



Programming with Python

23. Schleifen mit for

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Dies ist ein Kurs über das Programmieren mit der Programmiersprache Python an der Universität Hefei (合肥大学).

Die Webseite mit dem Lehrmaterial dieses Kurses ist <https://thomasweise.github.io/programmingWithPython> (siehe auch den QR-Kode unten rechts). Dort können Sie das Kursbuch (in Englisch) und diese Slides finden. Das Repository mit den Beispielprogrammen in Python finden Sie unter <https://github.com/thomasWeise/programmingWithPythonCode>.



Outline

1. Einleitung
2. Die for-Schleife
3. continue und break
4. Schleifen verschachteln
5. Iterieren über Sequenzen
6. Zusammenfassung





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- Danach sind wir im Prinzip in der Lage, jede Berechnung durchzuführen, die mit unseren Computern möglich ist.
- Alles was dann folgt sind nur Konzepte, die dafür sorgen, unser Leben als Programmierer leichter zu machen.



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- Nach dem Schleifenkörper folgt eine Leerzeile, nach der es dann mit normalem Kode weitergeht.

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- Ranges, wie Slices, können auch mit negativen Schritten arbeiten: `range(40, 30, -3)` beginnt mit 40, steigt in Schritten von 3 ab, und hört vor 30 auf, ist also (40, 37, 34, 31).

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6 for i in range(5): # i takes on the values 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 -- one by one.
7     squares[i] = i * i # Stores 0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16.
8
9 for i in range(6, 9): # i takes on the values 6, 7, and 8 one by one.
10    squares[i] = i * i # Stores 6: 36, 7: 49, 8: 64.
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12 for i in range(20, 27, 2): # i takes on the values 20, 22, 24, and 26.
13    squares[i] = i * i # Stores 20: 400, 22: 484, 24: 576, 26: 676.
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15 for i in range(40, 30, -3): # i takes on the values 40, 37, 34, and 31.
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↓ python3 for_loop_range.py ↓

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- In der ersten Schleife iteriert `i` über `range(5)`.

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10    squares[i] = i * i # Stores 6: 36, 7: 49, 8: 64.
11
12 for i in range(20, 27, 2): # i takes on the values 20, 22, 24, and 26.
13    squares[i] = i * i # Stores 20: 400, 22: 484, 24: 576, 26: 676.
14
15 for i in range(40, 30, -3): # i takes on the values 40, 37, 34, and 31.
16    squares[i] = i * i # Stores 40: 1600, 37: 1369, 34: 1156, 31: 961.
17
18 print(squares) # Print the dictionary.
19
20 for _ in range(3): # Iterate the loop three times. Ignore counter `_`.
21     print("Hello World!") # We don't need the counter.
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24 ↓ python3 for_loop_range.py ↓
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26 {0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16, 6: 36, 7: 49, 8: 64, 20: 400, 22: 484,
27 ↪ 24: 576, 26: 676, 40: 1600, 37: 1369, 34: 1156, 31: 961}
28 Hello World!
29 Hello World!
30 Hello World!
```



Beispiel (1)

- Zuerst wollen wir ein Dictionary bauen, in dem einige Ganzzahlen ihrem jeweiligen Quadrat zugeordnet sind.
- Wir benutzen vier `for`-Schleifen, um dieses Dictionary mit Daten zu füllen.
- Wir benutzen jeweils `i` als Schleifenvariable.
- In der ersten Schleife iteriert `i` über `range(5)`.
- Bei der ersten Ausführung des Schleifenkörpers hat `i` den Wert 0.

```
1 """Apply a for loop over a range."""
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3 # We will construct a dictionary holding square numbers.
4 squares: dict[int, int] = {} # Initialize `squares` as empty dict.
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6 for i in range(5): # i takes on the values 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 -- one by one.
7     squares[i] = i * i # Stores 0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16.
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9 for i in range(6, 9): # i takes on the values 6, 7, and 8 one by one.
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12 for i in range(20, 27, 2): # i takes on the values 20, 22, 24, and 26.
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27 ↪ 24: 576, 26: 676, 40: 1600, 37: 1369, 34: 1156, 31: 961}
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```



Beispiel (1)

- Wir benutzen jeweils `i` als Schleifenvariable.
- In der ersten Schleife iteriert `i` über `range(5)`.
- Bei der ersten Ausführung des Schleifenkörpers hat `i` den Wert 0.
- Der Schleifenkörper `squares[i] = i * i` ist also äquivalent zu `squares[0] = 0` und weist daher den Wert 0 dem Schlüssel 0 im Dictionary `squares` zu.

```
1 """Apply a for loop over a range."""
2
3 # We will construct a dictionary holding square numbers.
4 squares: dict[int, int] = {} # Initialize `squares` as empty dict.
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6 for i in range(5): # i takes on the values 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 -- one by one.
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```



Beispiel (1)

- In der ersten Schleife iteriert `i` über `range(5)`.
- Bei der ersten Ausführung des Schleifenkörpers hat `i` den Wert `0`.
- Der Schleifenkörper `squares[i] = i * i` ist also äquivalent zu `squares[0] = 0` und weist daher den Wert `0` dem Schlüssel `0` im Dictionary `squares` zu.
- In der zweiten Iteration hat `i` den Wert `1`.

```
1 """Apply a for loop over a range."""
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3 # We will construct a dictionary holding square numbers.
4 squares: dict[int, int] = {} # Initialize `squares` as empty dict.
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```

Beispiel (1)

