

# CMPT 120: Introduction to Computing Science and Programming 1

## Final Review



python™

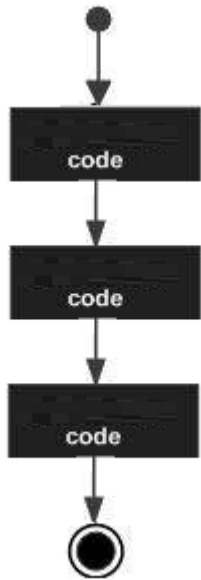
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# Control Structures

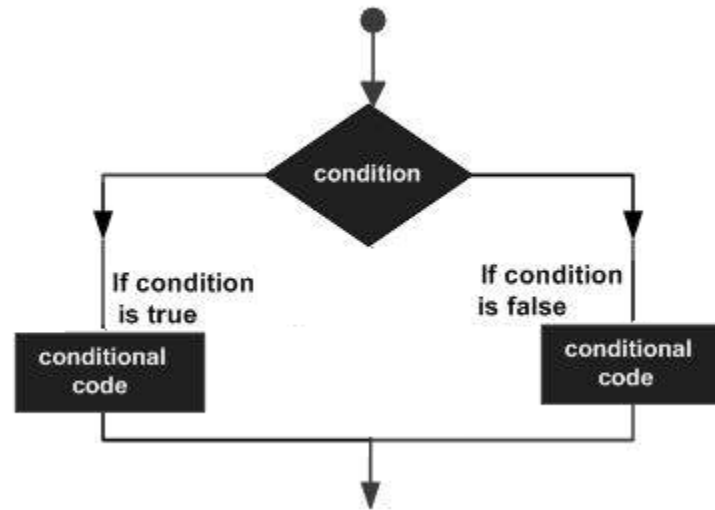
- **Control Structure**: It is a logical design which refers to the order in which statements in computer programs will be executed.
  1. **Sequence Structure**: An order where a set of statements is executed sequentially.
  2. **Decision Structure**: An order where a set of instructions is executed only if a condition exists.
    - a. Branching
    - b. Looping

