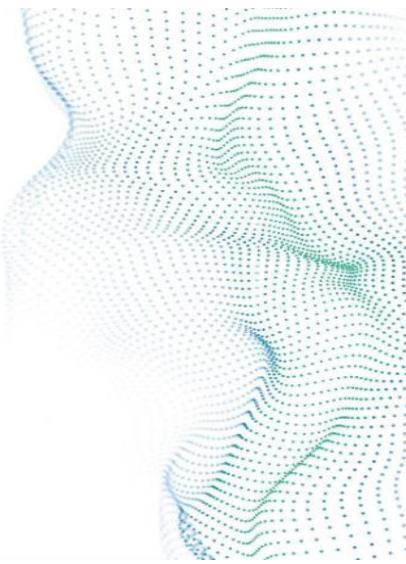


Module 1

Python



What is Python?

Python is a popular programming language. It was created by Guido van Rossum, and released in 1991.

It is used for:

- web development (server-side),
- software development,
- mathematics,
- system scripting.

What can Python do?

- Python can be used on a server to create web applications.
- Python can be used alongside software to create workflows.
- Python can connect to database systems. It can also read and modify files.
- Python can be used to handle big data and perform complex mathematics.
- Python can be used for rapid prototyping, or for production-ready software development.

Why Python?

Python works on different platforms (Windows, Mac, Linux, Raspberry Pi, etc).
Python has a simple syntax similar to the English language.
Python has syntax that allows developers to write programs with fewer lines than some other programming languages.
Python runs on an interpreter system, meaning that code can be executed as soon as it is written. This means that prototyping can be very quick.
Python can be treated in a procedural way, an object-oriented way or a functional way.

Installation of Python

Many PCs and Macs will have python already installed.

To check if you have python installed on a Windows PC, search in the start bar for Python or run the following on the Command Line (cmd.exe):

```
C:\Users\Your Name>python --version
```

To check if you have python installed on a Linux or Mac, then on linux open the command line or on Mac open the Terminal and type:

```
python --version
```

Python Quickstart

Python is an interpreted programming language, this means that as a developer you write Python (.py) files in a text editor and then put those files into the python interpreter to be executed.

The way to run a python file is like this on the command

```
C:\Users\Your Name>python helloworld.py
```

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Where "helloworld.py" is the name of your python file.

Let's write our first Python file, called helloworld.py, which can be done in any text editor.

```
helloworld.py  
print("Hello, World!")
```

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Simple as that. Save your file. Open your command line, navigate to the directory where you saved your file, and

```
C:\Users\Your Name>python helloworld.py
```

The output should read:

```
Hello, World!
```

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Python Version

To check the Python version of the editor, you can find it by importing the sys module:

Example

Check the Python version of the editor:

```
import sys  
  
print(sys.version)
```

Python Syntax

Execute Python Syntax

As we learned in the previous page, Python syntax can be executed by writing directly in the Command Line:

```
>>> print("Hello, World!")  
Hello, World!
```

Or by creating a python file on the server, using the .py file extension, and running it in the Command Line:

```
C:\Users\Your Name>python myfile.py
```

Python Indentation

Indentation refers to the spaces at the beginning of a code line. Where in other programming languages the indentation in code is for readability only, the indentation in Python is very important. Python uses indentation to indicate a block of code.

Example

```
if 5 > 2:  
    print("Five is greater than two!")
```

Five is greater than two!

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Example

```
if 5 > 2:  
    print("Five is greater than two!")  
if 5 > 2:  
    print("Five is greater than two!")
```

Five is greater than two!
Five is greater than two!

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Python Variables

In Python, variables are created when you assign a value to it:

Example

Variables in Python:

```
x = 5  
y = "Hello, World!"
```

5
Hello, World!

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Creating Variables

Python has no command for declaring a variable.
A variable is created the moment you first assign a value to it.

Example

```
x = 5  
y = "John"  
print(x)  
print(y)
```

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Variables do not need to be declared with any particular type, and can even change type after they have been set.

Example

```
x = 4      # x is of type int  
x = "Sally" # x is now of type str  
print(x)
```

Casting

If you want to specify the data type of a variable, this can be done with casting.

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Example

```
x = str(3)    # x will be '3'  
y = int(3)    # y will be 3  
z = float(3)  # z will be 3.0
```

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Variable Names

A variable can have a short name (like x and y) or a more descriptive name (age, carname, total_volume). Rules for Python variables:

A variable name must start with a letter or the underscore character

A variable name cannot start with a number

A variable name can only contain alpha-numeric characters and underscores (A-z, 0-9, and _)

Variable names are case-sensitive (age, Age and AGE are three different variables)

A variable name cannot be any of the Python keywords.

Example

Legal variable names:

```
myvar = "John"  
my_var = "John"  
_my_var = "John"  
myVar = "John"  
MYVAR = "John"  
myvar2 = "John"
```

Multi word variable names

Variable names with more than one word can be difficult to read.

There are several techniques you can use to make them more readable:

Camel Case

Each word, except the first, starts with a capital letter:

```
myVariableName = "John"
```

Pascal Case

Each word starts with a capital letter:

```
MyVariableName = "John"
```

Snake Case

- Each word is separated by an underscore character:

```
my_variable_name = "John"
```

Assign multiple values

Example

```
x, y, z = "Orange", "Banana", "Cherry"  
print(x)  
print(y)  
print(z)
```

```
Orange  
Banana  
Cherry
```

Global Variables

Global variables can be used by everyone, both inside of functions and outside.

