

Python Programming

Computer Language

- definitions
 - set of instructions (algorithm)
 - implementation of algorithm
 - helps us to interact with hardware
 - medium of communication with hardware
- types
 - based on the level
 - **low level**
 - binary (0s and 1s)
 - **middle level**
 - interacts with CPU
 - Assembly language
 - opcodes: operation code => binary
 - e.g. ADD A, B
 - **high level**
 - developer can write human understandable code
 - compiler or interpreter converts the human understandable to machine (CPU) understandable (ASM)
 - e.g. C++, Java, Python
 - based on how the application gets generated
 - **compiled language**
 - compile: converting human understandable to machine (CPU) understandable
 - compiler: program which does compilation
 - executable:
 - program which contains only ASM instructions (machine understandable)
 - native applications
 - always platform (OS) dependent
 - faster than interpreted program
 - requires compiler
 - the entire program gets converted into executable
 - if program contains error, compiler detects these error at compilation time
 - e.g. C, C++
 - **interpreted language**
 - interpretation: which converts the human understandable to machine (CPU) understandable line by line
 - interpreter: program which does interpretation

- no executable gets generated
 - if there is any error, it will get detected at the run time
 - program will be always platform (OS) independent
 - programs will be always slower than native applications
 - e.g. html/CSS, JS, bash scripting
- **mixed language**
 - shows behavior from both (compiled as well as interpreted)
 - uses compiler as well as interpreter
 - e.g. Java, **Python**

Introduction to Python

- is high-level language which shows behavior from both compiled as well as interpreted languages
- developed by Guido Rossum
- can be used for
 - console application
 - web application
 - ML application
 - GUI application
- the python by default imports the basic packages for using the built-in function
- python application does NOT require any entry point function
 - python is one of the scripting languages
 - the code starts execution from from top (line 1) to bottom
- python is a
 - scripting language
 - oop language
 - functional programming language
 - aspect oriented programming language

environment configuration

- versions
 - 1.x: deprecated
 - 2.x: about to be deprecated
 - 3.x: latest version

installation

- to install python on ubuntu

```
sudo apt-get install python3 python3-pip
```

- to install python on centos

```
sudo yum install python3 python3-pip
```

IDE

- **PyCharm**
 - Community Edition
 - <https://www.jetbrains.com/pycharm/download/>
- Spyder
- Visual Studio Code
- vim

configuration

fundamentals

identifier

- valid word which is used to perform an action
- most of the times the identifiers are lower cased
- can be
 - variable name
 - function name
 - constant
 - class name
 - keyword
- rules
 - can not start with number
 - e.g.
 - 1name is invalid identifier
 - one_name is valid identifier
 - can not contain special character like space
 - e.g.
 - first name is invalid identifier
 - first_name is valid identifier
 - may use only underscore (_)
- conventions
 - for variables: lower case
 - e.g. name, address, first_name
 - for functions: lower case with underscore
 - e.g. is_eligible_for_voting
 - for class: lower case with first letter uppercase
 - e.g. Person, Mobile

variable

- identifier used to store a value
- variable can not be declared explicitly
- syntax
 - <variable name> = <initial value>
- e.g.
 - num = 100

keyword

- reserved identifier by python
- can not use keyword for declaring variables or functions
- e.g. if, elif, else, for, while, switch
- **pass**
 - do not do anything
 - pass the control to the next line
 - used to create empty function/class
- **def**
 - used to define a function
- **return**
 - used to return a value

statement

- the one which executes
- unit of execution
- semicolon (;) is used to terminate a statement
- one statement per line does not require semicolon (;)
- BUT MULTIPLE STATEMENTS ON ONE LINE MUST USE SEMICOLON (;)
- types
 - assignment statement
 - declaration statement
 - function call
 - control statement
 - conditional statement
 - comment
 - ignored while execution
 - to create comment use symbol #
- **RULE**
 - if the code has any syntactical error, the python compiler will not generate the byte codes [the syntactical errors will be detected at the time compilation]

```
print("hello 1")
```

```
print("hello 2")

# this code will generate SyntaxError
# even the first line will NOT get executed
```

- if the code has any run time error, the compilation will not detect any error and program will execute till the line where the error is detected

```
print("hello 1")
printf("hello 2")

# this code will generate NameError
# the first line will get executed and code will stop on the line 2
```

block

- group of statements
- use space(s)/tab(s) [indentation] to create a block
- e.g. function, if, else, while

control statements

- **if..else**
 - used to check a condition
 - e.g.

```
if p1 % 2 == 0:
    print(f"{p1} is even")
else:
    print(f"{p1} is not even")
```

data types

- in python, all data types are **inferred**
- in python, all data types are assigned implicitly
- data types will get assigned automatically (by python itself) by looking at the CURRENT value of the variable
- you can not declare a variable with explicit data type
- e.g.

```
# can not declare explicit  
# int num = 100
```

- types
 - **int**
 - represents the whole numbers (+ve or -ve)
 - e.g.
 - num = 100
 - myvar = -10
 - **float**
 - represents a value with decimal
 - e.g.
 - salary = 10.60
 - **str**
 - represents a string
 - to create a string value use
 - single quotes
 - used to create single line string
 - e.g.

```
name = 'steve'
```

- double quotes
 - used to create single line string
 - e.g.

```
last_name = "jobs"
```

- tripe double quotes
 - used to create multi-line string
 - e.g.

```
address = """  
    House no 100,  
    XYZ,  
    pune 411056,  
    MH, India.  
    """
```

- **bool**
 - represents boolean value
 - can contain one of the two values [True/False]

- e.g.

```
can_vote = True
```

- **complex**
- **object**

operators

mathematical

- + : addition/string concatenation
- - : subtraction
- * : multiplication
- / : true division (float)
- //: floor division (int)
- **: power of

comparison

- == : equal to
- != : not equal
- > : greater than
- < : less than
- >=: greater than or equal to
- <=: less than or equal to

logical

- and:
 - logical and operator
 - returns true only when both the conditions are true
 - rule
 - true and true => true
 - true and false => false
 - false and true => false
 - false and false => false

```
if (age > 20) and (age < 60):  
    print(f"{age} is within the limit")  
else:  
    print(f"{age} is not within the limit")
```