- Bei der ersten Ausführung des Schleifenkörpers hat `i` den Wert `0`.
- Der Schleifenkörper `squares[i] = i * i` ist also äquivalent zu `squares[0] = 0` und weist daher den Wert `0` dem Schlüssel `0` im Dictionary `squares` zu.
- In der zweiten Iteration hat `i` den Wert `1`.
- Der Schleifenkörper `squares[i] = i * i` macht also `squares[1] = 1`.

```
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3 # We will construct a dictionary holding square numbers.
4 squares: dict[int, int] = {} # Initialize `squares` as empty dict.
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6 for i in range(5): # i takes on the values 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 -- one by one.
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Beispiel (1)

- Der Schleifenkörper

`squares[i] = i * i` ist also äquivalent zu `squares[0] = 0` und weist daher den Wert 0 dem Schlüssel 0 im Dictionary `squares` zu.

- In der zweiten Iteration hat `i` den Wert 1.

- Der Schleifenkörper

`squares[i] = i * i` macht also `squares[1] = 1`.

- In der dritten Iteration hat `i` den Wert 2 und wir führen `squares[2] = 4` aus.

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Beispiel (1)

- In der zweiten Iteration hat `i` den Wert `1`.
`squares[i] = i * i` macht also `squares[1] = 1`.
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`squares[i] = i * i` macht also `squares[1] = 1`.
- In der dritten Iteration hat `i` den Wert `2` und wir führen `squares[2] = 4` aus.
- Danach gilt `i = 3` und wir machen `squares[3] = 9`.

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↓ python3 for_loop_range.py ↓

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Beispiel (1)

- Der Schleifenkörper

`squares[i] = i * i` macht also
`squares[1] = 1`.

- In der dritten Iteration hat `i` den Wert 2 und wir führen
`squares[2] = 4` aus.

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`squares[3] = 9`.

- Zuletzt erfolgt dann
`squares[4] = 16` und die erste Schleife ist fertig.

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- Mit der zweiten Schleife iterieren wir über `range(6, 9)`, also es gilt `i = 6`, dann `i = 7`, und schließlich `i = 8`.

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Beispiel (1)

- Danach gilt `i = 3` und wir machen `squares[3] = 9`.
- Zuletzt erfolgt dann `squares[4] = 16` und die erste Schleife ist fertig.
- Mit der zweiten Schleife iterieren wir über `range(6, 9)`, also es gilt `i = 6`, dann `i = 7`, und schließlich `i = 8`.
- Es erfolgt also `squares[6] = 36`, `squares[7] = 49`, und `squares[8] = 64`.

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28 Hello World!
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```



Beispiel (1)

- Mit der zweiten Schleife iterieren wir über `range(6, 9)`, also es gilt
`i = 6`, dann `i = 7`, und schließlich
`i = 8`.
- Es erfolgt also `squares[6] = 36`,
`squares[7] = 49`, und
`squares[8] = 64`.
- Die dritte Schleife iteriert über
`range(20, 27, 2)` und ihr Körper
führt daher nacheinander
`squares[20] = 400`,
`squares[22] = 484`,
`squares[24] = 576`, und
`squares[26] = 676` aus.

```
1 """Apply a for loop over a range."""
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3 # We will construct a dictionary holding square numbers.
4 squares: dict[int, int] = {} # Initialize `squares` as empty dict.
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6 for i in range(5): # i takes on the values 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 -- one by one.
7     squares[i] = i * i # Stores 0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16.
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Beispiel (1)

- Es erfolgt also `squares[6] = 36`, `squares[7] = 49`, und `squares[8] = 64`.
- Die dritte Schleife iteriert über `range(20, 27, 2)` und ihr Körper führt daher nacheinander `squares[20] = 400`, `squares[22] = 484`, `squares[24] = 576`, und `squares[26] = 676` aus.
- In der vierten Schleife, nimmt `i` die Werte der Sequenz `range(40, 30, -3)` an, die eine negative Schrittweite hat.

```
1 """Apply a for loop over a range."""
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3 # We will construct a dictionary holding square numbers.
4 squares: dict[int, int] = {} # Initialize `squares` as empty dict.
5
6 for i in range(5): # i takes on the values 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 -- one by one.
7     squares[i] = i * i # Stores 0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16.
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9 for i in range(6, 9): # i takes on the values 6, 7, and 8 one by one.
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12 for i in range(20, 27, 2): # i takes on the values 20, 22, 24, and 26.
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15 for i in range(40, 30, -3): # i takes on the values 40, 37, 34, and 31.
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Beispiel (1)

- Es erfolgt also `squares[6] = 36`, `squares[7] = 49`, und `squares[8] = 64`.
- Die dritte Schleife iteriert über `range(20, 27, 2)` und ihr Körper führt daher nacheinander `squares[20] = 400`, `squares[22] = 484`, `squares[24] = 576`, und `squares[26] = 676` aus.
- In der vierten Schleife, nimmt `i` die Werte der Sequenz `range(40, 30, -3)` an, die eine negative Schrittweite hat.
- `i` wird daher zuerst `40`, dann `37`, dann `34`, und schließlich `31`.

```
1 """Apply a for loop over a range."""
2
3 # We will construct a dictionary holding square numbers.
4 squares: dict[int, int] = {} # Initialize `squares` as empty dict.
5
6 for i in range(5): # i takes on the values 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 -- one by one.
7     squares[i] = i * i # Stores 0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16.
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9 for i in range(6, 9): # i takes on the values 6, 7, and 8 one by one.
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12 for i in range(20, 27, 2): # i takes on the values 20, 22, 24, and 26.
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15 for i in range(40, 30, -3): # i takes on the values 40, 37, 34, and 31.
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20 for _ in range(3): # Iterate the loop three times. Ignore counter `_`.
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↓ python3 for_loop_range.py ↓

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```



Beispiel (1)

- Die dritte Schleife iteriert über `range(20, 27, 2)` und ihr Körper führt daher nacheinander

```
squares[20] = 400,  
squares[22] = 484,  
squares[24] = 576, und  
squares[26] = 676 aus.
```

- In der vierten Schleife, nimmt `i` die Werte der Sequenz `range(40, 30, -3)` an, die eine negative Schrittweite hat.

- `i` wird daher zuerst `40`, dann `37`, dann `34`, und schließlich `31`.
- Nun drucken wir das Dictionary aus und bekommen das erwartete Ergebnis.

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Gute Praxis

Wenn der Wert einer Variable oder eines Parameters egal ist, dann sollten wir diese nennen⁴⁰.

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Wenn der Wert einer Variable oder eines Parameters egal ist, dann sollten wie diese _ nennen⁴⁰. Diese Information ist nützlich für andere Programmierer sowie für statische Kodeanalyse.



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- Was wir in diesem Programm wieder und wieder tun, ist...

```
1 from math import pi, sqrt    # We need sqrt. pi is for comparison.  
2  
3 # We use f-strings with Unicode escapes to print the current result.  
4 # "\u03c0" is the Unicode escape for the Greek letter pi.  
5 # "\u2248" is the Unicode escape for the "approximately equal" sign.  
6 print(f"We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate \u03c0\u2248{pi}.")  
7 e = 6      # the number of edges: We start with a hexagon, i.e., e=6.  
8 s = 1.0    # the side length: Initially 1, meaning the radius is also 1.  
9 print(f"\u21e3 edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
10  
11 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 12.  
12 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
13 print(f"\u21e3 edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
14  
15 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 24.  
16 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
17 print(f"\u21e3 edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
18  
19 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 48.  
20 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
21 print(f"\u21e3 edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
22  
23 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 96.  
24 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
25 print(f"\u21e3 edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
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27 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 192.  
28 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2)))  
29 print(f"\u21e3 edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
```

↓ python3 pi_liu_hui.py ↓

```
1 We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate \u03c0\u22483.141592653589793.  
2 6 edges, side length=1.0 give \u03c0\u22483.0.  
3 12 edges, side length=0.5176380902050416 give \u03c0\u22483.1058285412302498.  
4 24 edges, side length=0.2610523844401031 give \u03c0\u22483.132628613281237.  
5 48 edges, side length=0.13080625846028635 give \u03c0\u22483.139350203046872.  
6 96 edges, side length=0.0654381656435527 give \u03c0\u22483.14103195089053.  
7 192 edges, side length=0.03272346325297234 give \u03c0\u22483.1414542722853443.
```