Example

Create a variable outside of a function, and use it inside the function

```
x = "awesome"  
  
def myfunc():  
    print("Python is " + x)  
  
myfunc()
```

Python is awesome

If you create a variable with the same name inside a function, this variable will be local, and can only be used inside the function. The global variable with the same name will remain as it was, global and with the original value.

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```
x = "awesome"

def myfunc():
    x = "fantastic"
    print("Python is " + x)

myfunc()
print("Python is " + x)
```

Python is fantastic
Python is awesome

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Datatypes

Built-in Data Types

In programming, data type is an important concept.

Variables can store data of different types, and different types can do different things.

Python has the following data types built-in by default, in these categories:

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Text Type:	str
Numeric Types:	int, float, complex
Sequence Types:	list, tuple, range
Mapping Type:	dict
Set Types:	set, frozenset
Boolean Type:	bool
Binary Types:	bytes, bytearray, memoryview
None Type:	NoneType

Python Numbers

There are three numeric types in Python:

- int
- float
- Complex

Variables of numeric types are created when you assign a value to them:

Example

```
x = 1      # int
y = 2.8    # float
z = 1j      # complex
```

Int

Int, or integer, is a whole number, positive or negative, without decimals, of unlimited length.

Example

Integers:

```
x = 1
y = 35656222554887711
z = -3255522

print(type(x))
print(type(y))
print(type(z))
```

```
<class 'int'>
<class 'int'>
<class 'int'>
```

Float

Float, or "floating point number" is a number, positive or negative, containing one or more decimals.

Example

Floats:

```
x = 1.10
y = 1.0
z = -35.59

print(type(x))
print(type(y))
print(type(z))
```

```
<class 'float'>
<class 'float'>
<class 'float'>
```

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Complex

Complex numbers are written with a "j" as the imaginary part:

Example

Complex:

```
x = 3+5j
y = 5j
z = -5j

print(type(x))
print(type(y))
print(type(z))
```

```
<class 'complex'>
<class 'complex'>
<class 'complex'>
```

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Type Conversion

You can convert from one type to another with the int(), float(), and complex() methods:

Example

Convert from one type to another:

```
x = 1    # int
y = 2.8  # float
z = 1j   # complex

#convert from int to float:
a = float(x)

#convert from float to int:
b = int(y)

#convert from int to complex:
c = complex(x)

print(a)
print(b)
print(c)

print(type(a))
print(type(b))
print(type(c))
```

```
1.0
2
(1+0j)
<class 'float'>
<class 'int'>
<class 'complex'>
```

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Type Casting

There may be times when you want to specify a type on to a variable. This can be done with casting. Python is an object-orientated language, and as such it uses classes to define data types, including its primitive types.

Casting in python is therefore done using constructor functions:

`int()` - constructs an integer number from an integer literal, a float literal (by removing all decimals), or a string literal (providing the string represents a whole number)

`float()` - constructs a float number from an integer literal, a float literal or a string literal (providing the string represents a float or an integer)

`str()` - constructs a string from a wide variety of data types, including strings, integer literals and float literals

Example

Integers:

```
x = int(1)    # x will be 1
y = int(2.8)  # y will be 2
z = int("3")  # z will be 3
```

Example

Floats:

```
x = float(1)      # x will be 1.0
y = float(2.8)    # y will be 2.8
z = float("3")    # z will be 3.0
w = float("4.2")  # w will be 4.2
```

Example

Strings:

```
x = str("s1") # x will be 's1'
y = str(2)     # y will be '2'
z = str(3.0)   # z will be '3.0'
```

Strings

Strings in python are surrounded by either single quotation marks, or double quotation marks.

'hello' is the same as "hello".

You can display a string literal with the print() function:

Example

```
print("Hello")
print('Hello')
```

Strings are Arrays

Like many other popular programming languages, strings in Python are arrays of bytes representing unicode characters.

However, Python does not have a character data type, a single character is simply a string with a length of 1.

Square brackets can be used to access elements of the string.

String Length

To get the length of a string, use the len() function.

Example

The `len()` function returns the length of a string:

```
a = "Hello, World!"
print(len(a))
```

Check String

To check if a certain phrase or character is present in a string, we can use the keyword `in`.

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Booleans

In programming you often need to know if an expression is True or False.

You can evaluate any expression in Python, and get one of two answers, True or False.

When you compare two values, the expression is evaluated and Python returns the Boolean answer:

Example

```
print(10 > 9)
print(10 == 9)
print(10 < 9)
```

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When you run a condition in an if statement, Python returns True or False:

Example

Print a message based on whether the condition is `True` or `False`:

```
a = 200
b = 33

if b > a:
    print("b is greater than a")
else:
    print("b is not greater than a")
```

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Operators

Operators are used to perform operations on variables and values.

In the example below, we use the `+` operator to add together two values:

Python divides the operators in the following groups:

- Arithmetic operators
- Assignment operators
- Comparison operators
- Logical operators
- Identity operators
- Membership operators

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Arithmetic operators

Operator	Name	Example
<code>+</code>	Addition	<code>x + y</code>
<code>-</code>	Subtraction	<code>x - y</code>
<code>*</code>	Multiplication	<code>x * y</code>
<code>/</code>	Division	<code>x / y</code>
<code>%</code>	Modulus	<code>x % y</code>
<code>**</code>	Exponentiation	<code>x ** y</code>
<code>//</code>	Floor division	<code>x // y</code>

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Assignment Operators

Operator	Example	Same As
<code>=</code>	<code>x = 5</code>	<code>x = 5</code>
<code>+=</code>	<code>x += 3</code>	<code>x = x + 3</code>
<code>-=</code>	<code>x -= 3</code>	<code>x = x - 3</code>
<code>*=</code>	<code>x *= 3</code>	<code>x = x * 3</code>
<code>/=</code>	<code>x /= 3</code>	<code>x = x / 3</code>
<code>%=</code>	<code>x %= 3</code>	<code>x = x % 3</code>
<code>//=</code>	<code>x //= 3</code>	<code>x = x // 3</code>
<code>**=</code>	<code>x **= 3</code>	<code>x = x ** 3</code>
<code>&=</code>	<code>x &= 3</code>	<code>x = x & 3</code>
<code> =</code>	<code>x = 3</code>	<code>x = x 3</code>
<code>^=</code>	<code>x ^= 3</code>	<code>x = x ^ 3</code>
<code>>>=</code>	<code>x >>= 3</code>	<code>x = x >> 3</code>
<code><<=</code>	<code>x <<= 3</code>	<code>x = x << 3</code>

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Comparison operators

Operator	Name	Example
<code>==</code>	Equal	<code>x == y</code>
<code>!=</code>	Not equal	<code>x != y</code>
<code>></code>	Greater than	<code>x > y</code>
<code><</code>	Less than	<code>x < y</code>
<code>>=</code>	Greater than or equal to	<code>x >= y</code>
<code><=</code>	Less than or equal to	<code>x <= y</code>

Logical Operators

Operator	Description	Example
<code>and</code>	Returns True if both statements are true	<code>x < 5 and x < 10</code>
<code>or</code>	Returns True if one of the statements is true	<code>x < 5 or x < 4</code>
<code>not</code>	Reverse the result, returns False if the result is true	<code>not(x < 5 and x < 10)</code>

Identity Operators

Operator	Description	Example
<code>is</code>	Returns True if both variables are the same object	<code>x is y</code>
<code>is not</code>	Returns True if both variables are not the same object	<code>x is not y</code>

Bitwise Operators

Operator	Name	Description	Example
&	AND	Sets each bit to 1 if both bits are 1	x & y
	OR	Sets each bit to 1 if one of two bits is 1	x y
^	XOR	Sets each bit to 1 if only one of two bits is 1	x ^ y
~	NOT	Inverts all the bits	~x
<<	Zero fill left shift	Shift left by pushing zeros in from the right and let the leftmost bits fall off	x << 2
>>	Signed right shift	Shift right by pushing copies of the leftmost bit in from the left, and let the rightmost bits fall off	x >> 2

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Lists

Lists are used to store multiple items in a single variable.

Lists are one of 4 built-in data types in Python used to store collections of data, the other 3 are Tuple, Set, and Dictionary, all with different qualities and usage.

Lists are created using square brackets []

Example

Create a List:

```
thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
print(thislist)
```



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List Items

List items are ordered, changeable, and allow duplicate values.

List items are indexed, the first item has index [0], the second item has index [1] etc.

Ordered

When we say that lists are ordered, it means that the items have a defined order, and that order will not change.

If you add new items to a list, the new items will be placed at the end of the list.

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Changeable

The list is changeable, meaning that we can change, add, and remove items in a list after it has been created.

Allow Duplicates

Since lists are indexed, lists can have items with the same value:

Example

Lists allow duplicate values:

```
thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry", "apple", "cherry"]  
print(thislist)
```

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List Length

To determine how many items a list has, use the `len()` function:

Example

Print the number of items in the list:

```
thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]  
print(len(thislist))
```

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The `list()` Constructor

Example

Using the `list()` constructor to make a List:

```
thislist = list(("apple", "banana", "cherry")) :  
round-brackets  
print(thislist)
```

['apple', 'banana', 'cherry']

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Python Collections (Arrays)

There are four collection data types in the Python programming language:

List is a collection which is ordered and changeable. Allows duplicate members.

Tuple is a collection which is ordered and unchangeable. Allows duplicate members.

Set is a collection which is unordered, unchangeable*, and unindexed. No duplicate members.

Dictionary is a collection which is ordered** and changeable. No duplicate members.

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Python Sort Lists

Sort List Alphanumerically

List objects have a `sort()` method that will sort the list alphanumerically, ascending, by default:

Example

Sort the list alphabetically:

```
thislist = ["orange", "mango", "kiwi", "pineapple", "banana"]
thislist.sort()
print(thislist)
```

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Example

Sort the list numerically:

```
thislist = [100, 50, 65, 82, 23]
thislist.sort()
print(thislist)
```

Sort Descending

To sort descending, use the keyword argument `reverse = True`:

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Example

Sort the list descending:

```
thislist = ["orange", "mango", "kiwi", "pineapple", "banana"]
thislist.sort(reverse = True)
print(thislist)
```

Example

Sort the list descending:

```
thislist = [100, 50, 65, 82, 23]
thislist.sort(reverse = True)
print(thislist)
```

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Customize Sort Function

You can also customize your own function by using the keyword argument key = function.

The function will return a number that will be used to sort the list (the lowest number first):

Example

Sort the list based on how close the number is to 50:

```
def myfunc(n):
    return abs(n - 50)

thislist = [100, 50, 65, 82, 23]
thislist.sort(key = myfunc)
print(thislist)
```

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Case Insensitive Sort

By default the sort() method is case sensitive, resulting in all capital letters being sorted before lower case letters:

Example

Case sensitive sorting can give an unexpected result:

```
thislist = ["banana", "Orange", "Kiwi", "cherry"]
thislist.sort()
print(thislist)
```

So if you want a case-insensitive sort function, use str.lower as a key function:

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Example

Perform a case-insensitive sort of the list:

```
thislist = ["banana", "Orange", "Kiwi", "cherry"]
thislist.sort(key = str.lower)
print(thislist)
```

Reverse Order

What if you want to reverse the order of a list, regardless of the alphabet?

The `reverse()` method reverses the current sorting order of the elements.



Example

Reverse the order of the list items:

```
thislist = ["banana", "Orange", "Kiwi", "cherry"]
thislist.reverse()
print(thislist)
```

Copy a List

You cannot copy a list simply by typing `list2 = list1`, because: `list2` will only be a reference to `list1`, and changes made in `list1` will automatically also be made in `list2`.

Use the `copy()` method

You can use the built-in List method `copy()` to copy a list.



Example

Make a copy of a list with the `copy()` method:

```
thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
mylist = thislist.copy()
print(mylist)
```

```
['apple', 'banana', 'cherry']
```

List Methods

Python has a set of built-in methods that you can use on lists.

Method	Description
append()	Adds an element at the end of the list
clear()	Removes all the elements from the list
copy()	Returns a copy of the list
count()	Returns the number of elements with the specified value
extend()	Add the elements of a list (or any iterable), to the end of the current list
index()	Returns the index of the first element with the specified value
insert()	Adds an element at the specified position
pop()	Removes the element at the specified position
remove()	Removes the item with the specified value
reverse()	Reverses the order of the list
sort()	Sorts the list

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Tuples

Tuples are used to store multiple items in a single variable.

Tuple is one of 4 built-in data types in Python used to store collections of data, the other 3 are List, Set, and Dictionary, all with different qualities and usage.

A tuple is a collection which is ordered and unchangeable.

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Example

Create a Tuple:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
print(thistuple)
```

```
('apple', 'banana', 'cherry')
```

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Tuple Items

Tuple items are ordered, unchangeable, and allow duplicate values.

Tuple items are indexed, the first item has index [0], the second item has index [1] etc.

Ordered

When we say that tuples are ordered, it means that the items have a defined order, and that order will not change.

Unchangeable

Tuples are unchangeable, meaning that we cannot change, add or remove items after the tuple has been created.

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Allow Duplicates

Since tuples are indexed, they can have items with the same value:

Example

Tuples allow duplicate values:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry", "apple", "cherry")
print(thistuple)
```

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Tuple Length

To determine how many items a tuple has, use the len() function:

Example

Print the number of items in the tuple:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
print(len(thistuple))
```

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The tuple() Constructor

It is also possible to use the tuple() constructor to make a tuple.

Example

Using the tuple() method to make a tuple:

```
thistuple = tuple(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
print(thistuple)
```

Python Collections (Arrays)

There are four collection data types in the Python programming language:

List is a collection which is ordered and changeable. Allows duplicate members.

Tuple is a collection which is ordered and unchangeable. Allows duplicate members.

Set is a collection which is unordered, unchangeable*, and unindexed. No duplicate members.

Dictionary is a collection which is ordered** and changeable. No duplicate members.

Access Tuple Items

You can access tuple items by referring to the index number, inside square brackets:

Example

Print the second item in the tuple:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
print(thistuple[1])
```

Negative Indexing

Negative indexing means start from the end.

-1 refers to the last item, -2 refers to the second last item etc.

Example

Print the last item of the tuple:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
print(thistuple[-1])
```

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Range of Indexes

You can specify a range of indexes by specifying where to start and where to end the range.

When specifying a range, the return value will be a new tuple with the specified items.

Example

Return the third, fourth, and fifth item:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry", "orange", "kiwi", "melon", "mango")
print(thistuple[2:5])
```

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Example

This example returns the items from the beginning to, but NOT included, "kiwi":

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry", "orange", "kiwi", "melon", "mango")
print(thistuple[:4])
```

Example

This example returns the items from "cherry" and to the end:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry", "orange", "kiwi", "melon", "mango")
print(thistuple[2:])
```

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Update Tuples

Tuples are unchangeable, meaning that you cannot change, add, or remove items once the tuple is created.

Change Tuple Values

Once a tuple is created, you cannot change its values. Tuples are **unchangeable**, or **immutable** as it also is called.

But there is a workaround. You can convert the tuple into a list, change the list, and convert the list back into a tuple.

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Add Items

Since tuples are immutable, they do not have a built-in append() method, but there are other ways to add items to a tuple.

1. Convert into a list: Just like the workaround for changing a tuple, you can convert it into a list, add your item(s), and convert it back into a tuple.

Example

Create the tuple into a list, add "orange", and convert it back into a tuple:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
y = list(thistuple)
y.append("orange")
thistuple = tuple(y)
```

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2. Add tuple to a tuple. You are allowed to add tuples to tuples, so if you want to add one item, (or many), create a new tuple with the item(s), and add it to the existing tuple:

Example

Create a new tuple with the value "orange", and add that tuple:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
y = ("orange",)
thistuple += y

print(thistuple)
```

```
('apple', 'banana', 'cherry', 'orange')
```

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Loop Tuples

- You can loop through the tuple items by using a for loop.

Iterate through the items and print the values:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
for x in thistuple:
    print(x)
```

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

Loop Through the Index Number

You can also loop through the tuple items by referring to their index number.