- or:
 - logical or operator
 - returns true when one of the conditions is true
 - rule
 - true or true => true
 - true or false => true
 - false or true => true
 - false or false => false

```
if (age > 20) or (age < 60):  
    print(f"{age} is within the limit")  
else:  
    print(f"{age} is not within the limit")
```

function

- named block
- can be used to reuse the code
- in python, function name is treated as a variable (the type of such variable is function)
- function uses c calling conventions

```
def function_1():  
    pass  
  
# type of function_1: function  
print(f"type of function_1: {type(function_1)}")
```

scope

- **global**
 - declared outside of any function
 - such variables can be accessed anywhere (outside or inside of any function) in the code (in the same file)
 - by default global variables are not modifiable inside function(s)
 - use **global** keyword to make the global variables modifiable
 - e.g.

```
num = 100
```



```
# global variable
# num = 100
print(f"outside function num = {num}")

def function_1():
    # num = 100
    print(f"inside function_1, num = {num}")

def function_2():
    # the num will refer to the global copy
    global num

    # modify the global variable
    num = 200
```

- **local**

- variable declared inside a function
- the variable will be accessible only within the function (in which, it is declared)
- local variables will NOT be accessible outside the function
- e.g.

```
def function_1():
    num = 100
    print(f"inside function_1, num = {num}")

function_1()

# the statement will generate NameError as
# num is a local variable
# print(f"outside function_1, num = {num}")
```

custom

- also known as user defined function
- e.g.

```
# function declaration
def function_1():
    print("inside function_1")

# function invocation
```

```
function_1()
```

function parameters

- **positional parameters**

- do not have parameter name while making the function name
- the values will get assigned to the parameters from left to right
- the position of parameter is very important
- e.g.

```
def function_3(num1, num2, num3):  
    print(f"num1 = {num1}, num2 = {num2}")  
  
# num1 = 10, num2 = 20, num3 = 30  
function_3(10, 20, 30)
```

- **named parameters**

- the function call will contain the parameter name along with the parameter value
- position of the named parameter is not important
- e.g.

```
def function_3(num1, num2, num3):  
    print(f"num1 = {num1}, num2 = {num2}")  
  
# num1 = 10, num2 = 20, num3 = 30  
function_3(num1=10, num2=20, num3=30)  
function_3(num2=20, num3=30, num1=10)  
function_3(num3=30, num2=20, num1=10)
```

- **optional parameters**

- a function can set a default value for a parameter
- caller does not need to pass a value for such parameters
- the parameter having default value becomes optional (caller may or may not pass the value for such parameter)

```
# p2 has a default value = 50  
def function_1(p1, p2=50):
```

```
print(f"{p1}, {2}")

# p1 = 10, p2 = 50
function_1(10)

# p1 = 10, p2 = 20
function_1(10, 20)
```

function types

- **empty function**

- function without a body

```
def empty_function():
    pass
```

- **parameterless function**

- function which does not accept any parameter

```
def function_1():
    print("inside function_1")
```

- **parameterized function**

- function which accepts at least one parameter
- e.g.

```
def function_1(p1):
    print(f"p1 = {p1}, type = {type(p1)}")

function_1(10) # p1 = int
function_1("10") # p1 = str
function_1(True) # p1 = bool
```

- **non-returning function**

- function which does not return any function
- e.g.

```
def function_1():
```

```
print("inside function_1")
```

- a non-returning function always will return None
- e.g.

```
def function_1():  
    print("inside function_1")  
  
result = function_1()  
  
# result = None  
print(f"result = {result}")
```

- **returning function**

- function which returns a value
- e.g.

```
# returning function  
def add(p1, p2):  
    print("inside add")  
    return p1 + p2  
  
# capture result  
addition = add(30, 50) # 80
```

- **nested function**

- function within a function
- is also known as inner or local function
- the inner function can be called only within the function in which it is declared
- e.g.

```
def outer():  
    def inner():  
        pass  
  
    # inner is callable only within outer  
    inner()  
  
outer()  
  
# can not access inner outside the outer
```

```
# inner()
```

- properties

- inner function can access all the members of outer function

```
def outer():  
    num = 100  
    def inner():  
        # num = 100  
        print(f"num = {num}")  
  
    inner()  
  
outer()
```

- outer function can not access any members of inner function

```
def outer():  
    def inner():  
        num = 100  
        print(f"num = {num}")  
  
    inner()  
  
    # can not access the inner functions' local variable  
    # print(f"num = {num}")  
  
outer()
```

- outer function can have as many inner function as required
- outer function can have a hierarchy of inner functions

- **variable length argument function**

- function which accepts any number of arguments
- when the function gets called
 - the positional parameters get collected in a tuple (args)
 - the named parameters get collected in a dictionary (kwargs)
- e.g.

```
def va_function(*args, **kwargs):
    print(f"args = {args}, type = {type(args)}")
    print(f"kwargs = {kwargs}, type = {type(kwargs)}")

# args = (10, 20)
va_function(10, 20)

# kwargs = {'p1': 10, 'p2': 20}
va_function(p1=10, p2=20)

# args = (10, 20)
# kwargs = {'p1': 30, 'p2': 40}
va_function(10, 20, p1=30, p2=40)
```

- **function alias**

- another name given to an existing function
- similar to function pointer in C
- e.g.

```
def function_2():
    print("inside function_2")

# function alias
my_function = function_2

# inside function_2
function_2()

# inside function_2
my_function()
```

lambda functions

- used to create anonymous function
- syntax:
 - lambda <param>: <body>
- rules
 - lambda **must** accept at least one parameter
 - lambda **must** have only one statement in the body
 - the body statement **must** return a value
- e.g.

```
square = lambda x: x ** 2

# square of 10 = 100
print(f"square of 10 = {square(10)}")
```

swap two variables

- in python, the primitive data types (int, float, bool, string, complex), will be passed as values
- e.g.

```
n1, n2 = 100, 200

# n1 = 200, n2 = 100
n1, n2 = n2, n1
```

functional programming language

- language in which, the functions are treated as variables
- language in which, the function are first-class citizens
 - functions are treated as variables

```
def function_2():
    print("inside function_2")

# function alias
my_function = function_2

def add(p1, p2):
    print(f"addition = {p1 + p2}")

def multiply(p1, p2):
    print(f"multiplication = {p1 * p2}")

# collection of functions
functions = (add, multiply)

for function in functions:
    # both add and multiple will get called
    function(20, 30)
```

- function can be passed as a parameter to another

```
def add(p1, p2):  
    print(f"addition = {p1 + p2}")  
  
def executor(function):  
    function(10, 20)  
  
# executor will receive address of add  
# and will call add with 10, 20 parameters  
executor(add)
```