# Control Structures: Flowcharts

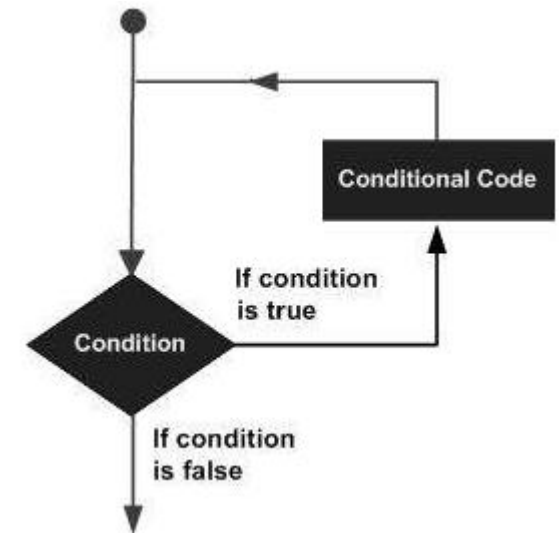
## Sequential Structure



## Decision Structure: Branching



## Decision Structure: Looping

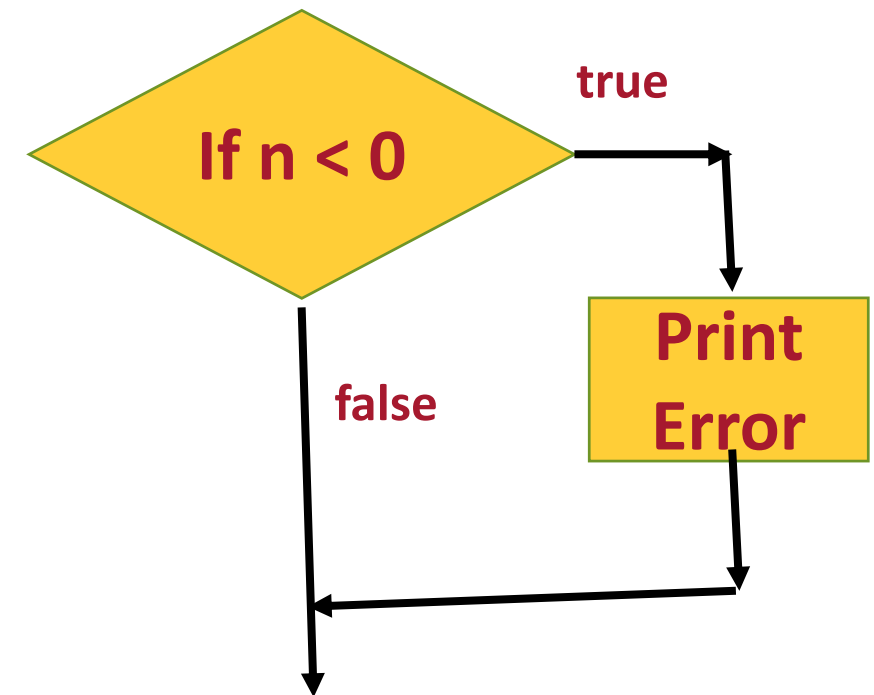


# Decision Structures

- **Branching**: It alters the flow of program execution by making a selection or choice.
  1. if
  2. if-else
  3. If-elif-else (A decision structure nested inside another decision structure)
- **Looping**: It alters the flow of program execution by repetition of a particular block of statement(s).
  1. for-loop
  2. while-loop

# The **if** Statement: A Simple Decision Structure

- A simple **if** statement provides a **single** alternative decision structure.
  - It provides only one alternative path of execution.
  - If condition is not true, exit the structure.



# The **if** Statement: Syntax

- Python syntax:

***if condition:***

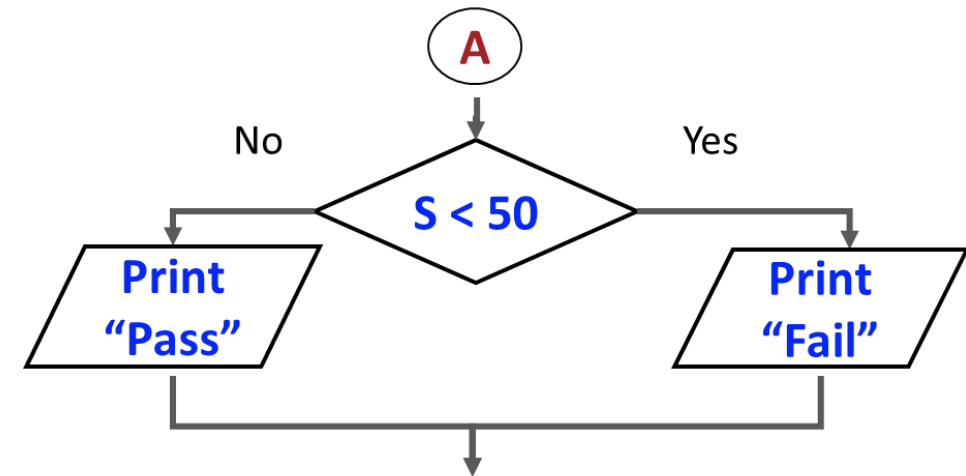
*Statement*

*Statement*

- **First line** known as the **if clause**.
- It includes the keyword **if** followed by **condition**.
- The condition can be **true** or **false**.
- When the **if statement** executes, the **condition is tested**, and if it is **true** the block statements are executed.
- Otherwise, block statements are skipped.

# The **if-else** Statement: Dual Alternative Decision Structure

- The **if-else** decision structure provides:
  - dual alternatives, or
  - two possible paths of execution.
    1. One path is taken if the condition is true,
    2. And, the other path is taken if the condition is false.



# The **if-else** Statement: Syntax

- The **if-elif-else** decision structure allows more than one condition to be tested.
- Python syntax:

**if condition 1:**

*Statement (s)*

**elif condition 2:**

*Statement (s)*

**elif condition 3:**

*Statement (s)*

**else:**

*Statement (s)*

Insert as  
many `elif`  
clauses  
as  
necessary.



# Introduction to Loops: Repetition Structures

- **Repetition structure**: A repetition structures makes computer repeat the code (included inside the structure) as many times as required.
  1. **count-controlled** loops (**for** loop i.e., repeat 5 times, 10 times, 100 times etc.)
  2. **condition-controlled** loops (**while** loop, repeat as long as some condition is true.)

