

Collection Types

zyBooks
"Programming in Python 3"
chapter 3

Collections

- Python supports data types that have internal structure – known as *collections*
 - Simple types represent a single value each
- Some collections put internal members into a definite order, or sequence
 - Strings, lists, tuples
- Some collections have special properties or characteristics
 - Dictionaries, sets

Ordered collections

- Elements of ordered collections can be selected by position
 - *indexed*
 - *sliced*

Strings

- Literals
 - A sequence of characters – lowercase and uppercase letters, digits, punctuation, etc.
 - » "abcdefg"
 - » "12345"
 - » "qwe_rty? Uiop!"
- Single-quote characters (') or double-quote characters (") surround the literal
 - Used in pairs - ' ' or " "
 - Single quotes stylistically preferred, but either are acceptable

Strings in Variables

- Assignment – literal stored in a variable

- `first = "O'Hare"` # Use double-quotes to include singles
- `middle = 'Intl.'` # Punctuation is just a character
- `last = 'Airport'`
- `space = ' '` # whitespace is an important character!

- Concatenation and assignment

- `chicago = first + space + middle + space + last`

- Display

- `print(chicago)` # what does chicago contain?

Things to Do With Strings

- Find a string's length: use the `len()` function

- `len('AbCdEfGh')` # gives 8, the number of chars
- `len(chicago)` # How long is the string in chicago?

- Select one character from a string: use indexing –

- `'AbCdEfGh'[0]` → `'A'` # Indexes start at 0
- `'AbCdEfGh'[7]` → `'h'` # Last char is 1 less than length

- Select a substring: *slice* the string using indexes –

- `'AbCdEfGh'[2:5]` → `'CdE'` # Start : (End - 1)
- `print(chicago[0:4])` # Print first 4 chars of string in chicago

Indexing From the Front

- Positions in a string start at zero
 - `chicago[0]` is the first character in `chicago`
- Last position in a string is one less than the string's length
 - `chicago[len(chicago)-1]` is the last character in `chicago`
- Indexed characters from a string are strings themselves

Indexing From the Back

- Negative indexes count backwards from the string's end
 - `chicago[-1]` is the last character in `chicago`
- Count backwards: -2 is the second to last, -3 is the third to last, etc.

try:

- Create strings with your first, last names
- How long are each of your names?
 - **Print the lengths**
- Use indexing to create a third string with your initials, and print that
- Concatenate your names to form your full name, and save in a string
- Use indexing to print the *last* letter of your first name, last name, and full name

Slicing Strings into Substrings

- Looks similar to indexing; *copies* a substring
- Example:
 - **chicago[3 : 7]**
 - » Slice (substring) starts with element 3, ends *just before* element 7 (*i.e.* last element is element 6)
 - **chicago[12 : -1]**
 - » Up to, but *not including*, the last character
 - **chicago[0 : len(chicago)]**
 - » This "slice" is actually a copy of the entire string

Slicing Strings into Substrings

- Starting-index of 0 can be omitted; finishing-index that is equal to string's length can be omitted
 - `chicago[: 5]` copies characters from beginning, up to (but not including) position 5
 - `chicago[3 :]` copies characters from position 3 through end of string
 - `chicago[:]` copies characters from beginning through to the end
 - » *i.e.* makes a copy of the string "chicago"

Immutable Strings

- "Cannot be mutated" – strings are unchangeable once created
 - `print(chicago[3])` # is okay
 - `o3 = chicago[3]` # is okay
 - `chicago[3] = 'A'` # will fail - can't alter contents
- Make a changed copy instead
 - Use slices to copy the unchanged parts:
 - `p0 = chicago[: 3]` # beginning up to pos'n 3
 - `p1 = chicago[4 :]` # pos'n 4 to the end
 - `chicago = p0 + 'A' + p1` # chicago now contains a new string

Sequences - Lists and Tuples

Sequences

- String - a sequence of characters
 - has definite order
 - elements can't be changed (immutable)
- General sequence - elements are other things than characters
 - Numbers, strings (including 1-char-long strings), other things
 - Elements may or may not be changeable
- Indexed, sliced just like strings