Use the range() and len() functions to create a suitable iterable.

Example

Print all items by referring to their index number:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
for i in range(len(thistuple)):
    print(thistuple[i])
```

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

Using a While Loop

You can loop through the tuple items by using a while loop.

Use the len() function to determine the length of the tuple, then start at 0 and loop your way through the tuple items by referring to their indexes.

Remember to increase the index by 1 after each iteration.

Example

Print all items, using a `while` loop to go through all the index numbers:

```
thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
i = 0
while i < len(thistuple):
    print(thistuple[i])
    i = i + 1
```

Tuple Methods

Method	Description
<code>count()</code>	Returns the number of times a specified value occurs in a tuple
<code>index()</code>	Searches the tuple for a specified value and returns the position of where it was found

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Python Dictionary

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}
```

Dictionaries are used to store data values in key:value pairs.

A dictionary is a collection which is ordered*, changeable and do not allow duplicates.

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Dictionary Items

Dictionary items are ordered, changeable, and do not allow duplicates.

Dictionary items are presented in key:value pairs, and can be referred to by using the key name.

Example

Print the "brand" value of the dictionary:

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
print(thisdict["brand"])
```

Ford

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Duplicates Not Allowed

Dictionaries cannot have two items with the same key:

Example

Duplicate values will overwrite existing values:

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964,  
    "year": 2020  
}  
print(thisdict)
```

```
{"brand": "Ford", "model": "Mustang", "year": 2020}
```

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The dict() Constructor

It is also possible to use the dict() constructor to make a dictionary.

Example

Using the dict() method to make a dictionary:

```
thisdict = dict(name = "John", age = 36, country = "Norway")  
print(thisdict)
```

```
{"name": "John", "age": 36, "country": "Norway"}
```

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Accessing Items

You can access the items of a dictionary by referring to its key name, inside square brackets:

Example

Get the value of the "model" key:

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
x = thisdict["model"]
```

There is also a method called get() that will give you the same result:

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Example

Get the value of the "model" key:

```
x = thisdict.get("model")
```

Get Keys

The **keys()** method will return a list of all the keys in the dictionary.

Example

Get a list of the keys:

```
x = thisdict.keys()
```

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The list of the keys is a *view* of the dictionary, meaning that any changes done to the dictionary will be reflected in the keys list.

Example

Add a new item to the original dictionary, and see that the keys list gets updated as well:

```
car = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
  
x = car.keys()  
  
print(x) #before the change  
  
car["color"] = "white"  
  
print(x) #after the change
```

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Example

Get a list of the values:

```
x = thisdict.values()
```

The list of the values is a *view* of the dictionary, meaning that any changes done to the dictionary will be reflected in the values list.

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Example

Make a change in the original dictionary, and see that the values list gets updated as well:

```
car = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
  
x = car.values()  
  
print(x) #before the change  
  
car["year"] = 2020  
  
print(x) #after the change
```

dict_values(['Ford', 'Mustang', 1964])
dict_values(['Ford', 'Mustang', 2020])

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Example

Add a new item to the original dictionary, and see that the values list gets updated as well:

```
car = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
  
x = car.values()  
  
print(x) #before the change  
  
car["color"] = "red"  
  
print(x) #after the change
```

dict_values(['Ford', 'Mustang', 1964])
dict_values(['Ford', 'Mustang', 1964, 'red'])

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Get Items

The items() method will return each item in a dictionary, as tuples in a list.

Example

Get a list of the key:value pairs

```
x = thisdict.items()
```

The returned list is a view of the items of the dictionary, meaning that any changes done to the dictionary will be reflected in the items list.

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Example

Make a change in the original dictionary, and see that the items list gets updated as well:

```
car = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
  
x = car.items()  
  
print(x) #before the change  
  
car["year"] = 2020  
  
print(x) #after the change
```

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Change Values

Example

Change the "year" to 2018:

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
thisdict["year"] = 2018
```

```
{'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang', 'year': 2018}
```

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Adding items

Example

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
thisdict["color"] = "red"  
print(thisdict)
```

```
{'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang', 'year': 1964, 'color': 'red'}
```

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Update Dictionary

The `update()` method will update the dictionary with the items from a given argument. If the item does not exist, the item will be added.

The argument must be a dictionary, or an iterable object with key:value pairs.

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Example

Add a color item to the dictionary by using the `update()` method:

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
thisdict.update({"color": "red"})  
{'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang', 'year': 1964, 'color': 'red'}
```

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Remove Items

Example

The `popitem()` method removes the last inserted item (in versions before 3.7, a random item is removed instead):

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
thisdict.popitem()  
print(thisdict)  
  
{'brand': 'Ford', 'model': 'Mustang'}
```

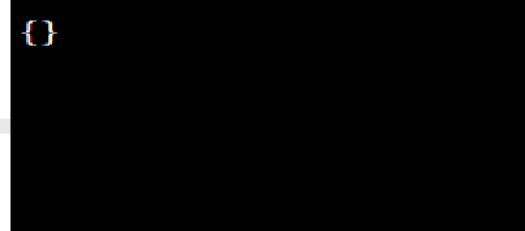
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Example

The `clear()` method empties the dictionary:

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",  
    "model": "Mustang",  
    "year": 1964  
}  
thisdict.clear()  
print(thisdict)
```