# Count-Controlled Loop (Definite Loop): **for** Loop

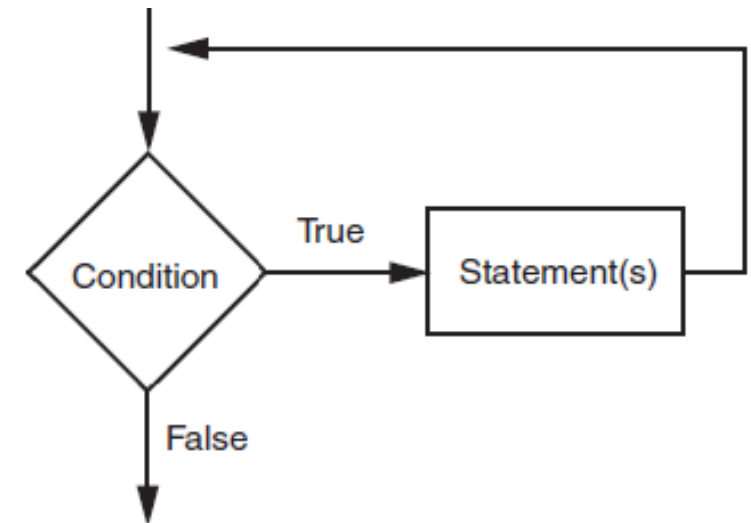
- **Count-Controlled loop**: A definite loop iterates a specific number of times.
- We use a **for** statement to write count-controlled loop.
  - Python **for loop** is designed to work with **sequence of data items**
    - The for loop repeats or iterates once for each item in the sequence.
- General format:

```
for variable in range/list [val1, val2, etc]:  
    statements
```

- We refer to the first line as the **for clause**.
- Inside brackets a sequence of values, separated by comma, appear.

# The **while** Loop: Condition-Controlled Loop

- **Condition-Controlled loop**: An indefinite loop that iterates an **unspecified** number of times.
  - General format: **while condition:**  
*statements*
- The loop executes while the **condition** is **true**.
- Based on the result of the **condition**, statements inside the loop may get executed:
  - **zero** time, or
  - **one** time, or
  - **any** number of times.
- We refer to the first line as the **while clause**.



# Nested Loops

- **Nested loop**: loop that is contained inside another loop
- Key points about nested loops:
  - Inner loop goes through all of its iterations for each iteration of outer loop
  - Inner loops complete their iterations faster than outer loops

# Binary Data Representation

- Data inside computer is **not represented** the same way as we represent numbers and letters in English or native language. **For example:**
  - We represent quantities using symbols (digits) **0, 1, 3,... and 9.**
  - We can write names using English letters **A, B, C,...Z** or **a, b, c,...z**
    - So, we represent a quantity **six** by using the symbol **6.**
    - Using English alphabets, we can represent a street name as: **Dawson Street.**
- **Problem!!!**
- Computer don't use (recognize) the symbols 0,1,2..9 or alphabets a, b, c,...z
- Because, computers use a completely **different** language to represent numbers or letters (or data).
- We call it machine language. (Or, binary language or representation.)

# Binary Data Representation - 2

- The **binary language** consists of two symbols only: **0** and **1**
- That means, every thing in computer **MUST** be represented using the symbols **0** and **1**, only
- So, the quantity **six** must be represented using a combination of **0s** and **1s**. (Binary code)
- The name **Dawson Street** must also be represented using a combination of 0s and 1s.
- Let's create **our own binary codes** to represent letters A, B, C, ...Z using a combination of **0s** and **1s**.

# Examples

1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	<b>= 171</b>
$2^7$	$2^6$	$2^5$	$2^4$	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$	
128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	
128	0	32	0	8	0	2	1	

0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	<b>= 35</b>
$2^7$	$2^6$	$2^5$	$2^4$	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$	
128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	
0	0	32	0	0	0	2	1	

# Storage Units

- **Bit:** storage to represent a **binary** 0 or 1.
- **Byte:** a group of 8-bits.
- More bigger storage units (with approximation, as shown in Study Guide):

Prefix	Symbol	Factor
(no prefix)		$2^0 = 1$
kilo-	k	$2^{10} = 1024 \approx 10^3$
mega-	M	$2^{20} = 1048576 \approx 10^6$
giga-	G	$2^{30} = 1073741824 \approx 10^9$
tera-	T	$2^{40} = 1099511627776 \approx 10^{12}$

- Example, “**12 megabytes**” is:  $12 \times 2^{20}$  bytes
- = **12,582,912 bytes** =>  
**12582912 × 8 bits = 100,663,296 bits** .