- function can be returned as a return value from another function

```
def add(p1, p2):  
    print(f"addition = {p1 + p2}")  
  
def my_function():  
    # my_function is returning add as a return value  
    return add  
  
result = my_function()  
  
# addition = 50  
result(10, 40)
```

map

- used to process [new value will be generated based on existing one] all the values of a collection
- map always returns a new value
- map has to accept a parameter (which will be every value from the collection)
- e.g.

```
def square(num):  
    return num ** 2  
  
numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
  
# [1, 4, 9, 16, 25]  
squares = list(map(square, numbers))
```


filter

- used to filter [will remove values which do not satisfy the condition] the values from a collection
- filter always returns original values (when the function returns True)
- e.g.

```
def is_even(num):  
    return num % 2 == 0  
  
numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
  
# [2, 4]  
squares = list(filter(is_even, numbers))
```

list comprehension

- syntax in python, to generate a new list
- similar to map and filter
- syntax:
 - [<out> <for..in loop>]
 - [<out> <for..in loop> <criteria>]
- e.g.

```
# list comprehension similar to map  
  
numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
  
# [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
numbers_2 = [ number for number in numbers ]  
  
# [2, 4, 8, 8, 10]  
numbers_double = [number * 2 for number in numbers]  
  
# [1, 4, 9, 16, 25]  
squares = [number ** 2 for number in numbers]
```

```
# list comprehension similar to filter  
  
numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

```
# [2, 4]
even = [number for number in numbers if number % 2 == 0]

# [1, 3, 5]
odd = [number for number in numbers if number % 2 != 0]
```

```
# list comprehension similar to filter + map

numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

# [4, 16]
square_even_numbers = [number ** 2 for number in numbers if number % 2 == 0]

# [1, 27, 125]
cube_odd_numbers = [number ** 3 for number in numbers if number % 2 != 0]
```

string

- collection of characters
- any data type can be converted to string by calling str() function
- operations
 - **capitalize()**
 - make the first letter capital
 - **casefold()**
 - make all the characters lower case
 - **center()**
 - makes the string appear in the center of number of characters
 - e.g.

```
# report
print("report".center(11))
```

- **count()**

- returns the number of occurrences of a substring
- **endswith()**
 - returns if string ends with a value
- **expandtabs()**
- **find()**
- **format()**
 - used to format a string
 - format replaces the value of variables with the positions of {}
 - e.g.

```
num_1 = 10.56346567
num_2 = 1000000

# formatted string
print(f"num_1 = {num_1}, num_2 = {num_2}")

# non-formatted string
print("num_1 = {}, num_2 = {}".format(num_1, num_2))
print("num_1 = {0}, num_2 = {1}".format(num_1, num_2))
print("num_2 = {1}, num_1 = {0}".format(num_1, num_2))
```

- format types
 - :<
 - left aligned string
 - e.g. print("name: {0:<10}".format(name))
 - :>
 - right aligned string
 - e.g. print("name: {0:>10}".format(name))
 - :^
 - center aligned string
 - e.g. print("name: {0:^10}".format(name))
 - :=
 - :+
 - show positive/negative symbol
 - :-
 - show minus only for negative values
 - :<space>

- :,
 - show 1000 separator (,)
- :_
 - show 1000 separator (_)
- :b
 - convert that value binary number system
- :d
 - convert the value in decimal number system
- :e
 - scientific format (lower case e)
- :E
 - scientific format (upper case e)
- :f
 - formatting float
 - e.g. `print("num_1 = {:.2f}".format(num_1))`
- 🙄
 - convert the value in octal number system
- :x
 - convert the value in hex number system (lower case letters)
- :X
 - convert the value in hex number system (upper case letters)
- :n
 - convert the value in decimal
- :%
 - used to convert a number to percentage

○ **index()**

- returns the position of a substring

○ **isalnum()**

○ **isalpha()**

○ **isdecimal()**

○ **isdigit()**

○ **islower()**

○ **isspace()**

○ **isupper()**

○ **join()**

- joins a collection to create a string

○ **lower()**

- make all the characters lower case

- **replace()**
- **split()**
- **strip()**
- **swapcase()**
- **upper()**
 - convert all the chraracters to upper
- **zfill()**

file I/O

- file
 - collection of data
 - a way to persist the data/information
 - data will be stored in secondary storage with (absolute or relative path)
- file modes
 - operation
 - **read mode (r)**
 - used to read file (write is not possible)
 - default mode
 - **write mode (w)**
 - used to write file
 - new file will be created if the file does not exist on the path
 - **append mode (a)**
 - used to append new data to existing contents
 - file format
 - t
 - text file
 - default format
 - b
 - binary file
- operations
 - **open()**
 - used to open a file
 - **close()**
 - used to close a file
 - **read()**
 - used to read whole file
 - **read(n)**
 - used to read n bytes (from the filter pointer location)
 - **readlines()**
 - **write()**
 - used to write data (string) into a file
 - **seek()**

- used to set the file pointer to point to a specific location
- **tell()**
 - returns the position the file pointer is point to

built-in

- **print()**: used to print something on console
- **type()**: used to get data type of a variable
- **range()**
 - used to get sequential values
 - e.g.

```
numbers_1 = list(range(0, 10))

# numbers_1 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
print(f"numbers_1 = {numbers_1}")

numbers_2 = list(range(0, 10, 2))

# numbers_2 = [0, 2, 4, 6, 8]
print(f"numbers_2 = {numbers_2}")

numbers_3 = list(range(1, 10, 2))

# numbers_3 = [1, 3, 5, 7, 9]
print(f"numbers_3 = {numbers_3}")

# if the start is missing, the range will start from 0
numbers_4 = list(range(10))

# numbers_4 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
print(f"numbers_4 = {numbers_4}")
```

Type casting

- to int: int()
- to float: float()
- to string: str()
- to bool: bool()
- to list: list()
- to tuple: tuple()

collections

- similar to array in other languages

- group of values

list

- collection of similar or dissimilar values
- **array**: collection of similar values
- list is **mutable**: once created, a list CAN be modified
- list is always slower than tuple
- allows duplicate values
- to create a list
 - use []

```
# empty list
list_1 = []

# list
print(f"type = {type(list_1)}")
```

- call list()

```
# empty list
list_1 = list()

# list
print(f"type = {type(list_1)}")
```

- operations
 - **len()**
 - used to get the number of values inside a list
 - e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70]

# number of values in numbers = 7
print(f"number of values in numbers = {len(numbers)}")
```

- **append()**

- used to add new value to the end of the collection
- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]

# [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60]
numbers.append(60)

# [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70]
numbers.append(70)
```

- **insert(index, value)**

- used to add a value at an index position
- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]

# [10, 20, 100, 30, 40, 50]
numbers.insert(2, 100)
```

- **pop()**

- used to remove the last value from the collection
- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]

# [10, 20, 30, 40]
numbers.pop()

# [10, 20, 30]
numbers.pop()
```

- **pop(index)**

- used to remove the value at the index from the collection

- e.g.

```
countries = ["india", "usa", "uk", "china", "japan"]

# ["india", "usa", "uk", "japan"]
countries.pop(3)
```

- **remove(value)**

- used to remove the value from the collection
- e.g.

