



Chapter 5

Conditionals and Recursion

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Contents

- 1. Integer Division and Modulus
- 2. Boolean Expressions
- 3. Logical Operators
- 4. **if** Statements
- 5. The **else** Clause



Contents

- 6. Chained Conditionals
- 7. Nested Conditionals
- 8. Recursion
- 9. Stack Diagram
- 10. Infinite Recursion
- 11. Keyboard Input



1. Integer Division and Modulus

- Conventional division: /
 - Divides two numbers and returns a floating-point number

```
1 minutes = 105
2 minutes / 60
```

1.75

- Integer division: // (floor division)
 - Divides two numbers and rounds down to an integer

```
1 minutes = 105
2 hours = minutes // 60
3 hours
```

1



1. Integer Division and Modulus

- Modulus operator: %
 - Divides two numbers and returns the remainder

```
1 minutes = 105
2 remainder = minutes % 60
3 remainder
```

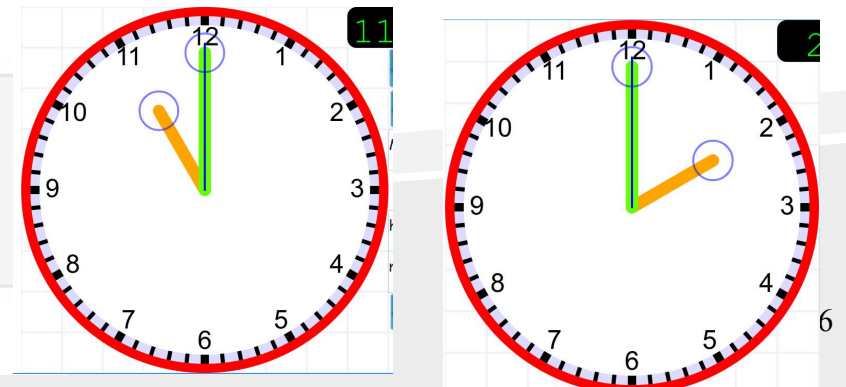
45

1. Integer Division and Modulus

- The modulus operator is more useful than it might seem.
 - It can check whether one number is divisible by another:
 - if $x \% y$ is zero, then x is divisible by y .
 - It can extract the rightmost digit or digits from a number.
 - For example, $x \% 10$ yields the rightmost digit of x (in base 10). Similarly, $x \% 100$ yields the last two digits.
 - Finally, the modulus operator can do “clock arithmetic.”
 - For example, if an event starts at 11 A.M. and lasts three hours, we can use the modulus operator to figure out what time it ends:

```
1 start = 11
2 duration = 3
3 end = (start + duration) % 12
4 end
```

2



2. Boolean Expressions

- A **boolean expression** is an expression that is either true or false. For example, the following expressions use the equals operator, `==`, which compares two values and produces **True** if they are equal and **False** otherwise:

```
1 5 == 5
```

True

```
1 5 == 7
```

False

- True** and **False** are special values that belong to the type `bool`; they are not strings:

```
1 type(True)
```

bool

```
1 type(False)
```

bool

2. Boolean Expressions

- Relational Operators
 - Used to compare the operand values on either side

```
1 x = 5
2 y = 7
```

```
1 x == y      # x is equal to y
```

False

```
1 x != y      # x is not equal to y
```

True

```
1 x > y       # x is greater than y
```

False

```
1 x < y       # x is less than y
```

True

```
1 x >= y      # x is greater than or equal to y
```

False

```
1 x <= y      # x is less than or equal to y
```

True

3. Logical Operators

- To combine boolean values into expressions, we can use **logical operators**.
- The most common are **and**, **or**, and **not**. The meaning of these operators is similar to their meaning in English.

```
1 x = 5
2 y = 7
```

```
1 x > 0 and x < 10
```

```
True
```

```
1 x % 2 == 0 or x % 3 == 0
```

```
False
```

```
1 not x > y
```

```
True
```



3. Logical Operators

- Strictly speaking, the operands of a logical operator should be boolean expressions, but Python is not very strict.
- Any **nonzero number** is interpreted as **True**:

```
1 42 and True
```

```
True
```

```
1 'Hello' and True
```

```
True
```

- This flexibility can be useful, but there are some subtleties to it that can be confusing. You might want to avoid it.



