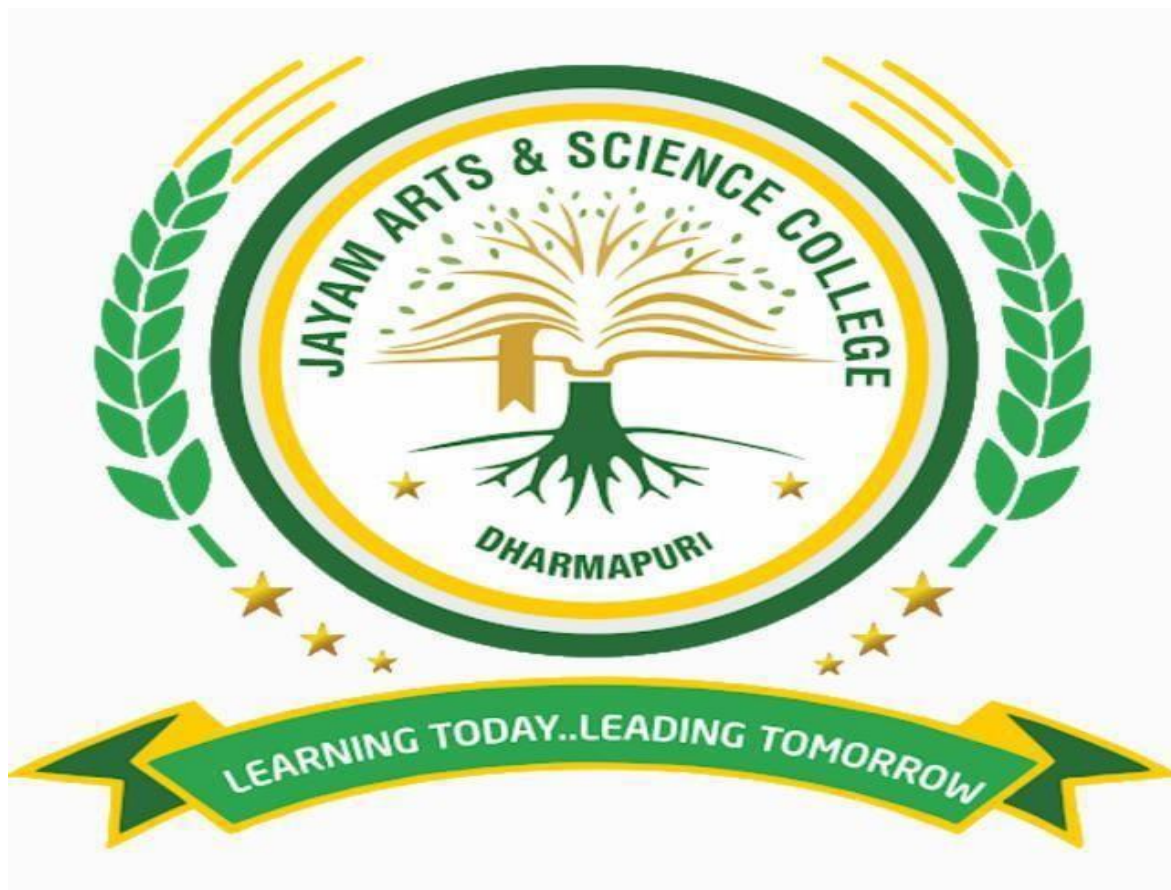


JAYAM ARTS AND SCIENCE COLLEGE

DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTERSCIENCE



COURSE : III B.SC -CS

PAPERCODE : 21UCS10

PAPER NAME : PROGRAMMING IN PYTHON

SEMESTER : VI

Subject Title	PROGRAMMING IN PYTHON	Semester	VI	
Subject Code	21UCS10	Specialization	NA	
Type	Core: Theory	L:T:P:C	86:6:0:5	
Unit	Contents		Levels	Sessions
I	Python – origins – features – variable and assignment - Python basics – statement and syntax – Identifiers – Basic style guidelines–Python objects–Standard types and other built-in types – Internal types – Standard type operators –Standard type built-in functions.		K1	13
II	Numbers – Introduction to Numbers – Integers – Double precision floating point numbers – Complex numbers – Operators–Numeric type functions–Sequences: Strings, Lists and Tuples – Sequences – Strings and strings operators – String built-in methods – Lists – List type Built in Methods – Tuples.		K2	13
III	Mapping type: Dictionaries – Mapping type operators –Mapping type Built-in and Factory Functions - Mapping type built in methods – Conditionals and loops – if statement – else Statement – elif statement – conditional expression – while statement – for statement – break statement –continue statement – pass statement – Iterators and the iter() function - Files and Input/Output–File objects–File built-in functions–File built-in methods – File built-in attributes – Standard files – command line arguments.		K3	20
IV	Functions and Functional Programming – Functions–calling functions – creating functions – passing functions – Built-in Functions: apply(), filter(), map() and reduce()-Modules– Modules and Files – Modules built-in functions - classes – class attributes – Instances.		K4	20
V	Database Programming – Introduction - Basic Database Operations and SQL-Example of using Database Adapters, Mysql- Regular Expression –Special Symbols and Characters – REs and Python.		K5	20
	Learning Resources			
Text Books	Title of Book Publisher Year of Publication I Wesley J. Chun Core Python Programming Pearson Education Publication 2012			
Reference Books	1. Wesley J. Chun Core Python Application Programming Pearson Education Publication 2015 2. Eric Matthes Python crash course William pollock 2016 3. Zed Shaw Learn Python the hard way Addison Wesley 2017 4. Mark Lutz Python pocket reference O'Reilly Media 2014 Pedagogy			
Website/ Link	1. https://www.tutorialspoint.com/python/ 2. www.spoken-tutorial.org			

UNIT-I

Python

Today, Python is one of the most popular programming languages. Although it is a general-purpose language, it is used in various areas of applications such as Machine Learning, Artificial Intelligence, web development, IoT, and more.

What is Python?

Python is a very popular general-purpose interpreted, interactive, object-oriented, and high-level programming language. Python is dynamically-typed and garbage-collected programming language. It was created by Guido van Rossum during 1985- 1990. Like Perl, Python source code is also available under the GNU General Public License (GPL).

Python supports multiple programming paradigms, including Procedural, Object Oriented and Functional programming language. Python design philosophy emphasizes code readability with the use of significant indentation.

some of the **key advantages** of learning Python:

- **Python is Interpreted**—Python is processed at runtime by the interpreter. You do not need to compile your program before executing it. This is similar to PERL and PHP.
- **Python is Interactive**—You can actually sit at a Python prompt and interact with the interpreter directly to write your programs.
- **Python is Object-Oriented**—Python supports Object-Oriented style or technique of programming that encapsulates code within objects.
- **Python is a Beginner's Language**—Python is a great language for the beginner-level programmers and supports the development of a wide range of applications from simple text processing to WWW browsers to games.

Characteristics of Python:-

Following are important characteristics of **Python Programming**—

- It supports functional and structured programming methods as well as OOP.
- It can be used as a scripting language or can be compiled to byte-code for building large applications.

- It provides very high-level dynamic data types and supports dynamic type checking.
- It supports automatic garbage collection.
- It can be easily integrated with C, C++, COM, ActiveX, CORBA, and Java.

Applications of Python:-

The latest release of Python is 3.x. As mentioned before, Python is one of the most widely used language over the web. I'm going to list few of them here:

- **Easy-to-learn**—Python has few keywords, simple structure, and a clearly defined syntax. This allows the student to pick up the language quickly.
- **Easy-to-read**—Python code is more clearly defined and visible to the eyes.
- **Easy-to-maintain**—Python's source code is fairly easy-to-maintain.
- **A broad standard library**—Python's bulk of the library is very portable and cross-platform compatible on UNIX, Windows, and Macintosh.
- **Interactive Mode**—Python has support for an interactive mode which allows interactive testing and debugging of snippets of code.
- **Portable**—Python can run on a wide variety of hardware platforms and has the same interface on all platforms.
- **Extendable**—You can add low-level modules to the Python interpreter. These modules enable programmers to add to or customize their tools to be more efficient.
- **Databases**—Python provides interfaces to all major commercial databases.
- **GUI Programming**—Python supports GUI applications that can be created and ported to many system calls, libraries and window systems, such as Windows MFC, Macintosh, and the X Window system of Unix.
- **Scalable**—Python provides a better structure and support for large programs than shell scripting.

ORIGINS

Guido Van Rossum, a Dutch programmer, created Python programming language. In the late 80's, he had been working on the development of ABC language in a computer science research institute named **Centrum Wiskunde & Informatica (CWI)** in the Netherlands. In 1991, Van Rossum conceived and published Python as a successor of ABC language.

For many uninitiated people, the word Python is related to a species of snake. Rossum though attributes the choice of the name Python to a popular comedy series **Monty Python's Flying Circus** on BBC.

Being the principal architect of Python, the developer community conferred upon him the title of **Benevolent Dictator for Life** (BDFL). However, in 2018, Rossum relinquished the title. Thereafter, the development and distribution of the reference implementation of Python is handled by a nonprofit organization **Python Software Foundation**.

Major Python Releases

Following are the important stages in the history of Python

Python 0.9.0

Python's first published version is 0.9. It was released in February 1991. It consisted of support for core object-oriented programming principles.

Python 1.0

In January 1994, version 1.0 was released, armed with functional programming tools, features like support for complex numbers etc.

Python 2.0

Next major version – Python 2.0 was launched in October 2000. Many new features such as list comprehension, garbage collection and Unicode support were included with it.

Python 3.0

Python 3.0, a completely revamped version of Python was released in December 2008. The primary objective of this revamp was to remove a lot of discrepancies that had crept in Python 2.x versions. Python 3 was backported to Python 2.6. It also included a utility named as **python2to3** to facilitate automatic translation of Python 2 code to Python 3.

EOL for Python 2.x

Even after the release of Python 3, Python Software Foundation continued to support the Python 2 branch with incremental microversion until 2019. However, it decided to discontinue the support by the end of year 2020, at which time Python 2.7.17 was the last version in the branch.

Current Version

More and more features have been incorporated into Python's 3.x branch. As of date, Python 3.11.2 is the current stable version, released in February 2023.

What's New in Python 3.11?

One of the most important features of Python's version 3.11 is the significant improvement in speed. According to Python's official documentation, this version is faster than the previous version (3.10) by up to 60%. It also states that the standard benchmark suite shows a 25% faster execution rate.

- Python 3.11 has a better exception messaging. Instead of generating a long traceback on the occurrence of an exception, we now get the exact expression causing the error.
- As per the recommendations of PEP 678, the **add_note()** method is added to the `BaseException` class. You can call this method inside the `except` clause and pass a custom error message.
- It also adds the **cbroot()** function in the **maths** module. It returns the cube root of a given number.
- A new module **tomllib** is added in the standard library. TOML (Tom's Obvious Minimal Language) can be parsed with `tomllib` module function.

FEATURES

Python is a feature-rich high-level, interpreted, interactive and object-oriented scripting language.

Some of the important features of Python that make it widely popular. Apart from these 10 features, there are a number of other interesting features which make Python most of the developer's first choice.

1. Easy to learn

- 2. Interpreter based
- 3. Interactive
- 4. Multi-paradigm
- 1. Largest standard library
- 2. Open source & cross platform
- 3. GUI development
- 4. Database connectivity
- 9. Extensible 10. Developer community

Python is Easy to Learn

One of the most important reasons for the popularity of Python is that it has a limited set of keywords. Its features such as simple syntax, usage of indentation to avoid clutter of curly brackets and dynamic typing that doesn't necessitate prior declaration of variable help a beginner to learn Python quickly and easily.

Python is Interpreter Based

Instructions in any programming language must be translated into machine code for the processor to execute them. Programming languages are either compiler based or interpreter based.

In case of a compiler, a machine language version of the entire source program is generated. The conversion fails even if there is a single erroneous statement. Hence, the development process is tedious for the beginners. The C family languages (including C, C++, Java, C Sharp etc) are compiler based.

