

The background is a light blue gradient with several realistic water droplets of various sizes scattered across the surface. The droplets have highlights and shadows, giving them a three-dimensional appearance.

SEQUENCE DATA TYPES & FILE IO

Strings

- String is a subtype of the sequence data type
- Written with either single or double quote
- Note: there is no character data type in Python. A character is a string with one character.

```
s1 = "This is a string!"  
s2 = 'Python is so awesome.'
```

Accessing a String

- Strings can be accessed element-wise as they are technically just sequences of character elements.
- String elements can be indexed with typical bracket notation and range of characters slicing

```
s1 = "This is a string!"  
s2 = 'Python is so awesome.'  
print(s1[3])  
# output: s  
print(s2[5:15])  
# output: n is so awesome
```

Modifying a String

- Strings are *immutable* – you cannot update the value of an existing string object. However, you can reassign your variable name to a new string object to perform an “update”.

```
s1 = "Python is so awesome."  
print(s1)  
s1 = "Python is so cool."  
print(s1)
```

s1 → "Python is so awesome."

s1 → "Python is so awesome."
s1 → "Python is so cool."

Modifying a String

Alternatively:

```
s1 = "Python is so awesome."  
print(s1)  
s1 = s1[:13]+"cool."  
print(s1)
```

creates a substring "Python is so ", which is concatenated with "cool.", stored in memory and associated with the name s1.

“+” operator concatenates two strings

“*” operator concatenates multiple copies of a single string object.

in and not in test character membership within a string.

Escape Characters

most common:

- `'\n'` – newline
- `'\s'` – space
- `'\t'` – tab

Built-in String Methods

- Note that these *return* the modified string value; we cannot change the string's value in place because they're immutable!
- `s.upper()` and `s.lower()`

```
s1 = "Python is so awesome."  
print(s1.upper())  
print(s1.lower())
```


Built-in String Methods

- `s.isalpha()`, `s.isdigit()`, `s.isalnum()`, `s.isspace()`
 - – return True if string `s` is composed of alphabetic characters, digits, either alphabetic and/or digits, and entirely whitespace characters, respectively.
- `s.islower()`, `s.isupper()`
 - – return True if string `s` is all lowercase and all uppercase, respectively.

```
print("WHOA".isupper())  
print("12345".isdigit())  
print("    \n ".isspace())  
print("hello!".isalpha())
```


Build-in String Methods

- `str.split([sep [,maxsplit]])`
 - – Split *str* into a list of substrings.
 - *sep* argument indicates the delimiting string (defaults to consecutive whitespace).
 - *maxsplit* argument indicates the maximum number of splits to be done (default is -1).
- `str.rsplit([sep [,maxsplit]])`
- Exercise: Let `str = "TABLE_DUMP | 1130191746 | B | 144.228.241.81 | 1239 | 128.186.0.0/16 | 1239 2914 174 11096 2553 | IGP | 144.228.241.81 | 0 | -2 | 1239:321 1239:1000 1239:1011 | NAG | |"`, write python code to assign the last value in the field (in integer) before IGP to variable `a`?

Build-in String Methods

- `str.strip([chars])`
 - – Return a copy of the string *str* with leading and trailing characters removed.
- *chars* string specifies the set of characters to remove (default is whitespace).
- `str.rstrip([chars])`
 - – Return a copy of the string *str* with only trailing characters removed.

```
print("Python programming is fun!".split())  
print("555-867-5309".split('-'))  
print("***Python programming is fun***".strip('*'))
```

Built-in String Methods

- `str.capitalize()`
 - – returns a copy of the string with the first character capitalized and the rest lowercase.
- `str.center(width [,fillchar])`
 - – centers the contents of the string `str` in field-size `width`, padded by `fillchar` (defaults to a blank space). See also `str.ljust()` and `str.rjust()`.
- `str.count(sub [,start[, end]])`
 - – return the number of non-overlapping occurrences of substring `sub` in the range `[start, end]`. Can use slice notation here.
- `str.endswith(suffix[, start[, end]])`
 - – return True if the string `str` ends with suffix, otherwise return False.
 - Optionally, specify a substring to test. See also `str.startswith()`.

```
print("i    LoVe    pYtHoN".capitalize())
print("centered".center(20, '*'))
print("mississippi".count("iss"))
print("mississippi".count("iss", 4, -1))
print("mississippi".endswith("ssi"))
print("mississippi".endswith("ssi", 0, 8))
```

Built-in String Methods

- `str.find(sub [,start[, end]])`
 - – return the lowest index in the string where substring *sub* is found, such that *sub* is contained in the slice *str[start:end]*.
 - Return -1 if *sub* is not found.
 - See also `str.rfind()`.
- `str.index(sub [,start[, end]])`
 - – identical to `find()`, but raises a *ValueError* exception when substring *sub* is not found.
 - See also `str.rindex()`.
- `str.join(iterable)`
 - – return a string that is the result of concatenating all of the elements of *iterable*.
 - The *str* object here is the delimiter between the concatenated elements.
- `str.replace(old, new[, count])`
 - – return a copy of the string *str* where all instances of the substring *old* are replaced by the string *new* (up to *count* number of times).