Beispiel (2)

- Benutzen wir nun diese neuen Informationen, um unser Programm zum Annähern von π zu verbessern.
- Was wir in diesem Programm wieder und wieder tun, ist:
 - Wir verdoppeln die Anzahl `e` der Seiten eines regelmäigen `e`-gons mit `e *= 2`.

```
1 from math import pi, sqrt    # We need sqrt. pi is for comparison.
2
3 # We use f-strings with Unicode escapes to print the current result.
4 # "\u03c0" is the Unicode escape for the Greek letter pi.
5 # "\u2248" is the Unicode escape for the "approximately equal" sign.
6 print(f"We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate \u03c0\u2248{pi}.")
7 e = 6      # the number of edges: We start with a hexagon, i.e., e=6.
8 s = 1.0    # the side length: Initially 1, meaning the radius is also 1.
9 print(f"{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
10
11 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 12.
12 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.
13 print(f"{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
14
15 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 24.
16 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.
17 print(f"{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
18
19 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 48.
20 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.
21 print(f"{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
22
23 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 96.
24 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.
25 print(f"{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
26
27 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 192.
28 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2)))
29 print(f"{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
```

↓ python3 pi_liu_hui.py ↓

```
1 We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate π≈3.141592653589793.
2 6 edges, side length=1.0 give π≈3.0.
3 12 edges, side length=0.5176380902050416 give π≈3.1058285412302498.
4 24 edges, side length=0.2610523844401031 give π≈3.132628613281237.
5 48 edges, side length=0.13080625846028635 give π≈3.139350203046872.
6 96 edges, side length=0.0654381656435527 give π≈3.14103195089053.
7 192 edges, side length=0.03272346325297234 give π≈3.1414542722853443.
```

Beispiel (2)

- Benutzen wir nun diese neuen Informationen, um unser Programm zum Annähern von π zu verbessern.
- Was wir in diesem Programm wieder und wieder tun, ist:
 - Wir verdoppeln die Anzahl `e` der Seiten eines regelmässigen `e`-gons mit `e *= 2`.
 - Wir berechnen die Länge `s` der Seiten.

```
1 from math import pi, sqrt    # We need sqrt. pi is for comparison.  
2  
3 # We use f-strings with Unicode escapes to print the current result.  
4 # "\u03c0" is the Unicode escape for the Greek letter pi.  
5 # "\u2248" is the Unicode escape for the "approximately equal" sign.  
6 print(f"We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate \u03c0\u2248{pi}.")  
7 e = 6      # the number of edges: We start with a hexagon, i.e., e=6.  
8 s = 1.0    # the side length: Initially 1, meaning the radius is also 1.  
9 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
10  
11 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 12.  
12 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
13 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
14  
15 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 24.  
16 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
17 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
18  
19 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 48.  
20 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
21 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
22  
23 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 96.  
24 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
25 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
26  
27 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 192.  
28 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2)))  
29 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
```

↓ python3 pi_liu_hui.py ↓

```
1 We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate π≈3.141592653589793.  
2 6 edges, side length=1.0 give π≈3.0.  
3 12 edges, side length=0.5176380902050416 give π≈3.1058285412302498.  
4 24 edges, side length=0.2610523844401031 give π≈3.132628613281237.  
5 48 edges, side length=0.13080625846028635 give π≈3.139350203046872.  
6 96 edges, side length=0.0654381656435527 give π≈3.14103195089053.  
7 192 edges, side length=0.03272346325297234 give π≈3.1414542722853443.
```

Beispiel (2)

- Benutzen wir nun diese neuen Informationen, um unser Programm zum Annähern von π zu verbessern.
- Was wir in diesem Programm wieder und wieder tun, ist:
 - Wir verdoppeln die Anzahl `e` der Seiten eines regelmässigen `e`-gons mit `e *= 2`.
 - Wir berechnen die Länge `s` der Seiten.
 - Wir geben die neue Annäherung `e * s / 2` von π aus.

```
1 from math import pi, sqrt    # We need sqrt. pi is for comparison.  
2  
3 # We use f-strings with Unicode escapes to print the current result.  
4 # "\u03c0" is the Unicode escape for the Greek letter pi.  
5 # "\u2248" is the Unicode escape for the "approximately equal" sign.  
6 print(f"We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate \u03c0\u2248{pi}.")  
7 e = 6      # the number of edges: We start with a hexagon, i.e., e=6.  
8 s = 1.0    # the side length: Initially 1, meaning the radius is also 1.  
9 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
10  
11 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 12.  
12 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
13 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
14  
15 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 24.  
16 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
17 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
18  
19 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 48.  
20 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
21 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
22  
23 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 96.  
24 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length.  
25 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")  
26  
27 e *= 2    # We double the number of edges... ...now there are 192.  
28 s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2)))  
29 print(f"\{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
```

↓ python3 pi_liu_hui.py ↓

```
1 We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate π≈3.141592653589793.  
2 6 edges, side length=1.0 give π≈3.0.  
3 12 edges, side length=0.5176380902050416 give π≈3.1058285412302498.  
4 24 edges, side length=0.2610523844401031 give π≈3.132628613281237.  
5 48 edges, side length=0.13080625846028635 give π≈3.139350203046872.  
6 96 edges, side length=0.0654381656435527 give π≈3.14103195089053.  
7 192 edges, side length=0.03272346325297234 give π≈3.1414542722853443.
```



Beispiel (2)

- Benutzen wir nun diese neuen Informationen, um unser Programm zum Annähern von π zu verbessern.
- Was wir in diesem Programm wieder und wieder tun, ist:
 - Wir verdoppeln die Anzahl `e` der Seiten eines regelmäßigen `e`-gons mit `e *= 2`.
 - Wir berechnen die Länge `s` der Seiten.
 - Wir geben die neue Annäherung `e * s / 2` von π aus.
- Wenn wir all das einfach in eine Schleife packen...

```
1  """We execute Liu Hui's method to approximate pi in a loop."""
2  from math import pi, sqrt
3
4  print(f"We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate \u03c0\u2248{pi}.")
5  e: int = 6 # the number of edges: We start with a hexagon, i.e., e=6.
6  s: float = 1.0 # the side length: Initially 1, i.e., radius is also 1.
7
8  for _ in range(6):
9      print(f"\{e} edges, side length=\{s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
10     e *= 2 # We double the number of edges...
11     s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length
12
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80
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83
84
85
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89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100
```