4. **if** Statements

- In order to write useful programs, we almost always need the ability to check conditions and change the behavior of the program accordingly. **Conditional statements** give us this ability.
- The simplest form is the **if** statement:

```
1 x = 5
2 if x > 0:
3     print('x is positive')
```

x is positive

- **if** is a Python keyword. **if** statements have the structure: a **header** followed by an indented statement or sequence of statements called a **block**.
- The boolean expression after **if** is called the **condition**. If it is true, the statements in the indented block run. If not, they don't.
- There is no limit to the number of statements that can appear in the block, but there has to be at least one.

4. if Statements

- Occasionally, it is useful to have a block that does nothing—usually as a place keeper for code you haven't written yet. In that case, you can use the **pass** statement, which does nothing:

```
1 if x < 0:|
2     pass  # TODO: need to handle negative values!
```

```
1
```

- The word **TODO** in a comment is a conventional reminder that there's something you need to do later.

5. The **else** Clause

- An **if** statement can have a second part, called an **else** clause. The syntax looks like this:

```
1 x = 5
2
3 if x % 2 == 0:
4     print('x is even')
5 else:
6     print('x is odd')
```

x is odd

- If the condition is true, the first indented statement runs; otherwise, the second indented statement runs.
- Since the condition must be true or false, exactly one of the alternatives will run. The alternatives are called **branches**.



6. Chained Conditionals

- Sometimes there are more than two possibilities and we need more than two branches.
- One way to express a computation like that is a chained conditional, which includes an **elif** clause:

```
1 x = 5
2 y = 7
3
4 if x < y:
5     print('x is less than y')
6 elif x > y:
7     print('x is greater than y')
8 else:
9     print('x and y are equal')
```

x is less than y

- **elif** is an abbreviation of “else if”. There is no limit on the number of **elif** clauses. If there is an **else** clause, it has to be at the end, but there doesn’t have to be one.
- Each condition is checked in order. If the first is false, the next is checked, and so on. If one of them is true, the corresponding branch runs and the **if** statement ends. Even if more than one condition is true, only the first true branch runs.

7. Nested Conditionals

- One conditional can also be nested within another.

```
1 x = 5
2 y = 7
3
4 if x == y:
5     print('x and y are equal')
6 else:
7     if x < y:
8         print('x is less than y')
9     else:
10        print('x is greater than y')
11
```

x is less than y

- The outer **if** statement contains two branches. The first branch contains a simple statement. The second branch contains another **if** statement, which has two branches of its own. Those two branches are both simple statements, although they could have been conditional statements as well.
- Although the indentation of the statements makes the structure apparent, nested conditionals can be difficult to read. I suggest you avoid them when you can.

7. Nested Conditionals

- Logical operators often provide a way to simplify nested conditional statements.

```
1 x = 5
2 y = 7
3
4 if 0 < x:
5     if x < 10:
6         print('x is a positive single-digit number.')
```

x is a positive single-digit number.

```
1 if 0 < x and x < 10:
2     print('x is a positive single-digit number.')
```

x is a positive single-digit number.

```
1 if 0 < x < 10:
2     print('x is a positive single-digit number.')
```

x is a positive single-digit number.



8. Recursion

- It is legal for a function to call itself. It may not be obvious why that is a good thing, but it turns out to be one of the most magical things a program can do. Here's an example:

```
1 def countdown(n):  
2     if n <= 0:  
3         print('Blastoff!')  
4     else:  
5         print(n)  
6         countdown(n-1)
```

```
1 countdown(3)
```

```
3  
2  
1  
Blastoff!
```

- If n is 0 or negative, `countdown` outputs the word, “Blastoff!”.
- Otherwise, it outputs n and then calls itself, passing $n - 1$ as an argument.
- A function that calls itself is **recursive**.



8. Recursion

- The execution of **countdown** begins with $n = 3$, and since n is greater than 0, it displays 3, and then calls itself...
 - The execution of **countdown** begins with $n = 2$, and since n is greater than 0, it displays 2, and then calls itself...
 - The execution of **countdown** begins with $n = 1$, and since n is greater than 0, it displays 1, and then calls itself...
 - The execution of **countdown** begins with $n = 0$, and since n is not greater than 0, it displays “Blastoff!” and returns.
 - The **countdown** that got $n = 1$ returns.
 - The **countdown** that got $n = 2$ returns.
- The **countdown** that got $n = 3$ returns.