Lists

- A list is a sequence of elements that CAN be modified
 - Replace an element with something else
 - add elements to the list
 - Delete elements from the list
 - Elements can be dissimilar
- Often used to collect related items and keep them together
- Individual elements accessed by index
 - Similar to string operations

Examples

- [3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 17, 19]
- [] - empty list, a common starting point
- ['Robert', 'Montante', "Ben Franklin 209"]
- ['Abraca', 2, 4, 'Dabra', ['a', 'b', 'c'], 0]
 - List elements can even be other lists

Jupyter

examples:

```
In [49]: primes = [2,3,5,7,11,13,17,19,23]
```

```
In [50]: print(primes)
[2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23]
```

```
In [51]: print(len(primes), primes[0], primes[-3])
9 2 17
```

```
In [52]: print(primes[3:8])
[7, 11, 13, 17, 19]
```


Modifying a list

- **Replacing** an element is easy:

```
myname = ['R.', 'Montante']  
print( myname )  
myname[0] = 'Robert' # replace initial w/ name  
print( myname )
```

- **Adding** an element:

```
myname.append( ', Ph.D.' )  
# .append() adds to the end  
myname.insert(1, 'Abdon')  
# .insert(index, value) inserts before the index pos'n  
print(myname)
```

Removing from a list

- Using an item's index - **.pop(i)**

- The "opposite" of the `.insert()` method
- Defaults to last element of list
- Returns the popped element

```
item = myname.pop(1) # remove, return element 1
```

- Using an item's value - **.remove(v)**

- No default argument, no return

- General approach for any object - **del**

- Deletes anything, including list elements
- Not the preferred way

try:

- Create a list of even numbers:
 - [2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12]
- Add another number to the end of the list
 - Display the modified list
- Remove, display the *first* element
 - Display the modified list again
- Remove, display the first element again
 - Display the modified list again...
- Remove the *last* element
 - Display the modified list again...

Some Things to Do to a List

Operation	method or operator	Remark
list's length	<code>len(lst)</code>	number of elements in <code>lst</code>
concatenation	<code>lstA + lstB</code>	join <code>lstA</code> , <code>lstB</code> into a new list
location	<code>lst.index(v)</code>	find pos'n of value <code>v</code>
count	<code>lst.count(v)</code>	number of times value <code>v</code> occurs
minimum	<code>min(lst)</code>	numeric-only or string-only lists
maximum	<code>max(lst)</code>	
sum	<code>sum(lst)</code>	numeric-only lists

try this example:

- **Add:**

- print a slice
- *Sort* the list
- remove an element

```
l = [] # empty list
count = 0
x = float(input('number '+str(count)+'? '))
l.append(x)
count += 1
x = float(input('number '+str(count)+'? '))
l.append(x)
count += 1
x = float(input('number '+str(count)+'? '))
l.append(x)
count += 1
x = float(input('number '+str(count)+'? '))
l.append(x)
count += 1
x = float(input('number '+str(count)+'? '))
l.append(x)
print(len(l), 'elements')
print(l)
```

Tuples

- Similar to lists, but immutable
 - *as is a string*
- Syntax: uses () instead of []
- Some operations, actions require immutable operands
 - *tuples instead of lists*
- Tuples can be changed into lists; lists can be changed into tuples

```
mytuple = tuple( [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5] )
mylist = list( (6, 7, 8, 9, 10) )
```

Dictionaries

User-Defined Indexes

- Dictionaries use immutable objects in place of indexes, called *keys*
- Sometimes called "Look-Up Tables"
- Syntax: create *key:value* pairs with `{ }` and `:`
- Order of *key:value* pairs is *not* guaranteed (but sometimes works)
- Example:

```
airports = { 'ORD' : "O'Hare",  
            'JFK' : 'Kennedy',  
            'EWR' : 'Newark',  
            'PHL' : 'Philadelphia' }
```