↓ python3 for_loop_pi_liu_hui.py ↓

```
We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate π≈3.141592653589793.
1 edges, side length=1.0 give π≈3.0.
6 edges, side length=0.5176380902050416 give π≈3.1058285412302498.
12 edges, side length=0.2610523844401031 give π≈3.132628613281237.
24 edges, side length=0.13080625846028635 give π≈3.139350203046872.
48 edges, side length=0.0654381656435527 give π≈3.14103195089053.
96 edges, side length=0.03272346325297234 give π≈3.1414524722853443.
192 edges, side length=0.0163661615758231 give π≈3.141592653589793.
```



Beispiel (2)

- Was wir in diesem Programm wieder und wieder tun, ist:
 - Wir verdoppeln die Anzahl `e` der Seiten eines regelmässigen `e`-gons mit `e *= 2`.
 - Wir berechnen die Länge `s` der Seiten.
 - Wir geben die neue Annäherung `e * s / 2` von π aus.
- Wenn wir all das einfach in eine Schleife packen...
- dann verkürzt sich das Programm von über 25 auf 10 Zeilen Kode!

```
1 """We execute Liu Hui's method to approximate pi in a loop."""
2 from math import pi, sqrt
3
4 print(f"We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate \u03c0\u2248{pi}.")
5 e: int = 6 # the number of edges: We start with a hexagon, i.e., e=6.
6 s: float = 1.0 # the side length: Initially 1, i.e., radius is also 1.
7
8 for _ in range(6):
9     print(f"{e} edges, side length={s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
10    e *= 2 # We double the number of edges...
11    s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2))) # ...and recompute the side length
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
```

↓ python3 for_loop_pi_liu_hui.py ↓

```
We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate π≈3.141592653589793.
6 edges, side length=1.0 give π≈3.0.
12 edges, side length=0.5176380902050416 give π≈3.1058285412302498.
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```

Beispiel (2)



- Was wir in diesem Programm wieder und wieder tun, ist:
 - Wir verdoppeln die Anzahl `e` der Seiten eines regelmäßigen `e`-gons mit `e *= 2`.
 - Wir berechnen die Länge `s` der Seiten.
 - Wir geben die neue Annäherung `e * s / 2` von π aus.
- Wenn wir all das einfach in eine Schleife packen...
- dann verkürzt sich das Programm von über 25 auf 10 Zeilen Kode!
- Und die Ausgabe ist die gleiche!

```
1 """We execute Liu Hui's method to approximate pi in a loop."""
2 from math import pi, sqrt
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4 print(f"We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate \u03c0\u2248{pi}.")
5 e: int = 6  # the number of edges: We start with a hexagon, i.e., e=6.
6 s: float = 1.0  # the side length: Initially 1, i.e., radius is also 1.
7
8 for _ in range(6):
9     print(f"\{e} edges, side length=\{s} give \u03c0\u2248{e * s / 2}.")
10    e *= 2  # We double the number of edges...
11    s = sqrt(2 - sqrt(4 - (s ** 2)))  # ...and recompute the side length
12
13
14                                     ↓ python3 for_loop_pi_liu_hui.py ↓
15
16 We use Liu Hui's Method to Approximate π≈3.141592653589793.
17 6 edges, side length=1.0 give π≈3.0.
18 12 edges, side length=0.5176380902050416 give π≈3.1058285412302498.
19 24 edges, side length=0.2610523844401031 give π≈3.132628613281237.
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```



continue und break



continue und break



- Schleifen haben oft komplizierte Körper, die Alternativen oder andere Schleifen beinhalten können.

continue und break



- Schleifen haben oft komplizierte Körper, die Alternativen oder andere Schleifen beinhalten können.
- Es ist nicht ungewöhnlich dass wir manchmal nach ein paar Berechnungen im Körper einer Schleife schon wissen, dass wir mit der nächsten Iteration weitermachen können, anstatt den Rest des Schleifenkörpers auszuführen.

continue und break



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- Es ist nicht ungewöhnlich dass wir manchmal nach ein paar Berechnungen im Körper einer Schleife schon wissen, dass wir mit der nächsten Iteration weitermachen können, anstatt den Rest des Schleifenkörpers auszuführen.
- Manchmal wissen wir auch nach ein paar Schleifen-Iterationen bereits, dass wir eigentlich aufhören können anstatt die weitere Iterationen durchzuführen.

continue und break



- Schleifen haben oft komplizierte Körper, die Alternativen oder andere Schleifen beinhalten können.
- Es ist nicht ungewöhnlich dass wir manchmal nach ein paar Berechnungen im Körper einer Schleife schon wissen, dass wir mit der nächsten Iteration weitermachen können, anstatt den Rest des Schleifenkörpers auszuführen.
- Manchmal wissen wir auch nach ein paar Schleifen-Iterationen bereits, dass wir eigentlich aufhören können anstatt die weitere Iterationen durchzuführen.
- Für den ersten Fall gibt es das Schlüsselwort `continue`, für den zweiten Fall das Schlüsselwort `break`⁴⁹.

Beispiel

- Schauen wir uns mal ein Beispiel an.



Beispiel



- Schauen wir uns mal ein Beispiel an.
- Wir iterieren mit einer Variable `i` über die 15 Werte von `0` bis `14`, also über `range(15)`.

```
1 """Here we explore the `break` and `continue` statements."""
2
3 for i in range(15): # i takes on the values from 0 to 14 one by one.
4     s: str = f"i is now {i}." # Create a string with the value of i.
5     if i > 10: # If i is greater than 10, then...
6         break # ...abort the loop altogether, do not execute next line.
7     if 5 <= i <= 8: # If i is in the range of 5..8, then...
8         continue # ...skip the rest of the loop body, do next iteration
9     print(s) # We get here if neither continue nor break were called.
10
11 print("All done.") # We always get here.

↓ python3 for_loop_continue_break.py ↓

1 i is now 0.
2 i is now 1.
3 i is now 2.
4 i is now 3.
5 i is now 4.
6 i is now 9.
7 i is now 10.
8 All done.
```

Beispiel



- Schauen wir uns mal ein Beispiel an.
- Wir iterieren mit einer Variable `i` über die 15 Werte von `0` bis `14`, also über `range(15)`.
- Im Schleifenkörper erstellen wir erst einen String `s` mit dem aktuellen Wert von `i` mit Hilfe des f-Strings `f"i is now {i}."`.

```
1 """Here we explore the `break` and `continue` statements."""
2
3 for i in range(15): # i takes on the values from 0 to 14 one by one.
4     s: str = f"i is now {i}." # Create a string with the value of i.
5     if i > 10: # If i is greater than 10, then...
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12
13 ↓ python3 for_loop_continue_break.py ↓
14
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17 i is now 2.
18 i is now 3.
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20 i is now 9.
21 i is now 10.
22 All done.
```

Beispiel



- Schauen wir uns mal ein Beispiel an.
- Wir iterieren mit einer Variable `i` über die 15 Werte von `0` bis `14`, also über `range(15)`.
- Im Schleifenkörper erstellen wir erst einen String `s` mit dem aktuellen Wert von `i` mit Hilfe des f-Strings `f'i is now {i}.'`.
- Der letzte Befehl in der Schleife, `print(s)`, gibt diesen String aus.

```
1 """Here we explore the `break` and `continue` statements."""
2
3 for i in range(15): # i takes on the values from 0 to 14 one by one.
4     s: str = f'i is now {i}.' # Create a string with the value of i.
5     if i > 10: # If i is greater than 10, then...
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13 ↓ python3 for_loop_continue_break.py ↓
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Beispiel



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- Der letzte Befehl in der Schleife, `print(s)`, gibt diesen String aus.
- Anstatt das wir `i` von `0` bis `14` laufen lassen, wir überlegen uns, dass wir abbrechen wollen, sobald `i` größer als `10` wird.