Python is an interpreter based language. The interpreter takes one instruction from the source code at a time, translates it into machine code and executes it. Instructions before the first occurrence of error are re-executed. With this feature, it is easy to debug the program and thus proves useful for the beginner level programmer to gain confidence gradually. Python therefore is a beginner-friendly language.

Python is Interactive

Standard Python distribution comes with an interactive shell that works on the principle of REPL (Read – Evaluate – Print – Loop). The shell presents a Python prompt `>>>`. You can type any valid Python expression and press Enter. Python interpreter immediately returns the response and the prompt comes back to read the next expression.

```
>>>2*3+1
7
>>>print("HelloWorld")
HelloWorld
```

The interactive mode is especially useful to get familiar with a library and test out its functionality. You can try out small code snippets in interactive mode before writing a program.

Python is MultiParadigm

Python is a completely object-oriented language. Everything in a Python program is an object. However, Python conveniently encapsulates its object orientation to be used as an imperative or procedural language – such as C. Python also provides certain functionality that resembles functional programming. Moreover, certain third-party tools have been developed to support other programming paradigms such as aspect-oriented and logic programming.

Python's Standard Library

It has a very few keywords (only Thirty Five), Python software is distributed with a standard library made of a large number of modules and packages. Thus Python has out of box support for programming needs such as serialization, data compression, internet data handling, and many more. Python is known for its batteries included approach.

Python is Open Source and Cross Platform

Python's standard distribution can be downloaded from <https://www.python.org/downloads/> without any restrictions. You can download pre-compiled binaries for various operating system platforms. In addition, the source code is also freely available, which is why it comes under open source category.

Python software (along with the documentation) is distributed under Python Software Foundation License. It is a BSD style permissive software license and compatible to GNU GPL (General Public License).

Python is a cross-platform language. Pre-compiled binaries are available for use on various operating system platforms such as Windows, Linux, MacOS, Android OS. The reference implementation of Python is called CPython and is written in C. You can download the source code and compile it for your OS platform.

A Python program is first compiled to an intermediate platform independent byte code. The virtual machine inside the interpreter then executes the byte code. This behaviour makes Python a cross-platform language, and thus a Python program can be easily ported from one OS platform to other.

Python for GUI Applications

Python's standard distribution has an excellent graphics library called TKinter. It is a Python port for the vastly popular GUI toolkit called TCL/Tk. You can build attractive user-friendly GUI applications in Python. GUI toolkits are generally written in C/C++. Many of them have been ported to Python. Examples are PyQt, WxWidgets, PySimpleGUI etc.

Python's Database Connectivity

Almost any type of database can be used as a backend with the Python application. DB-API is a set of specifications for database driver software to let Python communicate with a relational database. With many third-party libraries, Python can also work with NoSQL databases such as MongoDB.

Python is Extensible

The term extensibility implies the ability to add new features or modify existing features. As stated earlier, CPython (which is Python's reference implementation) is written in C. Hence one can easily write modules/libraries in C and incorporate them in the standard library. There are other implementations of Python such as Jython (written in Java) and IPython (written in C#). Hence, it is possible to write and merge new functionality in these implementations with Java and C# respectively.

Python's Active Developer Community

As a result of Python's popularity and open-source nature, a large number of Python developers often interact with online forums and conferences. Python Software

Foundation also has a significant member base, involved in the organization's mission to **"Promote, Protect, and Advance the Python Programming Language"**

Python also enjoys a significant institutional support. Major IT companies Google, Microsoft, and Meta contribute immensely by preparing documentation and other resources.

VARIABLE AND ASSIGNMENT

Python Variables

A Python variable is a named bit of computer memory, keeping track of a value as the code runs.

A variable is created with an "assignment" equals sign =, with the variable's name on the left and the value it should store on the right:

```
x=42
```

In the computer's memory, each variable is like a box, identified by the name of the variable. In the box is a pointer to the current value for that variable.



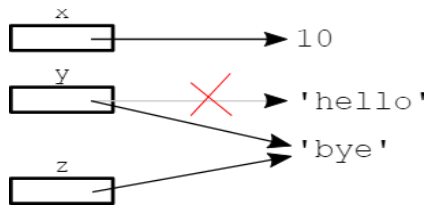
Later in the code, appearances of that variable name, e.g. `x`, retrieve its current value, in this case 42. The use of the variable name in the code does not have quotes around it or anything. The variable name `x` is just a bare word in the code.

Trying to retrieve the value of a variable that does not exist fails with an error (i.e. no = ever assigned that variable name).

Variable Assignment Rules

Here is a more complicated code example and a picture of memory after this code runs.

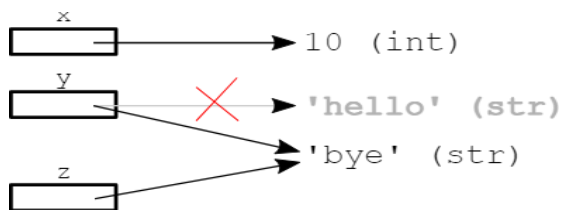
```
x=10
y='hello'
y='bye'
z=y
```



1. The assignment `x=10` simply sets `x` to point to 10.
2. The assignment `y='hello'` sets `y` to point to 'hello'. Then the line `y='bye'` changes `y` to point to 'bye', overwriting the first pointer. Assigning a variable overwrites any existing pointer that variable had. Each assignment is like the phrase "now point to"—the variable now points to the new thing, and any previous setting is forgotten.
3. Assignment between two variables like `z= y`, sets `z` to point to the same thing as `y`. Now they both point to the same value. It does not set one variable to point to the other variable, although the code does kind of look like that. It also does not set up a permanent relationship between the variables, like they must always be the same now. Confusingly, in mathematics writing the symbol `=` does set up a permanent relationship. In code, `z = y` has a very limited meaning: set `z` to point to what `y` points to at this moment.

Every Value has a Type

Here is the same picture as above, but with more detail added.



In Python, every value in memory is tagged with its "type" - so we see the integer 10 has a little (int) off to its side —int is the name of the integer type in Python. The string 'hello' is tagged with str which is the name of the string type.

As Python runs, many operations depend on this feature, treating a value appropriately depending on its type. See here how the `+` operator behaves differently if it is given int vs. str values:

```

>>> 1 + 2      # int values
3
>>> 'a' + 'b'  # str values

```

```
'ab'  
>>>'3' + '4'    #strthatlooklikeint  
'34'
```

Memory and the Garbage Collector

The string 'hello' in the example above is shown in gray. It is not needed by the code after the third line runs — no variable points to it any longer, so it cannot be used.

Memory like this, which is no longer accessible, is called "garbage" in computer code. A "garbage collector" is a system that reclaims garbage memory, such as 'hello' here, so its memory can be re-used to hold a new value. This is something Python does automatically behind the scenes. The garbage collector slows the running of the code down a little.

Many modern languages have a garbage collector to reclaim garbage memory automatically. A few languages instead make the programmer identify garbage memory on their own - this has the potential to run fast, but it is a chore for the programmer and a big source of bugs when the programmer mis-identifies garbage memory. The design of Python prioritizes programmer productivity, so it is natural that Python includes a garbage collector.

Variable Swap

We have two variables and we want to "swap" their values, so each takes on the value of the other.

This is a little coding move that all programmers should know.

```
a= 42  
b=13
```

It might seem that one can begin with `a=b`, but this does not work, since it overwrites and thus loses the original value of `a`. The classic 3-line solution uses a temporary variable named "temp" to hold this value during the swap, like this:

```
temp=a  
a= b  
b= temp
```

Starting with the above diagram, you can trace through the three assignments, leading to this memory structure

Variable Names are Superficial Labels

Normally variable names are chosen to reflect what data they contain. That said, there is one funny feature of variable names in code.

Consider the following computation

```
>>>x=6
>>>y=x+x
>>>y
12
```

Using a couple variables, it computes that doubling 6 makes 12. Suppose instead it was written this way:

```
>>>alice=6
>>>bob=alice+alice
>>>bob
12
```

PYTHON

BASIC STATEMENTS AND

SYNTAX STATEMENT

Any instruction written in the source code and executed by the Python interpreter is called a statement. The Python language has many different types of statements like assignment statements, conditional statements, looping statements, etc., that help a programmer get the desired output.

For example, `p=9`; is an assignment statement.

Python Statement

A conditional statement is a logical expression where operators compare, evaluate, or check if the input meets the conditions and returns 'True'. If yes, the interpreter executes a specific set of instructions. On the other hand, looping statements repeatedly execute a set of instructions as long as the defined conditions are met or satisfied.

Multiline Statements

Usually, we use the newline character (`\n`) to end a Python statement. However, if you want to expand your code over multiple lines, like when you want to do long calculations and can't fit your statements into one line, you can use the continuation character (`\`).

COPYCODE

```
s=10+15+30+ \  
    49+5 +57 + \  
    3- 54-2
```

Another way to create multiline statements is to use parentheses `()`, braces `{ }`, square brackets `[]`, or even a semi-colon `;`. While the continuation character marks an obvious line continuation, the other multiline methods simply continue indirectly.

COPYCODE

```
s=(10+15+30+  
    49+5 +57 +  
    3- 54-2)  
  
p=['Hello',  
   'welcome',  
   'to Python']  
  
x =5;p= 83;o= 7
```

We use semicolons to place multiple statements in one line.

SYNTAX

syntax defines a set of rules that are used to create a Python Program. The Python Programming Language Syntax has many similarities to Perl, C, and Java Programming Languages. However, there are some defined differences between the languages.

It supports multiple programming paradigms, including structured, object-oriented programming, and functional programming, and boasts a dynamic type system and automatic memory management.

Python's syntax is simple and consistent, adhering to the principle that "There should be one—and preferably only one—obvious way to do it." The language incorporates built-in data types and structures, control flow mechanisms, first-class functions, and modules for better code reusability and organization. Python also uses English keywords where other languages use punctuation, contributing to its uncluttered visual layout.

The language provides robust error handling through exceptions, and includes a debugger in the standard library for efficient problem-solving. Python's syntax, designed for readability and ease of use, makes it a popular choice among beginners and professionals alike.

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\YourName>pythonmyfile.py
```

Python Indentation

Indentation refers to the spaces at the beginning of a code line.

Wherein 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!")
```

give you an error if you skip the indentation:

Example

SyntaxError:

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

The number of spaces is up to you as a programmer, the most common use is four, but it has to be at least one.

Example

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

You have to use the same number of spaces in the same block of code, otherwise Python will give you an error:

Example

SyntaxError:

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

IDENTIFIERS

Identifiers in Python

Identifier is a user-defined name given to a variable, function, class, module, etc. The identifier is a combination of character digits and an underscore. They are case-sensitive i.e., 'num' and 'Num' and 'NUM' are three different identifiers in python. It is a good programming practice to give meaningful names to identifiers to make the code understandable. The identifier name must be unique.

Rules for Naming Python Identifiers

- Identifier must be unique
- It cannot be a reserved python keyword.
- It should not contain whitespace.
- It can be a combination of A-Z, a-z, 0-9, or underscore.
- It should start with an alphabet character or an underscore(_).
- It should not contain any special character other than an underscore(_).

Examples of Python Identifiers

Valid identifiers:

- *var1*
- *_var1*
- *_1_var*
- *var_1*
- *myFunc1*
- *stdnt_name*
- *_check*
- *ValidNumber*

Invalid Identifiers

- *!var1*
- *lvar*
- *1_var*
- *var#1*
- *var1*
- *1number-satrtswithnumber*
- *Studentname-blankspace*
- *Totalamount\$-specialcharacter*

BASIC STYLE GUIDELINES

coding and applying logic is the foundation of any programming language but there's also another factor that every coder must keep in mind while coding and that is the coding style

Python maintains a strict way of order and format of scripting.

Sometimes mandatory and is a great help on the user's end, to understand. Making it easy for others to read code is always a good idea, and adopting a nice coding style helps tremendously for that.

For Python, **PEP 8** has emerged as the style guide that most projects adhere to; it promotes a very readable and eye-pleasing coding style. Every Python developer should read it at some point; here are the most important points extracted for you:

1. Use 4-space indentation and not tabs.

Examples:

Aligned with opening delimiter.

```
grow = function_name(variable_one, variable_two,  
                      variable_three, variable_four)
```

First line contains no argument. Second line onwards

more indentation included to distinguish this from

the rest.

```
def function_name(  
    variable_one, variable_two, variable_three,  
    variable_four):  
    print(variable_one)
```

The 4-space rule is not always mandatory and can be overruled for continuation line.