Working with Dictionaries

- Accessing:

```
print( airports['chicago'] )  
# value keyed by the string 'chicago', similar to a list index  
  
k = airports.keys() # k is a list of all keys  
print( k[0], airports[ k[0] ] )  
# probably the same element, but not guaranteed  
  
contents = airports.values() # list of all values  
print( contents )  
# which is the first element?
```

- Changing:

```
airports['PHL'] = 'Philly' # just like for a list
```

Dictionary Features

- Adding elements: just use a new key, and assign the new value

```
airports['ATL'] = 'Hartsfield-Jackson'  
airports['IAD'] = 'Dulles'
```

- Removing elements: use **.pop()** with optional default, or use **del**

```
chicago = airports.pop('ORD')  
print(chicago)  
  
wbs = airports.pop('AVP', 'no entry')  
print(wbs)  
  
del airports['IAD'] # no return value to print
```

Dictionary Example

```
family_tree = {}
mom = input( 'Mother's name? ' )
family_tree['mother'] = mom
dad = input('Father's name? ')
family_tree['father'] = dad
child = input( 'Child's name? ' )
family_tree['children'] = [child]
    # list of children, currently one element long
print(family_tree)

child = input('Another child? ')
family_tree['children'].append(child)
    # add another child to the 'children' list
print(family_tree)
```

Converting Between Types

Compatible Types

- Conversion between compatible types is easy
 - lists ↔ tuples
 - ints → floats
 - floats → ints (with loss of fractional parts)
 - dicts → lists
 - » gives keys only; better to use `.keys()` and `.values()`
- Conversion from strings to numbers is easy *if* the string looks like a number

Conversion Examples

- `float(99) → 99.0`
- `int(3.14159) → 3`
 - fractional part is lost
- `int('-176') → -176`
- `float('-176') → -176.0`
- `tuple([1,2,3]) → (1,2,3,)`
- `list(('abc',)) → ['abc']`
 - single-element tuple to single-element list

Converting To Strings; Formatted Output

Converting Objects to Strings

- Basic conversion: use **str()** or **repr()**
 - This produces what you see when you **print()** the object
 - Example:
str(3.14159)
 - repr(airports)
- *Formatted* conversions – embed representations of object values within other strings
 - Includes control over values' appearances
 - Good for formatted output

String Formatting the New Way

- Similar to the old way, but uses `.format()` method instead of `"%"` operator
- Conversion specifiers are `"{:}"` sequences instead of `"%"` specifiers
 - More extensive `"{:}"` sequences support more different object types
- Simple example:

```
popmsg = 'Community: {:s} ; population: {:d}'  
print( popmsg.format('Bloomsburg', 14586) )
```

New-Style Format Specifiers

- Specifiers are `"{...}"` sequences within string
 - Unrelated to dictionaries...
 - Each `"{}"` specifier matches one object-to-be-converted-to-string
- Optional characters within `"{}"` braces control object appearance
 - Field width, alignment, data type
 - Numeric representation
 - » exponential, hexadecimal, binary, octal, etc.

Basic Elements of Format Specifiers

presentation type	usage	remark
<i>blank</i>	{}	Display as appropriate
s	{:s}	Display as string
d	{:d}	Display number as base-10 integer
x, X	{:x}	Display as hexadecimal integer
o	{:o}	Display as octal integer
b	{:b}	Display as binary integer
c	{:c}	Display as Unicode/ASCII character
n	{:n}	Display as base-10 integer, with separators

Basic Elements of Format Specifiers

- Floating-point / fixed-point numbers

presentation type	usage	remark
f	{:f}	Display number as fixed-point
e, E	{:e}	Display number as exponential
g, G	{:g}	Display as fixed-point or exponential as appropriate
%	{:%}	Display number as percentage

modifier	usage example	remark
.precision	{:.5d}	Display number with precision fractional digits