- **More specifically:**

Multiples of bytes						V · T · E
Decimal			Binary			
Value	Metric		Value	IEC	JEDEC	
1000	kB kilobyte		1024	KiB kibibyte	KB kilobyte	
1000 <sup>2</sup>	MB megabyte		1024 <sup>2</sup>	MiB mebibyte	MB megabyte	
1000 <sup>3</sup>	GB gigabyte		1024 <sup>3</sup>	GiB gibibyte	GB gigabyte	
1000 <sup>4</sup>	TB terabyte		1024 <sup>4</sup>	TiB tebibyte	–	
1000 <sup>5</sup>	PB petabyte		1024 <sup>5</sup>	PiB pebibyte	–	
1000 <sup>6</sup>	EB exabyte		1024 <sup>6</sup>	EiB exbibyte	–	
1000 <sup>7</sup>	ZB zettabyte		1024 <sup>7</sup>	ZiB zebibyte	–	
1000 <sup>8</sup>	YB yottabyte		1024 <sup>8</sup>	YiB yobibyte	–	

Orders of magnitude of data



# Signed Integer Data Representation: Binary

- A **signed integer**: For a positive integer represented by N binary digits the possible values are  $-2^{N-1}-1 \leq \text{value} \leq 2^{N-1}-1$ .

<b>Sign bit</b>	<b>N -1 Binary Digits</b>						
-----------------	---------------------------	--	--	--	--	--	--

	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
+/-	$2^6$	$2^5$	$2^4$	$2^3$	$2^2$	$2^1$	$2^0$
<b>+/- 127</b>	64	32	16	8	4	2	1

<b>+12</b>	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
<b>-12</b>	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0

# Signed Integer Data Representation: One's Complement

- Integer is represented by a string of **binary** digits.

- But, is represented in 1's compliment form.

<b>Sign bit</b>	<b>N -1 Binary Digits: 1's Compliment</b>
---------------------	---

- How a number is converted to its 1's Compliment form:**

- If a number is positive, simply convert the number to its binary equivalent.

- For example, if the number is: 6 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0

- If a number is negative, **convert** the number to its binary equivalent and **flip** the bits.

- For example, if the number is: -6 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0

- Flip the bits: 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1

# Signed Integer Data Representation: One's Complement

- Suppose an 8-bit 1's pattern is shown as: **1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1**
- **What number this pattern represents?**
  - If first bit 0, then it is an unsigned/positive number, as shown (simply convert it to its decimal equivalent).
  - If first bit is 1, then:
    1. Flip all the bits. So, **1011 0001** becomes **0100 1110**
    2. Convert to decimal:  $01001110 = 2^6 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^1 = 64 + 8 + 4 + 2 = 78$
    3. Add a minus sign. So **10110001** represents **-78** in one's Complement form.

+

# Two's Complement Signed Integer Representation

- Integer is represented by a string of binary digits.
  - Representation is in 2's complement form.
  - Right most bit is used for sign.
  - Remaining bits represent the value.

<i>Sign bit</i>	<i>N-1 Binary Digits: 2's Complement</i>
-----------------	--

- Decimal to 2's Complement form:
- For a Positive Number:
  1. First bit is 0.
  2. Convert the number to its binary equivalent.
- **+ 7** is represented as: **0000 0111**
- **+ 13** is represented as: **0000 1101**

- For a Negative Number:
  1. Convert the number to its binary equivalent.
  2. Flip the bits
  3. Add 1.
- **- 7** would be represented as:
  1. Convert to binary: 0000 0111
  2. Flip the bits: 1111 1000
  3. Add 1. 1 = **1111 1001**
- **- 13** would be represented as:
  1. Convert to binary: 0000 1101
  2. Flip the bits: 1111 0010
  3. Add 1. 1 = **1111 0011**

# Turtle Intro

Turtle is a Python feature that allows you to draw and animate graphic shapes.

**# Import turtle package**

```
import turtle
```

**# Create our turtle**

```
myTurtle = turtle.Turtle()
```

**# Move forward 50 pixels**

```
myTurtle.forward(50)
```

**# Turn right 90 degrees**

```
myTurtle.right(90)
```

**# Move forward 50 pixels**

```
myTurtle.forward(50)
```

Create a Turtle  
“object”

## Using turtle in Python

- To make use of the turtle methods and functionalities, we need to import turtle.
- "turtle" comes packed with the standard Python package and need not be installed externally.
- Four steps for executing a turtle program :
  1. **Import** the turtle module
  2. **Create** a turtle to control (using **Turtle()**)
  3. **Draw** around using the turtle methods.
  4. Run **turtle.done()**.