```
countries = ["india", "usa", "uk", "china", "japan"]

# ["india", "usa", "uk", "japan"]
countries.remove('china')
```

- **index()**

- used to find the position of a value
- by default index() searches the value from 0th position
- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 60, 70, 80, 40, 90, 100, 40, 110, 40]

# index of 40 = 3
print(f"index of 40 = {numbers.index(40, 0)}")

# index of 40 = 7
print(f"index of 40 = {numbers.index(40, 4)}")

# index of 40 = 10
print(f"index of 40 = {numbers.index(40, 8)}")

# index of 40 = 12
print(f"index of 40 = {numbers.index(40, 11)}")
```

- **count(value)**

- used to find the number of occurrences of a value

- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 60, 70, 80, 40, 90, 100, 40, 110, 40]

# 40 is repeated 4 times
print(f"40 is repeated {numbers.count(40)} times")
```

- **sort()**

- used to sort the list
- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 2, 3, 1, 8, 3, 4, 6, 5]

# Ascending
# [1, 2, 3, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10]
numbers.sort()

# Descending
# [10, 8, 6, 5, 4, 3, 3, 2, 1]
numbers.sort(reverse=True)
```

- **reverse()**

- used to reverse a list
- e.g.

```
countries = ["india", "usa", "uk", "japan"]

# ['japan', 'uk', 'usa', 'india']
countries.reverse()
```

- **copy()**

- used to create a new copy of existing list
- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 30, 50, 40, 20]
```

```
# make a copy of numbers
numbers_1 = numbers.copy()

# sort the newly created copy
# this WILL NOT modify the original numbers
numbers_1.sort()

# [10, 30, 50, 40, 20]
print(numbers)

# [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
print(numbers_1)
```

- **clear()**

- used to remove all the values from a list
- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 30, 50, 40, 20]

numbers.clear()

# []
print(numbers)
```

- **extend()**

- used to add values from one list to another
- e.g.

```
numbers_1 = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
numbers_2 = [60, 70, 80, 90, 100]

numbers_1.extend(numbers_2)

# [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100]
print(numbers_1)
```

Indexing

- way to retrieve value(s) from the collection

- types
 - positive
 - starts from left
 - the element will have a position = 0
 - e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100]

# numbers[0] = 10
print(f"numbers[0] = {numbers[0]}")

# numbers[9] = 100
print(f"numbers[9] = {numbers[9]}")
```

- negative
 - starts from right
 - the last element will have a position = -1
 - e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100]

# numbers[-10] = 10
print(f"numbers[-10] = {numbers[-10]}")

# numbers[-1] = 100
print(f"numbers[-1] = {numbers[-1]}")
```

Slicing

- getting a part/portion of collection
- syntax:
 - <collection> [<start> : <stop>]
 - <collection> [<start> : <stop> : <step_count>]
- rules
 - stop must be greater than start
 - both of them are optional
 - if start is missing, the slicing will start from 0
 - if stop is missing, the slicing will stop at the last value in the collection
- e.g.

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100]

# numbers[3:7] = [40, 50, 60, 70]
print(f"numbers[3:7] = {numbers[3:7]}")

# numbers[0:5] = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
print(f"numbers[0:5] = {numbers[0:5]}")

# numbers[:5] = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
print(f"numbers[:5] = {numbers[:5]}")

# numbers[6:10] = [70, 80, 90, 100]
print(f"numbers[6:10] = {numbers[6:10]}")

# numbers[6:] = [70, 80, 90, 100]
print(f"numbers[6:] = {numbers[6:]}")

# numbers[:] = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100]
# numbers[0:10]
print(f"numbers[:] = {numbers[:]}")
```

```
numbers = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100]

# numbers[0:9:2] = [10, 30, 50, 70, 90]
print(f"numbers[0:9:2] = {numbers[0:9:2]}")

# numbers[1:9:2] = [20, 40, 60, 80]

print(f"numbers[1:9:2] = {numbers[1:9:2]}")

# numbers[::] = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100]
print(f"numbers[::] = {numbers[::]}")

# numbers[::] = [100, 90, 80, 70, 60, 50, 40, 30, 20, 10]
print(f"numbers[::] = {numbers[::-1]}")
```

tuple

- collection of similar or dis-similar values
- use () to create a tuple
- tuple is immutable: once created, tuple CAN NOT be modified (read-only)
- tuple is always faster than list

- allows duplicate values
- to create an empty tuple
 - use ()

```
# empty tuple
tuple_2 = ()
print(tuple_2)
```

- use tuple()

```
# empty tuple
tuple_1 = tuple()
print(tuple_1)
```

- tuple with one value

```
# integer variable
tuple_1 = (10)

