': 3, 's': 2, 'a': 2, 'p': 2, 'g': 1, 'b': 1, 'f': 1, 'y': 1})
>>> sorted(words, reverse = True)
['y', 'w', 't', 's', 'r', 'p', 'o', 'n', 'i', 'h', 'g', 'f', 'e', 'd', 'b', 'a', ' ']

```

Or use lambda to sort by values not keys

Reverse look ups are harder in dictionary could be multiple values as its only the keys that are distinct.

```

>>> sorted(words.items(), key = lambda x:1, reverse = True)
[('w', 4), ('o', 4), ('r', 4), ('d', 4), (' ', 11), ('t', 5), ('h', 4), ('e', 3), ('i', 4), ('s', 2), ('n', 3), ('g', 1), ('b', 1), ('f', 1), ('a', 2), ('p', 2), ('y', 1)]
>>> h = histogram('parrot')
>>> reverse(h, 3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#12>", line 1, in <module>
    reverse(h, 3)
  File "C:\Users\Michelle Conway\Documents\MSC Y1 Principles of Programming\Snakiy Lesson 11.py", line 14, in reverse
    raise Lookuperror('value not in dictioanry')
NameError: name 'Lookuperror' is not defined
>>> reverse(h, 2)
'r'

```

**Hash** function is one that take any kind of value and returns an integer. It works when everything is immutable. This make Fibonacci numbers faster than recursion

```
def fibonacci(n):
    if n in known:
        return known[n]

    res = fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2)
    known[n] = res
    return res
```

```
>>> fibonacci(3)
2
>>> fibonacci(7)
13
```

To remove a key from a dictionary use **del dict[key]** or another way to remove is **dict.pop(key)** you can add second parameter to give when key not in dictionary

A **tuple** is immutable and an easy a way to collect a **small** number of related values into a single value, for convenience in handling. You can index into a tuple but can't change the values. Value can be any type, values in parenthesis is not a tuple. Use comma-separated list of values if just one value end with comma. Can also create a tuple with **tuple()**

```
>>> t = 'a', 4, 'b'
>>> type(t)
<class 'tuple'>
```

```
>>> t2 = 'm',
>>> type(t2)
<class 'tuple'>
```

```
>>> t3 = tuple()
>>> type(t3)
<class 'tuple'>
```

If the arguemnts in tuple is string, list or tuple the result is a tuple with the elements of the sequeece. Indexes and slices work on tuples.

```
>>> t4 = tuple('sillypops')
>>> t4
('s', 'i', 'l', 'l', 'y', 'p', 'o', 'p', 's')
>>> type(t4)
<class 'tuple'>
```

```
>>> t4[0]
's'
>>> t4[5:8]
('p', 'o', 'p')
```

**Divmod** takes two arguments and returns a tuple of two values, floor divider (aka quotient) and remainder

```
>>> divmod(5, 2)
(2, 1)
```

```
>>> 5 // 2
2
>>> 5 % 2
1
```

```
>>> quot, rem = divmod(7, 3)
>>> quot
2
>>> rem
1
```

Functions can take a variable number of arguments, parameters starting with **\*** gather arguments into a tuple! Built in functions like **max** and **min** can take any number of arguments, but sum can't, a function called **sumall** to take any number of arguments and return their sum.

```

>>> max(4,3,5,6,4,6,4,77)
77
>>> min(3,2,3,4,3,0)
0
>>> sum(4,5,6,7)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#43>", line 1, in <module>
    sum(4,5,6,7)
TypeError: sum expected at most 2 arguments, got 4

```

```

def sumall(*t):
    tots = tuple(t)
    return sum(tots)
>>> sumall(4,3)
7
>>> sumall(3,4,5,6)
18

```

**Zip** is a built-in function that takes two or more arguments and returns a list of tuples where each tuple contains an element from each sequence. If sequences aren't same length the shortest length is taken.

```

>>> s = 'abcd'
>>> t = [0,1,2,3]
>>> r = 'x3y5'
>>> for pairs in zip(r,s,t):
    print(pairs)

('x', 'a', 0)
('3', 'b', 1)
('y', 'c', 2)
('5', 'd', 3)

```

Zip is more of an iterator unlike lists can't use index to select an element, so make zip a list!

```

>>> list(zip(r,s,t))
[('x', 'a', 0), ('3', 'b', 1), ('y', 'c', 2), ('5', 'd', 3)]

```

**For Loop** to traverse a list of tuples

```

>>> m = list(zip(r,s,t))
>>> m
[('x', 'a', 0), ('3', 'b', 1), ('y', 'c', 2), ('5', 'd', 3)]
>>> for a,b,c in m:
    print(a,b,c)

```