# Common Turtle Methods (See [Documentation](#))

METHOD	PARAMETER	DESCRIPTION
<code>Turtle()</code>	None	Creates and returns a new turtle object
<code>forward()</code>	amount	Moves the turtle forward by the specified amount
<code>backward()</code>	amount	Moves the turtle backward by the specified amount
<code>right()</code>	angle	Turns the turtle clockwise
<code>left()</code>	angle	Turns the turtle counter clockwise
<code>penup()</code>	None	Picks up the turtle's Pen
<code>up()</code>	None	Picks up the turtle's Pen
<code>down()</code>	None	Puts down the turtle's Pen
<code>color()</code>	Color name	Changes the color of the turtle's pen
<code>fillcolor()</code>	Color name	Changes the color of the turtle will use to fill a polygon

Adapted from: Janice Regan, 2013.

# Introduction to Functions

- **Function:** group of statements within a program that perform as specific task.
  - Usually one task of a large program.
    - Functions can be executed in order to perform overall program task.
  - Known as *divide and conquer* approach
- Modularized program: program wherein each task within the program is in its own function.



# Functions: A Divide and Conquer Approach

- We use functions to Divide and Conquer a large task by dividing into subtasks.
- We also call it a modular approach.

This program is one long, complex sequence of statements.

↓  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement  
statement

In this program the task has been divided into smaller tasks, each of which is performed by a separate function.

↓  

```
def function1():  
    statement  
    statement  
    statement  
    function
```

```
def function2():  
    statement  
    statement  
    statement  
    function
```

```
def function3():  
    statement  
    statement  
    statement  
    function
```

# Void Functions and Value-Returning Functions

- A void function:
  - Simply executes the statements it contains and then terminates.
- A value-returning function:
  - Executes the statements it contains, and then it returns a value back to the statement that called it.
    - The `input`, `int`, and `float` functions are examples of value-returning functions.

# Defining and Calling a Function

- **Functions are given names (like we give names to variables).**
  - Function naming rules:
    - Cannot use key words as a function name.
    - Cannot contain spaces.
    - First character must be a letter or underscore.
    - All other characters must be a letter, number or underscore.
    - Uppercase and lowercase characters are distinct.

# External storage

- When we shut down an application (e.g.: Python IDLE, Word or Excel) and/or turn off our computer, often we do not want our information (code, data) to disappear.
  - We want our information to **persist** until the next time we use it.
  - We achieve persistence by saving our information to **files** on external storage like **hard disk, flash memory, etc...**
  - We can use text files to store the input/output data.

# Files

- **Text Files:**

- The sequence of 0's and 1's represents human-readable characters, i.e., UNICODE/ASCII characters
- To view the content of a text file, one needs to use the appropriate application such as a text editor (notepad).
- Example:
- In CMPT 120, we shall open or read text files to get data in to the program, or to write from a program.

# Introduction to Recursion

# Hardcode data inside program.

```
quiz1 = 45
```

```
quiz2 = 56
```

```
total = quiz1 + quiz2
```

```
print(total_mark)
```

# Get data using input() function.

```
quiz1 = int(input())
```

```
quiz2 = int(input())
```

```
total = quiz1 + quiz2
```

```
print(total_mark)
```

# Get data from a text file.

# Opening a file for reading

```
fileR = open('mark_data.txt', 'r')
```

# Read its first line -> a string

```
quiz1 = fileR.readline()
```

# Read its second line -> a string

```
quiz2 = fileR.readline()
```

```
quiz1 = int(quiz1)
```

```
quiz2 = int(quiz2)
```

```
total = quiz1 + quiz2
```

```
print(total)
```

# Close the file

```
fileR.close( )
```

# Open a file in a Python program

- To use a file in our Python program, we must first open it in the appropriate mode:

**Syntax:**

```
<fileObject> = open(filename, <mode>)
```

Optional **string**  
describing the way  
in which the file  
will be used.