```
1 """Here we explore the `break` and `continue` statements."""
2
3 for i in range(15): # i takes on the values from 0 to 14 one by one.
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14
15 i is now 0.
16 i is now 1.
17 i is now 2.
18 i is now 3.
19 i is now 4.
20 i is now 9.
21 i is now 10.
22 All done.
```

Beispiel



- Im Schleifenkörper erstellen wir erst einen String `s` mit dem aktuellen Wert von `i` mit Hilfe des f-Strings `f"i is now {i}."`.
- Der letzte Befehl in der Schleife, `print(s)`, gibt diesen String aus.
- Anstatt das wir `i` von 0 bis 14 laufen lassen, wir überlegen uns, dass wir abbrechen wollen, sobald `i` größer als 10 wird.
- Normalerweise würden wir dafür die `range` ändern, wir wollen hier aber einfach mal der `break`-Statement verwenden.

```
1 """Here we explore the `break` and `continue` statements."""
2
3 for i in range(15): # i takes on the values from 0 to 14 one by one.
4     s: str = f"i is now {i}." # Create a string with the value of i.
5     if i > 10: # If i is greater than 10, then...
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```

```
1 i is now 0.
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6 i is now 9.
7 i is now 10.
8 All done.
```

Beispiel

- Der letzte Befehl in der Schleife, `print(s)`, gibt diesen String aus.
- Anstatt das wir `i` von 0 bis 14 laufen lassen, wir überlegen uns, dass wir abbrechen wollen, sobald `i` größer als 10 wird.
- Normalerweise würden wir dafür die `range` ändern, wir wollen hier aber einfach mal der `break`-Statement verwenden.
- Wir schreiben es also in eine Alternative hinein, mit Bedingung `if i > 10:`.

```
1 """Here we explore the `break` and `continue` statements."""
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3 for i in range(15): # i takes on the values from 0 to 14 one by one.
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5 i is now 4.
6 i is now 9.
7 i is now 10.
8 All done.
```

Beispiel



- Der letzte Befehl in der Schleife, `print(s)`, gibt diesen String aus.
- Anstatt das wir `i` von 0 bis 14 laufen lassen, wir überlegen uns, dass wir abbrechen wollen, sobald `i` größer als 10 wird.
- Normalerweise würden wir dafür die `range` ändern, wir wollen hier aber einfach mal der `break`-Statement verwenden.
- Wir schreiben es also in eine Alternative hinein, mit Bedingung `if i > 10:`.
- Also wenn `i > 10`, dann wird `break` ausgeführt, was die Schleife dann sofort beendet.

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Beispiel



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- Die aktuelle Iteration wird dann nicht mehr beendet und der Kode im restlichen Schleifenkörper wird überprungen und die Schleife verlassen.

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Beispiel

- Wir schreiben es also in eine Alternative hinein, mit Bedingung

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if i > 10:
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- Also wenn `i > 10`, dann wird `break` ausgeführt, was die Schleife dann sofort beendet.
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- Es geht dann nach der Schleife weiter, also mit `print("All done.")`.

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Beispiel



- Also wenn `i > 10`, dann wird `break` ausgeführt, was die Schleife dann sofort beendet.
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- Die Schleife setzt `i = 6` und das selbe passiert wieder.

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- Das geht so weiter, bis `i == 9`.

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Beispiel



- Wenn `5 <= i <= 8` zutrifft, dann machen wir `continue`.
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- Die Schleife setzt `i = 6` und das selbe passiert wieder.
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- Die Bedingung `5 <= i <= 8` trifft nämlich **nicht** zu für alle $i \in 0..4 \cup 9..15$.

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Beispiel



- Das bedeutet, dass für `i == 5` der Kontrollfluss vom `continue`-Statement direkt zum Kopf der Schleife zurückkehrt.
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- Das geht so weiter, bis `i == 9`.
- Die Bedingung `5 <= i <= 8` trifft nämlich **nicht** zu für alle $i \in 0..4 \cup 9..15$.
- Das `print(s)` kann also nur in diesen Fällen erreicht werden.

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Beispiel



- Die Schleife setzt `i = 6` und das selbe passiert wieder.
- Das geht so weiter, bis `i == 9`.
- Die Bedingung `5 <= i <= 8` trifft nämlich **nicht** zu für alle $i \in 0..4 \cup 9..15$.
- Das `print(s)` kann also nur in diesen Fällen erreicht werden.
- Natürlich wird die Schleife abbrechen, sobald `i == 11`.

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Beispiel

- Das geht so weiter, bis `i == 9`.
- Die Bedingung `5 <= i <= 8` trifft nämlich **nicht** zu für alle $i \in 0..4 \cup 9..15$.
- Das `print(s)` kann also nur in diesen Fällen erreicht werden.
- Natürlich wird die Schleife abbrechen, sobald `i == 11`.
- Das Programm wird also `s` nur für $i \in 0..4 \cup \{9, 10\}$ ausgeben, bevor letztendlich `All done.` ausgegeben wird.

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- Das `print(s)` kann also nur in diesen Fällen erreicht werden.
- Natürlich wird die Schleife abbrechen, sobald `i == 11`.
- Das Programm wird also `s` nur für $i \in 0..4 \cup \{9, 10\}$ ausgeben, bevor letztendlich `All done.` ausgegeben wird.
- Mit `break` und `continue` haben wir nun zwei neue Werkzeuge, mit denen wir entweder die die ganze Schleie abbrechen können oder die aktuelle Iteration beenden (und mit der nächsten weitermachen können, wenn es eine gibt).

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Definition: Primzahl

Eine Primzahl (EN: *prime number*) $p \in \mathbb{N}_1$ ist eine positive Ganzzahl $p > 1$, also größer als eins, die keine positiven ganzzahligen Teiler anders als 1 und p selbst hat^{17,61,77}.

