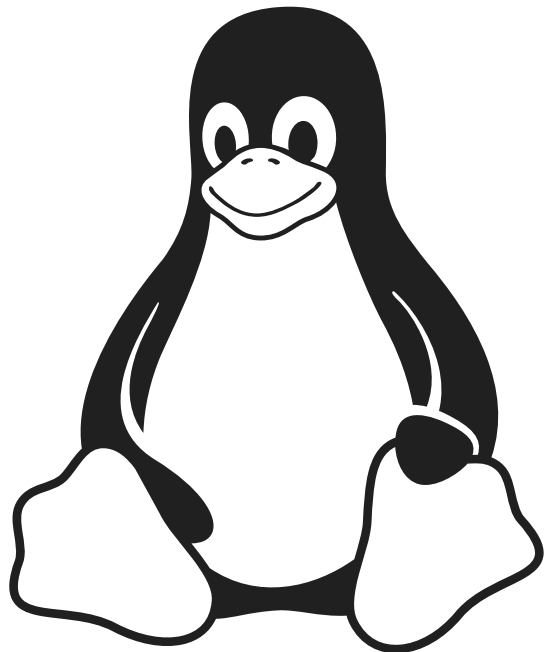

Alexey Shipunov

Computer Literacy for Science Majors

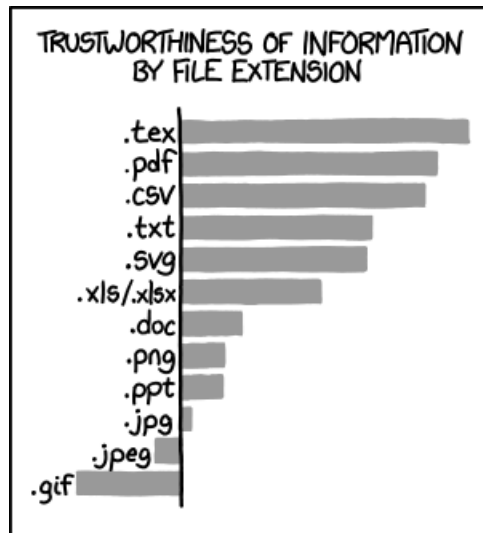
Notes and exercises



Draft, version November 29, 2017

Make the computer do the dirty work.

Tim O'Reilly



Shipunov, Alexey. *Computer Literacy for Science Majors. Notes and exercises.* November 29, 2017 version (draft). 138 pp.

Title page image: Tux, Linux mascot. Some other heading illustrations were taken (with deep gratitude) from XKCD, <https://xkcd.com>. CTAN lion drawing is by Duane Bibby; thanks to www.ctan.org.

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Files

 **WARNING!**

THIS TYPE OF FILE CAN HARM YOUR COMPUTER!
ARE YOU SURE YOU WANT TO DOWNLOAD:

HTTP://65.222.202.53/~TILDE/PUB/CIA-BIN/ETC/INIT.DLL?FILE=___AUTOEXEC.
BAT.MY%20OSX%20DOCUMENTS-INSTALL.EXE.RAR.INI.TAR.DOCX.PHPPHP.
XHTML.TML.XTL.TXT.ODAY.HACK.ERS_(1995)_BLURAY_CAM-XVID.EXE.TAR.[SCR].
LISP.MSI.LNK.ZDA.GNN.WRBT.OBJ.O.H.SWF.DPKG.APP.ZIP.TAR.TAR.CO.GZ.A.OUT.EXE

CANCEL

SAVE

Chapter 1

Text

1. Essentially, computer understands only numbers. Simple text interface was developed to make communication easier. Despite simplicity, it is extremely powerful and have much more capabilities than point and click graphical interface.
2. There are two main issues with simple text, line ends and encoding:
 - (a) Line ends must be encoded as a separate invisible symbol(s). The way historically differ between operating systems: old Mac, Windows and UNIX. Most of text software is aware of these differences but there are some (like Windows Notepad) which do not do this job well.
 - (b) Encoding regulates how many bytes are spend per symbol of text. There are (among others) 1 and 2 bytes encodings.
 - (c) 1 byte encodings like ASCII or Latin-1 (ISO 8859-1) could only support 256 symbols, this is enough for core English but not enough for many world languages, especially if they used together. Actually, ASCII encodes only 128 symbols so it is $\frac{7}{8}$ -byte encoding.
 - (d) 2 byte encodings like UTF-8 could support $256 \times 256 = 65536$ symbols which practically is enough for most of current languages together.
 - (e) Some systems use 4 byte or 8 byte UTF-16 or UTF-32. The first is quite popular on Windows.
 - (f) UTF-8 has one advantage over other multi-byte encodings: English letter are encoded like in ASCII. This is useful and saves traffic.
 - (g) UTF-8 is one (of many) realizations of Unicode standard which covers **all** symbols which humanity developed during its history.
 - (h) And one more detail: some computers read bytes from right to left (from second to first), and others from left to right. So UTF-8 text files have byte

order mark (BOM) in the beginning of file. Sometimes, if BOM is accidentally absent, software could have troubles with UTF-8 encoded files.

Text software

There are many editors which are capable to work with simple text, i.e. text without formatting, which symbols only (including invisible ones like line ends, tabulation *etc.*) However, only few of them are really cross-platform (work on Windows, Linux and macOS) and even less are free and open source:

- Geany. Fast, has many plug-ins which enhance it.
- Kate. Part of the KDE environment but could be used separately.

Exercise 1

Open the text editor, type or copy-paste two English words **with accented symbols**, save this text in Latin-1 encoding, and (under the different names) in UTF-8 encoding. How different are these files (in bytes)? Why? Explain.

How to type accented symbols? The easiest way is copy-paste them. Many operation systems have **character table** which allows to pick these symbols. Finally, there are operation system specific ways to enter them with keyboard (see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unicode_input). For the last method, you will be required to know Unicode number of symbol you want.

How to find English words with accented symbols? Hint: these are words taken from other languages like Spanish or French.

Exercise 2

Now look on the following 10 words:

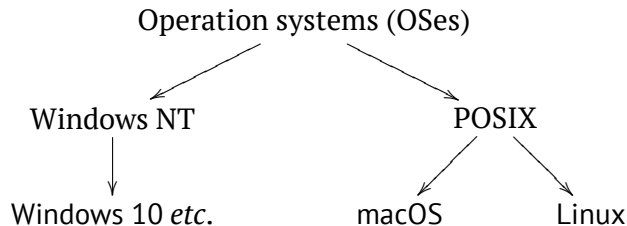
one two three four five six seven eight nine ten
--

Two of them are *not* English words because they contain “alien” letters in non-English encoding. **How** to find which two?

Chapter 2

Operating systems

Operating systems provide ways to control the computer. From the end user point of view, they all similar but in reality their internal structure could be radically different. Essentially, there are three operating systems:



Windows NT Has a long history and multiple versions. Zillions of applications, and many old ones are still working (**backward compatibility**). Does not relate with UNIX. Completely proprietary and closed.

macOS UNIX-based (better name is POSIX). Again, long history but much less backward compatibility. The least number of free / open source software among all three systems. Uniform graphical interface based on PDF (see later). iPhone OS (iOS) is close to macOS.

Linux UNIX-based but with solid core (two others have microcore, small “center” of OS). Free, open source, developed non-commercially, with community. Android and ChromeOS are close to Linux.

It is possible to run one operating system from another with virtual machine and other virtualization technologies. For example, JS Linux is Linux which works within browser window.

Many operation systems have **system monitors**, programs which allow you to control how many resources are taken by application, find hidden processes or even stop unwanted activity.

Exercise 3

On your computer (with any of above OS) most of programs are closed with mouse click. It is possible however to close them indirectly, through system processes monitor. Run one application, then run monitor, then close application **without touching application window**.

How to run this monitor on different OSES?

Windows Press Ctrl+Shift+Esc to launch Task Manager. Click the Processes tab and find your application. Alternatively, download and install Process Explorer application; in many ways, it works much better than default Task Manager.

macOS In Applications / Utilities menu, find the Activity Monitor, or run Terminal application and go Linux way (below)

Linux Either run System Monitor (or similar name, typically in Applications / System Tools menu), or start the terminal, then find the number of process with commands `ps` and `grep`, then kill this process by number with command `kill`:

```
$ ps aux | grep calculator
user  20160  0.6  0.1  ...  calculator
...
$ kill 20160
```

Chapter 3

Files and file systems

Computers operate with numbers, and these numbers are organized in chunks, files. Every file has a descriptor, and file system is responsible for the association between file names and descriptors.

When you want to “open” the file, your application asks OS, OS asks file system, file system finds catalog of descriptors and finally finds the file and helps application to load it.

File system is also responsible for file deletions, file restoration, file relocation, copying, linking, directories and many more.

All recent file systems are hierarchical, tree-like. Files in directories, and directories in another, higher level directories. Finally, there is a highest level, root location (or locations):

NTFS Windows file system. Case-insensitive, symbolic links (when one file has several names) restricted. Has many (but little used) advanced features. File names with " * : / \ ? < > | are not allowed; there are also forbidden file names: AUX, CON, NUL, PRN, COM#, LPT# (where # is any digit). Allows very long file names (thousands of symbols). Path delimiter (which separate directories) is either backslash or slash.

FAT Older Windows file systems (several versions), still widely used, especially on external devices like flash drives. Case-insensitive, true symbolic links absent. Even more restrictive file naming rules, older versions do not allow more than 12 symbols (8 for name + dot + 3 for extension). Path delimiter is backslash.

HFS macOS file system, case-insensitive, with symbolic links. Few file naming restrictions, e.g., colon (:) which on older Macs was used to separate directories. File name could be 255 Unicode symbols. Path delimiter is colon (deprecated) or slash.

extfs Linux file systems (several versions in place), with symbolic links and almost no restrictions on file names (could be 63 Unicode symbols). Case sensitive which means that `file.txt` and `File.txt` are different files. Path delimiter is slash.

Case-sensitivity (or insensitivity) is probably most notorious feature of common file systems. One of common misunderstandings, for example, is to save JPEG file (say, a photo for Web page) with uppercase `.JPG` extension but link is as lowercase (`.jpg`). Web page looks well on Windows machine but on Web server (which is typically some Linux) fails to show the photo.

In addition, various file operation tools add their own restrictions. For example, exclamation mark is allowable but may cause trouble when you type this name in terminal. Space is good, but some programs regard space as file name separator. And symbols from national languages (Chinese or Russian) cause additional trouble, especially when they visually similar to English ones like Russian “o” and English “o” (do you see the difference?). With so many specific rules, the safest way to name files is:

Use only English lowercase letters, 0–9 digits, underscore and dot (only for extension); the shorter is the name, the better.

Exercise 4

How to understand that o-like letters above are actually different?

File name extensions

Dot and three symbols (sometimes, 1–2, rarely 4 or more) in the very end of the file name were invented to allow applications “understand” the type of file (in other words, the way this file is structured). Whereas (except on Windows) extension is not essential, this is quite handy and should be used wherever possible.

Unfortunately, Windows and macOS by default hide file extensions. This is not only disinformative but also unsafe as many harmful software (viruses, malware) use this setting. To make extensions visible:

macOS Go to Finder preferences, choose Advanced tab and *select* the appropriate box.

Windows Click View tab in File Explorer, choose Options, then View again, *unselect* appropriate box and apply this to all folders.

Organize your files

The basic principles of file system organization were developed in UNIX systems after many years of tries and errors. Most important:

1. Try to separate (a) user files, (b) user-created application configuration files and (c) system files. The good idea is also to separate (d) archive files.

User files are text, images, audio, video etc. created by user. *Archive files* are files created by other people.

2. Separation should be as deep as possible, the best variant is to keep all four above groups on different physical devices.
3. Make meaningful names of files and directories. For temporary goals however, make names as short as possible, numeric names like 1.txt are probably the best.
4. Avoid making “file dumpsters” where many files lay non-classified.
5. Make regular backups and keep them physically distant from the computer. Even better is to make **two** separate backups each time.
6. Not only *make* backups but also regularly *check* if backups are not damaged.

There many possible ways to organize your files. One is to make only one working directory (saying, *wrk*) and place all your files there by subdirectories.

What are these subdirectories, is really personal, however, it is highly recommended to make one of them (e.g., *wrk/temp* or *wrk/tmp*) directory for quick tasks, temporary and/or recent work which. It is also handy to make your browser download stuff there.

File operations

Files could be created, renamed, copied, moved or deleted. Each of these operations has its own specific.

Creation Typically, it is not easy just to make the file without content. On Linux, however, this might be done with touch command.

Rename Note that this is not an operation with file, this is an operation with file system. If you rename the file, you change the list of files in current directory and/or in particular place of the current file system.

Copy Typically, this is creation of new file + writing to it.

Move Copy, then remove the first one. However, if this operation does not go outside of particular physical device (like one hard disk or one flash drive), it is analogous to renaming and therefore very fast.

Remove Depending on operation and file system used, this is either reversible or (more frequent) non-reversible so you delete your files forever. Many OSes have “trash” mechanism which moves “deleted” files into the trash directory first, and “emptying trash” is a permanent removal. There are undelete/unerase tools around which might claim an ability to restore even after emptying the trash, but most of them are not very effective, especially if user applies them long after deletion.

File metadata

“Metadata” is something about the file, not directly related with file content. For example, metadata might tell about what is on this image, when it was taken and so on. There are several approaches:

1. Keep metadata within a file, sometimes in a way hidden from user. This is how cameras keep their metadata in JPEG files, or office programs—within documents. This way is productive enough but often works against privacy and also depends on particular software.
2. Keep metadata in a file directory, as a special feature of file system, or even simpler, as a separate text file, `description` with two columns: file name and file description.

File managers. OFM

Almost every operation system has a way to control file creation, naming, moving, linking etc. Typically, there is some file manager application. There are many of them. Best file managers employ simple idea of two panels which both contain file lists, and user do all operations from left to right or from right to left. Advantage of these file managers (so-called OFMs) is that they save time, file operations are 2–5 times faster then in other programs!

In addition, OFMs host multiple useful functions: user menus, internal editors and viewers for different file types, embedded archiving and compression functions, abil-

ity to access networks with different protocols, and many others. There are several OFMs which are cross-platform, e.g., work on Windows, macOS and Linux:

- Double Commander. Fast, intensively developing software, has many plug-ins.
- muCommander. Requires Java. Generally, more stable than Double Commander.

Exercise 5

Create 9 files named `file1.txt`, `file2.txt`, ..., `file9.txt`. How long did it take? How to speed up this process?

Privacy and cleaning

Various software leave numerous traces on your computer. If it is not what you want, and if you want to keep (relative) privacy, there are several programs which wipe out most conspicuous unwanted results of your work. BleachBit, for example, is completely cross-platform and not only increase privacy but also free the disk space.

Among others, BleachBit helps to clean:

1. Browsers' **cache**, storage which browsers use to improve the user-visible speed. Cache often keeps older versions of documents, and it is not always easy to clean it in order to obtain the recent version.
2. **Cookies**, identifiers which allow external Web sites to remember you and, for example, do not give you discount prices even if they available to others.
3. **Temporary files** of various kinds, including Windows `Thumbnails.db` which presents in every directory with images, or macOS `.DS_Store`, which is located on any device which came out of Mac computer.

Chapter 4

Internet

Internet protocols

When computers connect through the network, they perform multiple standardized operations; this is network protocol. Many of them now are only little more than historical relics, and only few are common:

HTTP Hypertext protocol which allows browsing with hyperlinks; this is now core Internet protocol. Important is to know that if your computer becomes HTTP server, your file system is not accessible, HTTP does not understand it. You can create a file on your Web site but if there is no link to it, nobody, even Google or other indexing system, will not know about it.

HTTPS Somehow similar to HTTP but everything is encrypted, therefore, no third party will know what you send or receive. Now there is a movement to replace HTTP with HTTPS wherever possible, for obvious reasons.

If you want to connect securely, your computer must know if it can't trust the other side. This is why it uses *certificates*. In practice, however, it is possible to replace good certificate with a bad one, and then listen to your "encrypted" connections which are not encrypted anymore (this is called MiTM, man-in-the-middle attack). So even with HTTPS, you do not have 100% guaranteed privacy.

FTP File transfer protocol. This will see your file system (if your computer is FTP server).

SSH Secure shell connection. Allows to connect two computers to (1) work remotely in the terminal and (2) transfer files through the encrypted channel. Useful, especially for the remote administration, updates and almost everywhere when you need to work on more than one computer.

mailto Strictly speaking, this is not a protocol, it is more like a gateway to multiple protocols responsible for the sending of email messages. Encryption here is still rare.

DOI Again, not exactly a protocol but identifier which allows to refer books and articles.

magnet This is from the big family of *peer-to-peer* protocols which allow to connect two or more computers without server or with the minimal participation of server. Useful for sharing files.

Exercise 6

Sometimes, when you enter `https://` instead of `http://` as URL, your Internet browser reports things like “Secure Connection Failed”. But the reverse is not true. Why?

