Ifs, loops, and functions review

Last time, we reviewed the basic nouns of Python - objects and their types.

Here, we will review dome of the basic verbs (program structures and operators) that operate on the objects. Together, these things make our programs interesting and useful.

Conditional execution

One of the key things that makes computer programs really useful is the ability to do different things under different conditions. This is also referred to as control flow (you control the flow of your program rather than it running strictly line-by-line) or branching (your program can "branch off" to different code depending on conditions - this does not refer to git branching)

As we are talking about computers here, note that all decisions are ultimately going to depend on a Boolean value; if the value is True, we do something, if the value is False, we do something else.

Choosing with if

The absolute workhorse for control flow in Python is the if() statement. Let's remind ourselves what a simple program using an if looks like.

```
In [15]: nm = input("What's your name?")

if len(nm) < 4 :
    print(f'Hi {nm}! That is a short name!')
else :
    print(f'Hi {nm}!')</pre>
```

Hi Wendy!

Here there is one test, the len(nm) following if. If it's True, we run the code beneath. If it's False, then we run the code beneath else, the ever-loyal companion to if.

An if doesn't always need an else. For example, if you wanted to use rounded numbers (integers) only in a calculation, you could round the number to and int if you were given a float, but otherwise do nothing. In the cell below, write code to do just this using a lonely if

```
In [22]: a_num = 32.41 # change this to test your code

# your code here
if type(a_num) == float:
    a_num = int(a_num)
```

```
num_type = type(a_num)
print(f'The final number is {a_num} of type {num_type}')
```

The final number is 32 of type <class 'int'>

Another companion to if is elif, a Middle Earth contraction of 'else if'. It's used identically to if, except that it always follows an if or another elif.

In the cell below, add an elif between the if and the else to modify the code so that it separately greets those with long names!

```
In [25]: nm = input("What's your name?")

if len(nm) <= 4:
    print(f'Hi {nm}! That is a short name!')

elif len(nm) >= 5:
    print(f'Hi {nm}! That is a long name!')

else:
    print(f'Error.')
```

Hi Wendy! That is a long name!

trying with try

Because Python is a very Zen language, you might think that it has a lot in common with the Jedi ways of Yoda. Perhaps. In Python, however, there *is* a try.

The try is used to run code that might fail. You could argue that "code that might fail" is the same as "all code", and you would have a very good point! In fact, some people write virtually all their code using a try (or its equivalent in other languages) at the very top. So their code looks like

```
try :
    the entire computer program
except:
    print errors
    print values of variables
    close any open files
    etc.
```

Normally, when Python encounters an error, it exits your code unceremoniously and prints the error with some angry red text.

In the cell below, try dividing some number by 0.

```
In [1]: 3/0
```

```
ZeroDivisionError Traceback (most recent call last)

Cell In[1], line 1

----> 1 3/0

ZeroDivisionError: division by zero
```

In this case, we do get a clear diagnostic error – wish that were always the case! – but we get yelled at with red text and kicked out of Python. Who needs that kind of blow to their self-esteem?

We can use try to handle the error (or "exception") within our code so Python doesn't kick us out, and to give the user more polite and descriptive error messages.

Here's an example. Run it and enter a non-zero value, and then re-run it entering zero ("0" not "zero").

```
In [27]: denom = input('Please enter a denominator to divide into 3')
    denom = float(denom)

try :
        answer = 3/denom
        print(f'3 divided by {denom} is {answer}!')
    except :
        print('Oops, sorry, something went wrong - did you enter a zero?')
```

Oops, sorry, something went wrong - did you enter a zero?

Note that, in this case, Python didn't actually kick us out. You can prove this by printing something below the try & except blocks. Like print('See? Still running!') or whatever. Use the cell below to try this.

```
In [31]: denom = input('Please enter a denominator to divide into 3')
    denom = float(denom)

try :
        answer = 3/denom
        print(f'3 divided by {denom} is {answer}!')
    except :
        print('Oops, sorry, something went wrong - did you enter a zero?')

# print something here
    print('See? Still runnning!')
```

Now try actually entering "zero" in the above. What happens? Why?

There was a value error above, the string (text) cannot be converted into a float. The 'denom' is initialized as a float, therefore, denom should be a numerical value.

You can also catch specific types of exceptions to help out even more. Here's an example:

Mmm, looks like your number wasn'n 1-4. list index out of range

Try (ha) this with some in-bounds and out-of-bounds numbers to verify it's working!