2. Use docstrings : There are both single and multi-line docstrings that can be used in Python. However, the single line comment fits in one line, triple quotes are used in both cases. These are used to define a particular program or define a particular function.

Example:

```
def exam():
```

```
    """This is single linedocstring"""
```

```

"""This is
a
multiline comment"""

```

3. Wrap lines so that they don't exceed 79 characters : The Python standard library is conservative and requires limiting lines to 79 characters. The lines can be wrapped using parenthesis, brackets, and braces. They should be used in preference to backslashes.

Example:

```

with open('/path/from/where/you/want/to/read/file') as file_one, \
    open('/path/where/you/want/the/file/to/be/written', 'w') as file_two:
    file_two.write(file_one.read())

```

4. Use of regular and updated comments are valuable to both the coders and users : There are also various types and conditions that if followed can be of great help from programs and users point of view. Comments should form complete sentences. If a comment is a full sentence, its first word should be capitalized, unless it is an identifier that begins with a lowercase letter. In short comments, the period at the end can be omitted. In block comments, there are more than one paragraphs and each sentence must end with a period. Block comments and inline comments can be written followed by a single '#'.

Example of inline comments:

```

geek = geek + 1           # Increment

```

5. Use of trailing commas : This is not mandatory except while making a tuple.

Example:

```

tup = ("geek",)

```

5. Use Python's default *UTF-8* or *ASCII* encodings and not any fancy encodings, if it is meant for international environment.

6. Use spaces around operators and after commas, but not directly inside bracketing constructs:

```

a = f(1, 2) + g(3, 4)

```

7. Naming Conventions : There are few naming conventions that should be followed in order to make the program less complex and more readable. At the same time, the naming conventions in Python is a bit of mess, but here are few conventions that can be followed easily.

There is an overriding principle that follows that the names that are visible to the user as public parts of API should follow conventions that reflect usage rather than

implementation.

Here are a few other naming conventions:

b (single lowercase letter)

B (single upper case letter)

lowercase

lower_case_with_underscores

UPPERCASE

UPPER_CASE_WITH_UNDERSCORES

CapitalizedWords (or CamelCase). This is also sometimes known as StudlyCaps.

Note: While using abbreviations in CapWords, capitalize all the letters

of the abbreviation. Thus `HTTPServerError` is better than `HttpServerError`.

`mixedCase` (differs from `CapitalizedWords` by initial lowercase character!)

`Capitalized_Words_With_Underscores`

In addition to these few leading or trailing underscores are also considered.

Examples:

single_leading_underscore: weak “internal use” indicator. E.g. `from M import *` does not import objects whose name starts with an underscore.

single_trailing_underscore_: used to avoid conflicts with Python keyword.

Example:

`Tkinter.Toplevel(master, class_='ClassName')`

__double_leading_underscore: when naming a class attribute, invokes name mangling.

(inside class `FooBar`, `__boo` becomes `_FooBar__boo`);).

double_leading_and_trailing_underscore: “magic” objects or attributes that live in user-controlled namespaces. E.g. `init`, `importor` `file`. Only use them as documented.

8. Characters that should not be used for identifiers : ‘l’ (lowercase letter el), ‘O’ (uppercase letter oh), or ‘I’ (uppercase letter eye) as single character variable names as these are similar to the numerals one and zero.

9. Don’t use non-ASCII characters in identifiers if there is only the slightest chance people speaking a different language will read or maintain the code.

10. Name your classes and functions consistently: The convention is to use **CamelCase** for classes and **lower_case_with_underscores** for functions and methods. Always use **self** as the name for the first method argument.

PYTHON OBJECTS

An **Object** is an instance of a Class. A class is like a blueprint while an instance is a copy of the class with actual values. Python is an object-oriented programming language that stresses objects

Python Objects are basically an encapsulation of data variables and methods acting on that data into a single entity

Syntax:

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

Instance defining represent memory allocation necessary for storing the actual data of variables

Creating a Python Object

Working of the Program: Audi=Cars()

- A block of memory is allocated on the heap. The size of memory allocated is decided by the attributes and methods available in that class(Cars).
- After the memory block is allocated, the special method __init__() is called internally. Initial data is stored in the variables through this method.
- The location of the allocated memory address of the instance is returned to the object(Cars).
- The memory location is passed to self.

- class Cars:
- def __init__(self,m,p):
- self.model=m
- self.price=p
-
- Audi=Cars("R8",100000)

-
- `print(Audi.model)`
- `print(Audi.price)`

Output:

R8

100000

AccessingClassMemberUsingObject:

Variables and methods of a class are accessible by using class objects or instances in Python.

Syntax:

`obj_name.var_name`

`Audi.model`

`obj_name.method_name()`

`Audi.ShowModel();`

`obj_name.method_name(parameter_list)`

`Audi.ShowModel(100);`

Example1:

```
classCar:#ClassVariable vehicle
```

```
    = 'car'
```

```
    #Theinitmethodorconstructor
```

```
    def __init__(self, model):
```

```
# Instance Variable

self.model=model

#Addsaninstancevariable

def setprice(self, price):

    self.price=price

    #Retrievesinstancevariable def

getprice(self):

    returnself.price

# Driver Code

Audi = Car("R8")

Audi.setprice(1000000)

print(Audi.getprice())
```

Output:

1000000

Example2:

DeletinganObjectinPython:

PythonObjectpropertycanbedeletedbyusingthedelkeyword:

Syntax:

delobj_name.property

objectsalsocanbedeletedbydelkeyword:

Syntax:

delobj_name

STANDARDTYPESANDOTHERBUILT-INTYPES

The data stored in memory can be of many types.

For example, a person's age is stored as a numeric value and his or her address is stored as alphanumeric characters. Python has various standard data types that are used to define the operations possible on them and the storage method for each of them.

Python has five standard data types—

- **Numbers**
- **String**
- **List**
- **Tuple**
- **Dictionary**

Python Numbers

Number data types store numeric values. Number objects are created when you assign a value to them. For example –

var1=1

```
var2=10
```

PythonStrings

Strings in Python are identified as a contiguous set of characters represented in the quotation marks. Python allows for either pairs of single or double quotes. Subsets of strings can be taken using the slice operator ([] and [:]) with indexes starting at 0 in the beginning of the string and working their way from -1 at the end.

PythonLists

Lists are the most versatile of Python's compound data types. A list contains items separated by commas and enclosed within square brackets ([]). To some extent, lists are similar to arrays in C. One difference between them is that all the items belonging to a list can be of different data type.

PythonTuples

A tuple is another sequence data type that is similar to the list. A tuple consists of a number of values separated by commas. Unlike lists, however, tuples are enclosed within parentheses.

PythonDictionary

Python's dictionaries are kind of hash table type. They work like associative arrays or hashes found in Perl and consist of key-value pairs. A dictionary key can be almost any Python type, but are usually numbers or strings. Values, on the other hand, can be any arbitrary Python object.

Built-inDataTypesinPython

TherearedifferenttypesofdatatypesinPython.Somebuilt-inPythondatatypesare

—

- Numericdatatypes—int,float,complex

- String datatypes—str
- Sequence types—list, tuple, range
- Binary types—bytes, bytearray, memoryview
- Mapping datatype—dict
- Boolean type—bool
- Set datatypes—set, frozenset

Python Numeric Data types

In Python, the numeric datatype is used to hold numeric values.

Integers, floating-point, and complex numbers fall under the Python numbers category. They are defined as int, float, and complex classes in Python.

- **int**—holds signed integers of non-limited length.
- **float**—holds floating decimal points, and it's accurate up to 15 decimal places.
- **complex**—holds complex numbers.

Python String Data type

A string is a collection of Unicode symbols. The name for String in Python is str. Single or double quotations are used to represent strings. The use of triple quotes "" or "" to indicate multiple strings is acceptable. Between the quotations, every character is a part of the string.

The only restriction is the machine system's memory resources, which one may use as many characters as they like. In Python programming, deleting or updating a string will result in an error. As a result, the Python programming language does not permit the alteration of strings.

Python Sequence Datatypes

- **List**—The list is a flexible data type only available in Python. It resembles the array in C/C++ in certain ways. However, the list in Python is noteworthy

because it can store many sorts of data simultaneously. A list is an ordered collection of information expressed using commas and square brackets ([]). (,).

- **Tuple**– The list and a tuple are comparable in many respects. Tuples hold a collection of elements of various data kinds, much like lists do. The tuple's components are separated by commas (,) and parenthesized (). Due to the inability to change the elements' size and value, tuples are read-only data structures.
- **Range**– The range() method in Python returns a list of integers that fall inside a specified range. It is most frequently used to iterate over a series of integers using Python loops.

PythonDataBinarytypes

- **bytes**– A bytes object results from the bytes() function. It can produce empty byteobjectsofthedesiredsizeor transformitemsintobyteobjects.Bytes() and bytearray() return different types of objects: bytes() returns an immutable object, whereas bytearray() returns an alterable object.
- **bytearray**– The bytearray object, an array of the specified bytes, is returnedby the bytearray() function. A modifiable series of numbers from 0 to x to 256 is provided.
- **memoryview**– Python programs may access an object's internal data that implements the buffer protocol using memoryview objects without copying. The byte-oriented data of an object may be read and written directly without copying it using the memoryview() method.

PythonMappingDatatype

- **dict**– **Adictionary in Python** is a collection of data items that are stored in an unordered fashion, much like a map. Dictionaries are made up of key-value pairs, as contrast to other data types, which can only contain a single value. Key-value pairs are included in the dictionary to increase its efficiency. A comma "separates each key," whereas each key-value pair in the representation of a dictionary data type is separated by a colon.

PythonBooleanDatatype

- **bool**– True and False are the two pre-built values the boolean type offers. The provided statement's truth or falsity is determined using these values. It's identified by the bool class. Any non-zero integer or the letter "T" can be used to denote truth, while the number "0" or the letter "F" can denote falsehood.

Python Set Datatypes

- **set**– The data type's unordered collection is called a **Python Set**. It has components that are unique, iterable, and changeable (may change after creation). The order of the items in a set is ambiguous; it can yield the element's modified sequence. Use the built-in method set() to build the set, or give a list of elements enclosed in curly braces and separated by commas. It may include several kinds of values.
- **frozenset**– The frozenset() method returns an immutable frozenset object whose initial elements are taken from the supplied iterable. A frozen set is an immutable version of a Python set object. The elements of a set can be altered at any time, but once a frozen set has been created, its elements cannot be altered.

INTERNAL TYPES

STANDARD TYPE OPERATORS

Operators in general are used to perform operations on values and variables. These are standard symbols used for the purpose of logical and arithmetic operations. In this article, we will look into different types of **Python operators**.

- **OPERATORS**: These are the special symbols. Eg - +, *, /, etc.
- **OPERAND**: It is the value on which the operator is applied.

Types of Operators in Python

1. [Arithmetic Operators](#)
2. [Comparison Operators](#)
3. [Logical Operators](#)
4. [Bitwise Operators](#)
5. [Assignment Operators](#)
6. [Identity Operators and Membership Operators](#)

Arithmetic Operators in Python

Python [Arithmetic operators](#) are used to perform basic mathematical operations like **addition**, **subtraction**, **multiplication**, and **division**.

Operator	Description	Syntax
+	Addition: adds two operands	$x+y$
-	Subtraction: subtracts two operands	$x-y$
*	Multiplication: multiplies two operands	$x*y$
/	Division (float): divides the first operand by the second	x/y
//	Division (floor): divides the first operand by the second	$x//y$
%	Modulus: returns the remainder when the first operand is divided by the second	$x\%y$

Operator	Description	Syntax
	second	
**	Power:Returnsfirst	x**y

Comparison Operators in Python

In Python Comparison of Relational operators compares the values. It either returns **True** or **False** according to the condition.

