

## ▼ Week 1

## ▼ PYTHON RECAP

### ▼ 1. Computing GCD

- `gcd(m,n) <= min(m,n)`
- Compute the list of common factors from 1 to `min(m,n)`
- Return the last such common factor

```
def gcd(m,n):  
    cf = [] # List of common factors  
    for i in range(1, min(m,n) + 1):  
        if (m%i) == 0 and (n%i) == 0:  
            cf.append(i)  
    return cf[-1]
```

#### Points to note:

- Need to initialize `cf` for `cf.append()` to work
  - Variables derive their type from the value they hold.
- Control flow
  - Conditional (`if`)
  - Loops (`for`)
- `range(i,j)` runs from `i` to `j-1`
- List indices run from 0 to `len(l) - 1` and backwards from `-1` to `-len(l)`

#### Modifications:

- Eliminate the list
  - Only the last value of `cf` is important.
- Keep track of most recent common factor (`mrcf`)
  - 1 is always a common factor
    - No need to initialize `mrcf`

```
def gcd(m,n):  
    for i in range(1, min(m,n) + 1):  
        if (m%i) == 0 and (n%i) == 0:
```

```
mrcf = i
```

### Efficiency:

- Both versions of `gcd` take time proportional to `min(m,n)`

## ▼ 2. Check primality

- A prime number  $n$  has exactly two factors, 1 and  $n$ .
  - 1 is not a prime number.
- Compute the list of factors of  $n$ .

```
def factors(n):  
    fl = [] # factor list  
    for i in range(1, n+1):  
        if (n%i) == 0:  
            fl.append(i)  
    return fl
```

- $n$  is a prime if the list of factors is precisely `[1,n]`

```
def prime(n):  
    return factors(n) == [1,n]
```

### Another method to check primality:

- Directly check if  $n$  has a factor between 2 and  $n - 1$ .
- Terminate check after we find first factor.
  - Breaking out of a loop.

```
def prime(n):  
    result = True  
    for i in range(2,n):  
        if (n%i) == 0:  
            result = False  
            break # Abort loop  
    return result
```

### Alternate Method 1:

- Use `while` loop
- Avoid using `break` to avoid confusion.

```
def prime(n):  
    (result,i) = (True,2)
```

```
while (result and (i < n)):
    if (n%i) == 0:
        result = False
    i = i + 1
return result
```

### Alternate Method 2: Speeding things up slightly

- Factors occur in pairs
- Sufficient to check factors upto  $\sqrt{n}$
- If  $n$  is prime, scan 2, ...,  $\sqrt{n}$  instead of 2, ...,  $n - 1$

```
import math
def prime(n):
    (result,i) = (True, 2)
    while (result and (i < math.sqrt(n))):
        if (n%i) == 0:
            result = False
        i = i + 1
    return result
```

## ► 3. Counting primes

[ ] ↳ 15 cells hidden

## ▼ EXCEPTION HANDLING

When things go wrong, our code could generate many types of errors:

- `y = x/z`, but `z` has value 0.
- `y = int(s)`, but string `s` does not represent a valid integer.
- `y = 5 * x`, but `x` does not have a value.
- `y = l[i]`, but `i` is not a valid index for list `l`.
- Try to read from a file, but the file doesn't exist.
- Try to write to file, but disk is full.

Recover gracefully

- Try to anticipate errors.
- Provide a contingency plan.
- **Exception handling**

**Types of Errors:**

- Python flags the type of each error.

- Most common error is a syntax error:
  - `SyntaxError: invalid syntax`
  - Not much we can do.
- Errors when code is running:
  1. Name used before value is defined
    - `NameError: name 'x' is not defined`
  2. Division by zero in arithmetic expression
    - `ZeroDivisionError: division by zero`
  3. Invalid list index
    - `IndexError: list assignment index out of range`

### Terminology:

- Raise an exception
  - Run time error -> signal error type, with diagnostic information.
- Handle an exception
  - Anticipate and take corrective action based on error type.
- Unhandled exception aborts execution.

### Handling exceptions:

```
try:
... <- Code where error may occur
...
except IndexError:
... <- Handle IndexError
...
except (NameError, KeyError):
... <- Handle multiple exception types
except:
... <- Handle all other exceptions
else:
... <- Execute if try runs without errors
```

### Using exceptions positively:

Traditional approach:

- Collect scores in dictionary
 

```
scores = {"Shefali": [3,22], "Harmanpreet": [200,3]}
```
- Update the dictionary

- Batter  $b$  already exists, append to list

```
scores[b].append(s)
```

- New batter, create a fresh entry


```
scores[b] = [s]
```

Using exceptions:

```
try:
    scores[b].append(s)
except KeyError:
    scores[b] = [s]
```

## Flow of Control:

Flow of control



```
...
x = f(y,z)
```

**IndexError**  
inherited from `f()`  
Not handled?  
Abort!

```
def f(a,b):
    ...
    g(a)
```


**IndexError**  
inherited from `g()`  
Not handled?

```
def g(m):
    ...
    h(m)
```

**IndexError**  
inherited from `h()`  
Not handled?

```
def h(s):
    ...
    h(s)
```

**IndexError** not  
handled in `h()`



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Exception handling

## ▼ CLASSES AND OBJECTS

### Abstract datatype

- Stores some information.
- Designated functions to manipulate the information.
- For instance: `stack` : last-in, first-out, `push()`, `pull()`
- Separate the (private) implementation from the (public) specification

