

# CS 115 Lecture 10

## Structured programming; for loops

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# The bad old days: GOTO

In the early days of programming, we didn't have for loops, if statements, etc.

- Instead, we had simply “if this is true, go to line 10”.
- Could use that to skip over code (like an **if**).
- ...or go to an earlier line to write a loop.
- This was very tedious and error prone.
  - ▶ ... especially if something has to be changed.
  - ▶ “Spaghetti code”: trying to trace a program was like trying to trace one strand in a plate of spaghetti.

# Structured programming

- In the 1960s, computer scientists started to think about how to write programs that were easier to understand and follow.
  - ▶ Edsger Dijkstra, “Go To Statement Considered Harmful” (1968).
- They introduced the paradigm of **structured programming**.
  - ▶ Patterns that lead to easier-to-understand programs.
    - ★ Easier to test and debug.
    - ★ Easier to modify and maintain.
    - ★ Easier to collaborate on large programs.

# Data structures and control structures

- We've already seen a little about **data structures**:
  - ▶ Ways of organizing data within a program.
    - ★ (Remember, in the computer it's all binary)
  - ▶ Simple: Constants, variables.
  - ▶ More complex: Graphics objects, strings, lists. . .
- **Control structures** are ways of controlling the execution of a program.
  - ▶ Which statements execute, and in which order.

# The three basic control structures

In 1966, Böhm and Jacopini showed that any program using “go to” could be rearranged to use only three simple control structures.

- Sequence.
- Selection.
- Iteration.
- We'll add a fourth: **Subprograms** (more in chapter 5).

Each of these control structures has two important guarantees:

- Only one way to enter the control structure.
- Only one way to leave the control structure.
- *One entrance, one exit.*

# Sequence

“Sequencing” or “sequential execution” just means:

Running one statement after another.

- In Python we just write one line after the next.
- “The default” in some sense.
- Guarantees:
  - ▶ The steps will execute in the order given.
  - ▶ Steps will not be skipped.
  - ▶ Will always start at the first statement of the sequence. . .
  - ▶ and finish at the last statement.

# Selection

“Selection” means choosing which code to run based on some condition or question.

- In Python, an **if-else** statement.
- Two branches: true and false.
  - ▶ Each branch is another control structure (most often a sequence).
- Guarantees:
  - ▶ Always starts with the question/condition.
  - ▶ Runs one branch or the other, never both.
  - ▶ ... and never neither.
- Avoid **dead code**: code that is never executed.
  - ▶ Often because the condition is always true or always false.

# Iteration

“Iteration” means running code multiple times (a loop).

- In structured programming, “repeat this body until a condition is false”.
- In Python, a **while** loop (in about a week).
  - ▶ **for** loops are a special case of iteration.
- Guarantees:
  - ▶ Always starts with the question/condition.
  - ▶ If the condition is true, executes the **entire** body, then comes back to the condition.
  - ▶ Otherwise (the condition is false), leaves the loop.
- Be careful to avoid **infinite loops**, where the condition is always true.



# Subprograms

Sometimes we may need to repeat the same combination of control structures in several different places.

- It would be nice if we didn't have to write the code multiple times.
- A **subprogram** is a chunk of the flowchart treated as a single unit.
- When we need to execute those steps, we **call** the subprogram.
  - ▶ Run the subprogram, wait for it to finish.
  - ▶ Keep going where you left off.
  - ▶ Sometimes we send values to the subprogram.
  - ▶ And sometimes the subprogram sends a value back.
- In Python, subprograms are called **functions**.
  - ▶ **Arguments** are the values we send to the subprogram.
  - ▶ And the function can **return** a result.
  - ▶ Can you think of Python functions that:
    - ★ Take one or more arguments?
    - ★ Take no arguments?
    - ★ Return a result?
    - ★ Don't return a result?

## Control structures summary

- **Sequence** (one statement after the other: easy to forget) ✓
- **Selection** (conditionals: `if`) ✓
- **Iteration** (loops: `for` and `while`)
- **Subprograms** (functions: `def`)

We've seen sequence and selection already, so now let's look at iteration in more detail.

# Repeating yourself

What if we wanted to draw a tic-tac-toe board with  $4 \times 4$  lines?

- We could write code to draw a vertical line. . .
- . . . and code to draw a horizontal line. . .
- We need to do that four times each.
  - ▶ With different coordinates each time.
- Do we have to copy-and-paste each one 4 times?
  - ▶ Of course not!
  - ▶ **Loops** allow you to execute code multiple times. . . with a variable that is different each time.
- Two kinds of loop: definite and indefinite.
  - ▶ **Definite loops** know in advance how many times to run.
  - ▶ **Indefinite loops** run until some condition is satisfied.
  - ▶ Today we'll see how to write definite loops in Python.

# The **for** loop

- Syntax: `for var in sequence:`
  - ▶ Followed by a **block** (collection of indented lines) called the **body**.
    - ★ The body must be indented past the “for”!
  - ▶ `var` is an identifier (variable name).
- Semantics: Execute the body once for each item in the sequence.
  - ▶ Each time, the variable `var` will have the value of that item.
  - ▶ Each run of the body is called an **iteration**.