Operator	Description	Syntax
>	Greater than: True if the left operand is greater than the right	x>y
<	Less than: True if the left operand is less than the right	x<y
==	Equal to: True if both operands are equal	x==y
!=	Not equal to – True if operands are not equal	x!=y
>=	Greater than or equal to True if the left operand is greater than or equal to	x>=y

Operator	Description	Syntax
	theright	
<=	Less than or equal to True if the left operand is less than or equal to the right	x<=y

=isanassignmentoperatorand==comparisonoperator.

PrecedenceofComparisonOperatorsinPython

In python, the comparison operators have lower precedence than the arithmetic operators. All the operators within comparison operators have same precedence order.

ExampleofComparisonOperatorsinPython

Let'sseeanexampleofComparisonOperatorsinPython.

Example: The code compares the values of 'a'and 'b'using various comparison operators and prints the results. It checks if 'a'is greater than, less than, equal to, not equal to, greater than or equal to, and less than or equal to 'b'.

- Python3

```
a= 13
```

```
b=33
```

```
print(a > b)
```

```
print(a < b)
```

```
print(a==b)
```



```
print(a != b)
```

```
print(a>=b)
```

```
print(a<=b)
```

Output

False

True

False

True

False

True

Logical Operators in Python

Python [Logical operators](#) perform **Logical AND**, **Logical OR**, and **Logical NOT** operations. It is used to combine conditional statements.

Operator	Description	Syntax
and	Logical AND: True if both the operands are true	xandy
or	Logical OR: True if either of the operands is true	xory
not	Logical NOT: True if the operand is false	notx

Precedence of Logical Operators in Python

The precedence of Logical Operators in Python is as follows:

1. Logical not
2. logical and
3. logical or

Example of Logical Operators in Python

The following code shows how to implement Logical Operators in

Python: **Example:** The code performs logical operations with Boolean values. It checks if both 'a' and 'b' are true ('**and**'), if at least one of them is true ('**or**'), and negates the value of 'a' using '**not**'. The results are printed accordingly.

- Python3

```
a= True

b = False

print(a and b)

print(a or b)

print(not a)
```

Output

```
False
True
False
```

Bitwise Operators in Python

Python [Bitwise operators](#) act on bits and perform bit-by-bit operations. These are used to operate on binary numbers.

Operator	Description	Syntax
&	BitwiseAND	x&y
	BitwiseOR	x y
~	BitwiseNOT	~x
^	BitwiseXOR	x^y
>>	Bitwiserightshift	x>>
<<	Bitwiseleftshift	x<<

PrecedenceofBitwiseOperatorsinPython

TheprecedenceofBitwiseOperatorsinpythonisasfollows:

1. BitwiseNOT
2. BitwiseShift
3. BitwiseAND
4. BitwiseXOR
5. BitwiseOR

BitwiseOperatorsinPython

HereisanexampleshowinghowBitwiseOperatorsinPythonwork:

Example:Thecodedemonstratesvariousbitwiseoperationswiththevalues of 'a'and 'b'. It performs bitwise **AND (&)**, **OR (|)**, **NOT (~)**, **XOR (^)**, **right shift (>>)**, and **left shift (<<)** operations and prints the results. These operationsmanipulate the binary representations of the numbers.

- Python3

```
a= 10  
  
b = 4  
  
print(a&b)  
  
print(a | b)  
  
print(~a)  
  
print(a ^ b)  
  
print(a>> 2)  
  
print(a<< 2)
```

Output

```
0  
14  
-11  
14  
2  
40
```

Assignment Operators in Python

Python [Assignment operators](#) are used to assign values to the variables.

Operator	Description	Syntax
----------	-------------	--------

Operator	Description	Syntax
=	Assign the value of the right side of the expression to the left side operand	$x=y+z$
+=	Add AND: Add right-side operand with left-side operand and then assign to left operand	$a+=b$ $a=a+b$
-=	Subtract AND: Subtract right operand from left operand and then assign to left operand	$a-=b$ $a=a-b$
=	Multiply AND: Multiply right operand with left operand and then assign to left operand	$a=b$ $a=a*b$
/=	Divide AND: Divide left operand with right operand and then assign to left operand	$a/=b$ $a=a/b$
%=	Modulus AND: Takes modulus using left and right operands and assign	$a\%=b$ $a=a\%b$

Operator	Description	Syntax
	theresulttopleftoperand	
//=	Divide(floor) AND: Divide left operand with right operand and then assign the value(floor) to left operand	a//=b a=a//b
=	Exponent AND: Calculate exponent(raise power) value using operands and assign value to left operand	a=b a=a**b
&=	Performs Bitwise AND on operands and assign value to left operand	a&=b a=a&b
=	Performs Bitwise OR on operands and assign value to left operand	a =b a=a b
^=	Performs Bitwise xOR on operands and assign value to left operand	a^=b a=a^b
>>=	Performs Bitwise right shift on operands and	a>>=b a=a>>b

Operator	Description	Syntax
	assign value to left operand	
<<=	Performs Bitwise left shift on operands and assign value to left operand	a<<=b a=a<<b

Assignment Operators in Python

Let's see an example of Assignment Operators in Python.

Example: The code starts with 'a' and 'b' both having the value 10. It then performs a series of operations: addition, subtraction, multiplication, and a left shift operation on 'b'. The results of each operation are printed, showing the impact of these operations on the value of 'b'.

- Python3

```
a= 10

b = a

print(b)

b += a

print(b)

b -= a

print(b)
```

```
b *= a
```

```
print(b)
```

```
b<<=a
```

```
print(b)
```

Output

10

20

10

100

102400

Identity Operators in Python

In Python, **is** and **is not** are the identity operators both are used to check if two values are located on the same part of the memory. Two variables that are equal do not imply that they are identical.

is True if the operands are identical

is not True if the operands are not identical

Example Identity Operators in Python

Let's see an example of Identity Operators in Python.

Example: The code uses identity operators to compare variables in Python.

It checks if 'a' is not the same object as 'b' (which is true because they have different values) and if 'a' is the same object as 'c' (which is true because 'c' was assigned the value of 'a').

- Python3


```
a= 10
```

```
b=20
```

```
c= a
```

```
print(a is not b)
```

```
print(a is c)
```

Output

True

True

STANDARD TYPE BUILT-IN FUNCTION

Built-in functions that can be applied to all the basic object types: `cmp()`, `repr()`, `str()`, `type()`, and the single reverse or back quotes (") operator, which is functionally-equivalent to `repr()`.

Function Name	Description
<code>abs()</code>	Return the absolute value of a number
<code>aiter()</code>	It takes an asynchronous iterable as an argument and returns an asynchronous iterator for that iterable

Function Name	Description
ascii()	Returns a string containing a printable representation of an object
bool()	Return or convert a value to a Boolean value i.e., True or False
breakpoint()	It is used for dropping into the debugger at the call site during runtime for debugging purposes
bytearray()	Returns a bytearray object which is an array of given bytes
bytes()	Converts an object to an immutable byte-represented object of a given size and data
chr()	Returns a string representing a character whose Unicode code point is an integer
classmethod()	Returns a class method for a given function
compile()	Returns a Python code object
eval()	Parses the expression passed to it and runs Python expression(code) within the program
exec()	Used for the dynamic execution of the program

Function Name	Description
max()	
min()	Returns the smallest item in an iterable or the smallest of two or more arguments
pow()	Computethepowerofanumber
round()	Rounds off to the given number of digits and returns the floating-point number
sum()	Sumsupthenumbersinthelist

abs() Function

The python**abs()**function is used to return the absolute value of a number. It takes only one argument, a number whose absolute value is to be returned. The argument can be an integer and floating-point number. If the argument is a complex number, then, abs() returns its magnitude.

Example

1. #integernumber
2. integer=-20
3. **print**('Absolutevalueof-40is:',abs(integer)) 4.
5. #floating number
6. floating=-20.83
7. **print**('Absolutevalueof-40.83is:',abs(floating))

Output:

```
Absolutevalueof-20is:20
Absolutevalueof-20.83is:20.83
```

ascii()Function

The python**ascii()**function returns a string containing a printable representation of an object and escapes the non-ASCII characters in the string using `\x`, `\u` or `\U` escapes.

Example

1. `normalText='Pythonisinteresting'`
2. `print(ascii(normalText))`
- 3.
4. `otherText='Pythönisinteresting'`
5. `print(ascii(otherText))`
- 6.
7. `print('Pyth\x6fnisinteresting')`

Output:

```
'Python is
interesting'Pyth\x6fnisinterest
ing' Pythön is interesting
```

bool()

The python**bool()**converts a value to boolean(True or False) using the standard truth testing procedure.

Example

1. `test1=[]`
2. `print(test1,'is',bool(test1))`
3. `test1=[0]`
4. `print(test1,'is',bool(test1))`
5. `test1=0.0`
6. `print(test1,'is',bool(test1))`
7. `test1= None`

8. **print**(test1,'is',bool(test1))
9. test1=True
10. **print**(test1,'is',bool(test1))
11. test1='Easystring'
12. **print**(test1,'is',bool(test1))

Output:

```
[]is False  
[0]is True  
0.0 is False  
None is False  
True is True  
Easystring is True
```

eval()Function

The python **eval()** function parses the expression passed to it and runs python expression (code) within the program.

Example

1. x = 8
2. **print**(eval('x+ 1'))

Output:

```
9
```

UNIT-II

NUMBER

Number data types store numeric values. They are immutable data types, which means that changing the value of a number data type results in a newly allocated object.

There are three numeric types in Python:

- int
- float
- complex

Variables of numeric types are recreated 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))
```

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))
```

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))
```

INTRODUCTION TO NUMBERS

- **Int (signed Integer object)** : they are the negative or non-negative numbers with no decimal point. There is no limit on an integer in python. However, the size of the integer is constrained by the amount of the memory your system has.

Python also provides the support for various number systems like binary, hexadecimal, and octal values. To store values in different number systems, consider the following pattern.

Prefix	Interpretation	Base	Example
0b 0B	Binary	2	0b10 = 2 (decimal) 0b1010 = 10 (decimal) 0B101 = 5 (decimal)
0o 0O	Octal	8	0o10 = 8 0o12 = 10 0O132 = decimal
0x 0X	Hexadecimal	16	0xA = 10 0xB = 11 0XBE = 190

- **float (floating point numbers) :**
The float type is used to store the decimal point (floating point) numbers. In python, float may also be written in scientific notation representing the power of 10. for example, 2.5e2 represents the value 250.0.
- **Complex (complex numbers)**
Complex numbers are of the form $a+bj$ where a is the real part of the number and bj is the imaginary part of the number. The imaginary i is nothing but the square root of -1 . It is not as much used in the programming.

DOUBLE PRECISION FLOATING POINT NUMBERS

Double-precision floating-point format (sometimes called **FP64** or **float64**) is a floating-point number format, usually occupying 64 bits in computer memory; it represents a wide dynamic range of numeric values by using a floating radix point.

Double-precision binary floating-point is a commonly used format on PCs, due to its wider range over single-precision floating point, in spite of its performance and bandwidth cost. It is commonly known simply as *double*. standard specifies **binary64** as having:

- Signbit: 1 bit
- Exponent: 11 bits
- Significand and precision: 53 bits (52 explicitly stored)

The sign bit determines the sign of the number (including when this number is zero, which is signed).

The exponent field is an 11-bit unsigned integer from 0 to 2047, in biased form: an exponent value of 1023 represents the actual zero. Exponents range from -1022 to +1023 because exponents of -1023 (all 0s) and +1024 (all 1s) are reserved for special numbers.

NUMERIC TYPE FUNCTIONS

SEQUENCES:-

Sequences are containers with items stored in a deterministic ordering. Each sequence data type comes with its unique capabilities.

There are many types of sequences in Python. Types of

Sequences

Python sequences are of **six types**,

1. Strings
2. Lists
3. Tuples
4. Bytes Sequences
5. Byte Arrays
6. range() objects

Strings in Python

The string is a sequence of Unicode characters written inside a single or double quote. Python does not have any **char** type as in other languages (C, C++), therefore, a single character inside the quotes will be of type **str** only.

1. To declare an **empty string**, use **str()** or it can be defined using empty string inside quotes.

Example of Empty String in Python