Built-in String Methods

```
print("whenever".find("never"))  
print("whenever".find("what"))  
print("whenever".index("never"))  
print("whenever".index("what"))
```

```
print("-".join(['555', '867', '5309']))  
print(" ".join(['Python', 'is', 'awesome']))  
print("whenever".replace("ever", "ce"))
```

String formatting

- There are several ways for string format. The preferred way is to use f-strings.
 - By putting an *f* in front of a string literal, we create an f-string. Example:

```
t = f"This is an f-string."  
print(t)
```

- An f-string can have placeholders **{ }**, which can contain expressions (variables, functions) and modifiers to format the value:

```
val = 500  
t = f"This is an f-string. val = {val} "  
print(t)
```


Placeholders in f-string

- A placeholder can contain any expressions including constants and functions.
- An f-string can have any number of placeholders.

```
t = f"val = {500} "  
print(t)  
v = 500  
t = f"v*2 = {v * 2} "  
print(t)  
price = 59  
taxRate = 0.075  
t = f"Total price is {price + price * taxRate} . "  
print(t)  
a = 'apple'  
b = 'grape'  
t = f"I like {a.upper()} + ' ORANGE' and {b.upper()}."  
print(t)
```


Modifier

- We can further format the values in the in the placement holder with modifier
 - Modifier starts with a ":" and only takes some fixed format.
 - Placeholder with modifier has the form of `{expression modifier}`
- See the list of modifiers at https://www.w3schools.com/python/python_string_formatting.asp
- Exercise: Print the header of the ps command.

```
print( f"val = {1000000000:,.} ") # comma as thousand separator
print( f"val = {12.342344:.3f} ") # float point number with a 3 decimals
print(f" {'Hello':>30} ") # Right align to 30 letter space
print(f" {'100':^10} ") # center of 10 digits
```

String format()

- Old form of string formatting
- The signature is:

`str.format(*args, **kwargs)`

- `*args` argument indicates that format accepts a variable number of positional arguments,
- `**kwargs` indicates that format accepts a variable number of keyword arguments.
- `str` can contain literal text or replacement fields, which are enclosed by braces `{}`.
- Each replacement field contains either the numeric index of a positional argument, or the name of a keyword argument. A copy of the string is returned where each replacement field is replaced with the string value of the corresponding argument.

String formatting examples

```
print('{0}{1}{2}'.format('a','b','c'))  
print('{}{}{}'.format('a','b','c'))  
print('{2}{1}{0}'.format('a','b','c'))  
print('{2}{1}{0}'.format(*'abc'))  
print('{0}{1}{0}'.format('abra', 'cad'))
```

```
print('Coords: {lat}, {long}'.format(lat='37.24N', long='-115.81W'))  
coord = {'lat': '37.24N', 'long': '-115.81W'}  
print('Coords: {lat}, {long}'.format(**coord))
```

Lists

- When to use lists?

- When you need a collection of elements of varying type.
- When you need the ability to order your elements.
- When you need the ability to modify or add to the collection.
- When you don't require elements to be indexed by a custom value.
- When you need a stack or a queue.
- When your elements are not necessarily unique.

Creating Lists

- To create a list in Python, we can use bracket notation to either create an empty list or an initialized list.

```
mylist1    =    []    #    Creates    an    empty    list
mylist2    =    [expression1,    expression2,    ...]
mylist3    =    [expression    for    variable    in
sequence]
```

- The first two are referred to as *list displays*, where the last example is a *list comprehension*.

Creating Lists

- We can also use the built-in list constructor to create a new list.

```
mylist1 = list() # Creates an empty list
```

```
mylist2 = list(sequence)
```

```
mylist3 = list(expression for variable in sequence)
```

- The sequence argument in the second example can be any kind of sequence object or iterable. If another list is passed in, this will create a copy of the argument list.