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Beispiel

- In unserem Programm wollen wir alle Primzahlen $p < 200$ in einer Liste **primes** speichern.

```
1     """Compute all primes less than 200 using two nested for loops."""
2
3     from math import isqrt # the integer square root == int(sqrt(...))
4
5     primes: list[int] = [2] # the list for the primes; We know 2 is prime.
6     n_divisions: int = 0 # We want to know how many divisions we needed.
7
8     for candidate in range(3, 200, 2): # ...all odd numbers less than 200.
9         is_prime: bool = True # Let us assume that `candidate` is prime.
10
11        for check in range(3, isqrt(candidate) + 1, 2): # ...odd numbers
12            n_divisions += 1 # Every test requires one modulo division.
13            if candidate % check == 0: # modulo == 0: division without rest
14                is_prime = False # check divides candidate evenly, so
15                break # candidate is not prime. We can stop the inner loop.
16
17        if is_prime: # If True: no smaller number divides candidate evenly.
18            primes.append(candidate) # Store candidate in primes list.
19
20    # Finally, print the list of prime numbers.
21    print(f"After {n_divisions} divisions: {len(primes)} primes {primes}.")
```

↓ python3 for_loop_nested_primes.py ↓

```
1 After 252 divisions: 46 primes [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31,
  ↪ 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61, 67, 71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97, 101, 103,
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Beispiel

- Wenn uns das gelingt, dann setzen wir `is_prime = False`.
- Wenn wir keinen Teiler finden, dann bleibt `is_prime True`.
- Dann würden wir `candidate` zur Liste `primes` hinzufügen.
- Das ist der Plan.

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- In Python kann so eine „abgerundete“ Quadratwurzel $\lfloor \sqrt{a} \rfloor$ einer Ganzzahl a mit der Funktion `isqrt` aus dem Modul `math` berechnet werden.

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1 After 252 divisions: 46 primes [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31,
→ 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61, 67, 71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97, 101, 103,
→ 107, 109, 113, 127, 131, 137, 139, 149, 151, 157, 163, 167, 173,
→ 179, 181, 191, 193, 197, 199].

Beispiel

- Die meisten Ganzzahlen haben keine ganzzahligen Quadratwurzeln.
- Da ganzzahlige Teiler aber keine Nachkommastellen haben können, reicht es aus, wenn wir $\lfloor \sqrt{\text{candidate}} \rfloor$ als Obergrenze nehmen.
- In Python kann so eine „abgerundete“ Quadratwurzel $\lfloor \sqrt{a} \rfloor$ einer Ganzzahl a mit der Funktion `isqrt` aus dem Modul `math` berechnet werden.
- Wir importieren diese Funktion daher am Anfang unseres Programms.

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- Sobald wir wissen, dass `candidate` keine Primzahl ist, müssen wir keine weiteren potentiellen Teiler prüfen.

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- Genaugenommen können wir dann auch gleich die innere Schleife mit `break` abbrechen.
- Sobald wir wissen, dass `candidate` keine Primzahl ist, müssen wir keine weiteren potentiellen Teiler prüfen.
- Beachten Sie, dass wir alle Modulo-Divisionen zählen, in dem wir `n_divisions += 1` am Anfang der inneren Schleife machen.

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8     for candidate in range(3, 200, 2): # ...all odd numbers less than 200.
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↓ python3 for_loop_nested_primes.py ↓

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1 After 252 divisions: 46 primes [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31,
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- (OK, wir haben ignoriert bzw. wissen nicht, ob `isqrt` irgendwelche Divisionen durchführt, aber egal.).

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- Wir haben auch gesagt, dass wir schon verschiedene Kontainerdatentypen kennen, die wir als Sequenzen behandeln können.
- Wir müssten also über `lists`, `tuples`, `sets`, und `dicts` iterieren können...

Beispiel (1)

- Schauen wir uns das mal an.



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- In unserem Beispielprogramm bauen wir uns eine Liste `txt` mit Strings zusammen, die wir später ausgeben wollen.

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1 """Iterate over several different containers with `for` loops."""
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3 txt: list[str] = [] # We will collect the output text in this list.
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5 lst: list[int] = [1, 2, 3, 50] # Create a list with 4 integers.
6 for i in lst: # i takes on the values 1, 2, 3, and 50.
7     txt.append(f"{i = }") # We store "i = 1", "i = 2", "i = 3"...
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9 tp: tuple[float, ...] = (7.6, 9.4, 8.1) # Create a tuple with 3 floats.
10 for f in tp: # i takes on the values 7.6, 9.4, and 8.1.
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↓ `python3 for_loop_sequence.py` ↓

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- In unserem Beispielprogramm bauen wir uns eine Liste `txt` mit Strings zusammen, die wir später ausgeben wollen.
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↓ python3 for_loop_sequence.py ↓

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↓ python3 for_loop_sequence.py ↓

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Beispiel (1)

- Wir können über die Elemente dieser Menge iterieren, in dem wir `for s in st` schreiben.
- Die Schleifenvariable `s` nimmt dann die Werte `"w"`, `"u"`, und `"v"` in beliebiger Reihenfolge an.
- Erinnern Sie sich: Mengen sind in Python ungeordnet.
- Wenn wir das Programm zweimal ausführen, können wir also eventuell verschiedene Reihenfolgen beobachten.

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↓ python3 for_loop_sequence.py ↓