A few useful exceptions are:

```
* `IndexError` - an index is out of bounds.

* `KeyError` - an undefined dictionary key was used

* `NameError` - an undefined variable name was used

* `TypeError` - an operation was tried on an inappropriate type
```

In the cell below, write a little program that catches either a name or type error (or both).

```
result = 10 + 5
    print(result)
    print(undefined_variable)

except NameError as name_err:
    print('Oops, sorry, undefined variable name', name_err)

except TypeError as type_err:
    print('Mmm, looks like an incorrect operation on type', type_err)
except:
    print('Sorry, something went wrong.')
```

15
Oops, sorry, undefined variable name name 'undefined variable' is not defined

Repeated execution

Repeating a calculation, or "looping" (with different input of course) is absolutely fundamental to computing. In fact, the very first "modern" computer was built to simulate atomic explosions with different initial conditions in order to build the first atomic bombs. In this case, and in general, it is more practical and less time consuming to try things, whether by trial-and-error or a systematic search, with computer simulations than it is in real life.

Repeated execution can be more mundane but useful nevertheless. For example, you might have data file from each of 2000 participants in an online experiment, and you need to extract some data from each file, compute the mean and get the age for each person, and then plot the means by age. Would you rather

manually open each file, getting the age and the data, and computing the mean

or

 have some code automatically chew through the files, compute each mean, and store the means and ages?

If you know how to write a little code then this is, as they say, the easiest decision in the history of decisions.

The looping functions in Python are for and while . A for loop executes code *for* a specific number of times, whereas while executes code *while* some condition is True .

Repeating a number of times with for

We use a for loop under two circumstances:

- we know how many times we need to do something
- we have an *iterable* that we need to go through

Looping over a range of values

In the first case, we'll most often use the range function to provide us with the indexes for our loop. Like this.

```
In [48]: for i in range(5) :
    print(i)

0
1
2
3
```

You can also give range two arguments, which become the starting and stopping points, or three, where the third is the step.

In the cell below, write a for loop that prints the even numbers from 2 to 10.

```
In [57]: for i in range(2,11):
    if i % 2 == 0:
        print(i)
2
4
6
8
10
```

We can put it in reverse and go backwards as well! Run the code below!

```
# countdown!
In [58]:
         for i in reversed(range(1,11)) :
             print(f't minus {i} iterations to lift off!')
         print('')
                   |')
         print('
                   / \\')
         print('
         print(' | ')
         print(' | LIFTOFF!')
         print(' | |')
         print(' / | \\')
         print('')
         t minus 10 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 9 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 8 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 7 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 6 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 5 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 4 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 3 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 2 iterations to lift off!
         t minus 1 iterations to lift off!
             / \
                   LIFTOFF!
           / | \
```

The little rocket above is an example of a "BUAG" or Butt Ugly ASCII Graphic. ASCII is "American Standard Code for Information Interchange" and is, basically, the symbols you can make with your keyboard. When a terminal was all we had, this was the only way to make pictures!

Quick Quiz!: Why does the right side of the rocket above have double backslashes in two of the print() statements?

Double backslashes are used so it is treated as literal characters rather than using it for escape purposes.

Each ASCII character has a code, and each code refers to one and only one character. The ord() function tells us the code for a symbol, and the chr() function goes the other way. Play around with the code below to see some characters and their codes.

```
print(ord('A'))
In [59]:
         print(chr(97))
         print(ord('$'))
         65
         а
         36
```

Hey, now we can use 36 as slang for "money"!

When you are using a loop, it's often handy to use the .append() method to store things computed within the loop. As an example, let's compute and store the first 10 values of the binary sequence.

```
bin_seq = [] # make an empty list
In [60]:
         for i in range(1, 11) :
             bin_seq.append(2**i)
         bin_seq
         [2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024]
```

Out[60]:

(The binary sequence tells us that 1 bit can store 2 values, 2 bits can store 4 values, etc.)

Looping over an iterable

One of the fantastic things about Python is that all the multi-element data types, like lists, are capable of providing their values one-at-a-time to a for loop. Like this – run the code below:

```
In [61]: a_list = ['a', 'b', 'c']
         for i in a list:
             print(i)
         а
```

b

C

You can also iterate over a tuple or even a string . So we could have written the above code like this (run it to confirm):

```
In [62]: a_str = 'abc'
for i in a_str :
    print(i)

a
b
c
```

Let's see if we can take the alphabet and flip it backwards using a for loop. To do this, we'll use the reversed() function and a for loop to create a list with the elements (letters) of the alphabet in reversed order, and then, we'll use the join method to convert our list to a string.

Take look through this code line-by-line. Then run it and see if it works!

```
In [63]: alpha = 'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz' # now I know my abc's...
separator = '' # the string (empty in this case) to separate our list elements when us
backwards_alpha = [] # empty list to hold our reversed letters

for i in reversed(alpha) : # loop through the alpha string backwards
    backwards_alpha.append(i) # add each letter to our list in turn

backwards_alpha = separator.join(backwards_alpha) # make a string from our list element
print(backwards_alpha) # show off our work
```

zyxwvutsrqponmlkjihgfedcba

Memorize this, and you'll be able to pass the "say the alphabet backwards" test if you ever get pulled over by the police for impaired driving!