```
name="PythonGeeks"
print(name)
```

Output

PythonGeeks

2. Strings are **immutable** data types, therefore once declared, we can't alter the string. Though, we can reassign it to a new string.

Code

```
name =  
"PythonGeeks" print(name[6]  
)#outputs 'G' name[6]='g'#thro  
ws error print(name)
```

Output

G

Lists in Python

Lists are a single storage unit to store multiple data items together. It's a mutable data structure, therefore, once declared, it can still be altered.

A list can hold **strings, numbers, lists, tuples, dictionaries, etc.**

1. To declare a list, either use **list()** or square brackets [], containing comma-separated values.

Example of Lists in Python

```
list_1=["PythonGeeks","Sequences","Tutorial"]#[all string list]
```

```
print(f'List 1: {list_1}')
```

```
list_2=list()#[empty list]
```

```
print(f'List 2: {list_2}')
```

```
list_3=[2021,['hello',2020],2.0]#[integer,list,float]
```

```
print(f'List 3: {list_3}')
```

```
list_4=[{'language':'Python'},(1,2)]#[dictionary,tuple] print(f'List 4:  
{list_4}')
```

Output

List1: ['PythonGeeks', 'Sequences', 'Tutorial'] List

2: []

List3: [2021, ['hello', 2020], 2.0]

List4: [{'language': 'Python'}, (1, 2)]

2. Let's check the mutability of lists, now.

Code

```
list_1=["PythonGeeks","Sequences","Tutorial"]#[allstringlist]

list_1[2] = "Blog"

print(list_1)
```

Output

```
['PythonGeeks', 'Sequences', 'Blog']
```

Tuples in Python

It's Just like Lists, Tuples can store multiple data items of different data types. The only difference is that they are **immutable** and are stored inside the parenthesis ().

1. To declare a tuple, either use **tuple()** or parenthesis, containing comma-separated values.

Example of Tuple in Python:

```
tuple_1=("PythonGeeks","Sequences","Tutorial")#[allstringtuple] print(f'tuple
```

```
1: {tuple_1}')
```

```
tuple_2=tuple()#[emptytuple]
```

```
print(f'tuple 2: {tuple_2}')
```

```
tuple_3=[2021,('hello',2020),2.0]#[integer,tuple,float] print(f'tuple
```

```
3: {tuple_3}')
```

```
tuple_4=[{'language':'Python'},[1,2]]#[dictionary,list] print(f'tuple
```

```
4: {tuple_4}')
```

Output:

```
tuple1:('PythonGeeks','Sequences','Tutorial')
```

```
tuple 2: ()
```

```
tuple3:[2021,('hello',2020),2.0]
```

```
tuple4:[{'language':'Python'},[1,2]]
```

2. Let's test the immutability of tuples now.

Code:

```
tuple_1=("PythonGeeks","Sequences","Tutorial")#[allstringtuple]
```

```
tuple_1[2]="Blog"p  
rint(tuple_1)
```

Output:

```
Traceback(mostrecentcalllast):  
File"/home/apoorve/Documents/PythonGeeks/python_sequences/main.py",line2,in  
<module>tuple_1[3  
]="Blog"  
TypeError:'tuple'objectdoesnotsupportitemassignment
```

STRINGANDSTRINGOPERATORS:-

A Python String is a sequence of characters. Python Strings are immutable, meaning we can't modify a string once we declare a string. Python provides a built-in class "str" for handling text, as the text is the most common form of data a Python program handles.

- Concatenation of two or more strings.
- Extracting or slicing partial strings from string values.
- Adding or removing spaces.
- Converting to lower or upper case.
- Formatting strings using string formatters.
- Finding and/or replacing text in the given string with another text.

And the list of operations is countless. Python provides several built-in methods that let us perform operations on a string in a flexible way.

- Assignment operator: "="
- Concatenate operator: "+"

- String repetition operator: “*”
- String slicing operator: “[]”
- String comparison operator: “==” & “!=”
- Membership operator: “in” & “not in”
- Escape sequence operator: “\”
- String formatting operator: “%” & “{ }”

Importance of String Operators

String operators are crucial in Python for several reasons:

1. **Text Manipulation:** They enable you to perform essential text operations like concatenation, repetition, and slicing, making it easier to manipulate strings.
2. **Data Processing:** String operators are fundamental for parsing and processing textual data, which is prevalent in many real-world applications.
3. **Code Efficiency:** Using string operators reduces the need for writing complex code, making programs more concise and readable.
4. **User Input Handling:** They are essential for validating and processing user input ensuring data integrity in applications.
5. **String Comparison:** Operators like == and != are vital for comparing and evaluating strings, allowing for conditional logic in code.
6. **Formatting:** String operators aid in formatting text, making creating user-friendly outputs and reports easier.

7. **Versatility:** Python's string operators provide flexibility, allowing developers to adapt and manipulate text data as needed for diverse tasks.

String Operators

Assignment Operator “=”

Python string can be assigned to any variable with an assignment operator “=”.

Python string can be defined with either single quotes [“”], double quotes [“”], or triple quotes [“”“”“”]. `var_name = “string”` assigns “string” to variable `var_name`.

Code:

```
string1="hello"
```

```
string2='hello'
```

```
string3="hello"
```

```
print(string1)
```

```
print(string2)
```

```
print(string3)
```

Output: Concatenate Operator “+”

Two strings can be concatenated or joined using the “+” operator in Python, as explained in the below example code:

Code:

```
string1="hello"  
string2="world"  
string_combined=string1+string2  
print(string_combined)
```

Output:

StringRepetitionOperator“*”

The same string can be repeated in Python by n times using string*n, as explained in the below example.

Code:

```
string1="helloworld"  
print(string1*2)  
print(string1*3)  
print(string1*4)  
print(string1*5)
```

Output

Stringslicingoperator“[]”

Characters from a specific string index can be accessed with the `string[index]` operator. The index is interpreted as a positive index starting from 0 from the left side and a negative index starting from -1 from the right side.

String	H	E	L	L	O	W	O	R	L	D
Positive index	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Negative index	-10	-9	-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1

- **`string[a]`**: Returns a character from a positive index `a` of the string from the left side, as displayed in the index graph above.
- **`string[-a]`**: Returns a character from a negative index `a` of the string from the right side, as displayed in the index graph above.
- **`string[a:b]`**: Returns characters from positive index `a` to positive index `b` as displayed in the index graph above.
- **`string[a:-b]`**: Returns characters from positive index `a` to the negative index `b` of the string as displayed in the index graph above.
- **`string[a:]`**: Returns characters from positive index `a` to the end of the string.

- **string[:b]**Returns characters from the start of the string to the positive index b.
- **string[-a:]**:Returns characters from negative index a to the end of the string.
- **string[:-b]**:Returns characters from the start of the string to the negative index b.
- **string[::-1]**:Returns a string with reverse order.

Code:

```
string1="helloworld"
print(string1[1])
print(string1[-3])
print(string1[1:5])
print(string1[1:-3])
print(string1[2:])
print(string1[:5])
print(string1[:-2])
print(string1[-2:])
print(string1[::-1])
```

Output:

String Comparison Operator “==” & “!=”

The string comparison operator in Python is used to compare two strings.

- The “==” operator returns Boolean True if two strings are the same and Boolean False if two strings are different.
- The “!=” operator returns Boolean True if two strings are not the same and returns Boolean False if two strings are the same.

These operators are mainly used along with the if condition to compare two strings where the decision will be taken based on string comparison.

Code:

```
string1="hello"
string2="hello,world"
string3="hello,world"
string4="world"
print(string1==string4)
print(string2==string3)
print(string1!=string4)
print(string2!=string3)
```

Output:

Membership Operator “in” & “not in”

The membership operator searches whether the specific character is part/member of a given input Python string.

- **“a”inthestring:**ReturnsbooleanTrueif“a”isinthestringandreturnsFalse if “a” is not in the string.
- **“a”notinthestring:**ReturnsbooleanTrueif“a”isnotinthestringand returns False if “a” is in the string.

A membership operator is also useful to find whether a specific substring is part of a given string.

Code:

```
string1="helloworld"
print("w" in string1)
print("W" in string1)
print("t" in string1)
print("t" not in string1)
print("hello" in string1)
print("Hello" in string1)
print("hello" not in string1)
```

Output:

Escape Sequence Operator “\”

An escape character is used to insert a non-allowed character in the given input string. An escape character is a “\” or “backslash” operator followed by a non-allowed

character. An example of a non-allowed character in a Python string is inserting double quotes in the string surrounded by double quotes.

1. Example of non-allowed double quotes in Python string:

Code:

```
string="HelloworldIamfrom"India"  
print(string)
```

Output:

2. Example of non-allowed double quotes with escape sequence operator:

Code:

```
string="HelloworldIamfrom\"India\""  
print(string)
```

Output:

String Formatting Operator “%”

The string formatting operator is used to format a string as per requirement. To insert another type of variable along with string, the “%” operator is used along with Python string.

“%” is prefixed to another character, indicating the type of value we want to

insert along with the Python string. Please refer to the table below for some of the commonly used different string formatting specifiers:

Operator	Description
%d	Signed decimal integer
%u	unsigned decimal integer
%c	Character
%s	String
%f	Floating-point real number

Code:

```
name="india"
age =19
marks=20.56
string1='Hey%s'%(name)
print(string1)
string2='my age is %d'%(age)
print(string2)
```

```
string3='Hey%s,myageis%d'%(name,age)
```

```
print(string3)
```

```
string3='Hey%s,mysubjectmarkis%f'%(name,marks)
```

```
print(string3)
```

Output:

STRINGBUILT-INMETHODS

FunctionName	Description
<u>capitalize()</u>	Converts the first character of the string to a capital (uppercase) letter
<u>casefold()</u>	Implementscaselessstringmatching
<u>center()</u>	Pad the string with the specified character.
<u>count()</u>	Returns the number of occurrences of a substring in the string.
<u>encode()</u>	Encodes strings with the specified encoded scheme
<u>endswith()</u>	Returns “True” if a string ends with the given suffix

FunctionName	Description
<u>expandtabs()</u>	Specifies the amount of space to be substituted with the “\t” symbol in the string
<u>find()</u>	Returns the lowest index of the substring if it is found
<u>format()</u>	Formats the string for printing it to console
<u>format_map()</u>	Formats specified values in a string using a dictionary
<u>index()</u>	Returns the position of the first occurrence of a substring in a string
<u>isalnum()</u>	Checks whether all the characters in a given string is alphanumeric or not
<u>isalpha()</u>	Returns “True” if all characters in the string are alphabets
<u>isdecimal()</u>	Returns true if all characters in a string are decimal
<u>isdigit()</u>	Returns “True” if all characters in the

FunctionName	Description
	stringaredigits
<u>isidentifier()</u>	Check whether a string is a valid identifier or not
<u>islower()</u>	Checks if all characters in the string are lowercase
<u>isnumeric()</u>	Returns “True” if all characters in the string are numeric characters
<u>isprintable()</u>	Returns “True” if all characters in the string are printable or the string is empty
<u>isspace()</u>	Returns “True” if all characters in the string are whitespace characters
<u>istitle()</u>	Returns “True” if the string is a title cased string
<u>isupper()</u>	Checks if all characters in the string are uppercase
<u>join()</u>	Returns a concatenated String

FunctionName	Description
<u>ljust()</u>	Left aligns the string according to the width specified
<u>lower()</u>	Converts all uppercase characters in a string into lowercase
<u>lstrip()</u>	Returns the string with leading characters removed
<u>maketrans()</u>	Returns a translation table
<u>partition()</u>	Splits the string at the first occurrence of the separator
<u>replace()</u>	Replaces all occurrences of a substring with another substring
<u>rfind()</u>	Returns the highest index of the substring
<u>rindex()</u>	Returns the highest index of the substring inside the string
<u>rjust()</u>	Right aligns the string according to the width specified

FunctionName	Description
<u>rpartition()</u>	Splitthegivenstringintothreeparts
<u>rsplit()</u>	Split the string from the right by the specified separator
<u>rstrip()</u>	Removestrailingcharacters
<u>splitlines()</u>	Splitthelinesatlineboundaries
<u>startswith()</u>	Returns “True” if a string starts with the given prefix
<u>strip()</u>	Returns the string with both leading and trailing characters
<u>swapcase()</u>	Converts all uppercase characters to lowercase and vice versa
<u>title()</u>	Convertstringtotitlecase
<u>translate()</u>	Modify string according to given translation mappings
<u>upper()</u>	Converts all lowercase characters in a string into uppercase

FunctionName	Description
<u>zfill()</u>	Returns a copy of the string with '0' characters padded to the left side of the string

LIST

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)
```

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.