```
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  ↪ , s = 'v', k = 1.1, k = 2.5, v = True, v = False, 1.1: True, 2.5:
  ↪ False
```



Beispiel (1)

- Es beinhaltet nur die beiden Einträge `{1.1: True, 2.5: False}`.
- Dictionaries sind etwas speziell.
- Sie ordnen Werte zu Schlüsseln zu.
- Wenn wir mit dem ganzen Dictionary `dc` als Kollektion arbeiten, dann können wir auf drei Arten darauf zugreifen.

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5 lst: list[int] = [1, 2, 3, 50] # Create a list with 4 integers.
6 for i in lst: # i takes on the values 1, 2, 3, and 50.
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9 tp: tuple[float, ...] = (7.6, 9.4, 8.1) # Create a tuple with 3 floats.
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Beispiel (1)

- Dictionaries sind etwas speziell.
- Sie ordnen Werte zu Schlüsseln zu.
- Wenn wir mit dem ganzen Dictionary `dc` als Kollektion arbeiten, dann können wir auf drei Arten darauf zugreifen.
- Wenn wir direkt über `dc` iterieren, dann können wir alle Schlüssel sehen.

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- Wenn wir mit dem ganzen Dictionary `dc` als Kollektion arbeiten, dann können wir auf drei Arten darauf zugreifen.
- Wenn wir direkt über `dc` iterieren, dann können wir alle Schlüssel sehen.
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Beispiel (1)

- Das ist das selbe, als über `dc.keys()` zu iterieren.
- Iterieren wir über `dc.values()`, dann sehen wir alle Werte in `dc`.
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- Wir probieren alle drei Varianten aus.

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Beispiel (1)

- Iterieren wir über `dc.values()`, dann sehen wir alle Werte in `dc`.
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- Wir probieren alle drei Varianten aus.
- Wir iterieren zuerst über die Schlüssel mit `for k in dc`, wodurch `k` erst den Wert `1.1` und dann `2.5` annimmt.

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- Zu guter Letzt iterieren wir über die Schlüssel-Wert-Paare.

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- Schauen Sie genau hin!

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Beispiel (1)

- Wir iterieren über die Werte mit `for v in dc.values()`, wodurch `v` erst `True` und dann `False` wird.
- Zu guter Letzt iterieren wir über die Schlüssel-Wert-Paare.
- Schauen Sie genau hin!
- Wir könnten schreiben `for t in dc.items()`, wodurch wir eine Variable `t` die Werte `(1.1, True)` und dann `2.5: False` annehmen würde.

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↓ python3 for_loop_sequence.py ↓

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- Schauen Sie genau hin!
- Wir könnten schreiben
`for t in dc.items()`, wodurch wir eine Variable `t` die Werte `(1.1, True)` und dann `2.5: False` annehmen würde.
- Aber wir haben ja vom automatischen „Auspicken“ von Tupeln gelernt.

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- Stattdessen schreiben wir also `for k, v in dc.items() hin.`

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- Und wieder hängen wir diese als Text an unsere Liste `txt` an.

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- Es packt die Tupels der in der Sequenz `dc.items` direkt aus.
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- Nach diesen ganzen Schleifen haben wir nun eine Liste `txt` mit 16 Strings.

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- Das könnten wir mit einer Schleife machen.
- Python bietet aber eine einfachere und schnellere Methode dafür an.

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7     txt.append(f"{i = }") # We store "i = 1", "i = 2", "i = 3"...
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9 tp: tuple[float, ...] = (7.6, 9.4, 8.1) # Create a tuple with 3 floats.
10 for f in tp: # i takes on the values 7.6, 9.4, and 8.1.
11     txt.append(f"{f = }") # We store "f = 7.6", "f = 9.4", ...
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↓ python3 for_loop_sequence.py ↓

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Beispiel (1)

- Wir wollen diese zu einzigen Zeichenkette zusammenführen, wobei wir `" , "` als Separator benutzen wollen.
- Das könnten wir mit einer Schleife machen.
- Python bietet aber eine einfachere und schnellere Methode dafür an.
- Die Methode `join` der Klasse `str`.

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- Daher produziert `", ".join(txt)` als Ergebnis
`i = 1, i = 2, i = 3, i = 50,`
`f = 7.6, ...`
- Dieser Text wird mit der `print` ausgegeben.

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Beispiel (2)



- Verwenden wir das Konzept der Iteration über Sequenzen nun für etwas Sinnvolles.

```
1 """Compute all primes less than 200 using two nested for loops."""
2
3 from math import isqrt # the integer square root == int(sqrt(...))
4
5 primes: list[int] = [2] # the list for the primes; We know 2 is prime.
6 n_divisions: int = 0 # We want to know how many divisions we needed.
7
8 for candidate in range(3, 200, 2): # ...all odd numbers less than 200.
9     is_prime: bool = True # Let us assume that `candidate` is prime.
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11     for check in range(3, isqrt(candidate) + 1, 2): # ...odd numbers
12         n_divisions += 1 # Every test requires one modulo division.
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20 # Finally, print the list of prime numbers.
21 print(f"After {n_divisions} divisions: {len(primes)} primes {primes}.")
```

↓ python3 for_loop_nested_primes.py ↓

```
1 After 252 divisions: 46 primes [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31,
  ↪ 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61, 67, 71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97, 101, 103,
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Beispiel (2)



- Verwenden wir das Konzept der Iteration über Sequenzen nun für etwas Sinnvolles.
- Wir verbessern unser Programm zum Finden von Primzahlen.

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- Als wir mit dem Originalprogramm angefangen haben, dann haben wir sofort die Zahl 2 als eine Primzahl in unsere Liste `primes` gespeichert.

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- Wenn wir darüber nachdenken, erkennen wir, dass wir eigentlich nur Primzahlen als mögliche Divisoren testen müssen.

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- Wenn wir darüber nachdenken, erkennen wir, dass wir eigentlich nur Primzahlen als mögliche Divisoren testen müssen.
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↓ python3 for_loop_sequence_primes.py ↓

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26    print(f"\"After {n_divisions} divisions: {len(primes)} primes {primes}\")
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↓ python3 for_loop_sequence_primes.py ↓

```
1 After 224 divisions: 46 primes [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31,
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```

Beispiel (2)



- Die äußere Schleife wird Schritt-für-Schritt Primzahlen an `primes` anhängen.
- Für jeden Wert der Schleifenvariablen `candidate`, beinhaltet `primes` alle Primzahlen, die kleiner als `candidate` sind (außer 2).
- Natürlich müssen wir nur die Werte von `check` prüfen, die kleiner oder gleich `isqrt(candidate)` sind.
- Darum speichern wir diesen Wert in einer neuen Variablen `limit`, so dass wir ihn nicht in der inneren Schleife wieder und wieder berechnen müssen.

```
1     """Compute all primes less than 200, with a for loop over a sequence."""
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3     from math import isqrt # the integer square root == int(sqrt(...))
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5     primes: list[int] = [] # The list for the primes is initially empty.
6     n_divisions: int = 0 # We want to know how many divisions we needed.
7
8     for candidate in range(3, 200, 2): # ...all odd numbers less than 200.
9         is_prime: bool = True # Let us assume that `candidate` is prime.
10        limit: int = isqrt(candidate) # Get the maximum possible divisor.
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12        for check in primes: # We only test with the odd primes we got.
13            if check > limit: # If the potential divisor is too big, then
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20        if is_prime: # If True: no smaller number divides candidate evenly.
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- Die Liste ist dann genau die selbe, wie beim Originalprogramm.

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1     """Compute all primes less than 200, with a for loop over a sequence."""
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- Mit `break` können wir dann die innere Schleife abbrechen, wenn wir dieses `limit` erreichen.
- Nachdem die äußere Schleife fertig ist, fügen wir noch die 2 an Index 0 in die Liste ein.
- Die Liste ist dann genau die selbe, wie beim Originalprogramm.
- Allerdings brauchen wir nun nur 224 Divisionen anstatt von 252.

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- Wir können Schleifen mit `break` frühzeitig abbrechen.
- Wir können auch mit `continue` in die nächste Iteration springen.
- Und wir können Schleifen und Alternativen beliebig ineinander verschachteln.