- A very simple for loop:

```
for color in ('red', 'green', 'blue'):  
    print(color, 'is a primary color.')
```

- We're giving a **tuple**, but a list in square brackets would work too.
- When executed it does:

```
Iteration 1: print('red', 'is a primary color.')
```

```
Iteration 2: print('green', 'is a primary color.')
```

```
Iteration 3: print('blue', 'is a primary color.')
```

## Other kinds of sequences

Strings can also be used as sequences. Each iteration of the loop operates on a single character:

```
name = input("What is your name? ")
for char in name:
    print(char)
```

- Prints this:

```
M
o
o
r
e
```

# Numeric ranges

One of the most common, and most useful, kinds of sequence for a `for` loop is a numeric range. In Python, you create numeric ranges with the `range` function. There are three ways to call `range`:

- `range(3)`: counts from 0 up to 2.
  - ▶ Computer scientists usually count from zero, not one.
  - ▶ Goes up to but *not including* the number.

(just like `randrange`!)

```
for i in range(3):  
    print(i, "squared is", i**2)
```

Prints:

```
0 squared is 0
```

```
1 squared is 1
```

```
2 squared is 4
```

- ▶ Notice the loop ran 3 times (0, 1, 2).
  - ★ Don't make a fencepost error!

## More ranges

We can also tell range to start at a different number:

- Syntax: `range(start, stop)`
  - ▶ Produces a sequence of integers from start to stop.
  - ▶ Does include the start (inclusive), not the stop (exclusive).

```
for i in range(3, 6):  
    print(i)
```

Prints:

```
3  
4  
5
```

- ▶ Runs for  $(\text{stop} - \text{start})$  iterations.
- What if we wrote `range(1, 1)`?
  - ▶ Empty sequence: stops before getting to 1.
  - ▶ The loop wouldn't run at all! **Loops can run for 0 iterations.**
  - ▶ Similarly, `range(5, 1)` is an empty sequence.
    - ★ So this loop will do nothing:

```
for i in range(1, 5, -1):  
    print(i)
```
    - ★ The body never executes (is **dead code**).

## Counting with steps

Finally, we can tell `range` to count by steps, only considering every  $n$ th number:

- Syntax: `range(start, stop, step)`
  - ▶ Instead of adding 1 in each iteration, adds *step*.
  - ▶ The first number is still *start*.
  - ▶ The next number is `start + step`, then `start + 2*step`, ...
  - ▶ What will this do?

```
for i in range(10, 25, 5):  
    print(i)
```

- ▶ Prints:

```
10  
15  
20
```

- ▶ Does not include 25: *stop* is still exclusive.

- What about `range(10, 2)`?
  - ▶ Two arguments are *start* and *stop*, *not* *step*.



## Counting backwards

You can count down by providing a negative step.

```
for i in range(3, 0, -1):  
    print("Counting down:", i)  
print("Lift off!")
```

- Prints:

```
Counting down: 3  
Counting down: 2  
Counting down: 1  
Lift off!
```

- The stop is still exclusive.
- `range(1, 5, -1)` is an empty sequence.

# Tic-tac-toe grid

- Now we can make that tic-tac-toe grid.
- We'll have one loop to draw the vertical lines.
- And another to draw the horizontal lines.
- `grid.py`
- A neat “display hack” (simple code to make an intricate picture) using for loops and if:  
`moire.py`

# Averages

Suppose we have a collections of measurements in a list, and we want to find their average: add them all up and divide by the number of measurements.

```
temperatures = [67.0, 69.2, 55.3, 71.2, 65.4]
```

- We can get the length with `len(temperatures)`

- For the sum, we need some kind of loop.

```
for temp in temperatures:
```

- We'd need to add the next number in each iteration.
- We need a variable to keep track of the sum.
  - ▶ We call such a variable an **accumulator**.
- Accumulators aren't new syntax.
  - ▶ Just a new way of using assignment.
  - ▶ A **logical** concept, used in most programming languages.

# Accumulators

The general idea of accumulators:

- Make an accumulator variable to hold the “total”.
  - ▶ Like the display on a calculator.
- Before the loop, **initialize** it to a known value.
  - ▶ Clear the calculator first!
  - ▶ If we are calculating a sum, start at 0.  
`total = 0`
    - ★ 0 is the **identity** for addition: Adding 0 to a number doesn't change it.
- Inside the loop, use assignment to update the accumulator.  
`for temp in temperatures:`  
`total = total + temp`
  - ▶ Or use augmented assignment:  
`total += temp`
- What if we didn't initialize `total` first?
  - ▶ `NameError: name 'total' is not defined`

# Accumulators

Accumulators can be used for more than just addition.