### Class:

- Template for a datatype
- How data is stored

- How public functions manipulate data

### Object:

- Concrete instance of template

## ▼ Example: 2D points

A point has coordinates  $(x, y)$

- `__init__()` initializes internal values  $x, y$
- First parameter is always `self`
- Here, by default a point is at  $(0, 0)$

```
class Point:
    def __init__(self, a=0, b=0):
        self.x = a
        self.y = b
```

Translation: Shift a point by  $(\Delta x, \Delta y)$

- $(x, y) \rightarrow (x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y)$

```
def translate(self, deltax, deltay): # part of the class defn.
    self.x += deltax
    self.y += deltay
```

Distance from origin:

- $d = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

```
def odistance(self):
    import math
    d = math.sqrt(self.x * self.x + self.y * self.y)
    return d
```

```
p = Point(3,4)
q = point(7,10)
# print(p + q) will be an error
p.odistance(), q.odistance()
```

### Polar coordinates:

$(r, \theta)$  instead of  $(x, y)$

- $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$
- $\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$

```
import math
class Point:
    def __init__(self, a=0, b=0):
        self.r = math.sqrt(a*a + b*b)
        if a == 0: # theta = pi/2
            self.theta = math.pi/2
        else:
            self.theta = math.atan(b/a)
```

```
def odistance(self): # Distance from origin is just r
    return self.r
```

Translation with polar coordinates:

- Convert  $(r, \theta)$  to  $(x, y)$
- $x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta$
- Recompute  $r, \theta$  from  $(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y)$

```
def translate(self, deltax, deltay):
    x = self.r * math.cos(self.theta)
    y = self.r * math.sin(self.theta)
    x += deltax
    y += deltay
    self.r = math.sqrt(x*x + y*y)
    if x == 0:
        self.theta = math.pi/2
    else:
        self.theta = math.atan(y/x)
```

```
p = Point(3,4)
q = Point(7,10)
p.odistance(), q.odistance()
p.r, p.theta
```

**Interface has not changed!**

- User need not be aware whether representation is  $(x, y)$  or  $(r, \theta)$

**Special functions:**

- `__init__()` - constructor
- `__str__()` - convert object to string
  - `str(o) == o.__str__()`
  - Implicitly invoked by `print()`

```
def __str__(self):
    return '('+str(self.x)+' , '+str(self.y)+')
```

- `__add__()`
  - Implicitly invoked by `+`

```
def __add__(self.p):  
    return Point(self.x + p.x, self.y + p.y)
```

Similarly,

- `__mult__()` invoked by `*`
- `__lt__()` invoked by `<`
- `__ge__()` invoked by `>=`
- ...

## ▼ TIMING OUR CODE:

- How long our code takes to execute depends on the language we use.
- `time` library with various functions.
- `perf.time()` is a performance counter
  - Absolute value of `perf.time()` is not meaningful
  - Compare two consecutive readings to get an interval
  - Default unit is seconds

```
import time  
start = time.perf_counter()  
  
# Execute some code  
  
end = time.perf_counter()  
elapsed = end - start
```

A timer object:

- Create a timer class
- Two internal values
  - `_start_time`
  - `_elapsed_time`
- `start` starts the timer
- `stop` records the elapsed time



```
import time
class Timer:
    def __init__(self):
        self._start_time = 0
        self._elapsed_time = 0
    def start(self):
        self._start_time = time.perf_counter()
    def stop(self):
        self._elapsed_time = time.perf_counter() - self._start_time
    def elapsed(self):
        return self._elapsed_time
```

## ▼ WHY EFFICIENCY MATTERS?

### Real world problem:

- Every SIM card needs to be linked to an Aadhaar Card.
- Validate the Aadhaar details for each SIM card.
- Simple nested loop:
 

```
for each SIM card S:
    for each Aadhaar number A:
        check if Aadhaar details of S match A
```
- How long will this take?
  - $M$  SIM cards,  $N$  Aadhaar cards
  - Nested loops iterate  $M \cdot N$  times
- What are  $M$  and  $N$ ?
  - Almost everyone in India has an Aadhaar card:  $N > 10^9$
- Number of SIM cards registered is similar:  $M > 10^9$
- Assume  $M = N = 10^9$
- Nested loops execute  $10^{18}$  times.
- Python can perform  $10^7$  operations in a second (calculated from Timer class)
- This will take at least  $10^{11}$  seconds.
  - $10^{11}/60 \approx 1.67 \times 10^9$  minutes
  - $(1.67 \times 10^9)/60 \approx 2.8 \times 10^7$  hours
  - $(2.8 \times 10^7)/60 \approx 1.17 \times 10^6$  days
  - $(1.17 \times 10^6)/365 \approx 3200$  years!

### Halving strategy:

- Interval of possibilities.
- Query midpoint - halves the intervals
- Keeps checking the mid points and halving the intervals till it finds a match
- Interval shrinks, time taken less!

## How to solve this?

- Assume Aadhaar details are sorted by Aadhaar number.
- Use halving strategy to check each SIM card.
  - for each SIM card  $S$ :
    - probe sorted Aadhaar list to
    - check Aadhaar details of  $S$
- Halving 10 times reduces the interval by a factor of 1000 because  $2^{10} = 1024$
- After 10 queries, interval shrinks to  $10^6$
- After 20 queries, interval shrinks to  $10^3$
- After 30 queries, interval shrinks to 1
- Total time  $\approx 10^9 \times 30$  seconds  $\approx 50$  minutes!
- Of course to achieve this, we have to first sort the Aadhaar cards.
- **Conclusion:** *Arranging the data results in a much more efficient solution. Both algorithms and data structures matter.*