```

x a 0
3 b 1
y c 2
5 d 3

```

## Unit Testing

When it fails it tells you what piece of code needs to be fixed. It tests each individual piece of code.

## Integration testing

When it fails it tells you that the application is not doing what the customer expects it to do. It puts several units together that interact and tests to make sure that integrating these units together doesn't introduce any errors.

## Regression test

When it fails, it tells you that the application no longer behaves the way it used to. After integration testing you should run unit tests again this is regression testing so insure any further changes have not broken the unit tests.

## Acceptance test

When business function conduct acceptance tests to ensure functionality meets their requirements

**Import** statements are needed for the file you are testing, keep program and test file separate eg import **myprog.py**

If import just the programme eg **myprog.py** must reference the program when calling any of its functions. Eg **myprog.myfun(args)**

Or called everthing in the import, **from myprog import \***

## Structure

Looks like the below, always begin each test with test\_ and parameter self. Inside test normal python but no input or output. Make code free of I/O

```
import unittest
from myprog import *

class nameOfClass(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_method1:
        blah
        blah

    def test_method2:
        blah
        blah

unittest.main()
```

Using self to test

```
self.assertTrue()
self.assertFalse()
self.assertEqual()
```

Exampe of using self looks like

```
def test_exmaple(self):
    n = 0
    for i in range(10):
        n = n + 1
    self.assertEqual(10, n)
```

Remember floating point numbers not accurate so don't use assert use Almost

Assert

```
def test_exmample(self):
    n = 0
    for i in range(10):
        n = n + 0.1
    self.assertAlmostEqual(1.0, n)
```

### More test methods

assertEqual(a, b)	assertEqual(a, b, message)
assertNotEqual(a, b)	assertNotEqual(a, b, message)
assertFalse(x)	assertFalse(x, message)
assertIsNotNone(x)	assertIsNotNone(x, message)
assertIsInstance(a, b)	assertIsInstance(a, b, message)

**White hat** hacker try to find security flaws in order to get company to fix them, these are the good guys.

**Black hat** hackers try to find the security flaws in order to exploit them, these are the bag guys.

**Garden path** testing solving simple and most common cases but should also look for edge cases, the extreme and unexpected

### TDD Test Driven Development

- Write simple test for code you plan to write
- Write code
- Run test, debug until it works
- Clean up (refactor) the code, make sure it still works
- If code doesn't do everything you want to do, write test for next feature and go to step 2.

### Pytest

- Write simple test for code you plan to write

Write

### TDD benefits

- Tests first make functions small and single purpose
- Avoids long and painful debugging sessions
- Promotes steady step-by-step approach

**Refactoring** means changing code to make it faster without changing what it does.

- Common ways, change variable name or function to better meaning



- Simplify arithmetic expressions by giving names to parts and using name in expression

## Special code

- Programs typical have a method named main which is the starting point for everything in the program.
- Started automatically when loaded but putting on the last line `main()`
- The following is `magic code` placed at the end of the program, will call `main` method to start the program if and only if you run the code from the file

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

- Doesn't work if you run test from separate file, the above code does not call the main method to start the program running.

## Two -Dimensional Lists ~ sometimes called matrix or 2D arrays

In Python presented as a list of lists, you iterate through the array by row number then by elements in row.

```
A = [[2, 2, 5], [3, 6], [7, 9, 2, 3]]
for row in A:
    for elem in row:
        print(elem, end = ' ')
    print()
```

2 2 5 3 6 7 9 2 3

Or to output in a single line:

```
for row in A:
    print(' '.join([str(elem) for elem in row]))
```

2 2 5  
3 6  
7 9 2 3

Creating nested lists need to be careful, creating an array of n rows and m columns using

```
A = [[0]*m]*n
```

Will just reference a list of m zeros and not a list. To avoid this use

<pre>m = 7 n = 3 A = [0]*n for i in range(n):     A[i]=[0]*m</pre>	<pre>n = 3 m = 4 A = [] for i in range(n):     a.append([0]*m)</pre>	<pre>n = 3 m = 4 A = [[0]*m for i in range(n)]</pre>
--	--	--

Using 2D lists to multiple matrix, notice the print out statement used join twice once with space and new line

```
def two_matrix(m, n, r):
    A = [[ 2 for i in range(n)] for i in range(m)]
    B = [[ 3 for i in range(r)] for i in range(n)]
    C = [[ 0 for i in range(r)] for i in range(m)]
    for i in range(m):
        for j in range(r):
            for k in range(n):
                C[i][j] += A[i][k]*B[k][j]
    print('\n'.join([' '.join([str(s) for s in row]) for row in C ]))
```

## Recursion

When a function calls itself is recursive and the process of existing it is called recursion. Stacking happens during recursion, the bottom of the stack is called base case. If a recursion never reaches a base case , it goes on making recursive calls forever and programme never terminates. This is called infinite recursion.

Recursion examples:

- Reverse a sequence
- Count down function
- Factorial function
- Fibonacci series
- Exponent function

### Reverse a sequence

```
def reverse():
    x = int(input())
    if x != 0:
        reverse()
    print(x)
```

### Count down function

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

```
>>> reverse()
```

```
4
5
3
4
6
30
0
0
30
6
4
3
5
4
```

```
>>>
```

```
>>> print_n(4, 2)
4
4
>>> print_n(16, 4)
16
16
16
16
```

## Factorial function

```
def factorial(n):  
    if n == 1:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return n*factorial(n-1)  
  
>>> factorial(3)  
6  
>>> factorial(5)  
120  
>>> factorial(7)  
5040
```

## Fibonacci series