Chapter 5

Licenses

Internet brought many new things to the society, and *free software* is one of the most important. “Free” as a freedom, not as free beer, they frequently say. There are many variants of free licenses, some are shortly explained below:

GNU GPL This license relates with GNU Project, idea to re-create UNIX-like operation system as free and open source. And yes, they did what they planned. One (theoretically) can sell GNU GPL software, but license states that you also must distribute the source code and that is forbidden to restrict the free redistribution.

Creative Commons The big family of free licenses which provide multiple ways how to use and modify product, its source code and how to credit authors.

Public domain The most free license. Public domain means that anyone can use, modify, sell, buy, even without any credit to the original author. These notes are public domain.

Commands

Chapter 6

CLI is to command

There are two choices for computer user:

1. If you want to command your computer, use commands through command-line interface (CLI)
2. If you want your computer to command you, use graphical user interface (GUI)

This sounds dramatic, but in essence correct. Command line tools give you freedom and control on your machine.

* * *

When you learn how to command your computer, remember these two (related) advices:

Make mistakes! The more mistakes you do now, the more you learn, and less you do in future.

Experiment! Copy-paste from this book, change code, invent your own code, try something new, ask “what if” questions and try to answer it yourself.

Chapter 7

Terminals and where to find them

There is typically no problem to find terminal application, they are called Terminal, Terminal.app (macOS: Utilities → Terminal.app) or Command Prompt (Windows: Windows System → Command Prompt).

If you start terminal for the first time, one of problems is to run it in such a way that its *current directory* is directory you want. Typically, user has some kind of *working directory* to run Python programs, make Web pages, L^AT_EX documents and other stuff. However, when you start terminal, it by default starts somewhere else. So the goal is to point your terminal to the place you want.

This is possible, if you know terminal commands. Most important is `cd`. Open terminal window, then type something like:

```
cd c:/Users/<myname>/Desktop/wrk
```

<myname> is the name of current user (likely you), and everything after `cd` is the location which you declare to be your *working directory*. It might be helpful to open file manager in a separate window (or “Save” window of your editor), locate this path and then type it into the terminal.

To check if you are in the desired place (working directory), type `dir` (Windows) or `pwd` and then `ls` (UNIX-like). You should see the name of your directory and names of files which should be kept there.

If you not exactly sure where is your goal directory, type `dir` (or `ls`) and `cd <dir>` sequentially, until you find the destination, and your command prompt shows the name of working directory.

* * *

While all OSes have terminal applications, only UNIX-based (macOS and Linux) run “true”, POSIX-compliant terminals. Thus, it is not easy to start learning terminal commands if you work on Windows. Several workarounds exist.

First, there are emulation tools, for example, JSLinux which runs kind of (restricted) Linux system in your browser. There is also tools which run terminal applications natively. One is a Cygwin, system which is designed to run POSIX terminals on Windows machines. Cygwin is freeware, and should run on any kind of Windows computer. Another system is DJGPP, Delorie GNU Programming Platform, which is more lightweight.

Chapter 8

UNIX Power Tools

To learn famous UNIX power tools, you must **type all examples** in this chapter. To make life easier, create `Desktop` in your home directory (it might already exist) and `wrk` inside `Desktop`.

Navigate

To move between directories, you only need to know several symbols and two commands.

Main command is `cd` (“change directory”). It is not a separate program but the part to *UNIX shell* which is secretly present in *all* examples below.

`cd` will bring you anywhere if you know the address, *path*. Fortunately, *completion* allows not to remember paths but simply type `Tab` and look what system shows. When you are in place, it is good to check files “around you” with command `ls` (“list”). In addition, command `pwd` shows where you are (i.e., name of directory). However, this name is typically shown in the prompt.

Suppose I am somewhere and want to find my working directory which name is `wrk` and it is among in my user directories:

```
myname@mycomp:~$ cd ~                # this is to go to my home: ~
myname@mycomp:~$ ls                   # so what is there?
bin Desktop wrk                       # oh, I found Desktop!
myname@mycomp:~$ cd Desktop           # go to desktop
/home/myname/Desktop
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ ls          # what is on Desktop?
cr wrk                                 # found it!
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ cd wrk
/home/myname/Desktop/wrk
```

```

myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ pwd          # again, where am I?
/home/alexey/Desktop/wrk
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls         # just in case, what is here?
1.txt

```

(Symbol # is a *comment*, everything after it ignored.)

To go up one level, use

```

myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cd ..
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$

```

One dot (.) is the current directory so `cd .` do not move you anywhere, it is useful in other situations.

Completion works like some replacement for `ls`:

```

myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ cd ./          # then I typed Tab and see:
something_else/ wrk/                   # two directories here
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ cd ./wrk/     # so I types one letter "u"
                                         # then Tab
                                         # and system completed
                                         # with "niv_110/"
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$          # and I am here!

```

(Forward slash / is *directory separator*.)

Files

To make empty (0-size) file, type

```

myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ touch 1.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls -l
total 0
-rw-rw-r-- 1 myname myname 0 Nov  8 22:49 1.txt

```

(Note `ls -l` which shows more details about file, including size.)

If you want to remove it (not to trash but forever!), type `rm 1.txt`.

To move it from local directory one level up, type:

```

myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ mv 1.txt ..
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls ..    # to check
1.txt something_else wrk              # yes, it is there

```

```

myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ mv ../1.txt . # move it back
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls          # check again
1.txt                                     # yes, it is back

```

To copy, use something like `cp 1.txt 2.txt`.

By the way, many power tools are not fool proof! UNIX typically assumes that you know what you are doing. So, for example, `cp` will copy one file into another if even it exist and therefore will completely erase the previous content *without any warning*.

Find

It is too boring, even with completion, repeatedly type `cd` and `ls`. There are two tools which help to find files and directories *by name*:

```

myname@mycomp:~$ find -name "univ*"
./Desktop/wrk
myname@mycomp:~$ locate wrk
/home/myname/Desktop/wrk

```

`find` works in real time and search within given directory (by default, within current), `locate` uses database and return the absolute path (which starts with slash). `find` can also use *wildcards*, for example, star `*` which means “any number of any symbols”, or `?` which is “just one symbol”.

If you want to find files by content, read below about `grep`.

Directories

To make directories, use `mkdir`. It can make multiple directories (with the help of shell) and the sequence of directories (directory tree) in one step:

```

myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ mkdir -p one/{1,2,3}
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ find
.
./one
./one/2
./one/3
./one/1

```

(Here find used to list everything which is in current directory.)

Remove (empty) directory tree with `rm -r`:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ rm -r one
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ find
.                                # nothing is left
```

Non-empty directories could be removed with `rm -rf` command but be careful: if you apply it without thinking, you could really harm your computer. You warned.

* * *

Utility `ln` allows to make symbolic links which is one of the most powerful mechanism related with UNIX file systems. Suppose that I have three files:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ touch {1,2,3}.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls ?.txt
1.txt 2.txt 3.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$
```

I want to categorize them. The most common way is to distribute them by directories. But what if I want *two* different systems of categories? In other words, two views on these files? If I copy these files, then every edit, I must edit twice (or edit once and copy afterwards).

Symbolic links will solve this problem in a most elegant way.

First, I prepare these two views:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ mkdir -p by_type/{tables,texts} \
> by_content/{home,work}
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ find -type d
.
./by_content
./by_content/work
./by_content/home
./by_type
./by_type/texts
./by_type/tables
```

(Symbol `\` on one line and `>` on next line mean that I split the line in two parts because it was too long for the book. If you type `\` and press `Enter`, then symbol `>` on next line appears automatically. This is because `\` is *escape*, it protects next symbol to be interpret as usual.)

Second, make symbolic links from each file into both places:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ln -s 1.txt by_type/texts/1.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ln -s 2.txt by_type/texts/2.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ln -s 3.txt by_type/tables/3.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ln -s 1.txt by_content/work/1.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ln -s 2.txt by_content/home/2.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ln -s 3.txt by_content/home/3.txt
```

Finally, check the result with ls, find or (like below) tree command:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ tree --charset ascii
```

```
.
|-- 1.txt
|-- 2.txt
|-- 3.txt
|-- by_content
|   |-- home
|   |   |-- 2.txt -> 2.txt
|   |   `-- 3.txt -> 3.txt
|   `-- work
|       `-- 1.txt -> 1.txt
`-- by_type
    |-- tables
    |   `-- 3.txt -> 3.txt
    `-- texts
        |-- 1.txt -> 1.txt
        `-- 2.txt -> 2.txt
```

6 directories, 9 files

* * *

Now for the sake of learning, we break out file naming rules and copy one of our files to the new one which name contains a space:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cp 1.txt new 1.txt
cp: target '1.txt' is not a directory
```

Does not work! This is because space by default delimits items in the command line. This was, by the way, the main reason to avoid space containing file names. Of course, it is possible to make files with space in the name, it is enough to *escape* space with backslash, like `new\ 1.txt`. However, this is better to avoid.

Help

How to know what all these commands do? Read this book, especially the cheatsheet in the end of chapter. Or use help. Typically, there are two kinds of help:

1. Manual pages. To call, use `man <program_name>`, e.g., `man ln`. You will see manual page in a viewer, usually `less`. To quit `less`, type `q`.
2. Help option. To call, use `<program_name> --help` (note two dashes). Short help will output on the screen.

Pipes

In UNIX, everything is a text. Ideally, every program should output some text and accept it as input¹. If the program outputs text, you will see it on the screen:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ ls
wrk
```

Or you can redirect it to file:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ ls > 0.txt
```

Now use `cat` command to check content of `0.txt`:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ cat 0.txt
0.txt
wrk
```

Wait a minute—why is `0.txt` there? This is because the shell first creates the file, and only then performs the command. So at the moment when `ls` start to run, there were two items, `wrk` and `0.txt`.

If file already exists, its content will be erased and replaced with output. However, you can add output to the end of file:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ echo "3" >> 0.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ cat 0.txt
0.txt
wrk
3
```

¹Even clipboard, through `xclip` utility.

(Command echo simply outputs its argument.)

You can redirect output of one command into input of another. This is a *pipe*:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ ls | cat
0.txt
wrk
```

(Almost useless example because ls will output text anyway, but you got the idea.)

Text

We already know cat which outputs content of any file, and less which shows content in a separate viewer instance.

By the way, cat (together with UNIX shell) can be regarded as simplest text editor:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cat > new.txt
ATGGTTCCA                                # now, type something
                                           # new line is Enter
                                           # when done, press Ctrl+D

myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cat new.txt
ATGGTTCCA
```

(Ctrl+D is an “end of input” symbol.)

Utility tail is similar to cat but outputs the very end of file (typically, very long file like log-files of servers), it even can update the output on regular intervals (with option `tail -f`) and therefore show how the file grows.

Useful wc counts symbols and lines in the file:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop$ wc -l 0.txt
3 0.txt
```

(So far, 3 lines in 0.txt.)

* * *

But the UNIX star is grep, utility to search files by content:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ echo "1" > 1.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ echo "2" > 2.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cat *txt > 3.txt
```

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ grep 1 *txt
1.txt:1
3.txt:1
```

Naturally, symbol “1” presents only in `1.txt` and `3.txt`, each time in first row.

Utilities `sort` and `uniq` also belong to the those tools which select something from file. `sort` sorts (what else can it do?), and `uniq` removes duplicates, typically from already sorted text:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cat > 4.txt
one
two
three
one
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ sort 4.txt | uniq
one
three
two
```

`fmt` re-format paragraphs (chunks of text separated with empty line) in accordance with some given length (default is 75):

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ fmt 4.txt
one two three one
```

Finally, `diff` and `comm` are really useful when you want to find differences. `diff` is better for texts and log-files, `comm` is better for sorted lists and tables:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ diff 1.txt 3.txt
1a2
> 2
```

So `3.txt` differs from `1.txt` in symbol “2” on the added second row.

`comm` produces three-column output. Third column are rows common between two files, first column—unique to first file, second column—to second file:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ comm 1.txt 3.txt
      1
     2
```

(There is nothing unique to `1.txt` so first column did not appear.)

Regexp

Regexp is a shortcut for “regular expressions” which is a way to generalize text editing. Suppose that we have a long text where all numeric intervals are shown as hyphens, like:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cat > 5.txt
one
32-34
brown-violet
2.1-15
T-shirt
150-150.5
```

But I want them to be en-dashes, which are lines longer than hyphens. In plain text, en-dashes are typically shown as double hyphens. So I want something like:

```
one
32--34
brown-violet
2.1--15
T-shirt
150--150.5
```

One way is to search each hyphen and, if it is surrounded with digits, replace it with double hyphen. Regular expressions allow to do it automatically:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cat 5.txt | \
> sed "s/\([0-9]\)-\([0-9]\)/\1--\2/g"
one
32--34
brown-violet
2.1--15
T-shirt
150--150.5
```

(Symbols `\` and `>` used because line was too long, see above.)

A bit frightening, was it? This is a main complaint about regexps, complicated syntax. But this one is simple enough:

`sed` is stream editor, command editor which changes any input

`"s/.../.../g"` means search and replace globally, so if there multiple replacements on one line, all will be replaced

[0-9] is any digit from 0 to 9

\(...\) save this in memory to use in replacement part

- this is hyphen to replace with double hyphens

\1 and \2 first and second memorized object (which appeared in \(...\))

Our regular expression does exactly what you would do if you replace manually, but it is way faster and do not skip entries.

sed is extremely powerful and allows to change files of giant size in seconds. Related task is to rename multiple files. There are many utilities but one of most widespread is rename:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ rename -n 's/([0-9])/file$1/g' *txt
rename(1.txt, file1.txt)
rename(2.txt, file2.txt)
rename(3.txt, file3.txt)
rename(4.txt, file4.txt)
rename(5.txt, file5.txt)
```

(Option `-n` shows how files would be renamed. If you want the proposed changes, remove `-n`.)

It is a bit inconsistent with sed regexps because it uses slightly different rules (so-called Perl regexps: `$1` instead of `\1`, `(` instead of `\(`) but principle is the same.

Connect

Terminal can do all network-related things, including Web browsing (there is, for example, links2 text browser). I think that for beginners, most important network-related tools are:

wget, offline browser, allows to download Web pages and whole Web sites.

ifconfig shows your current IP address (or addresses).

rsync, synchronization tool, allows for backups and cloud-like services.

ssh, secure shell (see above).

Script

Shell was “secretly” present in all examples above. First, shell controls wildcards which expand when you want short descriptions of file names:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls *txt
1.txt 2.txt 3.txt 4.txt 5.txt new.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls ?.txt
1.txt 2.txt 3.txt 4.txt 5.txt
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls [1-3].txt
1.txt 2.txt 3.txt
```

Shell controls redirection: input, output and pipes.

Shell also controls prompt which in our examples was:

```
myname@mycomp:<current_dir>$
```

* * *

Shell can do much more. For example, shell *scripts*. When you repeat your command over and over again, you might want to save your typing and invent some kind of program which will do work for you.

Say, we want a typical (see below) “Hello, World!” program. If we want shell to show us something, we use echo:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ echo "Hello, World!"
Hello, World!
```

Now, some little magic and we will have `hello.sh` script:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cat > hello.sh
#!/bin/bash
echo "Hello, World!" # do not forget Ctrl+D in the end
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ . ./hello.sh
Hello, World!
```

(Dot `.` is the *run command*, and next to it are `./` which means that script is in *current directory*.)

Our first shell script contains two lines. Second we already tried manually. First is *shebang* line which tells system that I need bash (“Bourne-again” shell) to run my script. In case of `hello.sh`, shebang is not so necessary.

hello.sh is not very useful, but if you want something complicated, for example, change multiple files, script is the most practical way.

Say, for example, that we want to backup text files, copy each of them to new file, keep the name but change extension to *.bak. Then we need the following script:

```
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ cat > bak.sh
#!/bin/bash
for file in *txt
do
name="${file%.*}"
cp $name.txt $name.bak
done
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ . ./bak.sh # run it
myname@mycomp:~/Desktop/wrk$ ls          # check result
1.bak  1.txt  2.bak  2.txt  3.bak  3.txt
4.bak  4.txt  5.bak  5.txt  bak.sh
hello.sh  new.bak  new.txt
```

UNIX Power Tools cheatsheet

List below might helpful in order to find which utility to use. To know *how to use*, run man and/or --help option. Some utilities were not explained above in details, hence the short comment.

Input and output

bash UNIX shell
 cat
 echo
 tail

Files and directories

cd
 cp
 find
 ln
 ls
 mc file manager
 mkdir
 mv
 pwd
 rm
 touch
 tree

Modify text

nano text editor
 ne another text editor
 sed
 sort
 uniq

Compare

diff
 comm

Search

find
 grep
 locate

Net

curl fetch Web pages
 ifconfig
 ssh secure shell
 wget

Permissions

chmod change access mode
 chown change owner

Info

cal calendar
 du disk space usage
 date date **and** time
 less
 history command history
 wc

Processes

kill control process
 ps show processes
 top show processes in table

Backup

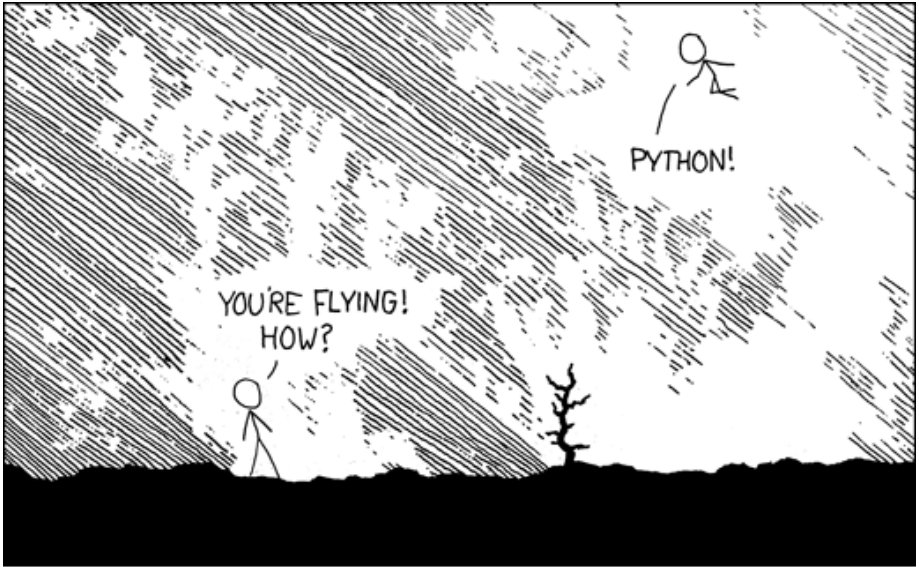
gzip compress
 rsync
 tar make archive

Utilities

convert ImageMagick
 leanify image optimizer
 pdftimages extract images from PDF
 pdftk PDF toolkit
 pdflatex run \LaTeX

* * *

And if you want to read more about “UNIX power tools”, the best book has the same exact name.



I LEARNED IT LAST NIGHT! EVERYTHING IS SO SIMPLE!
HELLO WORLD IS JUST
`print "Hello, world!"`

I DUNNO...
DYNAMIC TYPING?
WHITESPACE?

COME JOIN US!
PROGRAMMING IS FUN AGAIN!
IT'S A WHOLE NEW WORLD UP HERE!




BUT HOW ARE YOU FLYING?

I JUST TYPED
`import antigravity`

THAT'S IT?

... I ALSO SAMPLED EVERYTHING IN THE MEDICINE CABINET FOR COMPARISON.



BUT I THINK THIS IS THE PYTHON.

Chapter 9

Intro to Python

The goal of this part is to teach how to command your computer, which is essentially how to program.

One of the best programmer's learning tools is the Python programming language because it is a rare combination of being easy useful from first steps.

Some of the following chapters are modified from the open source Python book, "Non-Programmer's Tutorial for Python" which was initially the text of Josh Cogliati and then extended by multiple co-authors and now is hosting on Wikipedia (https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Non-Programmer's_Tutorial_for_Python_2.6).

First things first

So, you've never programmed before. As we go through this tutorial I will attempt to teach you how to program. There really is only one way to learn to program. **You** must read code and write code. I'm going to show you lots of code. You should type in code that I show you to see what happens. Play around with it and make changes. The worst that can happen is that it won't work. When I type in code it will be formatted like this:

```
print "Hello, World!"
```

That's so it is easy to distinguish from the other text. I will also print what the computer outputs in that same font.

Installing Python

Now, on to more important things. In order to program in Python you need the Python software.

If you work on Windows, go to <http://www.python.org> and get the proper version for your OS. Download it, read the instructions and get it installed. Important operation is to add Python executable to the *search path*. Fortunately, the recent installer program will do it for you if during the installation, you choose “Add python.exe to Path,” and then select “Will be installed on local hard drive”. Sometimes, you need to restart your computer after installation.

If you work on Linux, Python is most likely already installed on your computer. Latest macOS versions also have pre-installed Python.

2 or 3?

This is the long story, but **two** most recent versions of Python are simultaneously available, one starts with “2”, and the other with “3”. I will need you to download, install and use 2-version (for example, Python 2.7.12, or Python 2.7.14, whatever 2-version is most recent).

Interactive Mode

First, you should run the terminal.

Second, terminal should run in the directory where you want to keep your Python programs. If you do not know how to run terminal application in given directory, see the above for details.

Next, in the terminal window, type `python`. You should see some text like this:

```
Python 2.7.12 (default, Nov 19 2016, 06:48:10)
[GCC 5.4.0 20160609] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>>
```

The `>>>` is Python way of telling you that you are in *interactive mode*. In interactive mode what you type is immediately run. Try typing `1+1` in. Python will respond with `2`. Interactive mode allows you to test out and see what Python will do. If you ever

feel you need to play with new Python statements go into interactive mode and try them out.

To quit interactive mode, type `quit()`, or (on UNIX-like) `Ctrl+D`, or (Windows) `Ctrl+Z` and `Enter`.

Python in Web Browser

If you cannot, do not want or do not have time to install Python on your computer, use online emulator based on Skulpt, for example, http://ashipunov.info/shipunov/school/univ_110/python.htm. However, it is a poor man's solution since there are multiple restrictions, and most important is the inability to work with files.

Chapter 10

Hello, World!

The main way to use Python is not interactive, and not with emulator. It is to create and run *programs*.

Creating and Running your First Program

Programming tutorials since the beginning of time have started with a little program called “Hello, World!” So here it is:

```
print "Hello, World!"
```

Open text editor and type the following:

```
print "Hello, World!"
```

First save the program. Go to **File** then **Save**. Save it in your working directory¹ as `hello.py`. Now that it is saved it can be run.

Next run the program by typing in terminal²:

```
$ python hello.py
```

This will output

```
Hello, World!
```

Your first program is done!

¹It is where you keep all your Python programs.

²Before that, do not forget to point your terminal to the working directory. Use `ls/dir` and `cd` commands. Then with the same `ls` or `dir` check if your `hello.py` is actually there. Instead of terminal, you can open Python browser emulator, copy-paste your code and click “Run”.

And you also learned the important principle: *edit in one place, run in another*. Edit your program in text editor (like Geany), save it, and run it in the terminal³.

If you do not like result, or want to improve it, go back to editor window, change your program, *save* it, then go to terminal and run `python` again.

Printing

Now I'm not going to tell you this every time, but when I show you a program I recommend that you type (or copy-paste) it in and run it. I learn better when I type it in and you probably do too.

Now here is a more complicated program:

```
print "Jack and Jill went up a hill"  
print "to fetch a pail of water;"  
print "Jack fell down, and broke his crown,"  
print "and Jill came tumbling after."
```

When you run this program it prints out:

```
Jack and Jill went up a hill  
to fetch a pail of water;  
Jack fell down, and broke his crown,  
and Jill came tumbling after.
```

Save it in working directory as `jack.py`, and run. When the computer runs this program it first sees the line:

```
print "Jack and Jill went up a hill"
```

so the computer prints:

```
Jack and Jill went up a hill
```

Then the computer goes down to the next line and sees:

```
print "to fetch a pail of water;"
```

So the computer prints to the screen:

```
to fetch a pail of water;
```

³Geany for macOS and Linux has terminal embedded; also, on all systems Geany is able to run your current file with Run menu.

The computer keeps looking at each line, follows the command and then goes on to the next line. The computer keeps running commands until it reaches the end of the program.

Quotes

Now you understand that double quote is a sign to tell Python that everything next to it is a text. Until another double quote.

Remember two mottoes? *Experiment!* What if there is a *single quote*?

Modify `jack.py`:

```
print "Jack and Jill went up a hill"
print "to fetch a pail of water;"
print "Jack fell down, and broke his crown,"
print "and Jill came tumbling after.'
```

(There is only *one* difference. **Find** it.)

Save and run:

```
$ python jack.py
File "jack.py", line 4
    print "and Jill came tumbling after.'
```

SyntaxError: EOL while scanning string literal

Mistake. Do not worry! Remember—*do as many mistakes as possible!* So what is wrong? Modify again:

```
print "Jack and Jill went up a hill"
print "to fetch a pail of water;"
print "Jack fell down, and broke his crown,"
print 'and Jill came tumbling after.'
```

Save and run:

```
$ python jack.py
Jack and Jill went up a hill
to fetch a pail of water;
Jack fell down, and broke his crown,
and Jill came tumbling after.
```

Everything is fine again! So, Python does not mind which quote to use. But *quotes must be paired*. This is made to allow double and single quotes to be used as single symbols:

```
print "Jack and Jill went up a hill"
print 'to fetch a 10" pail of water;'
print "Jack fell down, and broke Jack's crown,"
print 'and Jill \'came\' tumbling after.'
```

Output:

```
$ python jack.py
Jack and Jill went up a hill
to fetch a 10" pail of water;
Jack fell down, and broke Jack's crown,
and Jill 'came' tumbling after.
```

(So if pairing does not work, one can use backslashes to “escape”, or protect, quotes.)

Some mistakes and many experiments—and you know now how quotes work.

Expressions

Here is another program:

```
print "2 + 2 is", 2+2
print "3 * 4 is", 3 * 4
print 100 - 1, " = 100 - 1"
print "(33 + 2) / 5 + 11.5 = ", (33 + 2) / 5 + 11.5
```

Save it as `expr.py`. And here is the output when the program is run:

```
2 + 2 is 4
3 * 4 is 12
99 = 100 - 1
(33 + 2) / 5 + 11.5 = 18.5
```

(So quotes protect expressions from being evaluated.)

As you can see, Python can turn your thousand dollar computer into a 5 dollar calculator.

Python has six basic operations for numbers:

Operation	Symbol	Example
Exponentiation	**	5 ** 2 == 25
Multiplication	*	2 * 3 == 6
Division	/	14 / 3 == 4
Remainder	%	14 % 3 == 2
Addition	+	1 + 2 == 3
Subtraction	-	4 - 3 == 1

Notice that division follows the rule, if there are no decimals to start with, there will be no decimals to end with. The following `dec.py` program shows this:

```
print "14 / 3 = ",14 / 3
print "14 % 3 = ",14 % 3
print
print "14.0 / 3.0 =",14.0 / 3.0
print "14.0 % 3.0 =",14 % 3.0
```

With the output:

```
14 / 3 = 4
14 % 3 = 2

14.0 / 3.0 = 4.66666666667
14.0 % 3.0 = 2.0
```

(Why there is a middle empty line?)

Notice how Python gives different answers for some problems depending on whether or not there decimal values are used.

The order of operations is the same as in math:

1. parentheses ()
2. exponents **
3. multiplication *, division \, and remainder %
4. addition + and subtraction -

Talking to humans (and other intelligent beings)

Often in programming you are doing something complicated and may not in the future remember what you did. When this happens the program should probably be commented. A comment is a note to you and other programmers explaining what is happening. For example:

```
# Not quite Pi but close enough
print 22.0/7
# 355.0/113 is even closer to Pi
```

(What will print this program?)

Notice that the comment starts with a #. Comments are used to communicate with others who read the program and your future self to make clear what is complicated.

Examples

Each chapter (eventually) will contain examples of the programming features introduced in the chapter. You should at least look over them see if you understand them. If you don't, you may want to type them in and see what happens. *Mess around them, change them and see what happens.*

* * *

```
print "Something's rotten in the state of Denmark."
print "          -- Shakespeare"
```

Output:

```
Something's rotten in the state of Denmark.
          -- Shakespeare
```

* * *

```
# This is not quite true outside of USA
# and is based on dim memories of my younger years
print "First Grade"
print "1+1 =",1+1
print "2+4 =",2+4
print "5-2 =",5-2
```

```
print
print "Third Grade"
print "243-23 =",243-23
print "12*4 =",12*4
print "12/3 =",12/3
print "13/3 =",13/3," R ",13%3
print
print "Junior High"
print "123.56-62.12 =",123.56-62.12
print "(4+3)*2 =",(4+3)*2
print "4+3*2 =",4+3*2
print "3**2 =",3**2
print
```

Output:

First Grade

1+1 = 2

2+4 = 6

5-2 = 3

Third Grade

243-23 = 220

12*4 = 48

12/3 = 4

13/3 = 4 R 1

Junior High

123.56-62.12 = 61.44

(4+3)*2 = 14

4+3*2 = 10

3**2 = 9

Exercises

Write a program that prints your last name, your first name and your birthday as separate strings.

Write a program that shows the use of all 6 math functions, in order of operations.

Chapter 11

Who Goes There?

Input and Variables

Now I feel it is time for a really complicated program. Here it is:

```
print "Halt!"
s = raw_input("Who goes there? ")
print "You may pass,", s
```

(Why did we insert trailing space into the question above?)

Save it as a `whogoh.py` file and run. When I ran it here is what **my** screen showed:

```
Halt!
Who goes there? Josh
You may pass, Josh
```

Of course when you run the program your screen will look different because of the `raw_input` statement. When you ran the program you probably noticed (you did run the program, right?) how you had to type in your name and then press `Enter`. Then the program printed out some more text and also your name. This is an example of input. The program reaches a certain point and then waits for the user to input some data that the program can use later.

Of course, getting information from the user would be useless if we didn't have anywhere to put that information and this is where variables come in. In the previous program `s` is a *variable*. Variables are like a box that can store some piece of data. And it does not matter how to name the variable, just be *consistent*:

```
print "Halt!"
randomname = raw_input("Who goes there? ")
print "You may pass,", randomname
```

Name of variable is different, but program works exactly the same way.

Here is another program to show examples of variables:

```
a = 123.4
b23 = 'Spam'
first_name = "Bill"
b = 432
c = a + b
print "a + b is", c
print "first_name is", first_name
print "Sorted Parts, After Midnight or", b23
```

And here is the output:

```
a + b is 555.4
first_name is Bill
Sorted Parts, After Midnight or Spam
```

The variables in the above program are: a, b23, first_name, b, and c.

Variables store data. Two basic types are *strings* and *numbers*.

Note the difference between strings and variable names. Strings are marked with quotation marks, which tells the computer *don't try to understand, just take this text as it is*:

```
print "first_name"
```

This would print the text:

```
first_name
```

Variable names are written without any quotation marks and instruct the computer *use the value I've previously stored under this name*:

```
print first_name
```

which would print:

```
Bill
```

Assignment

Okay, so we have these boxes called variables and also data that can go into the variable. The computer will see a line like `first_name = "Bill"` and it reads it as *put the string Bill into the box (or variable) first_name*.

Later on it sees the statement `c = a + b` and it reads it as *put a + b or 123.4 + 432 or 555.4 into c*.

The right hand side of the statement (`a + b`) is *evaluated* and the result is stored in the variable on the left hand side (`c`). This is called *assignment*, and you should not confuse the assignment equal sign (`=`) with “equality” in a mathematical sense here (that’s what `==` will be used for later).

Here is another example of variable usage:

```
a = 1
print a
a = a + 1
print a
a = a * 2
print a
```

And of course here is the output:

```
1
2
4
```

Even if it is the same variable on both sides the computer still reads it as: First find out the data to store and than find out where the data goes.

One more program before I end this chapter:

```
number = input("Type in a number: ")
string = raw_input("Type in a String: ")
print "number =", number
print "number is a ",type(number)
print "number * 2 =",number*2
print "string =", str
print "string is a ",type(str)
print "string * 2 =",str*2
```

The output I got was:

```
Type in a number: 12.34
Type in a String: Hello
number = 12.34
number is a <type 'float'>
number * 2 = 24.68
string = Hello
string is a <type 'string'>
```

```
string * 2 = HelloHello
```

Notice that `num` was gotten with `input` while `str` was gotten with `raw_input`.

`raw_input` returns a string while `input` returns a number. When you want the user to type in a number use `input`¹ but if you want the user to type in a string use `raw_input`.

The second half of the program uses `type` which tells what a variable is. Numbers are of type `int` or `float` (which are short for 'integer' and 'floating point' respectively). Strings are of type `string`. Integers and floats can be worked on by mathematical functions, strings cannot. Notice how when Python multiplies a number by a integer the expected thing happens. However, when a string is multiplied by a integer the string has that many copies of it added i.e. `str * 2 = HelloHello`.

The operations with strings do slightly different things than operations with numbers. Here are some interactive mode examples to show that some more:

```
>>> "This"+" "+"is"+" joined."
'This is joined.'
>>> "Ha, "*5
'Ha, Ha, Ha, Ha, Ha, '
>>> "Ha, "*5+"ha!"
'Ha, Ha, Ha, Ha, Ha, ha!'
```

Here is the list of some string operations:

Operation	Symbol	Example
Repetition	*	"i"*5 == "iiiii"
Concatenation	+	"Hello, "+"World!" == "Hello, World!"

Examples

So far, our programs were good only to learn Python. Now time came to make something useful. This program calculates rate and distance problems:

```
print "Input a rate and a distance"
rate = input("Rate:")
```

¹Only use `input()` when you trust your users! Everything entered into `input()` dialog is evaluated as a Python expression and thus allows the user to take control of your program. So better is to get a string and convert it to the necessary type like `int(raw_input())` or `float(raw_input())`.