# tuple with one value
tuple_2 = (10,)

# string variable
tuple_3 = ("test")

# tuple with one value
tuple_4 = ("test",)
```

- operations
 - **index**
 - used to find the first index position of the value
 - **count**
 - used to find number of occurrences of a value

list vs tuple

list

tuple

list	tuple
1. mutable	1. immutable
2. use []	2. use ()
3. list with one value [10]	3. tuple with one value (10,)

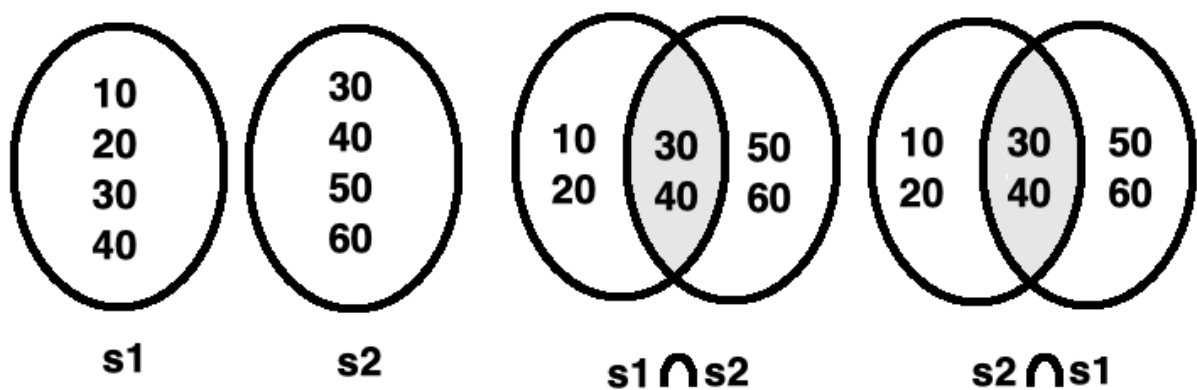
set

- collection of unique values (does not allow duplicates)
- does NOT follow the insertion order
- is mutable: once created, set can be modified
- to create an empty set
 - call function set()

```
# it is an empty dictionary
# c3 = {}

# empty set
c3 = set()
```

- operations
 - **intersection**
 - getting only common values between two sets
 - e.g.



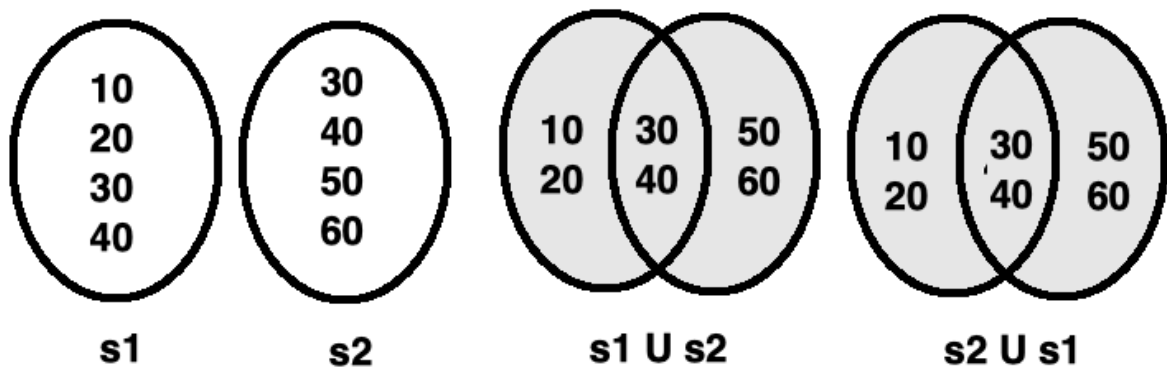
```
s1 = {10, 20, 30, 40}
s2 = {30, 40, 50, 60}
```

```
# {30, 40}
print(s1.intersection(s2))

# {30, 40}
print(s2.intersection(s1))
```

◦ union

- combining two sets by keeping common elements only once
- e.g.



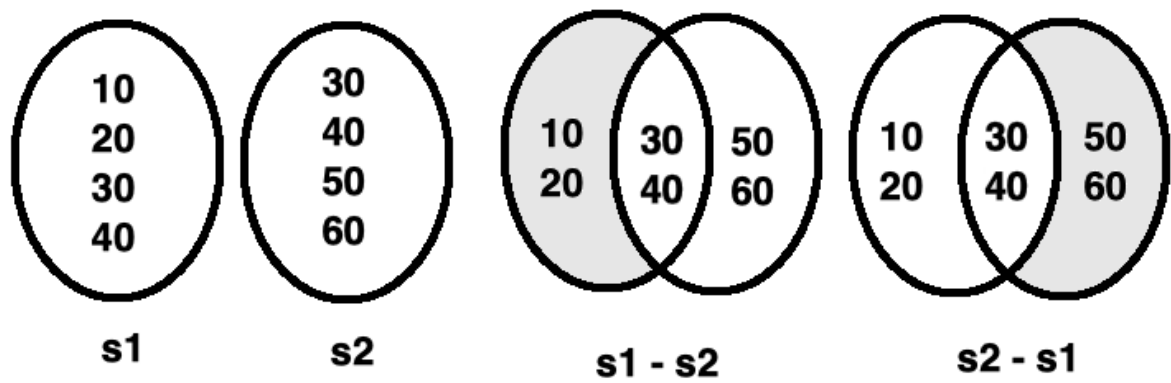
```
s1 = {10, 20, 30, 40}
s2 = {30, 40, 50, 60}

# {10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60}
print(s1.union(s2))

# {10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60}
print(s2.union(s1))
```

◦ difference

- select only uncommon elements from first operand
- difference is not a symmetric operation
- e.g.



```
s1 = {10, 20, 30, 40}
s2 = {30, 40, 50, 60}

# {10, 20}
print(s1.difference(s2))

# {50, 60}
print(s2.difference(s1))
```

frozenset

- immutable set

dictionary

- collection of key-value pairs
- to create empty dictionary
 - use {}

```
d1 = {}
```

- use dict()

```
d1 = dict()
```

- dictionary with key-value pairs

```
person = {  
    "email": "person1@test.com",  
    "address": "pune",  
    "name": "person1",  
    "age": 40  
}
```

- operations

- **keys**

- returns list of keys

```
person = {  
    "email": "person1@test.com",  
    "address": "pune"  
}  
  
# ["email", "address"]  
print(person.keys())
```

- **values**

- returns list of values

```
person = {  
    "email": "person1@test.com",  
    "address": "pune"  
}  
  
# ["person1@test.com", "pune"]  
print(person.values())
```

- **pop(key)**

- used to removes a key-value pair from a dictionary
 - e.g.

```
person = {
```

```
        "name": "person1",
        "age": 40
    }

    # {"name": "person1", "age": 40}
    print(person)

    person.pop("age")

    # {"name": "person1"}
    print(person)
```

◦ **get(key)**

- used to retrieve value of a key
- get return None if the key is missing in the dictionary [application does not crash]
- e.g.

```
person = {
    "name": "person1",
    "age": 40
}

# name = "person1"
print(f"name: {person.get('name')}")

# phone = None
print(f"phone: {person.get('phone')}")

# the application crashes by sending an error (KeyError)
print(f"phone: {person['phone']}")
```

◦ **items()**

- used to return the key-value pairs
- returns list of tuples (key, value)
- e.g.

