

Today's Agenda:

1. More on strings
  2. ASCII characters
  3. `chr()` and `ord()` functions
- 

### Postscript: Using Dot Notation with Modules

I forgot to emphasize last week that when we import modules the way we did, we must use the name or alias of the module together with [dot notation](#). For example, we used:

```
import math
math.pi
math.factorial(5)
math.sqrt(25)
```

## Ch. 3

### 1. String Basics

Recall that strings are just sequences of alphanumeric characters. We've used strings as literals, e.g., `pet = 'cat'`, but now we're going to learn a little more about them. In Ch. 8, we'll learn even more.

**A. String Indexing:** Because strings are sequences, we can use indexing to identify characters in them; each character is an element in a string, and indexing begins with `0`, that is, the first character in a string has an index of `0`. We always enclose an index in square brackets.

```
In [1]: # In Python, indexing _always_ begins with 0
```

```
name = 'strong bad'
print(name[3])
```

o

We can use negative indexing, i.e., negative integers. Indexing begins with `-1` and starts at the end of the string. Thus, `[-1]` gives the last character in a string. This may seem a little strange, but negative indexing can be very useful, especially when we don't know the length of a string. If you struggle with this concept, note that we index the first character of a string with `0` and continue adding `1` as we move to the right. To determine negative indexing, again start the first character with an index of `0` but then move left. The number to the left of `0` is `-1`, but there isn't a character there, so instead wrap around to the end of the string, and index the last character in the string with `-1`. Then the next to the last character has an index of `-2`, and so on.

```
In [2]: # Negative indexing can be very useful as you'll see later
```

```
print(name[-1]) # Indexing the last chr as -1 is especially useful!
```

d

**B. Immutability of Strings:** Strings are **immutable**, which means that we can't change them, e.g.,

```
In [3]: # Strings can't be changed
```

```
cat = 'mouse'
cat[0] = 'h'
```

```
-----
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Input In [3], in <cell line: 4>()
      1 # Strings can't be changed
      3 cat = 'mouse'
----> 4 cat[0] = 'h'

TypeError: 'str' object does not support item assignment
```

However, we can assign a different string to a given lvalue:

```
In [4]: # We can assign a different value to an lvalue we
# used before
```

```
cat = 'dog'
print(cat)
```

dog

**C. len() Function:** We use the len() function to find the length of a string, i.e., how many characters are in the string. Note that spaces are characters and so are punctuation marks, tabs, and newlines!

```
In [5]: # Use len() to determine the number of characters in
# a string, including blank spaces and punctuation
# marks which are all characters (notice the use of
# nested functions!)
```

```
print(len('How long am I?'))
```

14

**D. Operator Overloading:** In Python, math operators can be used in non-math operations. We can use this "operator overloading," both repetition (\*) and concatenation (+) with strings.

```
In [6]: # "Multiplication" (*) will produce n number of
# characters
```

```
stars = '*' * 50 # Repetition
print(stars)
print(len(stars))
```

```
*****
50
```

Note that concatenation (+) will place two objects immediately next to each other.

```
In [7]: # Recall that input() returns a string; a single
# character is a string!
```

```
num1 = input('Enter an integer: ')
num2 = input('Enter an integer: ')
print(num1 + num2) # Concatenation
```

```
Enter an integer: 4
Enter an integer: 2
42
```

```
In [8]: # If we want spaces between words, we have to add them
```

```
sentence = 'This' + ' ' + 'is' + ' ' + 'a' + ' ' + 'sentence.'
print(sentence)
```

```
# If we don't, everything will be smooshed together
print('This' + 'is' + 'a' + 'smooshed' + 'sentence.')
```

```
This is a sentence.
Thisisasmoochedsentence.
```

**E. Use of Quotes:** As we stated last week, we create string literals using single or double quotes, e.g.,

```
In [9]: # Note the use of quotes and the escape character (\)
```

```
print("We can use 'single quotes' inside double quotes.")
print('We can use "double quotes" inside single quotes.')
```

```
We can use 'single quotes' inside double quotes.
We can use "double quotes" inside single quotes.
```

```
In [10]: # We can also use escape characters for quotes inside quotes.
```

```
print('\Single quotes\' inside single quotes with the escape character \\.')
print("\Double quotes\" inside double quotes with the escape character \\.")
```

```
'Single quotes' inside single quotes with the escape character \.
"Double quotes" inside double quotes with the escape character \.
```

**F. Initializing an Empty String:** We initialize an empty string using a pair of single or double quotes. We have to do this when we want to add a character to a string (and, as we'll see later, there are many times this is useful!). **If I instruct you to initialize an empty string, this is what I want you to do.**

```
In [11]: # Empty strings can be very useful; they're very easy to
# initialize

i_am_empty = ''
print(i_am_empty)
```

To add a character to an empty string, we use augmented assignment and operator overloading. Yep! We can combine the two because Python rocks! Note that strings are still immutable, but by using augmented assignment we don't change the string; we reassign it!

```
In [12]: # An example of why Python is so cool, i.e., we can
# combine augmented assignment and operator overloading.

# Augmented assignment combined with operator overloading,
# i.e., using + to concatenate.
acronym = '' # Initialize empty string
acronym += 'T' # Shorthand for acronym = acronym + 'T'
acronym += 'M'
acronym += 'I'
print(acronym)
```

TMI

## 2. ASCII Characters

Recall that we communicate with computers using 1's and 0's. A single bit (recall bit stands for *b*inary *dig*it) can represent a 1 (on) or a 0 (off). Historically, everything has been done using bytes where one byte = 8 bits. ASCII characters use only 7 bits. How many different characters can be represented by 7 bits?  
 $2^{**7} = 128$  (0-127); **therefore, there are 128 ASCII characters.**

0-31: unprintable characters (can be whitespace, e.g., a tab)  
32-127: printable characters (32 is a blank space in ASCII)

65-90: uppercase alphabet, A-Z  
97-122: lowercase alphabet, a-z (uppercase < lowercase)

Note that 0-127 are the decimal representations of the actual binary representations of characters. For example, the binary number 1000001 is 65 in decimal and represents *A*, and the binary number 1100001 is 97 in decimal and represents *a*. In addition, recall that Python uses a backslash (\) to indicate an escape sequence. Each escape sequence represents a particular character command:

```
\\ print backslash
\' print single quote
\" print double quote
\t tab
\n newline
\f form feed
\r carriage return
\v vertical tab
\b backspace
\a alert
```

Some of these aren't really used any longer because they represent old technology. The first five are still common.

As mentioned earlier, blank spaces in a string are indexed and contribute to the length of a string.

```
In [13]: # A blank space is a character as are \n, \t, and so on

nums = '0 1234'
print('3\n\t2\n\t\t1')
print('len(nums):', len(nums))
```

```
3
    2
      1
len(nums): 6
```

## 3. chr() and ord() Functions

- `chr()` gives ASCII character for integer argument (decimal default)
- `ord()` gives ASCII value (decimal) for character input



In [21]: *# We'll end our lecture with another Unicode character.*

```
p = chr(128169)
print(p)
```