```
distance = input("Distance:")
print "Time:", distance / rate
```

Sample runs:

```
$ python rate_times.py
Input a rate and a distance
Rate:5
Distance:10
Time: 2
$ python rate_times.py
Input a rate and a distance
Rate:3.52
Distance:45.6
Time: 12.9545454545
```

* * *

This program calculates the perimeter and area of a rectangle:

```
print "Calculate information about a rectangle"
length = input("Length:")
width = input("Width:")
print "Area",length*width
print "Perimeter",2*length+2*width
```

Sample runs:

```
$ python area.py
Calculate information about a rectangle
Length:4
Width:3
Area 12
Perimeter 14
$ python area.py
Calculate information about a rectangle
Length:2.53
Width:5.2
Area 13.156
Perimeter 15.46
```

(Why there is no space printed after colon?)

* * *

Converts Fahrenheit to Celsius:

```
temp = float(raw_input("Fahrenheit temperature: "))
print (temp-32.0)*5.0/9.0
```

(**Why** did we use `float(raw_input())` instead of `input()`?)

Sample runs:

```
$ python temperature.py
Fahrenheit temperature: 32
0.0
$ python temperature.py
Fahrenheit temperature: -40
-40.0
$ python temperature.py
Fahrenheit temperature: 212
100.0
$ python temperature.py
Fahrenheit temperature: 98.6
37.0
```

Exercises

Write a program that gets 2 string variables and 2 integer variables from the user, concatenates (joins them together with no spaces) and displays the strings, then divides the two numbers on a new line.

Write a program that gets 1 string variable and 1 integer variable from the user, and then outputs this string as many times as is the value of integer variable.

Chapter 12

Count to 10

While loops

Presenting our first *flow control* structure. Ordinarily the computer starts with the first line and then goes down from there. Control structures change the order that statements are executed or decide if a certain statement will be run. Here's the source for a program that uses the while control structure:

```
a = 0
while a < 10:
    a = a + 1
    print a
```

And here is the extremely exciting output:

```
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
```

(And you thought it couldn't get any worse after turning your computer into a five dollar calculator?)

So what does the program do? First it sees the line `a = 0` and makes a zero. Then it sees `while a < 10:` and so the computer checks to see if `a < 10`. The first time the computer sees this statement `a` is zero so it is less than 10. In other words while `a` is less than ten the computer will run the tabbed in statements.

Here is another example of the use of while:

```
a = 1
s = 0
print 'Enter numbers to add to the sum.'
print 'Enter 0 to quit.'
while a != 0 :
    print 'Current sum:',s
    a = input('Number? ')
    s = s + a
print 'Total Sum =',s
```

The first time I ran this program Python printed out:

```
File "sum.py", line 3
    while a != 0
        ^
```

SyntaxError: invalid syntax

I had forgotten to put the `:` after the while. The error message complained about that problem and pointed out where it thought the problem was with the `^`. After the problem was fixed here was what I did with the program:

```
Enter numbers to add to the sum.
Enter 0 to quit.
Current sum: 0
Number? 200
Current sum: 200
Number? -15.25
Current sum: 184.75
Number? -151.85
Current sum: 32.9
Number? 10.00
Current sum: 42.9
Number? 0
Total sum = 42.9
```

Notice how `print 'Total Sum =',s` is only run at the end. The while statement only affects the line that are *indented*. The `!=` means does not equal so while `a != 0` : means: “until a is zero, cyclically run the tabbed statements that follow.”

Now that we have while loops, it is possible to have programs that run forever. An easy way to do this is to write a program like this (**don't run it** until you fully understand it!):


```
while 1 == 1:
    print "Help, I'm stuck in a loop."
```

This program will output

```
Help, I'm stuck in a loop.
Help, I'm stuck in a loop.
Help, I'm stuck in a loop.
Help, I'm stuck in a loop.
Help, I'm stuck in a loop.
Help, I'm stuck in a loop.
Help, I'm stuck in a loop.
```

...

until the heat death of the universe or until you stop it. The way to stop it is to hit the “Control” (or “Ctrl”) button and “c” (the letter) at the same time. This will kill the program. (Note: sometimes you will have to hit enter after the Ctrl+C.)

Examples

```
# This program calculates the Fibonacci sequence
a = 0
b = 1
count = 0
max_count = 20
while count < max_count:
    count = count + 1
    # we need to keep track of a since we change it
    old_a = a
    old_b = b
    a = old_b
    b = old_a + old_b
    # Notice that the "," at the end of a print statement keeps it
    # from switching to a new line
    print old_a,
print
```

Output:

```
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 1597 2584 4181
```

(Why are all these numbers on one line?)

* * *

```
# Waits until a password has been entered.
# Use Ctrl+C to break out without the password.

# Note that following must not be the password
# to run loop at least once.
password = ""

# Note that != means not equal
while password != "unicorn":
    password = raw_input("Password:")
print "Welcome in"
```

Sample run:

```
Password:auo
Password:y22
Password:password
Password:open sesame
Password:unicorn
Welcome in
```

Exercises

Write a program that prints first 10 powers of two.

Write a program that asks the user for a user name *and* password.

Chapter 13

Decisions

If statement

As always, I believe I should start each chapter with a warm up typing exercise so here is a short program to compute the absolute value of a number:

```
n = int(raw_input("Type a number: "))
if n < 0:
    print "The absolute value of",n,"is",-n
else:
    print "The absolute value of",n,"is",n
```

Here is the output from the two times that I ran this program:

```
Number? -14
The absolute value of -14 is 14
```

```
Number? 24
The absolute value of 24 is 24
```

So what does the computer do when it sees this piece of code? First it prompts the user for a number with the statement `n = input("Number? ")`. Next it reads the line `if n < 0:` If `n` is less than zero Python runs the line `print "The absolute value of",n,"is",-n`. Otherwise python runs the line `print "The absolute value of",n,"is",n`.

More formally Python looks at whether the *expression* `n < 0` is *true* or *false*. A *if* statement is followed by a *block* of statements that are run when the expression is true. Optionally after the *if* statement is a *else* statement. The *else* statement is run if the expression is false.

There are several different tests that a expression can have. Here is a table of all of them:

operator	function
<	less than
<=	less than or equal to
>	greater than
>=	greater than or equal to
==	equal
!=	not equal
<>	another way to say not equal

Another feature of the `if` command is the `elif` statement. It stands for “else if” and means if the original `if` statement is false and then the `elif` part is true do that part. Here’s a example:

```
a = 0
while a < 10:
    a = a + 1
    if a > 5:
        print a, " > ",5
    elif a <= 7:
        print a, " <= ",7
    else:
        print "Neither test was true"
```

and the output:

```
1 <= 7
2 <= 7
3 <= 7
4 <= 7
5 <= 7
6 > 5
7 > 5
8 > 5
9 > 5
10 > 5
```

Notice how the `elif a <= 7` is only tested when the `if` statement fail to be true. `elif` allows multiple tests to be done in a single `if` statement.

Examples

```
# This program shows the use of the == operator
# Using numbers
print 5 == 6
# Using variables
x = 5
y = 8
print x == y
```

And the output

```
False
False
```

```
# Plays the guessing game higher or lower
number = 78
guess = 0
```

```
while guess != number :
    guess = input ("Guess a number: ")

    if guess > number :
        print "Too high"

    elif guess < number :
        print "Too low"

print "Just right"
```

Sample run:

```
Guess a number:100
Too high
Guess a number:50
Too low
Guess a number:75
Too low
Guess a number:87
Too high
```

```
Guess a number:81
Too high
Guess a number:78
Just right
```

```
***
```

```
# Asks for a number
# Prints if it is even or odd

number = input("Tell me a number: ")
if number % 2 == 0:
    print number,"is even."
elif number % 2 == 1:
    print number,"is odd."
else:
    print number,"is very strange."
```

Sample runs:

```
Tell me a number: 3
3 is odd.
```

```
Tell me a number: 2
2 is even.
```

```
Tell me a number: 3.14159
3.14159 is very strange.
```

```
***
```

```
# Keeps asking for numbers until 0 is entered.
# Prints the average value.

count = 0
sum = 0.0
number = 1 # set this to something that will not exit
           # the while loop immediatly.

print "Enter 0 to exit the loop"

while number != 0:
```

```

number = input("Enter a number:")
count = count + 1
sum = sum + number

```

```

count = count - 1 #take off one for the last number
print "The average was:",sum/count

```

Sample runs:

```

Enter 0 to exit the loop
Enter a number:3
Enter a number:5
Enter a number:0
The average was: 4.0

```

```

Enter 0 to exit the loop
Enter a number:1
Enter a number:4
Enter a number:3
Enter a number:0
The average was: 2.6666666667

```

```

# Keeps asking for numbers until count have been entered.
# Prints the average value.

```

```

sum = 0.0

```

```

print "This program will take several numbers than average them"
count = input("How many numbers would you like to sum:")
current_count = 0

```

```

while current_count < count:
    current_count = current_count + 1
    print "Number ",current_count
    number = input("Enter a number:")
    sum = sum + number

```

```

print "The average was:",sum/count

```

Sample runs:

```
This program will take several numbers than average them
How many numbers would you like to sum:2
Number 1
Enter a number:3
Number 2
Enter a number:5
The average was: 4.0
```

```
This program will take several numbers than average them
How many numbers would you like to sum:3
Number 1
Enter a number:1
Number 2
Enter a number:4
Number 3
Enter a number:3
The average was: 2.66666666667
```

Exercises

Modify the password guessing program to keep track of how many times the user has entered the password wrong. If it is more than 3 times, print “That must have been complicated.”

Write a program that asks for two numbers. If the sum of the numbers is greater than 100, print “That is big number”.

Write a program that asks the user their name, if they enter your name say “That is a nice name”, if they enter “John Cleese” or “Michael Palin”, tell them how you feel about them ;), otherwise tell them “You have a nice name”.

Chapter 14

Debugging

What is debugging?

As soon as we started programming, we found to our surprise that it wasn't as easy to get programs right as we had thought. Debugging had to be discovered. I can remember the exact instant when I realized that a large part of my life from then on was going to be spent in finding mistakes in my own programs.

Maurice Wilkes discovers debugging, 1949

By now if you have been messing around with the programs you have probably found that sometimes the program does something you didn't want it to do. This is fairly common. Debugging is the process of figuring out what the computer is doing and then getting it to do what you want it to do. This can be tricky. I once spent nearly a week tracking down and fixing a bug that was caused by someone putting an x where a y should have been.

This chapter will be more abstract than previous chapters. Please tell me if it is useful.

What should the program do?

The first thing to do (this sounds obvious) is to figure out what the program should be doing if it is running correctly. Come up with some test cases and see what happens. For example, let's say I have a program to compute the perimeter of a rectangle (the sum of the length of all the edges). I have the following test cases:

width	height	perimeter
3	4	14
2	3	10
4	4	16
2	2	8
5	1	12

I now run my program on all of the test cases and see if the program does what I expect it to do. If it doesn't then I need to find out what the computer is doing.

More commonly some of the test cases will work and some will not. If that is the case you should try and figure out what the working ones have in common. For example here is the output for a perimeter program (you get to see the code in a minute):

```
Height: 3  
Width: 4  
perimeter = 15
```

```
Height: 2  
Width: 3  
perimeter = 11
```

```
Height: 4  
Width: 4  
perimeter = 16
```

```
Height: 2  
Width: 2  
perimeter = 8
```

```
Height: 5  
Width: 1  
perimeter = 8
```

Notice that it didn't work for the first two inputs, it worked for the next two and it didn't work on the last one. Try and figure out what is in common with the working ones. Once you have some idea what the problem is finding the cause is easier. With your own programs you should try more test cases if you need them.

What does the program do?

The next thing to do is to look at the source code. One of the most important things to do while programming is reading source code. The primary way to do this is code walkthroughs.

A code walkthrough starts at the first line, and works its way down until the program is done. While loops and if statements mean that some lines may never be run and some lines are run many times. At each line you figure out what Python has done.

Lets start with the simple perimeter program. Don't type it in, you are going to read it, not run it. The source code is:

```
height = input("Height: ")
width = input("Width: ")
print "perimeter = ",width+height+width+width
```

* * *

Q: What is the first line Python runs?

A: The first line is always run first. In this case it is:

```
height = input("Height: ")
```

Q: What does that line do?

A: Prints `Height:` , waits for the user to type a number in, and puts that in the variable `height`.

Q: What is the next line that runs?

A: In general, it is the next line down which is: `width = input("Width: ")`

Q: What does that line do?

A: Prints `Width:` , waits for the user to type a number in, and puts what the user types in the variable `width`.

Q: What is the next line that runs?

A: When the next line is not indented more or less than the current line, it is the line right afterwards, so it is: `print "perimeter = ",width+height+width+width` (It may also run a function in the current line, but thats a future chapter.)

Q: What does that line do?

A: First it prints `perimeter =`, then it prints `width+height+width+width`.

Q: Does `width+height+width+width` calculate the perimeter properly?

A: Let's see, perimeter of a rectangle is the bottom (width) plus the left side (height) plus the top (width) plus the right side (huh?). The last item should be the right side's length, or the height.

Q: Do you understand why some of the times the perimeter was calculated 'correctly'?

A: It was calculated correctly when the width and the height were equal.

The next program we will do a code walkthrough for is a program that is supposed to print out 5 dots on the screen. However, this is what the program is outputting:

.

And here is the program:

```
number = 5
while number > 1:
    print ".",
    number = number - 1
print
```

This program will be more complex to walkthrough since it now has indented portions (or control structures). Let us begin.

Q: What is the first line to be run?

A: The first line of the file: `number = 5`

Q: What does it do?

A: Puts the number 5 in the variable `number`.

Q: What is the next line?

A: The next line is: `while number > 1:`

Q: What does it do?

A: Well, `while` statements in general look at their expression, and if it is true they do the next indented block of code, otherwise they skip the next indented block of code.

Q: So what does it do right now?

A: If `number > 1` is true then the next two lines will be run.

Q: So is `number > 1`?

A: The last value put into `number` was 5 and `5 > 1` so yes.

Q: So what is the next line?

A: Since the `while` was true the next line is: `print "."`,

Q: What does that line do?

A: Prints one dot and since the statement ends with a `,` the next print statement will not be on a different screen line.

Q: What is the next line?

A: `number = number - 1` since that is following line and there are no indent changes.

Q: What does it do?

A: It calculates `number - 1`, which is the current value of `number` (or 5) subtracts 1 from it, and makes that the new value of `number`. So basically it changes `number`'s value from 5 to 4.

Q: What is the next line?

A: Well, the indent level decreases so we have to look at what type of control structure it is. It is a `while` loop, so we have to go back to the `while` clause which is `while number > 1`:

Q: What does it do?

A: It looks at the value of `number`, which is 4, and compares it to 1 and since `4 > 1` the `while` loop continues.

Q: What is the next line?

A: Since the `while` loop was true, the next line is: `print "."`,

Q: What does it do?

A: It prints a second dot on the line.

Q: What is the next line?

A: No indent change so it is:

```
number = number - 1
```

Q: And what does it do?

A: It takes the current value of number (4), subtracts 1 from it, which gives it 3 and then finally makes 3 the new value of number.

Q: What is the next line?

A: Since there is an indent change caused by the end of the while loop, the next line is:

```
while number > 1:
```

Q: What does it do?

A: It compares the current value of number (3) to 1. $3 > 1$ so the while loop continues.

Q: What is the next line?

A: Since the while loop condition was true the next line is: `print "."`,

Q: And it does what?

A: A third dot is printed on the line.

Q: What is the next line?

A: It is: `number = number - 1`

Q: What does it do?

A: It takes the current value of number (3) subtracts from it 1 and makes the 2 the new value of number.

Q: What is the next line?

A: Back up to the start of the while loop: `while number > 1:`

Q: What does it do?

A: It compares the current value of number (2) to 1. Since $2 > 1$ the while loop continues.

Q: What is the next line?

A: Since the while loop is continuing: `print "."`,

Q: What does it do?

A: It discovers the meaning of life, the universe and everything. I'm joking. (I had to make sure you were awake.) The line prints a fourth dot on the screen.

Q: What is the next line?

A: It's: `number = number - 1`

Q: What does it do?

A: Takes the current value of `number` (2) subtracts 1 and makes 1 the new value of `number`.

Q: What is the next line?

A: Back up to the while loop: `while number > 1:`

Q: What does the line do?

A: It compares the current value of `number` (1) to 1. Since `1 > 1` is false (one is not greater than one), the while loop exits.

Q: What is the next line?

A: Since the while loop condition was false the next line is the line after the while loop exits, or: `print`

Q: What does that line do?

A: Makes the screen go to the next line.

Q: Why doesn't the program print 5 dots?

A: The loop exits 1 dot too soon.

Q: How can we fix that?

A: Make the loop exit 1 dot later.

Q: And how do we do that?

A: There are several ways. One way would be to change the while loop to:

```
while number > 0:
```

Another way would be to change the conditional to: `number >= 1`. There are a couple others.

How do I fix the program?

You need to figure out what the program is doing. You need to figure out what the program should do. Figure out what the difference between the two is. Debugging is a skill that has to be done to be learned. If you can't figure it out after an hour or so take a break, talk to someone about the problem or contemplate the lint in your navel. Come back in a while and you will probably have new ideas about the problem. Good luck.

Chapter 15

Functions

Creating Functions

To start off this chapter I am going to give you an example of what you could do but shouldn't (so don't type it in):

```
a = 23
b = -23

if a < 0:
    a = -a

if b < 0:
    b = -b

if a == b:
    print "The absolute values of", a,"and",b,"are equal"
else:
    print "The absolute values of a and b are different"
```

with the output being:

The absolute values of 23 and 23 are equal

The program seems a little repetitive. (Programmers hate to repeat things (That's what computers are for aren't they?)) Fortunately Python allows you to create functions to remove duplication. Here's the rewritten example:

```
a = 23
b = -23
def my_abs(num):
    if num < 0:
        num = -num
```

```
    return num

if my_abs(a) == my_abs(b):
    print "The absolute values of", a,"and",b,"are equal"
else:
    print "The absolute values of a and b are different"
```

with the output being:

The absolute values of 23 and -23 are equal

The key feature of this program is the `def` statement. `def` (short for define) starts a function definition. `def` is followed by the name of the function `my_abs`. Next comes a `(` followed by the parameter `num` (`num` is passed from the program into the function when the function is called). The statements after the `:` are executed when the function is used. The statements continue until either the indented statements end or a `return` is encountered. The `return` statement returns a value back to the place where the function was called.

Notice how the values of `a` and `b` are not changed. Functions of course can be used to repeat tasks (and to eliminate repeat code) that don't return values. Here's some examples:

```
def hello():
    print "Hello"

def area(width,height):
    return width*height

def print_welcome(name):
    print "Welcome",name

hello()
hello()

print_welcome("Fred")
w = 4
h = 5
print "width =",w,"height =",h,"area =",area(w,h)
```

with output being:

Hello
Hello
Welcome Fred

```
width = 4 height = 5 area = 20
```

That example just shows some more stuff that you can do with functions. Notice that you can use no arguments or two or more. Notice also when a function doesn't need to send back a value, a return is optional.

Variables in functions

When eliminating repeated code, you often have variables in the repeated code. In Python, these are dealt in a special way. So far all variables we have seen are *global* variables. Functions have a special type of variable called *local* variables. These variables only exist while the function is running. When a local variable has the same name as another variable (such as a global variable), the local variable hides the other. Sound confusing? Well, these next examples (which are a bit contrived) should help clear things up.