8. Recursion

- We can write a function that prints a string n times:

```
1 def print_n_times(string, n):  
2     if n > 0:  
3         print(string)  
4         print_n_times(string, n - 1)
```

```
1 print_n_times('Spam ', 4)
```

```
Spam  
Spam  
Spam  
Spam
```

- If n is positive, `print_n_times` displays the value of `string` and then calls itself, passing along `string` and $n-1$ as arguments.
 - If n is 0 or negative, the condition is false and `print_n_times` does nothing.
- For simple examples like this, it is probably easier to use a for loop. But we will see examples later that are hard to write with a for loop and easy to write with recursion, so it is good to start early.



9. Stack Diagram

- To keep track of which variables can be used where, it is sometimes useful to draw a **stack diagram**. Like state diagrams, stack diagrams show the value of each variable, but they also show the function each variable belongs to.
- Each function is represented by a **frame**. A frame is a box with the name of a function on the outside and the parameters and local variables of the function on the inside.



9. Stack Diagram

- Here's a stack diagram that shows the frames created when we called countdown with $n = 3$:

countdown $n \rightarrow 3$

countdown $n \rightarrow 2$

countdown $n \rightarrow 1$

countdown $n \rightarrow 0$

- The four countdown frames have different values for the parameter n . The bottom of the stack, where $n = 0$, is called the **base case**. It does not make a recursive call, so there are no more frames.

10. Infinite Recursion

- If a recursion never reaches a base case, it goes on making recursive calls forever, and the program never terminates. This is known as **infinite recursion**, and it is generally not a good idea.
- Every time `recurse` is called, it calls itself, which creates another frame. In Python, there is a limit to the number of frames that can be on the stack at the same time.
- If you encounter an infinite recursion by accident, review your function to confirm that there is a base case that does not make a recursive call. And if there is a base case, check whether you are guaranteed to reach it.

```
[1]: def recurse():  
      recurse()
```

```
[2]: recurse()
```

```
-----  
RecursionError                                Traceback (most recent call last)  
Cell In[2], line 1  
----> 1 recurse()  
  
Cell In[1], line 2, in recurse()  
      1 def recurse():  
----> 2     recurse()  
  
Cell In[1], line 2, in recurse()  
      1 def recurse():  
----> 2     recurse()  
  
[... skipping similar frames: recurse at line 2 (2975 times)]  
  
Cell In[1], line 2, in recurse()  
      1 def recurse():  
----> 2     recurse()  
  
RecursionError: maximum recursion depth exceeded
```

11. Keyboard Input

- The programs we have written so far accept no input from the user.
- Python provides a built-in function called **input** that stops the program and waits for the user to type something.
 - When the user presses Return or Enter the program resumes, and **input** returns what the user typed as a string.
 - Before getting input from the user, you might want to display a prompt telling the user what to type. `input` can take a prompt as an argument.

```
name = input('What...is your name?\n')  
name
```

What...is your name?

↑ for history. Search history with c-↑/c-↓

- The sequence `\n` at the end of the prompt represents a newline, which is a special character that causes a line break—that way the user's input appears below the prompt.

11. Keyboard Input

- If you expect the user to type an integer, you can use the **int** function to convert the return value to **int**:

```
1 prompt = 'What...is the airspeed velocity of an unladen swallow?\n'
2 userInput = input(prompt)
3 speed = int(userInput)
4
```

```
What...is the airspeed velocity of an unladen swallow?
32
```

- But if they type something that's not an integer, you'll get a runtime error.

```
1 prompt = 'What...is the airspeed velocity of an unladen swallow?\n'
2 userInput = input(prompt)
3 speed = int(userInput)
4
```

```
What...is the airspeed velocity of an unladen swallow?
32.4
```

```
-----
ValueError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[5], line 3
      1 prompt = 'What...is the airspeed velocity of an unladen swallow?\n'
      2 userInput = input(prompt)
----> 3 speed = int(userInput)

ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10: '32.4'
```