```
person = {
    "name": "person1",
    "age": 40
}

# [('name', 'person1'), ('age', 40)]
```

```
print(person.items())
```

loops

for..in

- used to iterate over iterable (collections)
- e.g.

```
for value in range(5):  
    print(f"value = {value}")
```

for..in..else

- else block in for..in loop gets called only when the for loop does not break
- e.g.

```
# the else block will get called  
for value in range(5):  
    print(f"value = {value}")  
else:  
    print("this is for's else block")  
  
# the else block will NOT get called  
for value in range(5):  
    print(f"value = {value}")  
    if value > 3:  
        break  
else:  
    print("this is for's else block")
```

while

closure

decorator

object oriented programming

terminology

class

- collection of
 - attributes
 - characteristic of an entity
 - e.g. name of person, address of person, model of car
 - methods
 - function inside a class
- blueprint to create an object
- e.g.

```
# empty class
class Person:
    pass
```

object

- instance of a class
- memory allocated to store the class attributes
- characteristics
 - every object must be identified by a unique address
 - state:
 - the value of every attribute at a give time

instantiation

- process of creating an object
- e.g.

```
class Person:
    pass

# person1 is called as reference
# person1 will refer an object of type Person
person1 = Person()
```

method

- function declared inside the class
- types

- **initializer**

- method which initializes the object
- gets called automatically/implicitly
- **NOTE:**
 - never call `__init__()` explicitly
- gets called for number of objects created from the class
- must have a name = `__init__`
- types
 - default
 - also known as parameterless initializer
 - e.g.

```
class Person:

    # default initializer
    def __init__(self):
        print("inside __init__")
```

- custom
 - also known as parameterized initializer
 - e.g.

```
class Person:

    # default initializer
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        print("inside __init__")
        self.name = name
        self.age = age
```

- **de-initializer (delete)**

- used to de-initialize the object
- gets called automatically/implicitly
- **NOTE:**
 - never call `__del__()` explicitly

- gets called for number of objects
- e.g.

```
class Person:

    # initializer
    def __init__(self):
        print("inside __init__")

    def __del__(self):
        print("inside __del__")
```

◦ **setter**

- used to set a new value to an attribute
- also known as mutator
- e.g.

```
class Person:

    # initializer
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.__name = name

    # setter
    def set_name(self, name):
        self.__name = name
```

◦ **getter**

- used to get a value of an attribute
- also known as inspector
- e.g.

```
class Person:

    # initializer
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.__name = name

    # getter
    def get_name(self, name):
```

```
return self.__name
```

- **facilitator**

- adds facility in the class
- e.g.

```
class Person:

    # initializer
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age

    # facilitator
    def can_vote(self):
        if self.age >= 18:
            print("yes")
        else:
            print("no")
```

access specifiers

- specify the access level of an attribute/method
- types

- **public**

- are accessible outside the class
- any member declared without using any underscore is treated as public member
- e.g.

```
class Car:
    def __init__(self, model, price):

        # public memebers
        self.model = model
        self.price = price

car = Car('i20', 7.5)

# we can access/modify the public members
car.model = 'new model'
```



```
car.price = 10.6
```

◦ protected

- are accessible in the same class and all of its child classes
- use underscore (_) as a prefix
- e.g.

```
class Vehicle:
    def __init__(self, engine):

        # protected members
        self._engine = engine

class Car:
    def __init__(self, model, price, engine):
        Vehicle.__init__(self, engine)

        # protected members
        self._model = model
        self._price = price

    def print_info():
        # protected member is accessible in child class
        print(f"engine: {self._engine}")
```

◦ private

- are accessible only inside the class
- are NOT accessible outside the class
- members which start with __ are treated as private members
- e.g.

```
class Car:
    def __init__(self, model, price):

        # private members
        self.__model = model
        self.__price = price

car = Car('i20', 7.5)

# we can NOT access/modify the public members
# car.__model = 'new model'
```

```
# car.__price = 10.6
```

code reuse

- resuing the code

association

- represents associations of multiple classes
- types
 - aggregation
 - also known as has-a relationship
 - loose coupling / weak relationship
 - one entity can live without another entity
 - one object contains an object of another class
 - e.g.
 - Student has-a address
 - Company has-a address
 - Person has-a name
 - Company has-a employee
 - Department has-a professor
 - composition
 - also known as composed-of / part-of
 - tight coupling / strong relationship
 - one entity can not live without the other entity
 - e.g.
 - Car composed-of engine
 - Room composed-of wall
 - human composed-of heart

inheritance

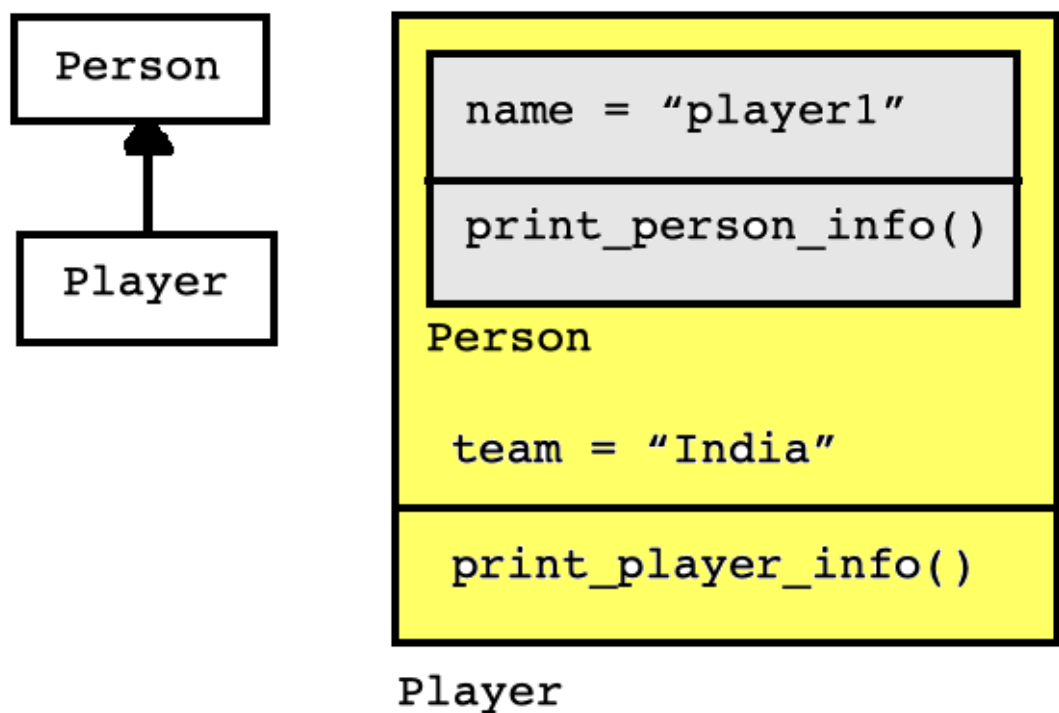
- also known as is-a relationship
- one class is made up of another class
- the base class can be specified at the time of declaration with ()
- e.g.
 - player is-a person
 - bike is-a vehicle
 - lion is-a animal

```
# Base class
```

```
class Person:
    pass

# Derived class
class Employee(Person):
    pass
```

- types
 - **single inheritance**
 - there is only one base class and only one derived class
 - e.g.