```
a = 4
def print_func():
    a = 17
    print "a = ", a, "(this is local a)"
print_func()
print "a = ", a, "(this is global a)"
```

When run, we will receive an output of:

```
a = 17 (this is local a)
a = 4 (this is global a)
```

Variable assignments inside a function do not override global variables, they exist only inside the function. Even though a was assigned a new value inside the function, this newly assigned value was only relevant to `print_func`, when the function finishes running, and the a's values is printed again, we see the originally assigned values.

More complex example

```
a_var = 10
b_var = 15
e_var = 25

def a_func(a_var):
```

```
print "in a_func a_var = ",a_var
b_var = 100 + a_var
d_var = 2*a_var
print "in a_func b_var = ",b_var
print "in a_func d_var = ",d_var
print "in a_func e_var = ",e_var
return b_var + 10
```

```
c_var = a_func(b_var)
```

```
print "a_var = ",a_var
print "b_var = ",b_var
print "c_var = ",c_var
print "d_var = ",d_var
```

The output is:

```
in a_func a_var = 15
in a_func b_var = 115
in a_func d_var = 30
in a_func e_var = 25
a_var = 10
b_var = 15
c_var = 125
d_var =
```

Traceback (innermost last):

```
File "separate.py", line 20, in ?
```

```
    print "d_var = ",d_var
```

```
NameError: d_var
```

In this example the variables `a_var`, `b_var`, and `d_var` are all local variables when they are inside the function `a_func`. After the statement `return _var + 10` is run, they all cease to exist. The variable `a_var` is automatically a local variable since it is a parameter name. The variables `b_var` and `d_var` are local variables since they appear on the left of an equals sign in the function in the statements `b_var = 100 + a_var` and `d_var = 2*a_var`.

Inside of the function `a_var` is 15 since the function is called with `a_func(b_var)`. Since at that point in time `b_var` is 15, the call to the function is `a_func(15)`. This ends up setting `a_var` to 15 when it is inside of `a_func`.

As you can see, once the function finishes running, the local variables `a_var` and `b_var` that had hidden the global variables of the same name are gone. Then the

statement `print "a_var = "`, `a_var` prints the value 10 rather than the value 15 since the local variable that hid the global variable is gone.

Another thing to notice is the `NameError` that happens at the end. This appears since the variable `d_var` no longer exists since `a_func` finished. All the local variables are deleted when the function exits. If you want to get something from a function, then you will have to use `return something`.

One last thing to notice is that the value of `e_var` remains unchanged inside `a_func` since it is not a parameter and it never appears on the left of an equals sign inside of the function `a_func`. When a global variable is accessed inside a function it is the global variable from the outside.

Functions allow local variables that exist only inside the function and can hide other variables that are outside the function.

Examples

```
# converts temperature to Fahrenheit or Celsius
```

```
def print_options():
    print "Options:"
    print " 'p' print options"
    print " 'c' convert from celsius"
    print " 'f' convert from fahrenheit"
    print " 'q' quit the program"
```

```
def celsius_to_fahrenheit(c_temp):
    return 9.0/5.0*c_temp+32
```

```
def fahrenheit_to_celsius(f_temp):
    return (f_temp - 32.0)*5.0/9.0
```

```
choice = "p"
while choice != "q":
    if choice == "c":
        temp = input("Celsius temperature:")
        print "Fahrenheit:",celsius_to_fahrenheit(temp)
    elif choice == "f":
        temp = input("Fahrenheit temperature:")
        print "Celsius:",fahrenheit_to_celsius(temp)
```

```
elif choice != "q":
    print_options()
choice = raw_input("option:")
```

Sample run:

```
Options:
'p' print options
'c' convert from celsius
'f' convert from fahrenheit
'q' quit the program
option:c
Celsius temperature:30
Fahrenheit: 86.0
option:f
Fahrenheit temperature:60
Celsius: 15.5555555556
option:q
```

* * *

```
# By Amos Satterlee
print
def hello():
    print 'Hello!'

def area(width,height):
    return width*height

def print_welcome(name):
    print 'Welcome,',name

name = raw_input('Your Name: ')
hello(),
print_welcome(name)
print
print 'To find the area of a rectangle,'
print 'Enter the width and height below.'
print
w = input('Width: ')
while w <= 0:
    print 'Must be a positive number'
```

```
w = input('Width: ')
h = input('Height: ')
while h <= 0:
    print 'Must be a positive number'
    h = input('Height: ')
print 'Width =',w,' Height =',h,' so Area =',area(w,h)
```

Sample Run:

```
Your Name: Josh
Hello!
Welcome, Josh
```

```
To find the area of a rectangle,
Enter the width and height below.
```

```
Width: -4
Must be a positive number
Width: 4
Height: 3
Width = 4 Height = 3 so Area = 12
```

Exercises

Rewrite the `area.py` program (p. 54) to have a separate function for the area of a square, the area of a rectangle, and the area of a circle ($3.14 * \text{radius}^2$). This program should include a menu interface.

Chapter 16

Lists

Variables with more than one value

You have already seen ordinary variables that store a single value. However other variable types can hold more than one value. The simplest type is called a list. Here is a example of a list being used:

```
which_one = input("What month (1-12)? ")
months = ['January', 'February', 'March', \
          'April', 'May', 'June', 'July', \
          'August', 'September', 'October', 'November', 'December']
if 1 <= which_one <= 12:
    print "The month is",months[which_one - 1]
```

and a output example:

```
What month (1-12)? 3
The month is March
```

In this example the months is a list. months is defined with the lines

```
months = ['January', 'February', 'March', \
          'April', 'May', 'June', 'July', \
          'August', 'September', 'October', 'November', 'December']
```

(Note that a \ can be used to split a long line).

The [and] start and end the list with comma's (" , ") separating the list items. The list is used in months[which_one - 1]. A list consists of items that are numbered starting at 0. In other words if you wanted January you would use months[0]. Give a list a number and it will return the value that is stored at that location.

The statement `if 1 <= which_one <= 12:` will only be true if `which_one` is between one and twelve inclusive (in other words it is what you would expect if you have seen that in algebra).

* * *

Lists can be thought of as a series of boxes. Each box contains a different value. For example, the boxes created by

```
demolist = ['life', 42, 'the universe', 6, 'and' ,7]
```

would look like this:

box number	0	1	2	3	4	5
demolist	'life'	42	'the universe'	6	'and'	7

Each box is referenced by its number so the statement `demolist[0]` would get `'life'`, `demolist[1]` would get `42` and so on up to `demolist[5]` getting `7`.

Lists can contains other lists:

```
demolist2 = [1, "one", [3, 4]]
```

More features of lists

The next example is just to show a lot of other stuff lists can do (for once I don't expect you to type it in, but you should probably play around with lists until you are comfortable with them.). Here goes:

```
demolist = ['life', 42, 'the universe', 6, 'and', 7]
print 'demolist = ',demolist
demolist.append('everything')
print "after 'everything' was appended demolist is now:"
print demolist
print 'len(demolist) =', len(demolist)
print 'demolist.index(42) =',demolist.index(42)
print 'demolist[1] =', demolist[1]
```

```
# Next we will loop through the list
```

```
c = 0
```

```
while c < len(demolist):
```

```
print 'demolist['+c,']=',demolist[c]
c = c + 1
del demolist[2]
print "After 'the universe' was removed demolist is now:"
print demolist
if 'life' in demolist:
    print "'life' was found in demolist"
else:
    print "'life' was not found in demolist"
if 'amoeba' in demolist:
    print "'amoeba' was found in demolist"
if 'amoeba' not in demolist:
    print "'amoeba' was not found in demolist"
demolist.sort()
print 'The sorted demolist is ',demolist
```

The output is:

```
demolist = ['life', 42, 'the universe', 6, 'and', 7]
after 'everything' was appended demolist is now:
['life', 42, 'the universe', 6, 'and', 7, 'everything']
len(demolist) = 7
demolist.index(42) = 1
demolist[1] = 42
demolist[ 0 ]= life
demolist[ 1 ]= 42
demolist[ 2 ]= the universe
demolist[ 3 ]= 6
demolist[ 4 ]= and
demolist[ 5 ]= 7
demolist[ 6 ]= everything
After 'the universe' was removed demolist is now:
['life', 42, 6, 'and', 7, 'everything']
'life' was found in demolist
'amoeba' was not found in demolist
The sorted demolist is [6, 7, 42, 'and', 'everything', 'life']
```

This example uses a whole bunch of new functions. Notice that you can just print a whole list. Next the append function is used to add a new item to the end of the list. len returns how many items are in a list. The valid indexes (as in numbers that can be used inside of the []) of a list range from 0 to len - 1. The index function tell where the first location of an item is located in a list. Notice how demolist.index(42) returns 1 and when demolist[1] is run it returns 42.

Next are the lines:

```
c = 0
while c < len(demolist):
    print 'demolist[' ,c, ']=',demolist[c]
    c = c + 1
```

These lines create a variable `c` which starts at 0 and is incremented until it reaches the last index of the list. Meanwhile the `print` statement prints out each element of the list.

The `del` command can be used to remove a given element in a list. The next few lines use the `in` operator to test if a element is in or is not in a list.

The `sort` function sorts the list. This is useful if you need a list in order from smallest number to largest or alphabetical. Note that this rearranges the list.

In summary for a list the following operations occur:

example	explanation
<code>demolist[2]</code>	accesses the element at index 2
<code>demolist[2] = 3</code>	sets the element at index 2 to be 3
<code>del demolist[2]</code>	removes the element at index 2
<code>len(demolist)</code>	returns the length of list
<code>"value" in demolist</code>	is true if "value" is an element in list
<code>"value" not in demolist</code>	is true if "value" is not an element in list
<code>demolist.sort()</code>	sorts list
<code>demolist.index("value")</code>	index of the first place w "value" occurs
<code>demolist.append("value")</code>	adds an element "value" at the end of the list
<code>demolist.remove("value")</code>	removes the first occurrence of value from list

* * *

So `demolist.sort()` sorts the list. Use of `sort` is not similar to use of, saying, `print`—for some reason it must be specified in the very end of object name, after the dot. Moreover, `sort` is applicable only to lists. This is the first breath of *object-oriented programming*: `demolist` is object of list type, and `sort` is its *method*.

This next example uses list features in a more useful way:

```
menu_item = 0
list = []
while menu_item != 9:
    print "-----"
    print "1. Print the list"
    print "2. Add a name to the list"
    print "3. Remove a name from the list"
    print "4. Change an item in the list"
    print "9. Quit"
    menu_item = input("Pick an item from the menu: ")
    if menu_item == 1:
        current = 0
        if len(list) > 0:
            while current < len(list):
                print current, ". ", list[current]
                current = current + 1
        else:
            print "List is empty"
    elif menu_item == 2:
        name = raw_input("Type in a name to add: ")
        list.append(name)
    elif menu_item == 3:
        del_name = raw_input("What name would you like to remove: ")
        if del_name in list:
            item_number = list.index(del_name)
            del list[item_number]
            # Above removes only the first occurrence of the name
        else:
            print del_name, " was not found"
    elif menu_item == 4:
        old_name = raw_input("What name would you like to change: ")
        if old_name in list:
            item_number = list.index(old_name)
            new_name = raw_input("What is the new name: ")
            list[item_number] = new_name
        else:
            print old_name, " was not found"
print "Goodbye"
```

And here is part of the output:

```
-----
1. Print the list
2. Add a name to the list
3. Remove a name from the list
4. Change an item in the list
9. Quit

Pick an item from the menu: 2
Type in a name to add: Jack

Pick an item from the menu: 2
Type in a name to add: Jill

Pick an item from the menu: 1
0 . Jack
1 . Jill

Pick an item from the menu: 3
What name would you like to remove: Jack

Pick an item from the menu: 4
What name would you like to change: Jill
What is the new name: Jill Peters

Pick an item from the menu: 1
0 . Jill Peters

Pick an item from the menu: 9
Goodbye
```

That was a long program! Let's take a look at the source code. The line `list = []` makes the variable `list` a list with no items (or elements). The next important line is `while menu_item != 9:`. This line starts a loop that allows the menu system for this program. The next few lines display a menu and decide which part of the program to run.

The section:

```
current = 0
if len(list) > 0:
    while current < len(list):
```

```
        print current, ". ", list[current]
        current = current + 1
else:
    print "List is empty"
```

Program goes through the list and prints each name. `len(list_name)` tells how many items are in a list. If `len` returns 0 then the list is empty.

Then a few lines later the statement `list.append(name)` appears. It uses the `append` function to add a item to the end of the list. Jump down another two lines and notice this section of code:

```
item_number = list.index(del_name)
del list[item_number]
```

Here the `index` function is used to find the index value that will be used later to remove the item. `del list[item_number]` is used to remove a element of the list.