Note: There are some [list methods](#) that will change the order, but in general: the order of the items will not change.

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)
```

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))
```

List Items-Data Types

List items can be of any data type:

Example

String, int and boolean data types:

```
list1=["apple","banana","cherry"] list2  
= [1, 5, 7, 9, 3]  
list3=[True,False,False]
```

A list can contain different data types:

Example

A list with strings, integers and boolean values:

```
list1=["abc",34,True,40,"male"]
```

type()

From Python's perspective, lists are defined as objects with the data type 'list':

```
<class 'list'>
```

Example

What is the data type of a list?

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

The list() Constructor

It is also possible to use the list() constructor when creating a new list.

Example

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

```
thislist=list(("apple","banana","cherry"))#not the double round-brackets print(thislist)
```

LISTTYPEBUILTINMETHODS

S.no	Method	Description
1	<u>append()</u>	Used for adding elements to the end of the List.
2	<u>copy()</u>	It returns a shallow copy of a list
3	<u>clear()</u>	This method is used for removing all items from the list.
4	<u>count()</u>	These methods count the elements.
5	<u>extend()</u>	Adds each element of an iterable to the end of the List
6	<u>index()</u>	Returns the lowest index where the element appears.
7	<u>insert()</u>	Inserts a given element at a given index in a list.
8	<u>pop()</u>	Removes and returns the

S.no	Method	Description
		last value from the List or the given index value.
9	<u>remove()</u>	Removes a given object from the List.
10	<u>reverse()</u>	Reverses objects of the List in place.
11	<u>sort()</u>	Sort a List in ascending, descending, or user-defined order
12	<u>min()</u>	Calculates the minimum of all the elements of the List
13	<u>max()</u>	Calculates the maximum of all the elements of the List

TUPLES

Tuple is a collection of objects separated by commas. In some ways, a tuple is similar to a Python list in terms of indexing, nested objects, and repetition but the main difference between both is Python tuple is immutable, unlike the Python list which is mutable.

Creating Python Tuples

There are various ways by which you can create a tuple in [Python](#). They are as follows:

- Using round brackets
- With one item
- Tuple Constructor

Create Tuples using Round Brackets()

To create a tuple we will use () operators.

- Python3

```
var=("Geeks","for","Geeks") print(var)
```

Output:

```
('Geeks','for','Geeks')
```

Create a Tuple With One Item

Python 3.11 provides us with another way to create a Tuple.

- Python3

```
values:tuple[int|str,...]=(1,2,4,"Geek")
```

```
print(values)
```

Output:

Here, in the above snippet we are considering a variable called values which holds a tuple that consists of either int or str, the '...' means that the tuple will hold more than one int or str.

```
(1,2,4,'Geek')
```

Tuple Constructor in Python

To create a tuple with a Tuple constructor, we will pass the elements as its parameters.

- Python3

```
tuple_constructor=tuple(("dsa","developement","deeplearning"))

print(tuple_constructor)
```

Output:

('dsa','developement','deeplearning')

What is Immutable in Tuples?

Tuples in Python are similar to [Python lists](#) but not entirely. Tuples are immutable and ordered and allow duplicate values. Some Characteristics of Tuples in Python.

- We can find items in a tuple since finding any item does not make changes in the tuple.
- One cannot add items to a tuple once it is created.
- Tuples cannot be appended or extended.
- We cannot remove items from a tuple once it is created.

```
mytuple=(1,2,3,4,5) #

tuples are indexed

print(mytuple[1])

print(mytuple[4])

#tuples contain duplicate elements

mytuple = (1, 2, 3, 4, 2, 3)

print(mytuple)
```

```
#addinganelement
```

```
mytuple[1] = 100
```

```
print(mytuple)
```

Output:

Python tuples are ordered and we can access their elements using their index values. They are also immutable, i.e., we cannot add, remove and change the elements once declared in the tuple, so when we tried to add an element at index 1, it generated the error.

```
2
```

```
5
```

```
(1,2,3,4,2,3)
```

```
Traceback(mostrecentcalllast):
```

```
File "e0eaddff843a8695575daec34506f126.py", line 11, in
```

```
tuple1[1] = 100
```

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

Accessing Values in Python Tuples

Tuples in Python provide two ways by which we can access the elements of a tuple.

- Using a positive index
- Using a negative index

Python Access Tuple using a Positive Index

Using square brackets we can get the values from tuples in Python.

```
var = ("Geeks", "for", "Geeks")
```

```
print("Value in Var[0] = ", var[0])
```

```
print("Value in Var[1] = ", var[1])
```

```
print("Value in Var[2] = ", var[2])
```

Output:

Value in Var[0] =Geeks
Value in Var[1] =for Value
in Var[2] =Geeks

AccessTupleusingNegativeIndex

In the above methods, we use the positive index to access the value in Python, and here we will use the negative index within [].

```
var= (1,2,3)

print("ValueinVar[-1]=",var[-1])

print("ValueinVar[-2]=",var[-2])

print("ValueinVar[-3]=",var[-3])
```

Output:

Value in Var[-1]=3
Value in Var[-2]=2
ValueinVar[-3]=1

UNIT-III

MAPPINGTYPE:-

The mapping objects are used to map hashtable values to arbitrary objects. In

python there is mapping type called **dictionary**. It is mutable.

The keys of the dictionary are arbitrary.

As the value, we can use different kinds of elements like lists, integers or any other mutable type objects.

Some dictionary related **methods and operations** are—

Method len(d)

The len() method returns the number of elements in the dictionary.

Operation d[k]

It will return the item of d with the key 'k'. It may raise **KeyError** if the key is not mapped.

Method iter(d)

This method will return an iterator over the keys of dictionary. We can also perform this task by using **iter(d.keys())**.

Method get(key[, default])

The get() method will return the value from the key. The second argument is optional. If the key is not present, it will return the default value.

Method items()

It will return the items using (key, value) pairs format.

Methodkeys()

Returnthelistofdifferentkeysinthedictionary.

Methodvalues()

Returnthelistofdifferentvaluesfromthedictionary.

Methodupdate(elem)

Modifytheelementeleminthedictionary.

Examplecodings

```
myDict={'ten':10,'twenty':20,'thirty':30,'forty':40} print(myDict)
print(list(myDict.keys()))
print(list(myDict.values()))
```

```
#createitemsfromthekey-valuepairs
print(list(myDict.items()))
```

```
myDict.update({'fifty':50})
print(myDict)
```

Output

```
{'ten':10,'twenty':20,'thirty':30,'forty':40}
['ten','twenty','thirty','forty']
[10, 20, 30, 40]
[('ten',10),('twenty',20),('thirty',30),('forty',40)]
{'ten':10,'twenty':20,'thirty':30,'forty':40,'fifty':50}
```

Dictionaries

Dictionariesareusedtostoredatavaluesinkey:valuepairs.

Adictionaryisacollectionwhichisordered*,changeableanddonotallow duplicates.

Dictionaries are written with curly brackets, and have keys and values: Example

Create and print a dictionary:

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

Dictionary Items

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

Dictionary items are represented 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"])
```

Ordered or Unordered

Dictionaries are ordered, it means that the items have a defined order, and that order will not change.

Unordered means that the items does not have a defined order, you cannot refer to an item by using an index.

Changeable

Dictionaries are changeable, meaning that we can change, add or remove items after the dictionary has been created.

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)
```

Dictionary Length

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

Example

Print the number of items in the dictionary:

```
print(len(thisdict))
```

Dictionary Items - Data Types

The values in dictionary items can be of any data type:

Example

String, int, boolean, and list data types:

```
thisdict = {  
    "brand": "Ford",
```

```
"electric":False,  
"year": 1964,  
"colors":["red","white","blue"]  
}
```

type()

From Python's perspective, dictionaries are defined as objects with the datatype 'dict':

```
<class 'dict'>Example
```

Print the datatype of a dictionary:

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

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)
```


MappingTypeOperators

Dictionaries will work with all of the standard type operators but do not support operations such as concatenation and repetition. Those operations, although they make sense for sequence types, do not translate to mapping types. In the next two subsections, we introduce you to the operators you can use with dictionaries.

map() function returns a map object (which is an iterator) of the results after applying the given function to each item of a given iterable (list, tuple etc.)

Python map() Function Syntax

Syntax: map(fun, iter)

Parameters:

- *fun: It is a function to which map passes each element of given iterable.*
- *iter: It is iterable which is to be mapped.*

Map() in Python Examples

Demonstration of map() in Python

We are demonstrating the [map\(\)](#) function in Python.

```
#Python program to demonstrate working #
# of map.

# Return double of n
def addition(n):

    return n+n
```

```
#Wedoubleallnumbersusingmap()
```

```
numbers = (1, 2, 3, 4)
```

```
result=map(addition,numbers)
```

```
print(list(result))
```

Output

```
[2,4,6,8]
```

map()withLambdaExpressions

We can also use [lambda expressions](#) with map to achieve above result. In this example, we are using map() with lambda expression.

```
#Doubleallnumbersusingmapandlambda numbers =
```

```
(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

```
result=map(lambdax:x+x,numbers)
```

```
print(list(result))
```

Output

```
[2,4,6,8]
```

AddTwoListsUsingmapandlambda

We are using map and lambda to add two lists.

```
#Add two lists using map and lambda

numbers1 = [1, 2, 3]

numbers2 = [4, 5, 6]

result = map(lambda x, y: x + y, numbers1, numbers2)
print(list(result))
```

Output

```
[5, 7, 9]
```

Modify the String using map()

We are using map() function to modify the string. We can create a map from an iterable in Python.

List of strings

```
l = ['sat', 'bat', 'cat', 'mat']
```

```
#map() can listify the list of strings individually test =
```

```
list(map(list, l))
```

```
print(test)
```

Output

```
[['s','a','t'], ['b','a','t'], ['c','a','t'], ['m','a','t']]
```

Mapping Type Built-in and Factory Functions

Standard Type Functions [type(), str(), and cmp()]

The `type()` factory function, when applied to a dict, returns, as you might expect, the dict type, "`<type 'dict'>`".

The `str()` factory function will produce a printable string representation of a dictionary. These are fairly straightforward.

we showed how the `cmp()` BIF worked with numbers, strings, lists, and tuples. So how about dictionaries? Comparisons of dictionaries are based on an algorithm that starts with sizes first, then keys, and finally values. However, using `cmp()` on dictionaries isn't usually very useful.

The following example, we create two dictionaries and compare them, then slowly modify the dictionaries to show how these changes affect their comparisons:

```
>>>dict1={} >>>dict2={'host':'earth','port':80}
>>>cmp(dict1,dict2)-1
>>>dict1['host']='earth'
>>>cmp(dict1,dict2)-1
```

In the first comparison, `dict1` is deemed smaller because `dict2` has more elements (2 items vs. 0 items). After adding one element to `dict1`, it is still smaller (2 vs. 1), even if the item added is also in `dict2`.

```
>>>dict1['port']=8080
>>>cmp(dict1,dict2)1
>>>dict1['port']=80
>>>cmp(dict1,dict2)0
```

After we add the second element to `dict1`, both dictionaries have the same size, so

their keys are then compared. At this juncture, both sets of keys match, so comparison proceeds to checking their values. The values for the 'host' keys are the same, but when we get to the 'port' key, dict2 is deemed larger because its value is greater than that of dict1's 'port' key (8080 vs. 80). When resetting dict2's 'port' key to the same value as dict1's 'port' key, then both dictionaries form equals: They have the same size, their keys match, and so do their values, hence the reason that 0 is returned by cmp().

```
>>>dict1['prot']='tcp'
>>>cmp(dict1,dict2)1
>>>dict2['prot']='udp'
>>>cmp(dict1,dict2)-1
```

As soon as a new element is added to one of the dictionaries, it immediately becomes the "larger one," as in this case with dict1. Adding another key-value pair to dict2 can tip the scales again, as both dictionaries' sizes match and comparison progresses to checking keys and values.

```
>>>cdict={'fruits':1}
>>>ddict={'fruits':1}
>>>cmp(cdict,ddict)0
>>>cdict['oranges']=0
>>>ddict['apples']=0
>>>cmp(cdict,ddict)14
```

Our final example reminds us that cmp() may return values other than -1, 0, or 1. The algorithm pursues comparisons in the following order.