In the cell below, write a loop to find the lowercase letters in our alphabet that have an ascii code that is divisible by 3. Useful tools:

- ord() returns the ascii code of a character
- chr() goes the other direction; returns the character of an ascii code
- % (modulo) returns the remainder after division.

There's some partial code to get you started.

```
In [67]: alpha = 'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz'
div_x_3_str = ''

# Loop through the alphabet
for i in alpha :
    a_code = ord(i)  # convert letter to ascii code
    if a_code % 3 == 0 :  # test for divisibility (is that a word?)
        div_x_3_str += i  # add (or not) the letter

print(div_x_3_str)
```

Repeating until a condition is True with while

a while loop runs until its test evaluates to false. Like this.

```
In [68]: test = 1
while test < 5:
    print(f'test value = {test}')
    test += 1

test value = 1
test value = 2
test value = 3
test value = 4

Notice the increment operator += .

*variable* += *value* is shorthand for *variable* = *variable* + *value*</pre>
```

A while loop is a bit dangerous because, if you mess up the test, it test may never evaluate to False, in which case the loop will run forever. This is an "infinite loop", and has been the bane of programmers ever since while loops were invented.

Useless trivia: The street address of Apple's headquarters in Cupertino CA is "One Infinite Loop".

We could use a while loop to keep prompting a user until they get something right.

```
In [69]: name = input('Please type your name.')
pswd = ''

while len(pswd) < 12:
    pswd = input('Please enter your new password.')
    if len(pswd) < 12:
        print('Sorry, the password must be at least 12 characters')

print(f'Hey, World! {name}\'s password is {pswd}!!!')</pre>
```

Sorry, the password must be at least 12 characters Hey, World! Wendy's password is "@ppL3s2795"!!!

We can also add a break statement to exit the while loop immediately. The break command takes no arguments - when a break is encountered, the program exits the loop immediately.

In the cell below, see if you can modify our little password program above to exit if the user enters a 'q'. Make sure it also says something sensible when the user quits.

```
In [78]: name = input('Please type your name [q to quit]: ')
# if user inputs 'q', exit program immediately
if name.lower() == 'q':
```

```
print('Program successfully stopped.')
else:
    pswd = ''

while len(pswd) < 12 :
        pswd = input('Please enter your new password: ')
        if len(pswd) < 12 :
            print('Sorry, the password must be at least 12 characters.')
        if name.lower() == 'q':
            print('Program successfully stopped.')
            break

print(f'Hey, World! {name}\'s password is {pswd}!!!')</pre>
```

Program successfully stopped.

Compartmentalizing and reusing code with functions

In any programming language, functions are *great*. They are the greatest thing to be invented in programming since programming itself.

As you know, we use functions all the time. In this notebook, we've already used input(), len(), print(), float(), etc.

Functions wrap their code in a box so you don't have to worry about it; you just have to call the function and get/use/savor the result. Consider len() for example. How does it count the items? How does it know how to handle lists *and* strings? My theory involves elves but, the point is, len() is useful, and we don't need to dig into its underlying code unless we're curious.

The really great thing about functions is, as you also know, we can write our own. If you know that you are going to have do the same basic thing many times over, write a function! In fact, all of us that have been "in the biz" for a while have large collections of functions that we have developed over the years.

Let's just remind ourselves what a function looks like:

We start with the def (define) keyword followed by the name of our function with any arguments to the function enclosed in parentheses (the parentheses are required both in defining and calling the functions, even if their are no arguments).

Now we can call the function - just like it was any function in Python! Run the cells below to see our function in action!

```
In [80]: foo('Hello! I\'m a useless function!')
```

The argument was Hello! I'm a useless function!

```
foo(22/7)
In [81]:
```

The argument was 3.142857142857143

Hm, looks like we overshot \$\pi\$ by a little!

Since our little function only calls <code>print()</code>, it can handle anything print can handle.

```
foo(['a', 'list'])
In [82]:
```

The argument was ['a', 'list']

Some functions, like print() and foo() are just verbs. They do something and that's it. Many functions, however, are useful in that they return an object. len(), for example, returns the length of the object passed to it as an argument.

We return a value using the return keyword.

Let's write a little function to compute the number needed to make the input number to it 11. Because everything should know how to go to 11!

```
In [87]:
         def goToEleven(notEleven) :
             x = 11 - notEleven
             return x
```

Now test our function in the cell below!

```
In [88]: result = goToEleven(8)
         result
         3
```

Out[88]:

Okay, let's play! Write a function getpswd() to get a password. It doesn't need any arguments; it should just be called and return the password after it's done its thing. So it should be called like this: a_password = getpswd().

```
def getpswd():
In [90]:
              while True:
                  pswd = input('Please enter your password: ')
                  if len(pswd) < 8:</pre>
                       print('Sorry, the password must be at least 8 characters.')
                  else:
                       return pswd
```

```
In [91]: # test your function here
         a_password = getpswd()
         print("Password:", a password)
```

Password: \$uP82bdfT*