```
old_name = raw_input("What name would you like to change: ")
if old_name in list:
    item_number = list.index(old_name)
    new_name = raw_input("What is the new name: ")
    list[item_number] = new_name
else:
    print old_name, " was not found"
```

The next section uses `index` to find the `item_number` and then puts `new_name` where the `old_name` was.

Congratulations! With lists under your belt, you now know enough of the language that you could do any computations that a computer can do (this is technically known as *Turing-Completeness*). Of course, there are still many features that are used to make your life easier.

Examples

```
# This program runs a test of knowledge
```

```
true = 1
false = 0
```

```
# 1. First get the test questions
# Later this will be modified to use file io.
def get_questions():
    # notice how the data is stored as a list of lists
    return [{"What color is the daytime sky on a clear day?","blue"},\
            ["What is the answer to life,\
            the universe and everything?","42"],\
            ["What is a three letter word for mouse trap?","cat"]]

# 2. This will test a single question
# it takes a single question in
# returns True if the user typed the correct answer, otherwise False
def check_question(question_and_answer):
    # extract the question and the answer from the list
    question = question_and_answer[0]
    answer = question_and_answer[1]
    # give the question to the user
    given_answer = raw_input(question)
    # compare the user's answer to the testers answer
    if answer == given_answer:
        print "Correct"
        return true
    else:
        print "Incorrect, correct was:",answer
        return false

# 3. This will run through all the questions
def run_test(questions):
    if len(questions) == 0:
        print "No questions were given."
        # the return exits the function
        return
    index = 0
    right = 0
    while index < len(questions):
        # check the question
        if check_question(questions[index]):
            right = right + 1
        # go to the next question
        index = index + 1
```

```
# notice the order of the computation: first multiply, then divide
pp = right*100/len(questions)
print "You got ",pp,"% right out of",len(questions)
```

```
# 4. Now let us run the questions
run_test(get_questions())
```

The values True and False point to 1 and 0, respectively. They are often used in sanity checks, loop conditions etc. You will learn more about this a little bit later (chapter “Boolean Expressions”).

Sample output:

```
What color is the daytime sky on a clear day?green
Incorrect, correct was: blue
What is the answer to life, the universe and everything?42
Correct
What is a three letter word for mouse trap?cat
Correct
You got 66 % right out of 3
```

Exercises

Expand the test.py program so it has menu giving the option of taking the test, viewing the list of questions and answers, and an option to Quit. Also, add a new question to ask, “What noise does a truly advanced machine make?” with the answer of “ping”.

Chapter 17

For Loops

And here is the new typing exercise for this chapter:

```
onetoten = range(1,11)
for count in onetoten:
    print count
```

and the ever-present output:

```
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
```

The output looks awfully familiar but the program code looks different. The first line uses the range function. The range function uses two arguments like this `range(start,finish)`. `start` is the first number that is produced. `finish` is one larger than the last number. Note that this program could have been done in a shorter way:

```
for count in range(1,11):
    print count
```

Here are some examples to show what happens with the range command:

```
>>> range(1,10)
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
>>> range(-32, -20)
```

```
[-32, -31, -30, -29, -28, -27, -26, -25, -24, -23, -22, -21]
>>> range(5,21)
[5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20]
>>> range(21,5)
[]
```

The next line `for count in onetoten:` uses the `for` control structure. A `for` control structure looks like `for variable in list:`. `list` is gone through starting with the first element of the list and going to the last. As `for` goes through each element in a list it puts each into `variable`. That allows `variable` to be used in each successive time the `for` loop is run through. Here is another example (you don't have to type this) to demonstrate:

```
demolist = ['life',42, 'the universe', 6,'and',7,'everything']
for item in demolist:
    print "The Current item is:",
    print item
```

The output is:

```
The Current item is: life
The Current item is: 42
The Current item is: the universe
The Current item is: 6
The Current item is: and
The Current item is: 7
The Current item is: everything
```

Notice how the `for` loop goes through and sets `item` to each element in the list. (Notice how if you don't want `print` to go to the next line add a comma at the end of the statement (i.e. if you want to print something else on that line).) So, what is `for` good for? (groan) The first use is to go through all the elements of a list and do something with each of them. Here a quick way to add up all the elements:

```
list = [2,4,6,8]
sum = 0
for num in list:
    sum = sum + num
print "The sum is: ",sum
```

with the output simply being:

```
The sum is: 20
```

Or you could write a program to find out if there are any duplicates in a list like this program does:

```
list = [4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 1,0,7,10]
list.sort()
prev = list[0]
del list[0]
for item in list:
    if prev == item:
        print "Duplicate of ",prev," Found"
    prev = item
```

and for good measure:

Duplicate of 7 Found

Okay, so how does it work? Here is a special *debugging version* to help you understand (you don't need to type this in):

```
l = [4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 1,0,7,10]
print "l = [4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 1,0,7,10]", "\tl:", l
l.sort()
print "l.sort()", "\tl:", l
prev = l[0]
print "prev = l[0]", "\tprev:", prev
del l[0]
print "del l[0]", "\tl:", l
for item in l:
    if prev == item:
        print "Duplicate of ",prev," Found"
    print "if prev == item:", "\tprev:", prev, "\titem:", item
    prev = item
    print "prev = item", "\t\tprev:", prev, "\titem:", item
```

with the output being:

```
l = [4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 1,0,7,10]   l: [4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 1, 0, 7, 10]
l.sort()                       l: [0, 1, 4, 5, 7, 7, 8, 9, 10]
prev = l[0]                     prev: 0
del l[0]                       l: [1, 4, 5, 7, 7, 8, 9, 10]
if prev == item:               prev: 0       item: 1
prev = item                    prev: 1       item: 1
if prev == item:               prev: 1       item: 4
prev = item                    prev: 4       item: 4
if prev == item:               prev: 4       item: 5
prev = item                    prev: 5       item: 5
if prev == item:               prev: 5       item: 7
```

```
prev = item           prev: 7           item: 7
Duplicate of 7 Found
if prev == item:     prev: 7           item: 7
prev = item          prev: 7           item: 7
if prev == item:     prev: 7           item: 8
prev = item          prev: 8           item: 8
if prev == item:     prev: 8           item: 9
prev = item          prev: 9           item: 9
if prev == item:     prev: 9           item: 10
prev = item          prev: 10          item: 10
```

The reason I put so many print statements in the code was so that you can see what is happening in each line (by the way, if you can't figure out why a program is not working, try putting in lots of print statements to you can see what is happening).

First the program starts with a boring old list. Next the program sorts the list. This is so that any duplicates get put next to each other. The program then initializes a `prev(ious)` variable. Next the first element of the list is deleted so that the first item is not incorrectly thought to be a duplicate. Next a for loop is gone into. Each item of the list is checked to see if it is the same as the previous. If it is a duplicate was found. The value of `prev` is then changed so that the next time the for loop is run through `prev` is the previous item to the current. Sure enough, the 7 is found to be a duplicate. (Notice how `\t` is used to print a tab.)

The other way to use for loops is to do something a certain number of times. Here is some code to print out the first 11 numbers of the Fibonacci series:

```
a = 1
b = 1
for c in range(1,10):
    print a,
    n = a + b
    a = b
    b = n
```

with the surprising output:

```
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34
```

Everything that can be done with `for` loops can also be done with `while` loops but `for` loops give a easy way to go through all the elements in a list or to do something a certain number of times.

How to do something with each element of the list? Consider the following:

```
my_list = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
my_new_list = [i * 5 for i in my_list]
print my_list, "\n", my_new_list
```

And output:

```
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
[5, 10, 15, 20, 25]
```

The same logic works for *strings* (but you will need to join the result back to string):

```
a = "abcde"
b = [i * 5 for i in a]
c = "".join(b)
print b
print c

['aaaaa', 'bbbbb', 'ccccc', 'dddd', 'eeee']
aaaaabbbbccccdddeeeee
```

Chapter 18

Booleans

Now we need to supply our programs with logic. Here is a little example of *Boolean expressions*:

```
a = 6
b = 7
c = 42
print 1, a == 6
print 2, a == 7
print 3, a == 6 and b == 7
print 4, a == 7 and b == 7
print 5, not a == 7 and b == 7
print 6, a == 7 or b == 7
print 7, a == 7 or b == 6
print 8, not (a == 7 and b == 6)
print 9, not a == 7 and b == 6
```

With the output being:

```
1 True
2 False
3 True
4 False
5 True
6 True
7 False
8 True
9 False
```

What is going on? The program consists of a bunch of funny looking print statements. Each print statement prints a number and a expression. The number is to help keep track of which statement I am dealing with. Notice how each expression

ends up being either 0 or 1. In Python `False` also is written as 0 and `True` is written as 1.

The lines:

```
print 1, a == 6
print 2, a == 7
```

print out `True` and `False` respectively just as expected since the first is true and the second is false.

The third print,

```
print 3, a == 6 and b == 7
```

is a little different. The operator `and` means if both the statement before and the statement after are true then the whole expression is true otherwise the whole expression is false.

The next line,

```
print 4, a == 7 and b == 7
```

shows how if part of an `and` expression is false, the whole thing is false. The behavior of `and` can be summarized as follows:

expression	result
true and true	true
true and false	false
false and true	false
false and false	false

Notice that if the first expression is false Python does not check the second expression since it knows the whole expression is false.

The next line,

```
print 5, not a == 7 and b == 7
```

uses the `not` operator. `not` just gives the opposite of the expression.

By the way, this expression could be rewritten as

```
print 5, a != 7 and b == 7
```

Here is the table:

expression	result
not true	false
not false	true

The two following lines,

```
print 6, a == 7 or b == 7
```

and

```
print 7, a == 7 or b == 6
```

use the `or` operator. The `or` operator returns true if the first expression is true, or if the second expression is true or both are true. If neither are true it returns false. Here's the table:

expression	result
true or true	true
true or false	true
false or true	true
false or false	false

Notice that if the first expression is true Python doesn't check the second expression since it knows the whole expression is true. This works since `or` is true if at least one half of the expression is true. The first part is true so the second part could be either false or true, but the whole expression is still true.

The next two lines,

```
print 8, not (a == 7 and b == 6)
```

and

```
print 9, not a == 7 and b == 6
```

show that parentheses can be used to group expressions and force one part to be evaluated first. Notice that the parentheses changed the expression from false to true. This occurred since the parentheses forced the `not` to apply to the whole expression instead of just the `a == 7` portion.

* * *

It is easy to understand Python behavior when booleans applied to True's and False's (or to 1's and 0's). Other types of objects are more cryptic. Look on these examples:

```
>>> 'b' == ('a' or 'b')
False
>>> 'a' == ('a' or 'b')
True
```

Crazy, isn't it? This is because when `or` used with *strings*, Python simply returns the *first* True value. And also because non-empty string is always True:

```
>>> 'a' or 'b'
'a'
>>> '' or 'b'
'b'
```

There are special rules also for other types of objects and other operations so be careful when applying Boolean functions to anything different from True/False/0/1.

* * *

Here is an example of using a Boolean expression:

```
list = ["Life","The Universe","Everything","Jack","Jill","Life","Jill"]
# Make a copy of the list.
# See the More on Lists chapter to explain what [:] means.
copy = list[:]
# Sort the copy
copy.sort()
prev = copy[0]
del copy[0]
count = 0
# go through the list searching for a match
while count < len(copy) and copy[count] != prev:
    prev = copy[count]
    count = count + 1
# If a match was not found then count can't be < len
# since the while loop continues while count is < len
# and no match is found
if count < len(copy):
    print "First Match: ",prev
```

And here is the output:

```
First Match: Jill
```

This program works by continuing to check for match while `count < len(copy and copy[count])`. When either `count` is greater than the last index of `copy` or a match has been found the `and` is no longer true so the loop exits. The `if` simply checks to make sure that the `while` exited because a match was found.

The other ‘trick’ of `and` is used in this example. If you look at the table for `and` notice that the third entry is “false and won’t check”. If `count >= len(copy)` (in other words `count < len(copy)` is false) then `copy[count]` is never looked at. This is because Python knows that if the first is false then they both can’t be true. This is known as a short circuit and is useful if the second half of the `and` will cause an error if something is wrong.

I used the first expression (`count < len(copy)`) to check and see if `count` was a valid index for `copy`. (If you don’t believe me remove the matches ‘Jill’ and ‘Life’, check that it still works and then reverse the order of `count < len(copy)` and `copy[count] != prev to copy[count] != prev and count < len(copy)`.)

Boolean expressions can be used when you need to check two or more different things at once.

Examples

```
"""
This programs asks a user for a name and a password.
It then checks them to make sure the the user is allowed in.
"""
name = raw_input("What is your name? ")
password = raw_input("What is the password? ")
if name == "Josh" and password == "Friday":
    print "Welcome Josh"
elif name == "Fred" and password == "Rock":
    print "Welcome Fred"
else:
    print "I don't know you."
```

(Note *multi-line comment* made with triple quotes.)

Sample runs

```
What is your name? Josh  
What is the password? Friday  
Welcome Josh
```

```
What is your name? Bill  
What is the password? Money  
I don't know you.
```

Exercises

Write a program that has a user guess your name, but they only get 3 chances to do so until the program quits.

Chapter 19

File Input and Output

Here is a simple example of file I/O (input/output):

```
# Write a file
out_file = open("test.txt", "w")
out_file.write("This text is going to outfile\nLook and see!")
out_file.close()

# Read a file
in_file = open("test.txt", "r")
text = in_file.read()
in_file.close()

print text
```

The output and the contents of the file `test.txt` are:

```
This text is going to outfile
Look and see!
```

Notice that it wrote a file called `test.txt` in the directory that you ran the program from. The `\n` in the string tells Python to put a newline where it is.

A overview of file I/O is:

1. Get a file object with the `open` function.
2. Read or write to the file object (depending on how it was opened)
3. Close it

The first step is to get a file object. The way to do this is to use the `open` function. The format is

```
file_object = open(filename, mode)
```

where `file_object` is the variable to put the file object, `filename` is a string with the filename, and `mode` is “r” to read a file or “w” to write a file (and a few others we will skip here). Next the file objects functions can be called.

The two most common functions are `read` and `write`. The `write` function adds a string to the end of the file. The `read` function reads the next thing in the file and returns it as a string. If no argument is given it will return the whole file (as done in the example).

Chapter 20

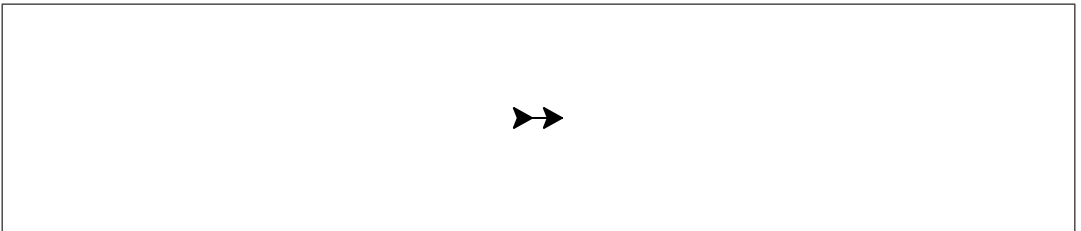
Introduce Python turtle

Do you want some fun? Draw something with Python? Most of recent installations of Python contain *module* for *turtle graphics* which is a popular way for introducing programming. Turtle graphics was part of the original Logo programming language developed by Wally Feurzig and Seymour Papert in 1966.

Imagine a robotic turtle starting at (0, 0) in the x-y plane. After an `import turtle`, give it the name, then command `<name>.forward(15)`, like:

```
>>> import turtle
>>> jane = turtle.Turtle()
>>> jane.forward(15)
```

And this will look like:



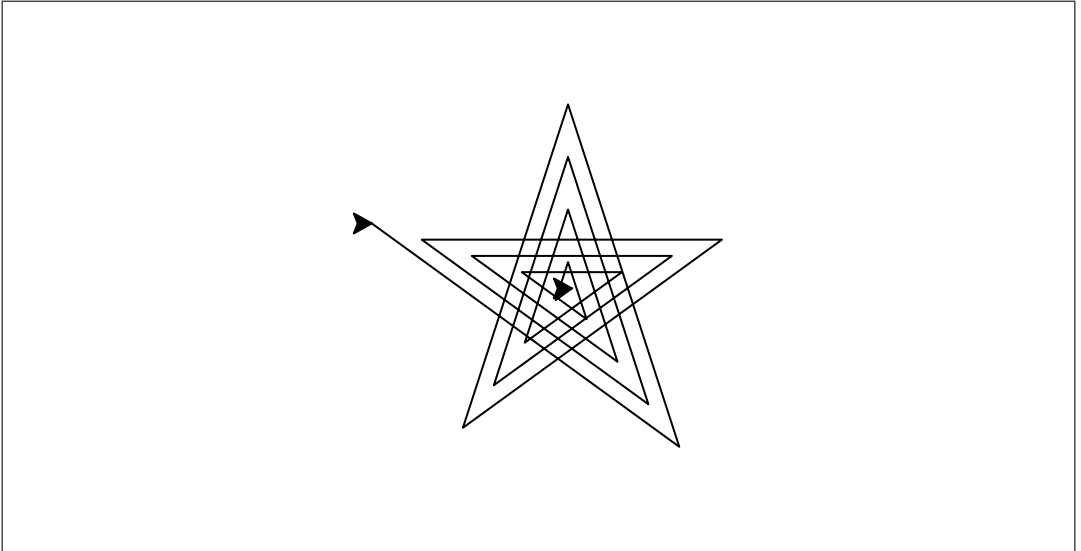
and it moves (on-screen!) 15 pixels in the direction it is facing, drawing a line as it moves. Give it the command `<name>.right(25)` and it rotates 25° clockwise. By combining together these and similar commands, intricate shapes and pictures can easily be drawn.

Examples

All these examples are better run as separate Python programs. To finish, close Python turtle window manually.

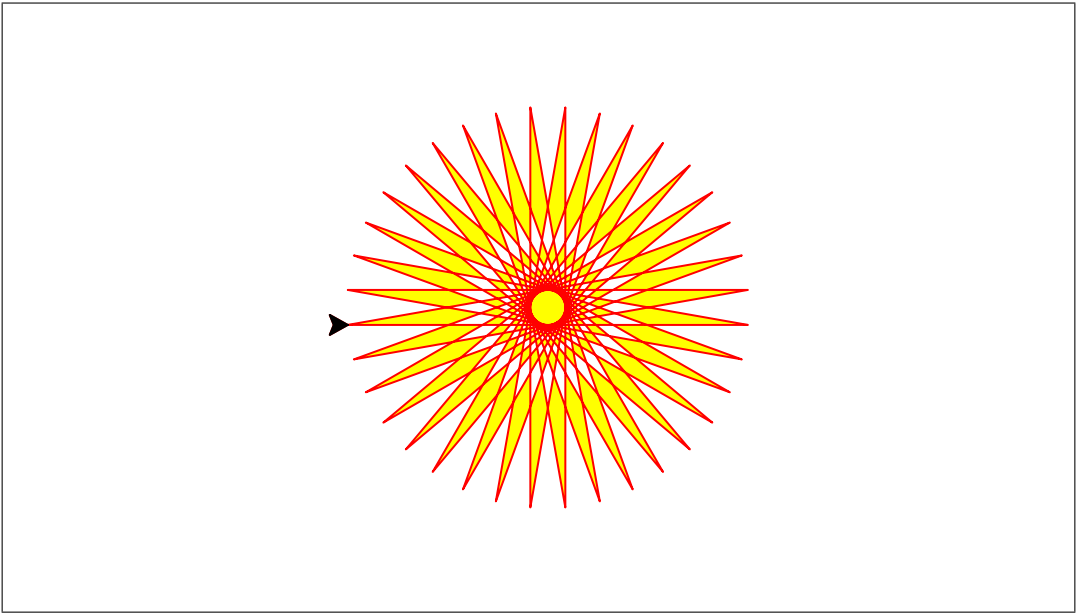
```
# Example with cycle
import turtle
spiro = turtle.Turtle()
for i in range(20):
    spiro.forward(i * 10)
    spiro.right(144)
turtle.done()
```

Output:



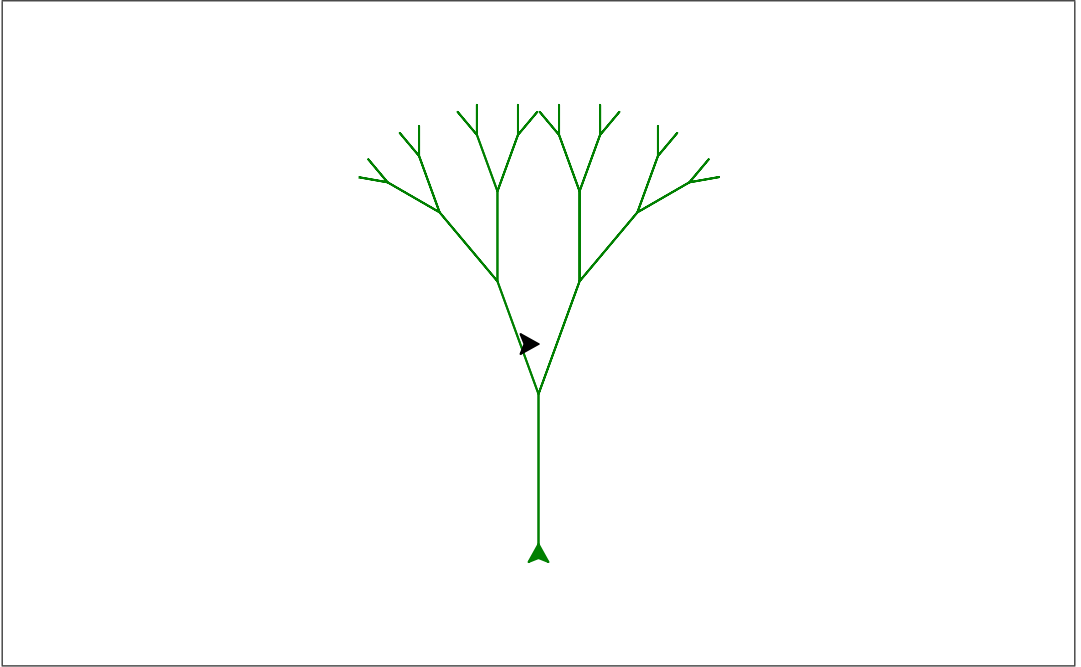
```
# Example with colors
import turtle
jill = turtle.Turtle()
jill.color('red', 'yellow')
jill.begin_fill()
while True:
    jill.forward(200)
    jill.left(170)
    if abs(jill.pos()) < 1:
        break
jill.end_fill()
turtle.done()
```

Output:



```
# Fractal tree example
# with function and recursion
import turtle
def tree(branchLen,t):
    if branchLen > 5:
        t.forward(branchLen)
        t.right(20)
        tree(branchLen-15,t)
        t.left(40)
        tree(branchLen-15,t)
        t.right(20)
        t.backward(branchLen)
t = turtle.Turtle()
t.left(90)
t.up()
t.backward(100)
t.down()
t.color("green")
tree(75,t)
turtle.done()
```


Output:



```
# Draw with strokes example
import turtle
```

```
t = turtle.Turtle()
```

```
t.shape("turtle")
t.color("Red")
t.penup()
t.goto(-100,0)
t.fillcolor("Red")
t.pendown()
```

```
t.begin_fill()
t.goto(-100,50)
t.goto(100,50)
t.goto(100,0)
t.goto(-100,0)
```

```
t.end_fill()
```

```
t.penup()
t.goto(-100,50)
t.fillcolor("Green")
t.color("Green")
t.pendown()
```

```
t.begin_fill()
t.goto(0,100)
t.goto(100,50)
t.goto(-100,50)
t.end_fill()
```

```
t.penup()
t.goto(-40,0)
t.color("Red")
t.fillcolor("Orange")
t.pendown()
```

```
t.begin_fill()
t.goto(-40,30)
t.goto(-20,30)
t.goto(-20,0)
t.goto(-40,0)
t.end_fill()
```

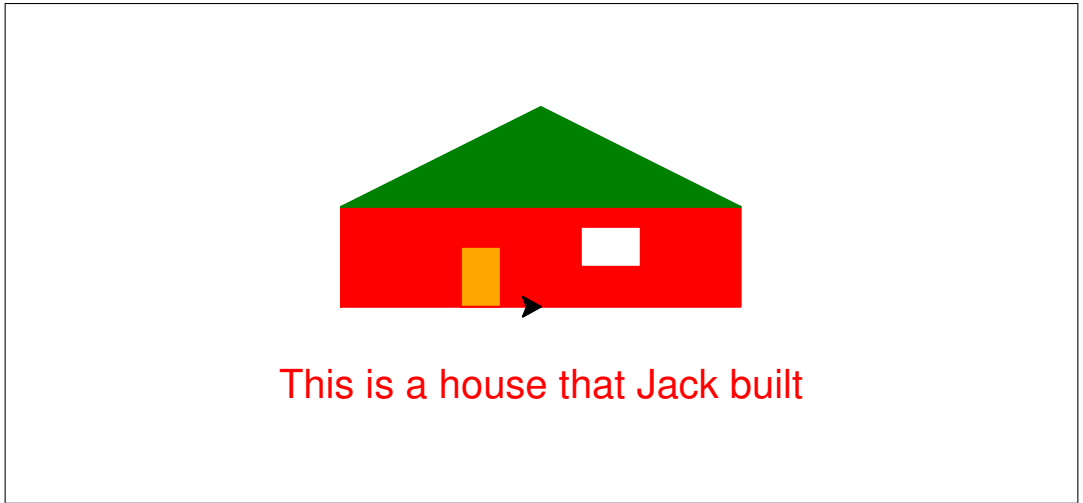
```
t.penup()
t.goto(20,20)
t.fillcolor("White")
t.pendown()
```

```
t.begin_fill()
t.goto(20,40)
t.goto(50,40)
t.goto(50,20)
t.goto(20,20)
t.end_fill()
```

```
t.hideturtle()
t.penup()
```

```
t.goto(-130,-50)  
t.write("This is a house that Jack built",font=("Arial", 20, "normal"))
```

Output:



Chapter 21

Who Goes There-2, or GUI

Personally, I always prefer the program to work regardless of how it looks. If the terminal application does the job, then why do we need anything more advanced? However, there are people which like graphical bells and whistles almost equally (or sometimes even more) than the actual algorithm.

This chapter introduces Graphical User Interface (GUI) made with Python. The following program does almost the same thing as our earlier “Who goes there?”:

```
from Tkinter import *
root = Tk()
svalue = StringVar() # defines the widget state as string

text = Text(root, height=1, width=15)
text.insert(END, "Who goes there?")
text.pack() # organizes widgets in blocks

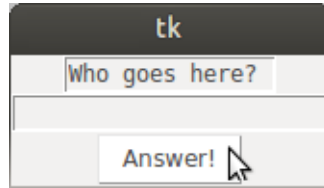
txar = Entry(root, textvariable=svalue) # adds a textarea widget
txar.pack()
def act():
    print 'Welcome, ' '%s' % svalue.get()

btnn = Button(root, text="Answer!", command=act)
btnn.pack() # third widget block

root.mainloop() # to keep window
```

It uses Tkinter, one of many Python graphical modules. Tkinter has several advantages: it is simple, and it is included in most recent Python distributions and works well on many operation systems.

If you name this program like `gui.py`, and run it like `python gui.py`, then along with terminal, you will see new window, similar to:



If you enter your name into the text area and press button, then in terminal, you will see something like:

```
Welcome, Josh
```

There are few things to learn even from this simplified example. Look how many more lines of text has a GUI program comparing with terminal program. Just a reminder of how our terminal one looked:

```
print "Halt!"
s = raw_input("Who goes there? ")
print "You may pass,", s
```

So out of 13 lines of our GUI program, only 3 needed for the terminal application. Everything else are these mentioned above bells and whistles. They are required to organize visual space and user input. Second, logic of these specifications is not always easy to understand. Moreover, different GUI systems have completely different logics.

That's it, folks. We will not go further with GUIs.

Chapter 22

Python cheatsheet

Basic

```
help()
quit()
' ' and " "
\
import <module>
```

Math

```
+
*
-
()
/
.
**
%
```

Input and output

```
print
raw_input()
input()
open(file, mode)
file.read()
file.write()
file.close()
```

Strings

```
float() string to
number
```

```
int() string to integer
str() number to string
str.replace()
str.count()
str.strip() remove
margin whitespace
str.upper() uppercase
str.lower() lowercase
str.split(" ") split
by whitespaces
```

Compare

```
=
<
<=
>
>=
!= or <>
==
```

Booleans

```
or
and
not
```

Flow

```
while
if elif else
```

```
for in
```

Functions

```
return
def
```

Info

```
type()
dir()
```

Lists

```
list(str)
['...', '...']
[<num>] select
list.append()
list.index()
list.remove()
list.sort()
'...'.join(list)
del
len()
range()
```

Dictionaries

```
{'...': '...'}
dictionary
```

Markup



Chapter 23

Web

HTML

My first Web page

HTML, hypertext markup language based on simple text. So in theory, one's first HTML may look like:

```
Hello, World!
```

And if you save it in the text editor as, saying, 1.htm and then open it in Web browser, your output will look somewhat like:

```
Hello, World!
```

Excellent. Now try two lines:

```
Hello, World!  
Second line.
```

But output is:

```
Hello, World! Second line.
```

Well, something went wrong. You actually forgot the *markup*! Here it is:

```
<p>Hello, World!  
<p>Second line.
```

Output:

```
Hello, World!  
Second line.
```

This actually is not a proper HTML, and works well only because *browsers are forgiving* and do not mind mistakes if there is still a way to interpret your input. The minimal proper HTML is:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<title>Title</title>
<p>Hello, World!</p>
<p>Second line.</p>
```

which outputs almost the same thing as above (but try to find one difference).

How to work with HTML

Now I hope that you already understood the main principle of working with markup file like HTML: you have *two instances*, not one.

First instance if your plain text file (which is open in some text editor), you change it, *save it* and then go and update the second instance, your browser window (to update, best is to use keyboard: F5 or Ctrl+R work on most browsers).

If you are not satisfied, go to text file, and change it again, *save* and go again to browser, *update* and look.

Fortunately, browsers are fast enough and render your HTML file in milliseconds.

Second HTML document

Example above is a bit boring. How to make something more like real world Web page?

Consider the second example:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<title>My Web page</title>

<h3 align="center">My Web page</h3>

<p>This <em>Web page</em> is about me.<br />
This is who <strong>I</strong> am:</p>

<ul>
<li> First name
```

```
<li> Last name
</ul>
```

```
<p><a href="https://www.google.com/search?q=me">
Search me on Google</a></p>
```

This outputs something like:

My Web page
<p>This <i>Web page</i> is about me. This is who I am:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First name • Last name <p>Search me on Google.</p>

Step three. Fancy HTML

Even more fancy document would contain colors, tables and images. We illustrate colors and tables here, and speak about images in next section.

This is our third document:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<title>My third Web page</title>

<p>This way to <font color="red">colorize</font>
Web content is outdated but still works.</p>

<p>Tables are good because they allow to align text:</p>

<!-- This is a comment, or disabled content -->

<table align="center" border="1">
<tr>
<td colspan="2" align="center">This is useful for:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structured output</td>
<td>Complex layouts</td>
</tr>
</table>
```

Save this as 3.htm and open in browser. Output should be similar to:

This way to **colorize** Web content is outdated but still works.
Tables are good because they allow to align text:

This is useful for:	
Structured output	Complex layouts

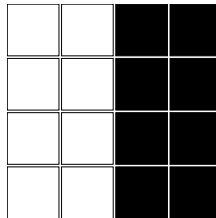
Step four. PNG and JPEG

Next step is to insert graphics. There are two ways: *raster way* and *vector way*. This section describes the first.

In short, raster graphics is made from little “bricks”, *pixels* (whereas vector graphics is made from formulas). These pixels could be generally of three kinds:

1. Black and white
2. Black, white and 254 shades of gray (yes)
3. 65536 (or more) hues of color

Suppose that we have image with size 4×4 pixels (by the way, all raster images must be rectangles). There is 2 columns, each of 4 of black pixels and 2 columns of white pixels. In all, our picture looks like two 2×4 rectangles side by side, black and white:



(Above is a scheme, not a real 16 pixel raster image.)

Now we need to describe this situation and make graphics file.

The simplest way is to describe it pixel by pixel, from, saying, top to bottom and left to right. So description (and internals of our graphical file) will look like:

```
1111 1111 0000 0000
```

where white pixel is encoded with 1, black pixel with 0, and space shows end of column. This way makes text file which size is 19 symbols. Now, your photograph made

with phone contains 20,000,000 pixels! How big will be graphic files? How fast is to read it?

So to save time and space, raster files must be *compressed*. One way of compression is easy to show:

14 14 04 04

Now we have 11 symbols and still retain the same information! Did you get it? First number encodes color of pixel, second number shows how many times to repeat, space is the same. This is a variant of run-length encoding (RLE) which despite of simplicity, is still around. Think about **how** to pack this even more.

Well, if there are 65536 colors, then it is not so easy to use RLE, we need something more complicated. In essence, there are two ways:

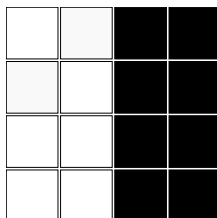
1. Lossless
2. Lossy

Lossless is, for example, RLE way described above. Many of lossless methods based on some efficient compression, and compression based on pattern discovery (like in our example above). This is, by the way, true not only for graphics, but also for music, and of course video which is in essence, combination of graphics and music.

Lossy way is also easy to imagine. Suppose that in our image, among 8 white pixels, there are 2 pixels which are not completely white, they are very light gray:

1211 2111 0000 0000

It looks like:



(Do you see these gray squares?)

If we encode this last file with RLE variant described above, result will be like:

112112 2113 04 04

It costs us 17 symbols, almost the same as non-compressed image!

Now *lossy solution*: human eye does not see well the difference between white and “very light gray” symbols. So replace those with white, and go with 11 symbols.

So you know now the most striking difference between two most important raster graphic formats, PNG and JPEG (JPG):

	PNG	JPEG
Compression	Lossless	Lossy
Degrades	No	Yes
Artifacts	No	Yes
Transparency	Yes	No
Black & white	Yes	No
Small photo size	No	Yes
Animation*	No	No

PNG (Portable Network Graphics) was invented for small-color, typically non-photographic images whereas JPEG (Joint Photographing Expert Group, file extension often JPG, hence more frequent JPG name) was made exactly for what name suggests, photographs, to avoid giant sizes of files. So to choose which to use, thinking is actually required (Fig. 1).

In music, the same distinction could be made between lossy MP3 and lossless FLAC.

* About animation. When PNG was invented, it inherited many features from its non-opensource predecessor, GIF format (and acquired many new features such as support for thousands of colors), except one: ability to show small animations. For some reason, it was thought that other formats (true videos, for example) will replace GIF animations in the end. Amazingly, this did not happen, and now the outdated GIF is still around, and the reason are animations. You can easily make these animations yourself using freeware ImageMagick:

```
convert -delay 40 -loop 0 1.png 2.png animated12.gif
```

One more feature of PNG is that you almost always can re-compress it and save just a bit more space. This is sometimes critically important for Web content. Many tools exist which help here, for example, pngquant, optipng and leanify (the latter is more universal and deals with many file types).