谢谢您们！
Thank you!
Vielen Dank!



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Glossary (in English) I

Bash is a the shell used under Ubuntu Linux, i.e., the program that „runs“ in the terminal and interprets your commands, allowing you to start and interact with other programs^{11,50,81}. Learn more at <https://www.gnu.org/software/bash>.

C is a programming language, which is very successful in system programming situations^{22,56}.

client In a client-server architecture, the client is a device or process that requests a service from the server. It initiates the communication with the server, sends a request, and receives the response with the result of the request. Typical examples for clients are web browsers in the internet as well as clients for database management systems (DBMSes), such as psql.

client-server architecture is a system design where a central server receives requests from one or multiple clients^{6,43,53,57,60}. These requests and responses are usually sent over network connections. A typical example for such a system is the World Wide Web (WWW), where web servers host websites and make them available to web browsers, the clients. Another typical example is the structure of database (DB) software, where a central server, the DBMS, offers access to the DB to the different clients. Here, the client can be some terminal software shipping with the DBMS, such as psql, or the different applications that access the DBs.

DB A *database* is an organized collection of structured information or data, typically stored electronically in a computer system. Databases are discussed in our book *Databases*⁷⁵.

DBMS A *database management system* is the software layer located between the user or application and the DB. The DBMS allows the user/application to create, read, write, update, delete, and otherwise manipulate the data in the DB⁸⁰.

escape sequence Escaping is the process of presenting „forbidden“ characters or symbols in a sequence of characters or symbols. In Python⁷⁶, string escapes allow us to include otherwise impossible characters, such as string delimiters, in a string. Each such character is represented by an *escape sequence*, which usually starts with the backslash character („\“)²⁴. In Python strings, the escape sequence „\“ , for example, stands for „\“, the escape sequence „\\“ stands for „\“, and the escape sequence „\n“ stands for a newline or linebreak character. In Python f-strings, the escape sequence „{{“ stands for a single curly brace {. In PostgreSQL⁷⁵, similar C-style escapes (starting with „\“) are supported⁶⁹.



Glossary (in English) II

f-string let you include the results of expressions in strings^{12,29–31,47,64}. They can contain expressions (in curly braces) like `f"a{6-1}b"` that are then transformed to text via (string) interpolation, which turns the string to `"a5b"`. F-strings are delimited by `f"..."`.

IT information technology

LAMP Stack A system setup for web applications: Linux, Apache (a web server), MySQL, and the server-side scripting language PHP^{13,36}.

Linux is the leading open source operating system, i.e., a free alternative for Microsoft Windows^{3,35,63,73,74}. We recommend using it for this course, for software development, and for research. Learn more at <https://www.linux.org>. Its variant Ubuntu is particularly easy to use and install.

MariaDB An open source relational database management system that has forked off from MySQL^{1,2,4,23,45,58}. See <https://mariadb.org> for more information.

Microsoft Windows is a commercial proprietary operating system¹⁰. It is widely spread, but we recommend using a Linux variant such as Ubuntu for software development and for our course. Learn more at <https://www.microsoft.com/windows>.

modulo division is, in Python, done by the operator `%` that computes the remainder of a division. `15 % 6` gives us 3.

MySQL An open source relational database management system^{9,23,59,71,79}. MySQL is famous for its use in the LAMP Stack. See <https://www.mysql.com> for more information.

PostgreSQL An open source object-relational DBMS^{27,52,55,71}. See <https://postgresql.org> for more information.

`psql` is the client program used to access the PostgreSQL DBMS server.

Python The Python programming language^{37,42,44,76}, i.e., what you will learn about in our book⁷⁶. Learn more at <https://python.org>.



Glossary (in English) III

relational database A relational DB is a database that organizes data into rows (tuples, records) and columns (attributes), which collectively form tables (relations) where the data points are related to each other^{16,32,34,65,70,75,78}.

server In a client-server architecture, the server is a process that fulfills the requests of the clients. It usually waits for incoming communication carrying the requests from the clients. For each request, it takes the necessary actions, performs the required computations, and then sends a response with the result of the request. Typical examples for servers are web servers¹³ in the internet as well as DBMSes. It is also common to refer to the computer running the server processes as server as well, i.e., to call it the „server computer“⁴¹.

SQL The *Structured Query Language* is basically a programming language for querying and manipulating relational databases^{14,18–20,38,48,66–68,70}. It is understood by many DBMSes. You find the Structured Query Language (SQL) commands supported by PostgreSQL in the reference⁶⁶.

(string) interpolation In Python, string interpolation is the process where all the expressions in an f-string are evaluated and the final string is constructed. An example for string interpolation is turning `f"Rounded {1.234:.2f}"` to `"Rounded 1.23"`.

terminal A terminal is a text-based window where you can enter commands and execute them^{3,15}. Knowing what a terminal is and how to use it is very essential in any programming- or system administration-related task. If you want to open a terminal under Microsoft Windows, you can Druck auf + , dann Schreiben von cmd, dann Druck auf . Under Ubuntu Linux, + + opens a terminal, which then runs a Bash shell inside.

Ubuntu is a variant of the open source operating system Linux^{15,36}. We recommend that you use this operating system to follow this class, for software development, and for research. Learn more at <https://ubuntu.com>. If you are in China, you can download it from <https://mirrors.ustc.edu.cn/ubuntu-releases>.

WWW World Wide Web^{5,21}



Glossary (in English) IV

- π is the ratio of the circumference U of a circle and its diameter d , i.e., $\pi = U/d$. $\pi \in \mathbb{R}$ is an irrational and transcendental number^{28,39,51}, which is approximately $\pi \approx 3.141\,592\,653\,589\,793\,238\,462\,643$. In Python, it is provided by the `math` module as constant `pi` with value `3.141592653589793`. In PostgreSQL, it is provided by the SQL function `pi()` with value `3.141592653589793`⁴⁶.
- $i..j$ with $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $i \leq j$ is the set that contains all integer numbers in the inclusive range from i to j . For example, $5..9$ is equivalent to $\{5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$.
- e is Euler's number²⁶, the base of the natural logarithm. $e \in \mathbb{R}$ is an irrational and transcendental number^{28,39}, which is approximately $e \approx 2.718\,281\,828\,459\,045\,235\,360$. In Python, it is provided by the `math` module as constant `e` with value `2.718281828459045`. In PostgreSQL, you can obtain it via the SQL function `exp(1)` as value `2.718281828459045`⁴⁶.
- \mathbb{N}_1 the set of the natural numbers excluding 0, i.e., 1, 2, 3, 4, and so on. It holds that $\mathbb{N}_1 \subset \mathbb{Z}$.
- \mathbb{R} the set of the real numbers.
- \mathbb{Z} the set of the integers numbers including positive and negative numbers and 0, i.e., $\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$, and so on. It holds that $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}$.