```
def fib(n):  
    if n == 1:  
        return 1  
    elif n == 2:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)  
  
>>> fib(3)      >>> fib(2)  
2              1  
>>> fib(5)      >>> fib(7)  
5              13  
>>> fib(1)      >>> fib(1)  
1
```

## Exponent function

```
def exponent(a, n):  
    if n == 0:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return a * exponent(a, n - 1)  
  
>>> exponent(5, 3) >>> exponent(2, 2)  
125                4  
>>> exponent(4, 3) >>> exponent(2, 3)  
64                 8  
>>>
```

## Iterables

An iterator is something that return a value one at a time. Sets, tuples, dictionaries, ranges and files can be iterated, for uses iterators. Range works in for but not where a list is required.

## Yeild

Yield is like return but you can come back to the function and continue where you yielded and the state of local variables is retained

## Object Oriented Programming OOP

### Classes and Objects

#### Class

Every object has attributes which are object variables

Every object has abilities which are object functions

Constructor called to set up or initialise an object inside a class

self allows an object to refer to itself inside of the class

```
class Animal:
    # None signifies the lack of a value
    # You can make a variable private by starting it with __
    __name = None
    __height = None
    __weight = None
    __sound = None

    def __init__(self, name, height, weight, sound):
        self.__name = name
        self.__height = height
        self.__weight = weight
        self.__sound = sound

# How to create a Animal object
cat = Animal('Whiskers', 33, 10, 'Meow')
```

# You can't access this value directly because it is private  
# print(cat.\_\_name)

Self means allows an object to refer itself inside the class

Encapsulation setting private names

Functions and attributes inside a class

**Inheritance** you inherit from another class you get all variables and functions/methods from that class

Can overwrite constructor

Can use super to let original class variable be kept in constructor

```
class Dog(Animal):
    __owner = None

    def __init__(self, name, height, weight, sound, owner):
        self.__owner = owner
        self.__animal_type = None

    # How to call the super class constructor
    super(Dog, self).__init__(name, height, weight, sound)
```

**Method overloading**, performing different tasks based on attributes

**Polymorphism** allows use to refer to objects as their super class and correct functions are called automatically

## Files

# Overwrite or create a file for writing

```
test_file = open("test.txt", "wb")
```

# Get the file mode used

```
print(test_file.mode)
```

# Get the files name

```
print(test_file.name)
```

# Write text to a file with a newline

```
test_file.write(bytes("Write me to the file\n", 'UTF-8'))
```

# Close the file

```
test_file.close()
```

```
# Opens a file for reading and writing
```

```
test_file = open("test.txt", "r+")
```

```
# Read text from the file
```

```
text_in_file = test_file.read()
```

```
print(text_in_file)
```

```
# Delete the file
```

```
os.remove("test.txt")
```

# Opens a file for reading and writing

```
test_file = open("test.txt", "r+")
```

# Read text from the file

```
text_in_file = test_file.read()
```

```
print(text_in_file)
```

# Delete the file

```
os.remove("test.txt")
```

```

# Overwrite or create a file for writing
test_file = open("test.txt", "wb")

# Get the file mode used
print(test_file.mode)

# Get the files name
print(test_file.name)

# Write text to a file with a newline
test_file.write(bytes("Write me to the file\n", 'UTF-8'))

# Close the file
test_file.close()

```

- **Recursion** is a tool a programmer can use to invoke a function call on itself.
- **Side effect** is when a procedure/function changes a variable from outside its scope. Like global variable not in a function
- **dynamic programming** (also known as **dynamic** optimization) is a method for solving a complex problem by breaking it down into a collection of simpler subproblems, solving each of those subproblems just once, and storing their solutions.
- **Magic numbers** are any number in code that isn't immediately obvious to someone with very little knowledge that it is a number. Gravity = 8.7 or len(matrix) equals 5
- **Encapsulation** is one of the fundamental concepts in object-oriented programming (OOP). It describes the idea of bundling data and methods that work on that data within one unit, e.g., a class
- **refactoring** is the process of restructuring existing code without changing its external behaviour.

- 

### **Style Guide for Python Code**

- As code is read much more often than it is written.
- The purpose of style guide intended to improve the readability of code and its intention is to keep it consistent across the wide spectrum of Python code
- REPL Read Eval Print Loop
- TDD Test Driven Development
- Python 2 uses ASCII Python 3 uses Unicode
- Unit testing, the unit is the individual unit of source code in the program that is being tested

### **don't repeat yourself (DRY)**

- It is not a good idea to "copy and paste" code, or otherwise duplicate code is considered undesirable. If the code has a vulnerability this will continue to

exist in the copied code. Example if you just use one function and reference it multiple time and the function is incorrect you only have to do one fix and edit the function and not a serval fixes in multiple places

- It is not a good idea to have the same information represented in one way as it is important to keep it consistent to avoid redundancy. List versus sets

OBB principles

- Inheritance
- Encapsulation

Pair programming is an agile software development technique in which two programmers work together at one workstation. One, the *driver*, writes code while the observer or *navigator*, reviews each line of code as it is typed in. The two programmers switch roles frequently.