```
# base class
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

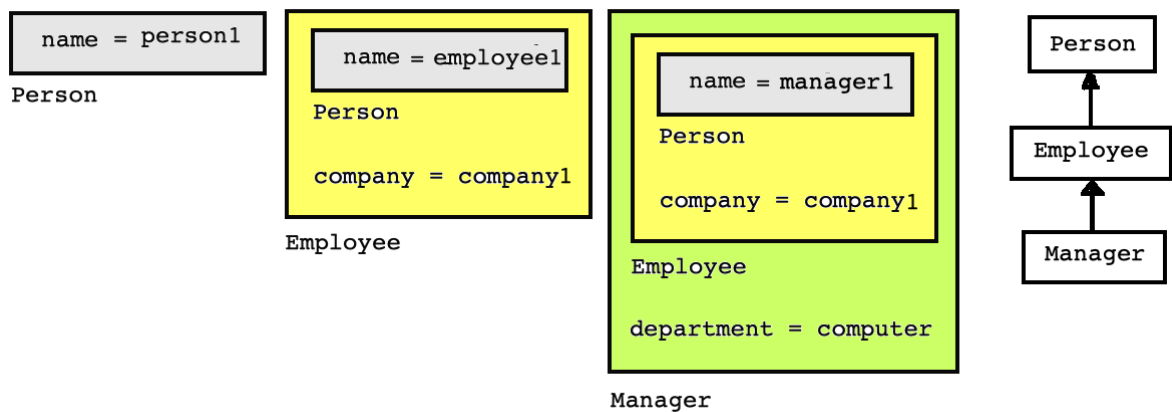
    def print_person_info(self):
        print(f"name = {self.name}")

# derived class
class Player(Person):
    def __init__(self, name, team):
        Person.__init__(self, name)
        self.team = team
```

```
def print_player_info(self):
    print(f"name = {self.name}")
    print(f"team = {self.team}")
```

◦ multi-level

- there are multiple levels
- a level will have one base and one derived class
- a may have one direct and multiple indirect base class(es)
- e.g.



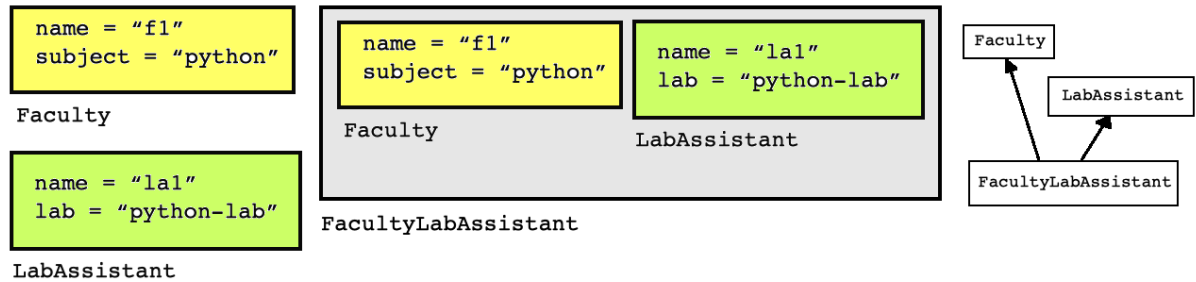
```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self._name = name

class Employee(Person):
    def __init__(self, name, company):
        Person.__init__(self, name)
        self._company = company

class Manager(Employee):
    def __init__(self, name, company, department):
        Employee.__init__(self, name, company)
        self._department = department
```

◦ multiple

- multiple base classes
- one derived class
- e.g.



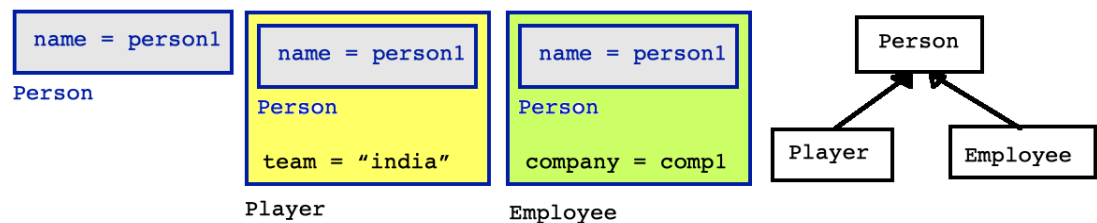
```
class Faculty:
    def __init__(self, name, subject):
        self._name = name
        self._subject = subject

class LabAssistant:
    def __init__(self, name, lab):
        self._name = name
        self._lab = lab