Creating Lists

- Note that you cannot create a new list through assignment.
 - Assignment creates an alias, but not the new list object.

```
# mylist1 and mylist2 point to the same list
mylist1 = mylist2 = []
# mylist3 mylist3 mylist4 and mylist4
mylist3=[]
mylist4=mylist3
mylist5 = []; mylist6 = [] # different lists
```


Accessing list elements

- If the index of the desired element is known, you can simply use bracket notation to index into the list.
- If the index is not known, use the `index()` method to find the first index of an item. An exception will be raised if the item cannot be found.

```
mylist = [34,67,45,29]
print(mylist[2])
mylist = [34,67,45,29]
print(mylist.index(67))
```

Slicing

- The length of the list is accessible through `len(mylist)` .
- Slicing is an extended version of the indexing operator and can be used to grab sublists.

```
mylist[start:end]  # items from start to end-1
mylist[start:]     # items from start to end of the array
mylist[:end]       # items from beginning to end-1
mylist[:]          # a copy of the whole array
```

- You may also provide a step argument with any of the slicing constructions above.

```
mylist[start:end:step]
# items from start to end-1, incremented by step
```

Slicing

- The start or end arguments may be negative numbers, indicating a count from the end of the array rather than the beginning. This applies to the indexing operator.

```
mylist[-1]
```

last element in the list

```
Mylist[-2:]
```

the last two items of the array

```
mylist[:-2]
```

all except the last two items

- **Examples:**

```
mylist = [34, 56, 29, 73, 19, 62]  
print(mylist[-2])  
print(mylist[-4::2])
```

Inserting Elements

- To add an element to an existing list, use the `append()` method.
- Use the `extend()` method to add all of the items from another list

```
mylist = [34, 56, 29, 73, 19, 62]
mylist.append(47)
print(mylist)

mylist = [34, 56, 29, 73, 19, 62]
mylist.extend([47, 81])
print(mylist)
```

Inserting/Removing Elements

- Use the `insert(pos, item)` method to insert an item at the given position. You may also use negative indexing to indicate the position.
- Use the `remove()` method to remove the first occurrence of a given item. An exception will be raised if there is no matching item in the list.

```
mylist = [34, 56, 29, 73, 19, 62]
mylist.insert(2,47)
print(mylist)
mylist = [34, 56, 29, 73, 19, 62]
mylist.remove(29)
print(mylist)
```

List as a Stack

- You can use lists as a quick stack data structure.
- The `append()` and `pop()` methods implement a LIFO structure.
- The `pop(index)` method will remove and return the item at the specified index. If no index is specified, the last item is popped from the list.

```
stack = [34, 56, 29, 73, 19, 62]
stack.append(47)
print(stack)
stack.pop()
print(stack)
```


List as a Queue

- Lists *can* be used as queues natively since `insert()` and `pop()` both support indexing. However, while appending and popping from a list are fast, inserting and popping from the beginning of the list are slow.
- Use the special *deque* object from the *collections* module.

```
from collections import deque
queue = deque([35, 19, 67])
print(queue)
queue.append(42)
queue.append(23)
print(queue)
print(queue.popleft())
print(queue)
print(queue.popleft())
print(queue)
```


Some other useful operations

- The `count(x)` method will give you the number of occurrences of item `x` within the list.
- The `sort()` and `reverse()` methods sort and reverse the list in place. The `sorted(mylist)` and `reversed(mylist)` built-in functions will return a sorted and reversed copy of the list, respectively.

```
mylist = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'a', 'f', 'c']
print(mylist.count('a'))
mylist = [5, 2, 3, 4, 1]
mylist.sort()
print(mylist)
mylist.reverse()
print(mylist)
```

Custom Sort

- Both the `sorted()` built-in function and the `sort()` method of lists accept some optional arguments.

```
sorted(iterable[, cmp[, key[, reverse]])
```

- The *cmp* argument specifies a custom comparison function of two arguments which should return a negative, zero or positive number depending on whether the first argument is considered smaller than, equal to, or larger than the second argument. The default value is `None`.
- The *key* argument specifies a function of one argument that is used to extract a comparison key from each list element. The default value is `None`.
- The *reverse* argument is a Boolean value. If set to `True`, then the list elements are sorted as if each comparison were reversed.

Custom Sort

```
mylist = ['b', 'A', 'D', 'c']  
mylist.sort(key = str.lower)  
print(mylist)
```

Set

- When to use set?

- When the elements must be unique.
- When you need to be able to modify or add to the collection.
- When you need support for mathematical set operations.
- When you don't need to store nested lists, sets, or dictionaries as elements.