# A word about <mode>

- A mode describes the way in which a file is to be used
- Python considers the following modes:
  1. Read
  2. Write
  3. Append
  4. Read and write



# Open a File for Reading

- To read from a file, we need to first open it in **read** mode with `'r'`:

**Syntax:** `fileRead = open(<filename>, 'r')`

OR `fileRead = open(<filename>)`

- `fileRead` is (called) a file object.
- If the file does not exist in the current directory, then:
  - Python interpreter produces and prints an error.

```
FileNotFoundError: [Errno 2] No such file or  
directory: 'fileDoesNotExist.txt'
```

# Dictionaries

- We have used variables and lists to store data previously.  
For example, `quiz_1 = 14` or  
`marks_list = [12, 15, 40, 30]`
- **Dictionary**: is another object in Python that stores a **collection of data**.
- We use `{ }` to define data in a dictionary.
- Each element in a dictionary consists of a **key** and a **value**.  
**Format:** `<dictionary_name> = {key1:val1, key2:val2, ...}`
- Often referred to as mapping of key to value
- To retrieve a specific value, use the **key** associated with it.

# Retrieving a Value from a Dictionary

- To retrieve a specific value, use the **key** associated with it.
- General **format** to retrieve a from a dictionary: **dictionary\_name[key]**
- If **key** is in the dictionary, associated value is returned, otherwise, **KeyError** exception is raised.
- To test whether a **key** is in a dictionary use the **in** and **not in** operators.
  - These operators can help prevent **KeyError** exceptions.
- Elements in dictionary are unsorted

# Adding Elements to an Existing Dictionary

- Dictionaries are **mutable** objects
- To add a new **key-value** pair: `dictionary_name[key] = value`
  - If **key** exists in the dictionary, the value associated with it will be changed. Else, added.

```
country_population = {'Canada' : 36624199, 'USA' : 324459463}
```

```
country_population['Mexico'] = 129163276
```

```
print(country_population)
```

```
{'Canada' : 36624199, 'USA' : 324459463, 'Mexico' : 129163276}
```

# Some Dictionary Methods

- **clear()** method: Deletes all the elements in a dictionary, leaving it empty.
- Format: **dictionary\_name.clear()**
- **get()** method: Gets you a **value** associated with specified the specified **key**.
- Format: **dictionary\_name.get(key, default)**
  - **default** is returned if the key is not found.  

```
print(country_population.get('China', 'No Value Found'))
```
  - Alternative to [ ] operator.
  - Cannot raise KeyError exception.

# Sequences

- **Sequence**: an object that contains **multiple items** of data. For instance:
  - `my_list = [ 6, 78, 9 ]` is an example of a sequence.
    - The distinctive name of the this sequence is **list**.
    - So list is a type of sequence.
  - The items are stored in sequence one after another.
- Python provides different types of sequences, including **lists** and **tuples**.
  - The difference between these is that:
    - a list is **mutable**
    - a tuple is **immutable**

# Lists

- **List**: an object that contains multiple data items separated by a comma.
  - An data item in a list is called an **Element**.
  - Format: `list = [item1, item2, etc.]`
  - A list can hold items of different types.
  - `my_list = [7, "Ted", [56, 78]]`
    - Contains three elements of type int, str and list.
- **print** function can be used to display an entire list.
- **list()** function can convert certain types of objects to lists.
  - For instance, to convert a tuple into a list.

# The Repetition Operator and Iterating over a List

- **Repetition operator**: makes multiple copies of a list and joins them together
  - The **\*** symbol is a repetition operator when applied to a **sequence** and an **integer**.
    - Sequence is left operand, number is right
  - General format: `list * n`
    - `[7, "Ted", [56, 78]] * 2 = [7, "Ted", [56, 78], 7, "Ted", [56, 78]]`
- You can iterate over a list using a `for` loop
  - Format: `for x in list:`



# Indexing

- **Index**: a number specifying the position of an element in a list
  - Enables access to individual element in list
  - Index of first element in the list is 0, second element is 1, and n'th element is n-1
  - Negative indexes identify positions relative to the end of the list
    - The index -1 identifies the last element, -2 identifies the next to last element, etc.