Format Specifier Modifiers

- Field width, grouping digits in numbers

Width and Grouping	usage example	remark
number	<code>{:16d}</code>	Display object in number -wide field
<code>_ or ,</code>	<code>{:16,d}</code> or <code>{:16_b}</code>	Display object in groups of 3 or 4 digits, separated by ',' or '_'

- Alignment within field:

Alignment	usage example	remark
<	<code>{:<16s}</code>	Left-justify object in field
>	<code>{:16>s}</code>	Right-justify object in field
^	<code>{:^16s}</code>	Center object in field

New-Style Formatting Examples

```
v = 12503
```

```
print('{:12d} {:<12d} {:^,d}'.format(v, v, v))
```

```
print('{:x} {:>20_b}'.format(v, v))
```

```
v = 98765.43210123456
```

```
print('{:12.6f} {:<.16f}'.format(v, v))
```

```
print('{:.4e} {:12.6n} {:20g}'.format(v, v, v))
```

```
print('{:<12.3f}\n{:>12.2f}'.format(v, v))
```

```
v = 'abc'
```

```
print('{:<9s}\n{: ^9s} \n{:>9s}'.format(v,v,v))
```

String Formatting the Old Way

- Use "%" formatting expression with *conversion specifiers*
- Formatting string contains arbitrary desired text, and "%" conversion-specifiers that match up with with object values
 - Works best for numeric and string objects
- "%" operator combines the formatting string with a list of objects being formatted

"%" Formatting Examples

```
"Date: %s %d, %d" % ("June", 30, 2018)
```

```
'Pi: %f --- e: %f' % (3.14159, 2.71828)
```

```
k = 'EWR'  
name = airports[k]  
message = '%s airport code: %s' %(name, k)  
print(message)
```

```
popmsg = 'Community: %s ; population: %d'  
print( popmsg % ('Bloomsburg', 14586) )
```

Conversion Specifiers

Specifier	Matches object of type / appearance of result
%s	string
%f	floating-point (or integer) number
%e or %E	floating-point / in exponential notation
%d	integer
%x or %X	integer / in hexadecimal notation
%r	any object / uses <code>repr()</code> output

Conversion Specifiers

- Appearance Controls

- Optional additional items in specifiers control width of field, placement within field, number of decimal places in floating-point numbers

```
print( "%.d.  .%5d.  .%8d." % (99, 99, 99) )
```

```
print("%.%-12d.  .%12d." %(-99, -99))
```

```
print("%.%-12s.  .%12s." %('Bob', 'Bob'))
```

```
print("%3.1f  %10.8f" % (3.14159, 3.14159))
```

Binary Numbers

Number bases

- Base 10 ("decimal"): each digit in a number is a power of 10
 - $12,345_{10} \rightarrow 1 \times 10^4 + 2 \times 10^3 + 3 \times 10^2 + 4 \times 10^1 + 5 \times 10^0$
 - 10 possible digits: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- Base 2 ("binary"): each digit is a power of 2 instead
 - Only 2 possible digits: 0 1 - known as **bits**
 - $11011_2 \rightarrow 1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$
 $= 1 \times 16 + 1 \times 8 + 0 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1$
 $= 27_{10}$

Binary Example

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
import pprint

#Set up a dictionary of information:
person = {}
person['name'] = input( 'Your name? ' )
person['age'] = int(input( 'Your age? '))

print( person )
pprint.pprint( person )

#print a report:
fmt = '{:s} is {:d} years old, or {:b} in binary'
print( fmt.format(person['name'], person['age'], person['age']) )
```

binary format -
looks like what the
computer uses

Binary Numbers and Computers

- Computer circuits take on two values
 - off / on, False / True, 0 / 1
- Computer circuits actually use bits, *i.e.* binary
- Many computing quantities are measured in powers of 2
 - *e.g.* 256 colors = 2^8 colors
 - Screen resolution: $1024 \times 768 = 2^{10} \times (2^9 + 2^8)$
- *Base 16 (hexadecimal) and base 8 (octal) are compact forms of binary*
 - easier for people to read and use
 - 4 bits / hexadecimal digit
 - 3 bits / octal digit