Creating Set

- Create an empty set with the set constructor.

```
myset=      set()
```

```
myset2      =      set([])      #      both are empty sets
```

- Create an initialized set with the set constructor or the { } notation. Do not use empty curly braces to create an empty set – you'll get an empty dictionary instead.

```
myset=      set(sequence)
```

```
myset2      =      {expression      for variable in  
sequence}
```

Hashable Items

- The way a set detects non-unique elements is by indexing the data in memory, creating a hash for each element. This means that all elements in a set must be *hashable*.
- All of Python's immutable built-in objects are hashable, while no mutable containers (such as lists or dictionaries) are. Objects which are instances of user-defined classes are also hashable by default.

Mutable operations

▪ `set |= other | ...`

- Update the set, adding elements from all others.

▪ `set &= other & ...`

- Update the set, keeping only elements found in it and all others.

▪ `set -= other | ...`

- Update the set, removing elements found in others.

▪ `set ^= other`

- Update the set, keeping only elements found in either set, but not in both.

```
s1 = set('abracadabra')
s2 = set('alacazam')
print(s1)
print(s2)
s1 |= s2
print(s1)
s1 = set('abracadabra')
s1 &= s2
print(s1)
```


Set Operations

- The following operations are available for both set and frozenset types.
- Comparison operators \geq , \leq test whether a set is a superset or subset, respectively, of some other set. The $>$ and $<$ operators check for proper supersets/subsets.

```
s1 = set('abracadabra')  
s2 = set('bard')  
print(s1 >= s2)  
print(s1 > s2)  
print(s1 <= s2)
```

Set Operations

- **Union:** `set | other | ...`
 - Return a new set with elements from the set and all others.
- **Intersection:** `set & other & ...`
 - Return a new set with elements common to the set and all others.
- **Difference:** `set - other - ...`
 - Return a new set with elements in the set that are not in the others.
- **Symmetric Difference:** `set ^ other`
 - Return a new set with elements in either the set or other but not both.

```
s1 = set('abracadabra')
print(s1)
s2 = set('alacazam')
print(s2)
print(s1|s2)
print(s1&s2)
print(s1-s2)
print(s1^s2)
```

Tuples

- **When to use tuples?**

- When storing elements that will not need to be changed.
- When performance is a concern.
- When you want to store your data in logical immutable pairs, triples, etc.

Creating Tuples

- With an empty set of parentheses
- Pass a sequence type object into the tuple() constructor.
- By listing comma-separated values. Note: These do not need to be in parentheses but they can be.
- One quirk: to initialize a tuple with a single value, use a trailing comma.

```
t1 = (1, 2, 3, 4)
t2 = "a", "b", "c", "d"
t3 = ()
t4 = ("red", )
print(t1)
print(t2)
print(t3)
print(t4)
```

Tuple Operations

- Similar to lists and support a lot of the same operations.
- Accessing elements: use bracket notation (e.g. `t1[2]`) and slicing.
- Use `len(t1)` to obtain the length of a tuple.
- The universal immutable sequence type operations are all supported by tuples.
 - `+`, `*`
 - `in`, `not in`
 - `min(t)`, `max(t)`, `t.index(x)`, `t.count(x)`

Packing/Unpacking

- packing “packs” a collection of items into a tuple
- unpack a tuple via Python’s multiple assignment feature

```
s = "Susan", 19, "CS" # tuple packing
print(s)
name, age, major = s # tuple unpacking
print(name)
print(age)
print(major)
```


Dict

- When to use dictionaries?
 - When you need to create associations in the form of key:value pairs.
 - When you need fast lookup for your data, based on a custom key.
 - When you need to modify or add to your key:value pairs.

Creating a Dictionary

- Create an empty dictionary with empty curly braces or the dict() constructor.
- You can initialize a dictionary by specifying each key:value pair within the curly braces.
- Note that keys must be *hashable* objects.

#constructing a dictionary

```
d1 = {}
```

```
d2 = dict()      # both empty
```

```
d3 = {"Nme": "Susan", "Age": 19, "Major": "CS"}
```

```
d4 = dict(Name="Susan", Age=19, Major="CS")
```

```
d5 = dict(zip(['Name', 'Age', 'Major'], ["Susan", 19, "CS"]))
```

```
d6 = dict([('Age', 19), ('Name', "Susan"), ('Major', "CS")])
```

Note: zip takes two equal-length collections and merges their corresponding elements into tuples.