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Python IF...ELSE

Python supports the usual logical conditions from mathematics:

- Equals: `a == b`
- Not Equals: `a != b`
- Less than: `a < b`
- Less than or equal to: `a <= b`
- Greater than: `a > b`
- Greater than or equal to: `a >= b`

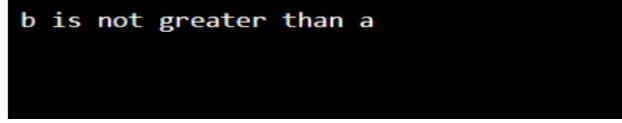
These conditions can be used in several ways, most commonly in "if statements" and loops.

An "if statement" is written by using the `if` keyword.

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Example

```
a = 200  
b = 33  
if b > a:  
    print("b is greater than a")  
else:  
    print("b is not greater than a")
```



b is not greater than a

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Nested If

You can have `if` statements inside `if` statements, this is called *nested if* statements.

Example

```
x = 41

if x > 10:
    print("Above ten,")
    if x > 20:
        print("and also above 20!")
    else:
        print("but not above 20.")
```

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While loop

Python has two primitive loop commands:

while loops
for loops

The while Loop

With the while loop we can execute a set of statements as long as a condition is true.

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Example

Print i as long as i is less than 6:

```
i = 1
while i < 6:
    print(i)
    i += 1
```

1
2
3
4
5

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The else Statement

With the `else` statement we can run a block of code once when the condition no longer is true:

Example

Print a message once the condition is false:

```
i = 1
while i < 6:
    print(i)
    i += 1
else:
    print("i is no longer less than 6")
```

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Python For Loops

A for loop is used for iterating over a sequence (that is either a list, a tuple, a dictionary, a set, or a string).

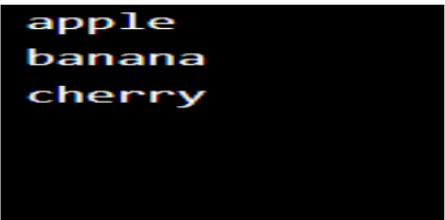
This is less like the `for` keyword in other programming languages, and works more like an iterator method as found in other object-orientated programming languages.

With the `for` loop we can execute a set of statements, once for each item in a list, tuple, set etc.

Example

Print each fruit in a fruit list:

```
fruits = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
for x in fruits:
    print(x)
```



apple
banana
cherry

A black rectangular box representing a terminal window. Inside, the words "apple", "banana", and "cherry" are printed on separate lines in a white, monospaced font.

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Python Arguments

Information can be passed into functions as arguments.

Arguments are specified after the function name, inside the parentheses. You can add as many arguments as you want, just separate them with a comma.

The following example has a function with one argument (fname). When the function is called, we pass along a first name, which is used inside the function to print the full name:

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Example

```
def my_function(fname):
    print(fname + " Refsnes")

my_function("Emil")
my_function("Tobias")
my_function("Linus")
```

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Python Lambda

A lambda function is a small anonymous function.

A lambda function can take any number of arguments, but can only have one expression.

Syntax

```
lambda arguments : expression
```

The expression is executed and the result is returned:

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Example

Summarize argument `a`, `b`, and `c` and return the result:

```
x = lambda a, b, c : a + b + c
print(x(5, 6, 2))
```

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Why Use Lambda Functions?

The power of lambda is better shown when you use them as an anonymous function inside another function.

Say you have a function definition that takes one argument, and that argument will be multiplied with an unknown

```
def myfunc(n):
    return lambda a : a * n
```

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Use that function definition to make a function that always doubles the number you send in:

Example

```
def myfunc(n):
    return lambda a : a * n

mydoubler = myfunc(2)

print(mydoubler(11))
```

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Or, use the same function definition to make a function that always *triples* the number you send in:

Example

```
def myfunc(n):
    return lambda a : a * n

mytripler = myfunc(3)

print(mytripler(11))
```

33

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Arrays

Arrays are used to store multiple values in one single variable:

Example

Create an array containing car names:

```
cars = ["Ford", "Volvo", "BMW"]
```

['Ford', 'Volvo', 'BMW']

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What is an Array?

An array is a special variable, which can hold more than one value at a time.

If you have a list of items (a list of car names, for example), storing the cars in single variables could look like this:

```
car1 = "Ford"
car2 = "Volvo"
car3 = "BMW"
```

However, what if you want to loop through the cars and find a specific one? And what if you had not 3 cars, but 300?

The solution is an array!

An array can hold many values under a single name, and you can access the values by referring to an index number.

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Access the Elements of an Array

You refer to an array element by referring to the *index number*.