class FacultyLabAssistant(Faculty, LabAssistant):
    def __init__(self, name, subject, lab):
        Faculty.__init__(self, name, subject)
        LabAssistant.__init__(self, name, lab)
```

o hierarchical

- one base class and multiple derived classes
- e.g.



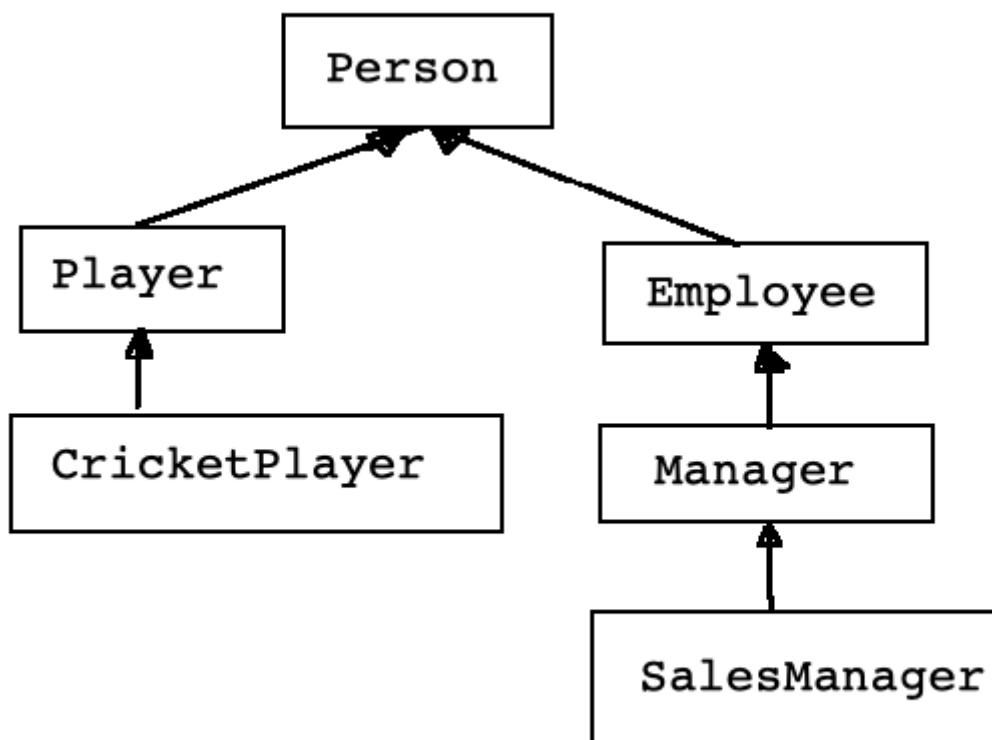
```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self._name = name

class Player(Person):
    def __init__(self, name, team):
        Person.__init__(self, name)
        self._team = team
```

```
class Employee(Person):
    def __init__(self, name, company):
        Person.__init__(self, name)
        self._company = company
```

- **hybrid**

- combination of any two or more inheritance types is known as hybrid
- e.g.



```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self._name = name

class Player(Person):
    def __init__(self, name, team, sport):
        Person.__init__(self, name)
        self._team = team
        self._sport = sport
```

```
class CricketPlayer(Player):
    def __init__(self, name, team):
        Player.__init__(self, name, team, 'Cricket')

class Employee(Person):
    def __init__(self, name, company):
        Person.__init__(self, name)
        self._company = company

class Manager(Employee):
    def __init__(self, name, company, department):
        Employee.__init__(self, name, company)
        self._department = department

class SalesManager(Manager):
    def __init__(self, name, company, department, target):
        Manager.__init__(self, name, company, department)
        self._target = target
```

NOTE

- Base class CAN NOT access any member(s) of derived class
- Derived class CAN access any (protected or public) member(s) of base class(es)

```
class Person:
    def print_person():
        pass

class Student(Person):
    def print_student():
        pass

p1 = Person()

# p1 can call any method of Person
p1.print_person()

# p1 can not access any method of Student
# Person is a base class of Student
# p1.print_student()

s1 = Student()

# s1 can call any method of Student
s1.print_student()
```

```
# s2 can call any method of Person
# Student is a derived class of Person
s1.print_person()
```

root class

- in python (3.0 +), object is a root class
- in python, every class is a derived class of object (directly or indirectly)
- object class provides basic functionality
 - converting any object to string (**str**)

method overriding

- in inheritance scenario, when derived class uses method with same name as that of the base class
- used to change the behavior/implementation of base class method
- to override a method
 - in derived class, use same name of the method as that of the base class
- e.g.

```
class Vehicle:
    def __init__(self, engine):
        self._engine = engine

    def print_info(self):
        print(f"engine: {self._engine}")

class Car(Vehicle):
    def __init__(self, engine, model):
        Vehicle.__init__(self, engine)
        self._model = model

    # Car class is overriding the print_info method
    def print_info(self):
        Vehicle.print_info(self)
        print(f"model: {self._model}")
```

operator overloading

- changing the default behavior of built-in operators
- **comparison operators**
 - `p1 > p2 : __gt__`
 - `p1 < p2 : __lt__`

- `p1 <= p2`: `__le__`
- `p1 == p2`: `__eq__`
- `p1 != p2`: `__ne__`
- `p1 >= p2`: `__ge__`

- **mathematical operators**

- `p1 + p2`: `__add__`
- `p1 - p2`: `__sub__`
- `p1 * p2`: `__mul__`
- `p1 / p2`: `__truediv__`
- `p1 // p2`: `__floordiv__`
- `p1 ** 2`: `__pow__`
- `p1 % p2`: `__mod__`

exception handling

- exception
 - run time condition because of which the application may crash
 - types
 - exception
 - the one which can be handled
 - e.g. file not found, divide by zero
 - error
 - the one which can NOT be handled
 - e.g. no memory
- exception handling
 - handling an exception
 - blocks
 - try
 - contains the code which may raise an exception
 - python will try to execute the code and if it generates any exception, except block gets called
 - except
 - responsible for handling the exception
 - responsible for taking an action(s) when an exception is raised
 - will be called when one or more error(s) are raised
 - else
 - will be called when no exception is raised
 - finally
 - will be called irrespective of any exception being raised
- e.g.

```
try:
    #
    # piece of code which may raise an exception
```

```
#
except Exception:
    # handle the exception
else:
    # block will be called when there is no exception raised
finally:
    # this block will always get executed
```

module

- file with .py extension
- collection of
 - variables
 - functions
 - classes
- `__name__` is used to get the name of a module
- `__main__` is the module name of currently executing module
- e.g.

```
# page: page1.py
num = 100

# the file with name page1.py is representing a module with name page1
```

- importing a module

```
# mymodule.py
class Person:
    pass

def my_function():
    pass

# page1.py
# import all the entities from mymodule
import mymodule
p1 = mymodule.Person()

# page2.py
# import only Person class from mymodule
from mymodule import Person
p1 = Person()
```

```
# page3.py
# MyPerson will be created as an alias of Person
from mymodule import Person as MyPerson
p1 = MyPerson()

# page4.py
# mm will be created as an alias for mymodule
import mymodule as mm
p1 = mm.Person()
```

package

- collection of modules
- folder with a file named `__init__.py`
- e.g.

```
# mypackage          (package)
# - files            (sub-package)
#   - myfile         (module)
#     - Person       (class)
#     - Car          (class)

# from mypackage.files.myfile import Person
# p1 = Person()

# from mypackage.files.myfile import Car
# c1 = Car()
```