# The `len` function

- An `IndexError` exception is raised if an invalid index is used.
- `len` function: returns the length of a sequence such as a list
  - Example: `size = len(my_list)`
  - Returns the number of elements in the list, so the index of last element is `len(list) - 1`
  - Can be used to prevent an `IndexError` exception when iterating over a list with a loop.
    - `for i in range(len(my_list)):`

# Lists Are Mutable

- Mutable sequence: the items in the sequence can be changed
  - Lists are mutable, and so their elements can be changed
- An expression such as
- `list[1] = new_value` can be used to assign a new value to a list element.
  - Must use a valid index to prevent raising of an `IndexError` exception

# Introduction to Searching

- Have you ever used **Ctrl-F** keys?
  - We use it to **search a value**.
  - How to search a value – how to search it fast?
- **Searching**: Locating an item in a list of data.
- Two of search algorithms are:
  1. **Linear** or Sequential Search.
  2. **Binary** Search.
    - Half-interval search.
    - Logarithmic search.

# Linear Search

- Starting at the first element, this algorithm steps through an array **sequentially**, examining each element until it locates the desired value.

- Suppose, an array **list** contains following values:

17	23	5	11	2	29	3
<b>list[0]</b>						<b>list[6]</b>

- To search a **value 11**, Linear Search compares 17, 23, 5, and 11.
- Say, we define two variable:
- **VALUE = 11**
- **found = False**
- How you will perform this Linear Search?

# Big O

- Estimate the order of the number of calculations needed
  - Order is the **largest power of  $n$**  in the estimated upper limit of the number of operations.
- For most  $n$  (amount of data) it is generally true that an order  $n^k$  algorithm is significantly faster than an order  $n^{k+1}$  algorithm
- An algorithm with order  $n$  operations is said to run in **linear** time
- An algorithm with order  $n^2$  operations is said to run in **quadratic** time.

# Estimate of how fast

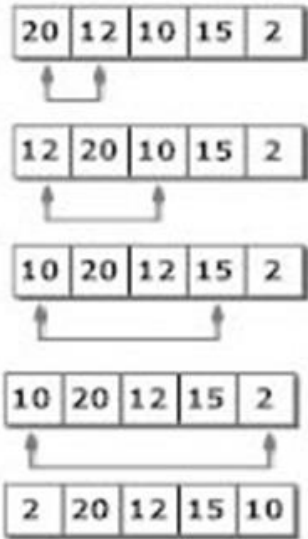
- Looking for a 'good' upper limit
- Just consider the Order.
  - The order is the largest power of  $n$
- First example: 9 operations
  - $O(9) = 0$  Order 0 (not a function of  $n$ )
- Second example:  $6*n + 1$  operations
  - $O(6*n + 1) = n$  Order 1 (largest power of  $n$  is 1)
- Third example:  $1 + 3n + 11n^2$ 
  - $O(1 + 3n + 11n^2) = n^2$  Order 2 (largest power of  $n$  is 2)

# Introduction to Sorting

- Sorting: Arranging values into an order:
  - Alphabetical
  - Ascending numeric
  - Descending numeric
- One of the simplest algorithms is **Selection sort**.



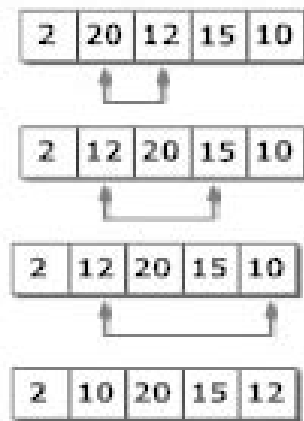
# Selection Sort Example (Ascending Order)



Step 1

## Iteration 1:

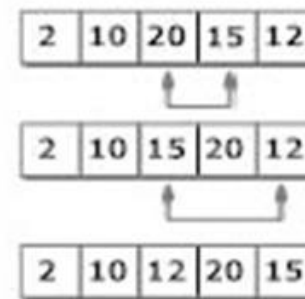
1. Find the smallest element between **lis[0]** and **lis[4]**.
2. Swap if smaller.



Step 2

## Iteration 2:

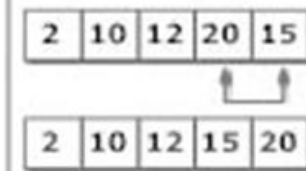
1. Find the smallest element between **lis[1]** and **lis[4]**.
2. Swap if smaller.



Step 3

## Iteration 3:

1. Find the smallest element between **lis[2]** and **lis[4]**.
2. Swap if smaller.



Step 4

## Iteration 4:

1. Find the smallest element between **lis[3]** and **lis[4]**.
2. Swap if smaller.



**Questions?**