Step five. SVG

Start with the following example:

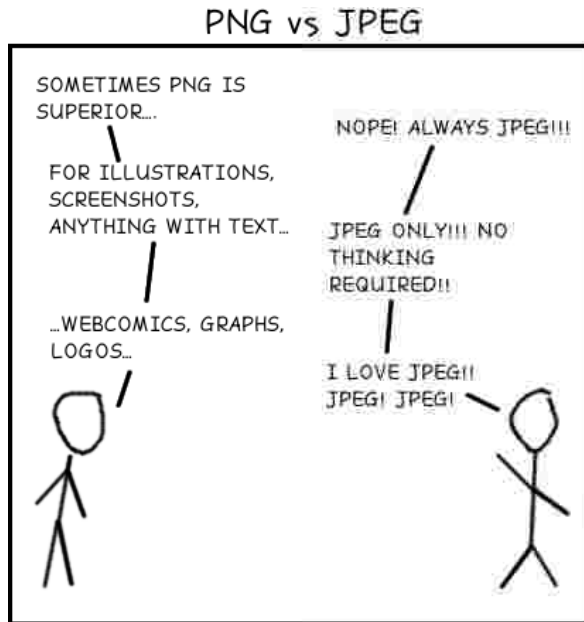


Figure 1. PNG *versus* JPG.

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<title>Title</title>
<p></p>
<p><svg>
<rect fill="black" width="20" height="40" />
<rect fill="green" x="20" width="20" height="40" />
</svg></p>
```

(This example works well with newest Mozilla Firefox and Google Chrome.)

Save this file as 5.htm, download `example.png` from the URL http://ashipunov.info/shipunov/school/univ_110/comp_lit_sci_maj/pics/example.png and place it in the same directory as 4.htm. Now open it in the browser. You will see something like:



Now start to magnify, in most browsers it is done with Ctrl+-. You see something like:



Do you see the difference?

This difference, from the user standpoint is the most important distinction between vector and raster graphics: *vector scales infinitely, raster is not*.

From the standpoint of Web designer, vector (SVG, Scalable Vector Graphics) requires completely different approach to create and edit. And the above example explains why. While raster image is based on pixels, vector is something like geometrical *description* or even formula of shape. In a world of free software, the most appropriate program to work with SVG is Inkscape (and with raster graphics—GIMP).

When you see your vector SVG in browser, it is already converted into raster image (rasterized) because computer and phone screens are raster devices. Reverse operation (tracing) is also possible, and Inkscape or independent tool potrace (<http://kilobtye.github.io/potrace>) can trace raster images.

SVG is a relatively new technology, and sometimes rasterized slowly. There are SVG optimizers of which SVGOMG (<https://jakearchibald.github.io/svgomg>) is probably the best one.

PDF is just another vector graphics format, see below for more detailed discussion.

Step six. CSS

Next example is similar to our first HTML document, but there is one important difference:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<style>p {text-align:center;}</style>
<title>Title</title>
<p>Hello, World!</p>
<p>Second line.</p>
```

Save it as 6.htm and open in browser:

Hello, World! Second line.

Paragraphs are now centered because we declared this as a *paragraph* (p) style. This is how CSS (Cascading Style Sheets) work: they tell browser to format content in accordance with style descriptions.

Step seven. JavaScript.

Our Web examples were so far static. Below is our first DHTML, *dynamic* page:

```
<!DOCTYPE html>
<title>Who goes there?</title>
<script>
s = prompt("Who goes there?")
document.write("<p>You may pass, " + s + "</p>")
</script>
```

Save it as 7.htm and try in a browser.

I believe that you spotted the similarity with our second Python program. Actually, they are the same, but written in different programming languages. Current example made with JavaScript, language which is similar to Python¹. The biggest difference is that JavaScript works in Web browsers whereas Python is not.

So JavaScript is a client side tool, and every recent browser supports it. However, if you like Python more and want to use it to produce Web content, this is still possible. You need to install Python on your Web *server* (computer which distributes content in accordance with hypertext protocols), and then establish communication route

¹And dissimilar to programming language Java, their names similarity is almost coincidence.

between Python and HTML. This is called CGI (Common Gateway Interface). There are even Python Web frameworks (like Django) which work almost out of the box.

JavaScript is a core of our current Internet, together with server-side programming languages. If you know a bit of JavaScript, CSS and HTML, you understand what is going on in you Web browser.

Chapter 24

Ebooks

Plain text

Plain text is an amazingly simple way to interact with computer. By definition, plain text is also human-readable and therefore serves as a simple electronic book. Conventions are really simple:

- Make paragraph one long line
- Separate paragraphs with empty line
- No double spaces

\LaTeX

My first \LaTeX document

Well, \LaTeX is like HTML, based on plain text. So if you open the text editor, enter something like

```
Hello, World!
```

save it like, saying, `1.tex` and run with

```
$ pdflatex 1.tex
```

you will receive ... an error:

```
This is pdfTeX, Version 3.14159265-2.6-1.40.18 (TeX Live 2017)
(preloaded format=pdflatex)
restricted \write18 enabled.
entering extended mode
```

```
(./1.tex
LaTeX2e <2017-04-15>
Babel <3.14> and hyphenation patterns for 84 language(s) loaded.
```

```
! LaTeX Error: Missing \begin{document}.
```

See the LaTeX manual or LaTeX Companion for explanation.
Type H <return> for immediate help.

```
...
```

```
1.1 H
      ello, World!
```

```
?
```

(type x to escape.)

So again, like in HTML, you forgot some markup. And unlike HTML renderer, L^AT_EX interpreter (pdf_lat_ex in that case) is not so forgivable and “likes” proper documents. It is also slower than any HTML browser.

So the minimal proper document is:

```
\documentclass{article}
\begin{document}
Hello, World!
\end{document}
```

And output PDF is:

Hello, World!

Nothing fancy, but works.

Note that like it was in HTML, you have two instances of your document: plain text open in editor, and PDF file which is an output from pdf_lat_ex engine. So essentially there are *three* windows: (1) text editor, (2) terminal where you run pdf_lat_ex and (3) PDF reader which shows your resulted PDF.

Second L^AT_EX document

Our second L^AT_EX combines our second and third HTML document: font features, lists, hyperlinks, color, tables and also one formula example (by the way, nothing was easier because this book is made in L^AT_EX):

```

\documentclass{article}
\begin{document}

\section*{My page}

This \emph{page} is about me.\\
This is who \textbf{I} am:

\begin{itemize}
\item First name
\item Last name
\end{itemize}

\href{https://www.google.com/search?q=me}{Search me on Google.}

This way to \textcolor{red}{colorize} text works well in \LaTeX.

I like this formula most of all, because it is simple:  $E=mc^2$ 

% This is a comment, or disabled content

Tables are good because they allow to align text:

\begin{center}

\begin{tabular}{|1|1|}\hline
\multicolumn{2}{|c|}{This is useful for:}\\\hline
Structured output & Complex layouts \\ \hline
\end{tabular}

\bigskip
\includegraphics{example.png}

\end{center}

\end{document}

```

And output is:

My page

This *page* is about me.

This is who I am:

- First name
- Last name

[Search me on Google.](#)

This way to **colorize** text works well in L^AT_EX.

I like this formula most of all, because it is simple: $E = mc^2$

Tables are good because they allow to align text:

This is useful for:	
Structured output	Complex layouts



L^AT_EX ebooks

So what about ebooks? How to make them with L^AT_EX? This question is also very easy to answer: **this** ebook is made in L^AT_EX. So to learn how to make real, big ebooks like this one, you only need to access the source code of this book which is openly available from this URL: http://ashipunov.info/shipunov/school/univ_110/comp_lit_sci_maj/comp_lit_sci_maj.tex

Download it, open in text editor and look. Change it. Remove pieces. Add something. Run.

To run, you will my style file `shipunov4.sty` available from http://ashipunov.info/shipunov/school/univ_110/comp_lit_sci_maj/shipunov4.sty. And images, they available from http://ashipunov.info/shipunov/school/univ_110/comp_lit_sci_maj/pics/

You will also need text editor (like Geany) and the T_EX system itself. It is freely available (with installation instructions) from <https://www.tug.org/texlive>. Install the full version.

Symbol ebooks

These are text-based files formatted in order to print the real, physical book and/or also to read the book from electronic device. In short, most symbol ebooks are now of two kinds: PDF and EPUB.

PDF

PDF is the most frequently used file format for complicated electronic material, for example, ebooks with tables, illustrations, indices *etc.* As a file format, PDF is a multi-page vector file which can include multiple different objects together with their sizes and placements: photographic raster images, vector drawings, other PDFs, hyperlinks, and even movies and JavaScript programs. The full description of PDF is a big volume of almost 1,000 pages!

One of important features is that PDF must have a kind of contents table for all objects, and this is placed in the very end of file. As a result, if you download a big PDF and did not download it in full, it typically non-readable.

The other specific feature is that freeware programs with universal ability to edit PDF are still absent. Some users do not even know that PDF is editable. But why not? If there are objects and placements, then user should have an option to change them. However, while universal programs do not exist, there are multiple freeware tools which allow user to perform diverse PDF editing operations:

Extract raster images and text poppler tools (pdftotext, pdftimages)

Images to PDF convert from ImageMagick

Delete, insert, rearrange pages, merge, split PDFs pdftk, cpdf

Cropping pages pdfcrop, cpdf

Annotate, fill forms Okular

Edit objects LibreOffice Draw (1 page only, other restrictions also apply)

EPUB

EPUB is a format more close to HTML than to PDF, and works best mostly for the fiction books. It is easy enough to create, edit and convert EPUB to other formats with free software. Most powerful ebook convertor is probably Calibre. Freeware editor Sigil allows to create and edit EPUB ebooks with using Office-like visual interface.

Scanned ebooks

Scanned ebooks are made from images. These images came either from photographic device (phone, digital camera), or from specialized scanner. There two most important differences from symbol ebooks: there is no text and they are of big size.

The most simple scanned ebook is just a set of raster images, for example, multi-page TIFF. That last format was specifically designed for scanners. However, the problem is that big and especially color books make extremely large TIFF files.

DjVu

This format was designed in AT&T exactly for scanned books. Idea of DjVu is *segmentation*: image split in multiple fragments (text separate, background separate, illustrations separate) and each type is compressed in a specific way. For example, text is compressed by splitting into individual letters. So if there are 16 letters “a” on the page, they all encoded with one image plus information where to place it 16 times. This saves a lot of memory and space.

DjVu makes small and memory-efficient (hence DjVu books are easy to read) documents which still outperform almost any PDFs. Freeware DjView4 and many other programs (e.g., SumatraPDF) are able to read DjVu files.

Data

HI, THIS IS
YOUR SON'S SCHOOL.
WE'RE HAVING SOME
COMPUTER TROUBLE.



OH, DEAR - DID HE
BREAK SOMETHING?

IN A WAY-



DID YOU REALLY
NAME YOUR SON
Robert'); DROP
TABLE Students;-- ?



OH, YES. LITTLE
BOBBY TABLES,
WE CALL HIM.

WELL, WE'VE LOST THIS
YEAR'S STUDENT RECORDS.
I HOPE YOU'RE HAPPY.



AND I HOPE
YOU'VE LEARNED
TO SANITIZE YOUR
DATABASE INPUTS.

Chapter 25

Intro to spreadsheets

Spreadsheets is the one of the most basic way to work with data. They were created mostly for accounting needs, but found many other uses, even in scientific applications. One of most known is Microsoft Excel but there are many others including freely available LibreOffice Calc and Gnumeric. They all similar, and following should be applicable to any of them.

Spreadsheet **cells** (those little rectangles) can hold numbers, words, or formulas (which then produce numbers). Try filling in some cells with numbers and others with words. Click on it to highlight it and start typing your entry. Use Enter to finish an entry and move down. Tab moves you to the right.

You can also use F2 key or the mouse to double click on a cell that you wish to change, or you can use the arrow keys to move around in the spreadsheet.

What happens if your words are longer than a cell? Try this with the cell to the right being empty and again with it having some entry.

Format

Cells have different formats and automatically convert their contents. Select a cell and change its format with the Format menu (Ctrl+1).

One of strange (for unexperienced users) features is the automatic date / number conversion. Suppose that you have a cell with text format (enter something in a cell, and then change format to “text”). Now, enter some date like “Nov 20, 2017”. Then change cell format to “date”, then change cell format again, now to “number” and start to edit cell content (press F2). If you are unlucky (some spreadsheet work this way, some not), then instead of date, you will see “43059”. Why this particular number, is easy to explain: this is the number of days from the beginning of “Excel era” (January 1, 1900) to November 20, 2017.

What is much more important that this (and related) conversion problems already brought numerous mistakes into public databases (see, for example, publications at <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15214961> and <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27552985>). Therefore, you must know how to avoid them.

First, you can use the universal date format, “YYYYmmdd” where November 20, 2017 is just a number “20171120”.

Second, you can protect your “Nov 20, 2017” with text protection sign, apostrophe (or single quote):

This sign tells that everything after is just a text (and therefore suppresses conversion of any kind).

Formulas

Enter the value 23 into cell D104 (use the column and row headings to find cell D104). Then come back to the top of the spreadsheet.

All formulas start with an equals sign =. Select cell D4 and enter the following formula:

```
=2*D104-4
```

The value 42 (which is $3 + 2(23)$) should appear. When you select a cell, the formula that is actually in the cell appears in the line at the top of the screen. What appears *in the cell* is the value of that formula.

Drag and fill

Clear out column A (select and delete). Enter the number 1 in cell A1 and the formula =A1+1 in cell A2.

Then select cell A2 and move the cursor to the lower right corner of that cell. The cursor (which is usually a white plus sign) should change, depending on your software. Using that special cursor, drag the cell down to A10 so that the numbers 1 through 10 appear. This dragging “copies” the formula to the cells below. Check the formulas in this column and figure out your formula changed during the copying.

Now select the entire column of ten numbers and, using the special cursor from the lower right hand corner, copy them to the two columns to the right of the first. **What** happened to the formulas this time?

If you move a column, you should cut and paste. Select cells from A1 to A10, then select “cut”. The border of the cells starts to shimmer. Select cell B12 and choose the “paste” (or type $\text{Ctrl}+V$). **What** happened to the formulas?

OK, what if you do not want to copy (or cut) formulas but want to copy results? Select B12:B21, copy, then use Paste Special to choose Value and insert them into A1 again. **What** happened?

Protect

You can protect a cell name in a formula from being changed when the formula is moved or copied by using a dollar sign in front of the column letter or row number or both. For example, insert 1 in C12, then select cell C13. Change the formula to $=\$C\$12+1$, and then fill it down the column. All the numbers in the column after C12 should now be the *same*; the *protected formula* does not change when you copy.

Now enter the value 2 into cell C10. Change the formula of C13 to $=C12+C\$10$ and copy it down the column. Now the column counts by twos. **Why**? Changing cell C10 automatically changes all the other cells to count by whatever value you want. **How** to count by threes?

Ranges

Some functions use a range of values. For example, if we want to sum the ten values in the first column. Enter the formula $=\text{sum}(B12:B21)$ into cell B11. It should sum those ten numbers. **What** is your result?

Now, sum all your spreadsheet values (do not forget about D104). **How** to do it? **What** is the result?

Conditions

What if you want a spreadsheet which behaves? For example, if you have budget of 100 dollars, is it possible to make spreadsheet warn you about overdraft?

Remove all values from current spreadsheet. Enter numbers 20, 5, 15, 30, 3.70 in cells A1:A5. Now cell B1 will have formula to summarize your spendings in A column:

=sum(A1:A100), there will be a space for 95 more spendings. Cell B2 will have a budget (100), and cell B3 will warn you if your spendings are over 100 dollars:

```
=if(B1 > B2, "Overdraft!", "Still OK").
```

How to modify the formula and make spreadsheet warn you if your spendings a close (like 99%) of the budget? **How** to combine these two conditions?

Tab delimited

There are many spreadsheet formats but all of them are not plain text. However, your basic principle is to keep plain text wherever possible.

There is the plain text format which consist of multiple rows of text, and within each row, there are invisible big spaces, tabs, which split row into cells. This tab-delimited text file is a universal replacement of any data spreadsheet (i.e., *spreadsheet without formulas and formatting*).

It looks like:

```
First 2nd Third_column
1 2 3
4 5 6
```

Enter the above into text editor (white spaces are **tabs**, only one white space is an actual space, it is marked with `␣` character).

Then save this file, saying, as `1.txt` and try to import it into your spreadsheet application.

Now, enter any data in your spreadsheet, export it as a tab delimited text file (saying, `2.txt`) and open it in text editor. Even simpler way is (on Linux and Windows) to copy your cells and then paste them into text editor. By default, they inserted as tab delimited!

Chapter 26

Phylogeny Primer

This chapter is more like assignment than code example or detailed explanation. The goal is to access (maybe, the first time) phylogenetic trees creations, based on public databases and online phylogeny tools.

1. Choose a favorite animal/plant group (use NCBI Taxonomy, family is preferable) with > 5 members
2. Choose outgroup (use NCBI Taxonomy)
3. Copy sequences of COI (animals) or *rbcL* (plants) in FASTA format to the text file (retain ">"!)
4. Paste them to online ClustalW (<http://genome.jp>), save alignment file
5. Apply result to PhyML (<http://phylogeny.fr>)
6. Rearrange (with outgroup) and redraw the tree, find most "primitive" and "advanced" ingroups

Chapter 27

Databases

Chapter 28

Resources