Accessing the Dictionary

- To access a dictionary, simply index the dictionary by the key to obtain the value.
An
- exception will be raised if the key is not in the dictionary

```
d1 = {'Age':19, 'Name':"Susan", 'Major':"CS"}  
print(d1['Age'])  
print(d1['Name'])
```

Updating the Dictionary

- Simply assign a key:value pair to modify it or add a new pair. The del keyword can be used to delete a single key:value pair or the whole dictionary. The clear() method will clear the contents of the dictionary.

```
d1 = {'Age':19, 'Name':"Susan", 'Major':"CS"}
d1['Age'] = 21
d1['Year'] = "Junior"
print(d1)
del d1['Major']
print(d1)
d1.clear()
print(d1)
```

Some built-in Dictionary methods

```
d1={'Age':19, 'Name':"Susan", 'Major':"CS"}
print(d1.__contains__('Age')) # True if key exists
print(d1.__contains__('Year')) # False otherwise
print(d1.keys()) # Return a list of keys
print(d1.items()) # Return a list of key:value pairs
print(d1.values()) # Returns a list of values
print(d1.pop('Age'))
print(d1)
print(d1.popitem())
print(d1)
print('Major' in d1)
print('Name' in d1)
print('Major' not in d1)
print('Name' not in d1)
```

Note: `in`, `not in`, `pop(key)`, and `popitem()` are also supported.

Ordered Dictionary

- Dictionaries do not remember the order in which keys were inserted. An ordered dictionary implementation is available in the collections module. The methods of a regular dictionary are all supported by the OrderedDict class.
- An additional method supported by OrderedDict is the following:

```
OrderedDict.popitem(last=True) # pops items in LIFO order
```


Ordered Dictionary

```
# regular unsorted dictionary
import collections
d = {'banana': 3, 'apple': 4, 'pear': 1, 'orange': 2}
# dictionary sorted by key
d2 = collections.OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: t[0]))
print(d2)
# dictionary sorted by value
d3 = collections.OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: t[1]))
print(d3)
# dictionary sorted by length of the key string
d4 = collections.OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: len(t[0])))
print(d4)
```

Ordered Dictionary with custom comparison function

```
# custom_comparison.py
import collections
import functools

d = {'banana': 3, 'apple': 4, 'pear': 1, 'orange': 2, 'kiwi': 10}
def comp(a, b):
    if (len(a[0]) > len(b[0])):
        return 1
    elif len(a[0]) < len(b[0]):
        return -1
    else :
        if (a[1] > b[1]):
            return 1
        else:
            return -1

# dictionary sorted by key
d2 = collections.OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=functools.cmp_to_key(comp)))
print(d2)
```

File Operations: open/close

- A file must be open before other operations
 - `file_object = open(file_name [, access_mode][, buffering])`
 - Access mode: *r* for read, *w* for write, *r+* for read and write, etc.
 - Buffering usually uses default
- A file object has several objects such as name, closed, mode
- Opened file should be closed.
 - `close()` flushes buffered info and close the file object – no more write can be done.
 - Without `close()`, file may not be in the final state.

```
#lect4/open.py
fobj = open('open.py', 'r+')
print(f'File name: {fobj.name}')
print(f'Access mode: {fobj.mode}')
print(f'Closed? {fobj.closed}')
fobj.close()
print(f'File name: {fobj.name}')
print(f'Access mode: {fobj.mode}')
print(f'Closed? {fobj.closed}')
```

File Operations: read/write

- The *write()* method: *fileobj.write(string)*
 - Writes a string to an open file. Note that Python string can be binary data, not just text.
 - Write does not add '\n' at the end of the string.
- The *read()* method: *fileobj.read([count])*
 - Count is the number of bytes to read.
 - Without count, read the whole file

```
#lect4/write.py
f = open('foo.txt', 'w')
f.write('Python is great!')
f.write('I love Python!')
f.close()
```

```
#lect4/read.py
f = open('open.py', 'r')
s = f.read()
f.close()
print(s)
```

File Operations: tell/seek

- The *tell()* method: *fileobj.tell()*
 - Tell the current position within the file (the next read or write will start from the position)
- The *seek()* method: *fileobj.seek(offset, [from])*
 - Move the current position to the specified position.
 - From = 0 - beginning of the file, 1 – current position, 2 – end of the file.
 - ❖ *f.seek(0, 0)* – move to the beginning of the file
 - ❖ *f.seek(0, 2)* – move to the end of the file

```
#lect4/seek.py
f = open('foo.txt', 'w')
f.write('Python is great!')
f.write('I love Python!')
print(f.tell())
f.seek(0, 0)
f.write('XXXX')
print(f.tell())
f.close()
```

Managing file access using **with**

- An open file must be closed, but often after multiple file operations.
- Enclosing file open in the with block, the file will be close when the block finishes execution.

```
# lect4/with
with open ('open.txt', 'r') as f:
    for line in f:
        print(line.strip())
```