- Choose the initial value carefully so it doesn't change the result.
- **Factorial:**  $1, 2 = (1 \times 2), 6 = (1 \times 2 \times 3), \dots$ 
  - ▶ Inside the loop we will multiply the accumulator.
  - ▶ If we started with 0, we'd never get anything but 0.
  - ▶ The multiplicative identity is 1: use that.

```
factorial = 1
for i in range(1, max + 1):
    factorial *= i
```

- Counting: how many times does something happen?
  - ▶ Just like sum: initialize with 0.
  - ▶ Instead of adding  $i$ , just add 1.

```
numodd = 0
for i in range(1, 100, 2):
    numodd += 1
```

- ▶ We call an accumulator like this a **counter**.

# More accumulators

- Reversing a string.
  - ▶ Our accumulator will be a string.
  - ▶ We'll loop over the characters of the input string.
  - ▶ Concatenate each new character to the *beginning* of the accumulator.
    - ★ What is the identity for concatenation?
    - ★ (What can you concatenate with without changing the answer?)
    - ★ The empty string!

```
instr = input("Enter a string: ")
reversed = ""
for char in instr:
    reversed = char + reversed
print(instr, "backwards is", reversed)
```

- `reverse.py`

# Previous-current loop

Sometimes a loop needs two items from the sequence at once.

- Drawing lines, computing distances.
- Or to see if user input has changed.
- We can save the “previous” item in a variable.
  - 1 Initialize `prev`
  - 2 Loop:
    - 1 `curr` = the new item.
    - 2 Do something with `prev` and `curr`.
    - 3 `prev` = `curr`
- In the first iteration, `prev` is the initial value.
- On following iterations, `prev` is the value from the preceding iteration.

# Tracing code

- Code with loops, several values, etc. can get complicated.
- It's good to know what it will do before running it.
  - ▶ Trial and error is good for practice and experimentation.
  - ▶ Not so good for making working, bug-free code.
- We'll learn several debugging techniques in class.
  - ▶ One of the simplest and most useful is **tracing**.
    - ★ Also known as a “desk check”.
  - ▶ Run through code line-by-line, simulating its behavior.
  - ▶ Keep track of the variables and output.
  - ▶ *Pretend you are the interpreter*



## Tracing a previous-current loop

```
1: prev = get mouse
2: for i in range(2):
3:     curr = get mouse
4:     draw line from prev to curr
5:     prev = curr
```

Line	i	prev	curr	output
1	-	(50, 50)	-	
2	0	(50, 50)	-	
3	0	(50, 50)	(400, 50)	
4	0	(50, 50)	(400, 50)	One line
5	0	(400, 50)	(400, 50)	
2	1	(400, 50)	(400, 50)	
3	1	(400, 50)	(200, 300)	
4	1	(400, 50)	(200, 300)	Another line
5	1	(200, 300)	(200, 300)	

# Drawing program

Let's write a program that lets the user click on a sequence of points to draw a path.

- What do we need to draw a line?
  - ▶ Two points.
  - ▶ The previous point, and the new one.
- We'll have a loop where the user clicks on points.
  - ▶ Draw a line from the previous point to the new one.
  - ▶ No line for the first point.

# Flag variables

A **flag** is another word for a boolean variable.

- Often used with a loop, like an accumulator.
  - ▶ Set the flag to `True` or `False` before the loop.
  - ▶ Inside the loop, maybe set it to the opposite.
  - ▶ After the loop, check the flag's value.

## Common patterns: any

- As an example of a flag variable, let's check whether any of a sequence of numbers is negative.
- We'll start with a flag.

```
any_neg = False # None so far...
for number in 0, 5, 12, -1, 2:
    if number < 0:
        any_neg = True # Found one!
if any_neg: # Or if any_neg == True:
    print("Some number was negative")
```

- To check “some” or “any”:
  - ▶ Initialize the flag to False.
  - ▶ Set it to True if you find something.

## Common patterns: all

- Checking if something is true for **all** inputs is the opposite of “any”:
  - ▶ Initialize the flag to True.
  - ▶ Set it to False if you find an exception.

```
all_even = True # No exception yet
for number in 8, 12, 2, 1:
    if number % 2 != 0: # if not even
        all_even = False
if all_even:
    print("Every number was even.")
```

- Remember, you must initialize the flag before the loop!

## Adding some features

Let's add two features to our program:

- ① We'll ask the user for the number of points.
  - ▶ Using an `Entry` object.
- ② We'll count and display the total length of the lines.
  - ▶ Using an accumulator in the loop.
  - ▶ And a `Text` object to display the length.
  - ▶ Distance formula:  $dist = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$

# Testing loops

## How to test a loop?

- Verify that it runs the correct number of times.
- What if the number of iterations is controlled by the user?
  - ▶ For example, our drawing program.
  - ▶ What situations might cause an error?
    - ★ The code might fail when the loop doesn't run.
    - ★ Or it might fail on the first iteration.
    - ★ Or it might only fail with multiple iterations.
  - ▶ So you need three test cases:
    - 1 The loop doesn't run at all.
    - 2 The loop runs once.
    - 3 The loop runs several times.
- The three most important numbers in CS: 0, 1, many.