1) Compare Dictionary Sizes

If the dictionary lengths are different, then for cmp(dict1, dict2), cmp() will return a positive number if dict1 is longer and a negative number if dict2 is longer. In other words, the dictionary with more keys is greater, i.e.,

```
len(dict1)>len(dict2)    dict1> dict2
```

(2) Compare Dictionary Keys

If both dictionaries are the same size, then their keys are compared; the order in which the keys are checked is the same order as returned by the keys() method. (It is important to note here that keys that are the same will map to the same locations in the hashtable. This keeps key-checking consistent.) At the point where keys from both do not match, they are directly compared and cmp() will return a positive number if the first differing key for dict1 is greater than the first differing key of dict2.

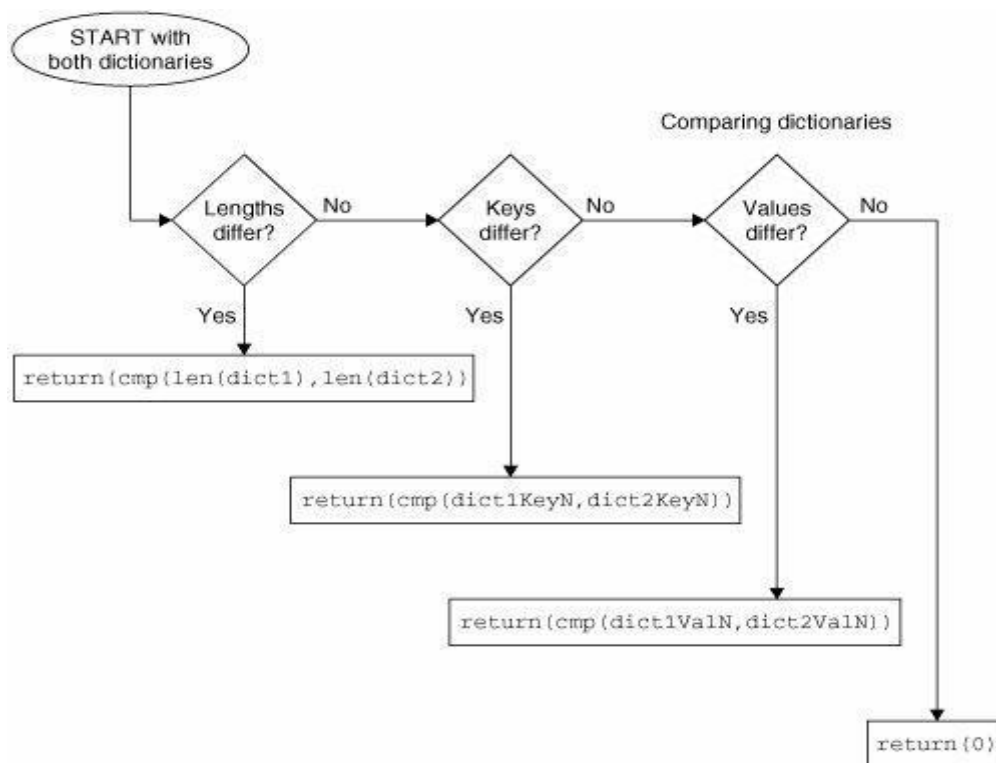
(3) CompareDictionaryValues

If both dictionary lengths are the same and the keys match exactly, the values for each key in both dictionaries are compared. Once the first key with non-matching values is found, those values are compared directly. Then `cmp()` will return a positive number if, using the same key, the value in `dict1` is greater than the value in `dict2`.

(4) ExactMatch

If we have reached this point, i.e., the dictionaries have the same length, the same keys, and the same values for each key, then the dictionaries are an exact match and 0 is returned.

Fig:-How dictionaries are compared



MappingTypeRelatedFunctions

dict()

The `dict()` factory function is used for creating dictionaries.

If no argument is provided, then an empty dictionary is created. The fun happens when a container object is passed in as an argument to `dict()`.

If the argument is an iterable, i.e., a sequence, an iterator, or an object that supports iteration, then each element of the iterable must come in pairs. For each pair, the first element will be a new key in the dictionary with the second item as its value. Taking a cue from the official Python documentation for `dict()`:

```
>>>dict(zip(('x','y'),(1,2))){'y':2,'x':1}
>>>dict([[ 'x',1],[ 'y',2]]){'y':2,'x':1}
>>>dict([( 'xy'[i-1],i)foriinrange(1,3)]){'y':2,'x': 1}
```

Then `dict()` will just create a new dictionary and copy the contents of the existing one. The new dictionary is actually a shallow copy of the original one and the same results can be accomplished by using a dictionary's `copy()` built-in method. Because creating a new dictionary from an existing one using `dict()` is measurably slower than using `copy()`

len()

The `len()` BIF is flexible. It works with sequences, mapping types, and sets (as we will find out later on in this chapter). For a dictionary, it returns the total number of items, that is, key-value pairs:

```
>>>dict2={'name':'earth','port': 80}
>>>dict2{'port':80,'name':'earth'}
>>>len(dict2)2
```

We mentioned earlier that dictionary items are unordered. We can see that above, when referencing `dict2`, the items are listed in reverse order from which they were entered into the dictionary.

hash()

The `hash()` BIF is not really meant to be used for dictionaries per se, but it can be used to determine whether an object is fit to be a dictionary key (or not). Given an object as its argument, `hash()` returns the hash value of that object. The object can only be a dictionary key if it is hashable (meaning this function returns a [n integer] value without errors or raising an exception). Numeric values that are equal hash to the same value (even if their types differ). A `TypeError` will occur if an unhashable type is given as the argument to `hash()`

```
>>> hash([]) Traceback (innermost last):  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ? TypeError: list
objects are unhashable
```

```
>>>>>dict2[{}]='foo'Traceback(mostrecentcalllast):      File"<stdin>",line1,in
?TypeError:dictobjectsareunhashable
```

FUNCTION OPERATIONS

<code>dict([container])</code>	Factoryfunctionforcreatingadictionarypopulatedwithitems from container, if provided; if not, an empty dict is created
<code>len(mapping)</code>	Returnsthelengthofmapping(numberofkey-valuepairs)
<code>hash(obj)</code>	Returnshashvalueofobj

MAPPINGTYPEBUILT-INMETHODS

Python's `map()` is a built-in function that allows you to process and transform all the items in an iterable without using an explicit for loop, a technique commonly known as mapping. `map()` is useful when you need to apply a transformation function to each item in an iterable and transform them into a new iterable.

CONDITIONALSANDLOOPS

Conditional statements and loops are powerful tools for controlling the flow of your program.

They allow you to execute specific blocks of code based on certain conditions or to repeat a certain block of code multiple times.

Python provides two basic types of loops to iterate through objects or functions: the `for` and the `while` loop statements. Both loop types have additional options and can be combined with conditional statements.

Conditional statements evaluate boolean arguments (`True/False`) using the keywords `if`:
... `else`:

Conditionalexecution

The if statement

Pythonsupportstheusuallogicalconditionsfrommathematics:

- Equals: $a==b$
- NotEquals: $a!=b$
- Lessthan: $a<b$
- Lessthanorequalto: $a<=b$
- Greaterthan: $a>b$
- Greaterthanorequalto: $a>=b$

Theseconditionscanbeusedinseveralways,mostcommonlyin"ifstatements"and loops.

An"ifstatement"iswrittenbyusingtheifkeyword. genaral

form:

```
ifBOOLEANEXPRESSION:
```

STATEMENTS

Example:

Ifstatement:

```
a= 33
b=200
ifb>a:
    print("bisgreaterthana")
```

O/P:bisgreaterthana

The if statement is the most simple decision-making statement. It is used to decide whether a certain statement or block of statements will be executed or not.

Syntax:

Else

The `else` keyword catches anything which isn't caught by the preceding conditions.

Example

```
a=200
b=33
if b>a:
    print("b is greater than a")
elif a == b:
    print("a and b are equal")
else:
    print("a is greater than b")
```

The `elif` clause in Python

The `elif` statement adds another "decision" branch to `if-else`. Let's say you want to evaluate multiple expressions, then you can use `elif` as follows:

```
if <expression>:
    <statement(s)>
elif <expression>:
    <statement(s)>
elif <expression>:
    <statement(s)>
else:
    <statement(s)>
```

This means that when the `if` statement is false, the next `elif` expression is checked. When any one expression is true, the control goes outside the `if-else` block.

At most, one block would be executed. In case `else` is not specified, and all the statements are false, none of the blocks would be executed.

Here's an example:

```
if 5<5:
    print("False, statements skipped")
```

```
elif 0<5:
    print("true, block executed")
elif
0<3:
    print("true, but block will not execute")
else:
    print("If all fails.")
```

Output:

Not that these second elif didn't execute as the first elif evaluated to true.

Conditional Expressions in Python

Python's conditional statements carry out various calculations or operations according to whether a particular Boolean condition is evaluated as true or false. In Python, IF statements deal with conditional statements.

We'll learn how to use conditional statements in Python in this tutorial.

What is Python If Statement?

To make decisions, utilize the if statement in Python. It has a body of instructions that only executes whenever the if statement's condition is met. The additional else statement, which includes some instructions for the else statement, runs if the if condition is false.

Python's if-else statement is used when you wish to satisfy one statement while the other is false.

Python Syntax of the if Statement:

1. **if**<conditional expression>
2. Statement
3. **else**
4. Statement

Code

1. #Pythonprogramtoexecuteifstatement 2.
- 3.a,b =6,5
- 4.
5. #Initializingtheifcondition
6. **if**a>b:
7. code="aisgreaterthanb"
8. **print**(code)

Output:

a is greater than b

How to Use the else Condition?

The "else condition" is usually used when judging one statement based on another. If the condition mentioned in the if code block is wrong, then the interpreter will execute the else code block.

Code

1. #Pythonprogramtoexecuteif-elsestatement 2.
- 3.a,b =6,5
- 4.
5. #Initializingtheif-elsecondition
6. **if**a<b:
7. code="aislessthan b"
8. **print**(code)
9. **else:**
10. **print**("aisgreaterthanb")

Output:

aisgreaterthanb

While statement

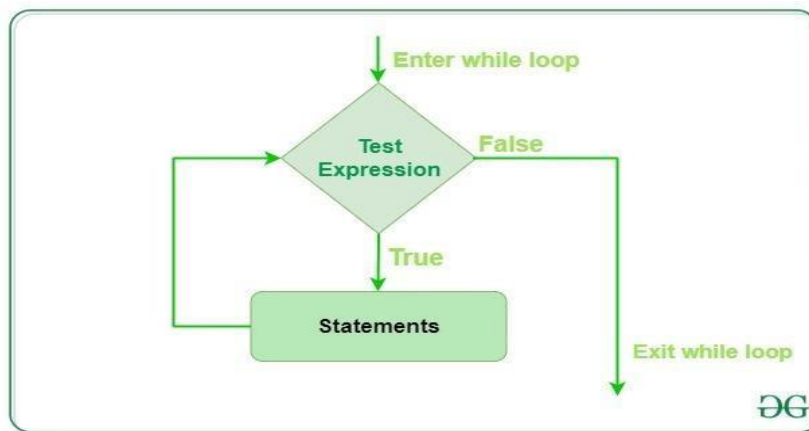
Python While Loop is used to execute a block of statements repeatedly until a given condition is satisfied. And when the condition becomes false, the line immediately after the loop in the program is executed.