Example

Get the value of the first array item:

```
x = cars[0]
```

Ford

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```
cars = ["Ford", "Volvo", "BMW"]
cars[0] = "Toyota"
print(cars)
```

['Toyota', 'Volvo', 'BMW']

The Length of an Array

Use the `len()` method to return the length of an array (the number of elements in an array).

Example

Return the number of elements in the `cars` array:

```
x = len(cars)
```

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Array Methods

Python has a set of built-in methods that you can use on lists/arrays.

Method	Description
<code>append()</code>	Adds an element at the end of the list
<code>clear()</code>	Removes all the elements from the list
<code>copy()</code>	Returns a copy of the list
<code>count()</code>	Returns the number of elements with the specified value
<code>extend()</code>	Add the elements of a list (or any iterable), to the end of the current list
<code>index()</code>	Returns the index of the first element with the specified value
<code>insert()</code>	Adds an element at the specified position
<code>pop()</code>	Removes the element at the specified position
<code>remove()</code>	Removes the first item with the specified value
<code>reverse()</code>	Reverses the order of the list
<code>sort()</code>	Sorts the list

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Python Classes/Objects

Python is an object oriented programming language.

Almost everything in Python is an object, with its properties and methods.

A Class is like an object constructor, or a "blueprint" for creating objects.

Create a Class

To create a class, use the keyword `class` :

Example

Create a class named MyClass, with a property named x:

```
class MyClass:  
    x = 5
```

Create Object

Now we can use the class named `MyClass` to create objects:

Example

Create an object named `p1`, and print the value of `x`:

```
p1 = MyClass()  
print(p1.x)
```

The `__init__()` Function

The examples above are classes and objects in their simplest form, and are not really useful in real life applications.

To understand the meaning of classes we have to understand the built-in `__init__()` function.

All classes have a function called `__init__()`, which is always executed when the class is being initiated.

Use the `__init__()` function to assign values to object properties, or other operations that are necessary to do when the object is being created:

Example

Create a class named Person, use the `__init__()` function to assign values for name and age:

```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, name, age):  
        self.name = name  
        self.age = age  
  
    p1 = Person("John", 36)  
  
    print(p1.name)  
    print(p1.age)
```

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The `__str__()` Function

The `__str__()` function controls what should be returned when the class object is represented as a string.

If the `__str__()` function is not set, the string representation of the object is returned:

Example

The string representation of an object WITHOUT the `__str__()` function:

```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, name, age):  
        self.name = name  
        self.age = age  
  
    p1 = Person("John", 36)  
  
    print(p1)
```

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Example

The string representation of an object WITH the `__str__()` function:

```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, name, age):  
        self.name = name  
        self.age = age  
  
    def __str__(self):  
        return f"{self.name}({self.age})"  
  
    p1 = Person("John", 36)  
  
    print(p1)
```

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Object Methods

Objects can also contain methods. Methods in objects are functions that belong to the object.

Let us create a method in the Person class:

Example

Insert a function that prints a greeting, and execute it on the p1 object:

```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, name, age):  
        self.name = name  
        self.age = age  
  
    def myfunc(self):  
        print("Hello my name is " + self.name)  
  
p1 = Person("John", 36)  
p1.myfunc()
```

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Python Inheritance

Inheritance allows us to define a class that inherits all the methods and properties from another class.

Parent class is the class being inherited from, also called base class.

Child class is the class that inherits from another class, also called derived class.

Create a Parent Class

Any class can be a parent class, so the syntax is the same as creating any other class:

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Create a class named `Person`, with `firstname` and `lastname` properties, and a `printname` method:

```
class Person:  
    def __init__(self, fname, lname):  
        self.firstname = fname  
        self.lastname = lname  
  
    def printname(self):  
        print(self.firstname, self.lastname)  
  
#Use the Person class to create an object, and then  
#execute the printname method:  
  
x = Person("John", "Doe")  
x.printname()
```

John Doe

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Python iterators

An iterator is an object that contains a countable number of values.

An iterator is an object that can be iterated upon, meaning that you can traverse through all the values.

Technically, in Python, an iterator is an object which implements the iterator protocol, which consist of the methods `__iter__()` and `__next__()`.

Iterator vs Iterable

Lists, tuples, dictionaries, and sets are all iterable objects. They are iterable containers which you can get an iterator from.

All these objects have a `iter()` method which is used to get an iterator:

Return an iterator from a tuple, and print each value:

```
mytuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
myit = iter(mytuple)

print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))
```

Even strings are iterable objects, and can return an iterator:

```
mystr = "banana"
myit = iter(mystr)

print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))
print(next(myit))
```

b
a
n
a
n
a

Create an iterator

To create an object/class as an iterator you have to implement the methods `__iter__()` and `__next__()` to your object.

As you have learned in the Python Classes/Objects chapter, all classes have a function called `__init__()`, which allows you to do some initializing when the object is being created.

The `__iter__()` method acts similar, you can do operations (initializing etc.), but must always return the iterator object itself.

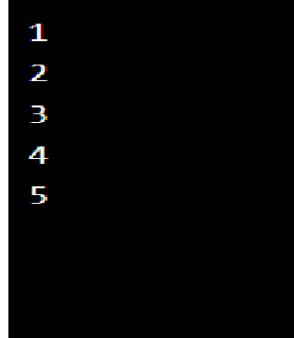
The `__next__()` method also allows you to do operations, and must return the next item in the sequence.

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Create an iterator that returns numbers, starting with 1, and each sequence will increase by one (returning 1,2,3,4,5 etc.):

```
class MyNumbers:  
    def __iter__(self):  
        self.a = 1  
        return self  
  
    def __next__(self):  
        x = self.a  
        self.a += 1  
        return x  
  
myclass = MyNumbers()  
myiter = iter(myclass)  
  
print(next(myiter))  
print(next(myiter))  
print(next(myiter))  
print(next(myiter))  
print(next(myiter))
```



1
2
3
4
5

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Stop iteration

The example above would continue forever if you had enough `next()` statements, or if it was used in a for loop.

To prevent the iteration from going on forever, we can use the `StopIteration` statement.

In the `__next__()` method, we can add a terminating condition to raise an error if the iteration is done a specified number of times:

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Example

Stop after 20 iterations:

```
class MyNumbers:  
    def __iter__(self):  
        self.a = 1  
        return self  
  
    def __next__(self):  
        if self.a <= 20:  
            x = self.a  
            self.a += 1  
            return x  
        else:  
            raise StopIteration  
  
myclass = MyNumbers()  
myiter = iter(myclass)  
  
for x in myiter:  
    print(x)
```

```
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20
```

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Python Polymorphism

The word "polymorphism" means "many forms", and in programming it refers to methods/functions/operators with the same name that can be executed on many objects or classes.

Function Polymorphism

An example of a Python function that can be used on different objects is the `len()` function.

String

For strings `len()` returns the number of characters:

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Class Polymorphism

Polymorphism is often used in Class methods, where we can have multiple classes with the same method name.

For example, say we have three classes: Car, Boat, and Plane, and they all have a method called `move()`:

```
class Car:  
    def __init__(self, brand, model):  
        self.brand = brand  
        self.model = model  
  
    def move(self):  
        print("Drive!")  
  
class Boat:  
    def __init__(self, brand, model):  
        self.brand = brand  
        self.model = model  
  
    def move(self):  
        print("Sail!")
```

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```

class Plane:
    def __init__(self, brand, model):
        self.brand = brand
        self.model = model

    def move(self):
        print("Fly!")

car1 = Car("Ford", "Mustang")      #Create a Car
class
boat1 = Boat("Ibiza", "Touring 20") #Create a Boat
class
plane1 = Plane("Boeing", "747")     #Create a Plane
class

for x in (car1, boat1, plane1):
    x.move()

```

Drive!
Sail!
Fly!

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Inheritance class polymorphism

Create a class called `Vehicle` and make `Car`, `Boat`, `Plane` child classes of `Vehicle`:

```

class Vehicle:
    def __init__(self, brand, model):
        self.brand = brand
        self.model = model

    def move(self):
        print("Move!")

class Car(Vehicle):
    pass

class Boat(Vehicle):
    def move(self):
        print("Sail!")

class Plane(Vehicle):
    def move(self):
        print("Fly!")

```

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```

car1 = Car("Ford", "Mustang") #Create a Car object
boat1 = Boat("Ibiza", "Touring 20") #Create a Boat
object
plane1 = Plane("Boeing", "747") #Create a Plane
object

for x in (car1, boat1, plane1):
    print(x.brand)
    print(x.model)
    x.move()

```

Ford
Mustang
Move!
Ibiza
Touring 20
Sail!
Boeing
747
Fly!

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Python JSON

JSON is a syntax for storing and exchanging data.
JSON is text, written with JavaScript object notation.

JSON in Python

Python has a built-in package called `json`, which can be used to work with JSON data.

Example

Import the json module:

```
import json
```

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Parse JSON - Convert from JSON to Python

If you have a JSON string, you can parse it by using the `json.loads()` method.

Example

Convert from JSON to Python:

```
import json

# some JSON:
x = '{ "name":"John", "age":30, "city":"New York"}'

# parse x:
y = json.loads(x)

# the result is a Python dictionary:
print(y["age"])
```

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What is PIP?

PIP is a package manager for Python packages, or modules if you like.

What is a Package?

A package contains all the files you need for a module.
Modules are Python code libraries you can include in your project.

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Check if PIP is Installed

Navigate your command line to the location of Python's script directory, and type the following:

Example

Check PIP version:

```
C:\Users\Your Name\AppData\Local\Programs\Python\Python36-32\Scripts>pip --version
```

Install PIP

If you do not have PIP installed, you can download and install it from this page: <https://pypi.org/project/pip/>

Download a Package

Downloading a package is very easy.

Open the command line interface and tell PIP to download the package you want.

Navigate your command line to the location of Python's script directory, and type the following:

Example

Download a package named "camelcase":

```
C:\Users\Your Name\AppData\Local\Programs\Python\Python36-32\Scripts>pip install camelcase
```

Using a Package

Once the package is installed, it is ready to use.

Import the "camelcase" package into your project.

Example

Import and use "camelcase":

```
import camelcase
c = camelcase.CamelCase()
txt = "hello world"
print(c.hump(txt))
```

Remove a Package

Use the `uninstall` command to remove a package:

Example

Uninstall the package named "camelcase":

```
C:\Users\Your Name\AppData\Local\Programs\Python\Python36-32\Scripts>pip uninstall camelcase
```

The PIP Package Manager will ask you to confirm that you want to remove the camelcase package:

```
Uninstalling camelcase-0.2.1:
Would remove:
  c:\users\Your Name\appdata\local\programs\python\python36-32\lib\site-packages\camelcase-0.2-py3.6.egg-info
  c:\users\Your Name\appdata\local\programs\python\python36-32\lib\site-packages\camelcase\*
Proceed (y/n)?
```

Press `y` and the package will be removed.

List Packages

Use the `list` command to list all the packages installed on your system:

Example

List installed packages:

```
C:\Users\Your Name\AppData\Local\Programs\Python\Python36-32\Scripts>pip list
```

Result:

Package	Version
<hr/>	
camelcase	0.2
mysql-connector	2.1.6
pip	18.1
pymongo	3.6.1
setuptools	39.0.1