Syntax:

while expression:

statement(s)

Flowchart of While stmt:



While loop falls under the category of **indefinite iteration**. Indefinite iteration means that the number of times the loop is executed isn't specified explicitly in advance.

Statements represent all the statements indented by the same number of character spaces after a programming construct are considered to be part of a single block of code. Python uses indentation as its method of grouping statements. When a while loop is executed, expr is first evaluated in a Boolean context and if it is true, the loop body is executed. Then the expr is checked again, if it is still true then the body is executed again and this continues until the expression becomes false.

Example 1: Python While Loop

```
#Python program to illustrate
```

```
#whileloop

count = 0

while (count < 3):

    count = count + 1

    print("HelloGeek")
```

Output

HelloGeek

HelloGeek

HelloGeek

In the above example, the condition for while will be True as long as the counter variable (count) is less than 3.

Example2:Pythonwhileloopwithlist

```
#checksiflist still

#containsanyelement a

a = [1, 2, 3, 4]

while a:

    print(a.pop())
```

Output

4
3
2
1

In the above example, we have run a while loop over a list that will run until there is an element present in the list.

for statement

Python is a strong, universally applicable prearranging language planned to be easy to comprehend and carry out. It is allowed to get to because it is open-source. In this tutorial, we will learn how to use Python for loops, one of the most fundamental looping instructions in Python programming.

Introduction to for Loop in Python

Python frequently uses the Loop to iterate over iterable objects like lists, tuples, and strings. Crossing is the most common way of emphasizing across a series, for loops are used when a section of code needs to be repeated a certain number of times. The for-circle is typically utilized on an iterable item, for example, a rundown or the in-fabricated range capability. In Python, the for Statement runs the code block each time it traverses a series of elements. On the other hand, the "while" Loop is used when a condition needs to be verified after each repetition or when a piece of code needs to be repeated indefinitely. The for Statement is opposed to this Loop.

Syntax of for Loop

1. **for** value in sequence:
2. {loopbody}

The value is the parameter that determines the element's value within the iterable sequence on each iteration. When a sequence contains expression statements, they are processed first. The first element in the sequence is then assigned to the iterating variable `iterating_variable`. From that point onward, the planned block is run. Each element in the sequence is assigned to `iterating_variable` during the statement block until the sequence as a whole is completed. Using indentation, the contents of the Loop are distinguished from the remainder of the program.

Example of Python for Loop

Code

```
1. numbers=[3,5,23,6,5,1,2,9,8]
2. sum_=0
3. for num in numbers:
4.     sum_=sum_ + num** 2
5. print("The sum of squares is:", sum_)
```

Output:

```
The sum of squares is: 774
```

The range() Function

Since the "range" capability shows up so habitually in for circles, we could erroneously accept the reach as a part of the punctuation of for circle. It's not: It is a built-in Python method that fulfills the requirement of providing a series for the for expression to run over by following a particular pattern . Mainly, they can act straight on sequences, so counting is unnecessary. This is a typical novice construct if they originate from a language with distinct loop syntax:

Code

```
1. my_list=[3,5,6,8,4]
2. for iter_var in range(len(my_list)):
3.     my_list.append(my_list[iter_var]+2)
4. print(my_list)
```

Output:

```
[3,5,6,8,4,5,7,8,10,6]
```


BREAK STATEMENT

The `break` is a keyword in python which is used to bring the program control out of the loop. The `break` statement breaks the loops one by one, i.e., in the case of nested loops, it breaks the inner loop first and then proceeds to outer loops. In other words, we can say that `break` is used to abort the current execution of the program and the control goes to the next line after the loop.

The `break` is commonly used in the cases where we need to break the loop for a given condition.

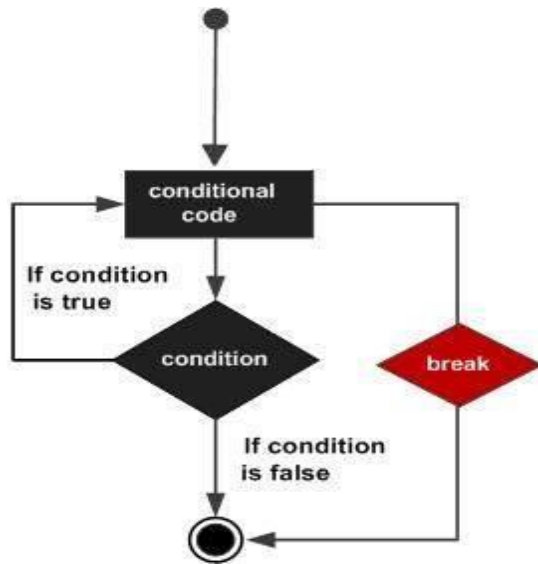
The most common use for `break` is when some external condition is triggered requiring a hasty exit from a loop. The **`break`** statement can be used in both *while* and *for* loops.

If you are using nested loops, the `break` statement stops the execution of the innermost loop and starts executing the next line of code after the block.

Syntax:

1. #loop statements
2. **`break`**;

Flow Diagram



Example:breakstatementwithfor loop

Code

```
1. #breakstatementexample
2. my_list=[1,2,3,4]
3. count=1
4. for item in my_list:
5.     if item==4:
6.         print("Item matched")
7.         count+=1
8.         break
9. print("Found at location",count)
```

Output:

```
Item matched
Found at location 2
```

CONTINUE STATEMENT

Continue Statement skips the execution of the program block after the continue statement and forces the control to start the next iteration.

Continue statement is a loop control statement that forces to execute the next iteration of the loop while skipping the rest of the code inside the loop for the current iteration only, i.e. when the continue statement is executed in the loop, the code inside the loop following the continue statement will be skipped for the current iteration and the next iteration of the loop will begin.

Syntax

```
while True:
```

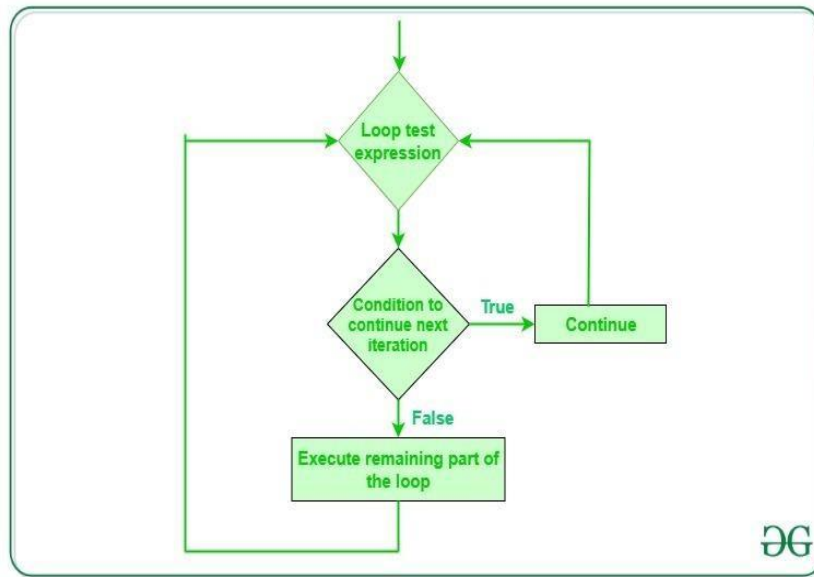
```
    ...
```

```
    if x == 10:
```

```
        continue
```

```
    print(x)
```

Flowchart of Continue Statement



EXAMPLE CODE

```
for var in "Geeksforgeeks":  
  
    if var == "e":  
  
        continue  
  
    print(var)
```

Output:

G
k
s
f
o
r
g
k
s

Explanation: Here we are skipping the print of character 'e' using [if-condition checking](#) and continue statement.

PASS STATEMENT

The [Python pass](#) statement is a null statement. But the difference between pass and [comment](#) is that comment is ignored by the interpreter whereas pass is not ignored.

The Syntax of the pass statement

```
pass
```

What is pass statement in Python?

When the user does not know what code to write, So user simply places a pass at that line. Sometimes, the pass is used when the user doesn't want any code to execute. So users can simply place a pass where empty code is not allowed, like in loops, function definitions, class definitions, or in if statements. So using a pass statement user avoids this error.

Why Python Needs "pass" Statement?

If we do not use pass or simply enter a comment or a blank here, we will receive an **IndentationError** error message.

```
n=26

if n>26:

    #write code your here

print('Geeks')
```

Output:

IndentationError: expected an indented block after 'if' statement

keyword in Function

Python Pass keyword can be used in empty functions.

```
def function():  
  
    pass
```

Use of pass keyword in Python Class

The pass keyword can also be used in an empty class in Python.

```
class geekClass:  
  
    pass
```

Use of pass keyword in Python Loop

The pass keyword can be used in [Python for loop](#), when a user doesn't know what to code inside the loop in Python.

```
n=10  
  
for i in range(n):  
  
    #pass can be used as placeholder
```

```
#whencodeistoaddedlater
```

```
Pass
```

Use of pass keyword in Conditional statement

Python pass keyword can be used with conditional statements

```
a= 10
```

```
b=20
```

```
if(a<b):
```

```
pass
```

```
else:
```

```
    print("b<a")
```

Let's take another example in which the pass statement gets executed when the condition is true.

ITERATORS AND THE `iter()` FUNCTION

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 consists of the methods `iter()` and `next()`.

An iterator in Python is an object that is used to iterate over iterable objects like lists, tuples, dicts, and sets. The Python iterators object is initialized using the **`iter()`** method.

It uses the **`next()`** method for iteration.

1. **`iter()`**: The `iter()` method is called for the initialization of an iterator. This returns an iterator object
2. **`next()`**: The `next` method returns the next value for the iterable. When we use a for loop to traverse any iterable object, internally it uses the `iter()` method to get an iterator object, which further uses the `next()` method to iterate over. This method raises a `StopIteration` to signal the end of the iteration.

Python `iter()` Example

```
string = "GFG"

ch_iterator=iter(string)

print(next(ch_iterator))

print(next(ch_iterator))

print(next(ch_iterator))
```

Output:

G
F
G

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:

Example

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:

Example

Strings are also iterable objects, containing a sequence of characters:

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

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

LoopingThroughanIterator

We can also use a for loop to iterate through an iterable object:

Example

Iterate the values of a tuple:

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

```
for x in mytuple:  
    print(x)
```

Example

Iterate the characters of a string:

```
mystr="banana"
```

```
for x in mystr:  
    print(x)
```

The for loop actually creates an iterator object and executes the next() method for each loop.

Create an Iterator

To create an object/class as an iterator you have to implement the methods iter() and next() to your object.

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.

Example

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))
```

StopIteration

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:

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)

```

Definition and Usage

The `iter()` function returns an iterator object.

Syntax

`iter(object, sentinel)`

Parameter Values

Parameter	Description
<i>object</i>	Required. An iterable object
<i>sentinel</i>	Optional. If the object is a callable object the iteration will stop when the return value is the same as the sentinel

FILES AND INPUT/OUTPUT

The simplest way to produce output is using the *print* statement where you can pass zero or more expressions separated by commas.

This function converts the expressions you pass into a string and writes the result to standard output as follows –

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
print "Python is really a great language, isn't it?"
```

Result:-

```
Python is really a great language, isn't it?
```

Reading Keyboard Input

Python provides two built-in functions to read a line of text from standard input, which by default comes from the keyboard. These functions are –

- `raw_input`
- `input`

The `raw_input` Function

The `raw_input([prompt])` function reads one line from standard input and returns it as a string (removing the trailing newline).

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
str=raw_input("Enteryourinput:")  
print "Received input is : ", str
```

This prompts you to enter any string and it would display same string on the screen. When I typed "Hello Python!", its output is like this –

```
Enter your input: Hello Python  
Received input is: Hello Python
```

The *input* Function

The *input([prompt])* function is equivalent to *raw_input*, except that it assumes the input is a valid Python expression and returns the evaluated result to you.

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
str=input("Enteryourinput:")  
print  
"Received input is : ", str
```

This would produce the following result against the entered input – Enter

```
your input: [x*5 for x in range(2,10,2)]  
Received input is: [10,20,30,40]
```

Opening and Closing Files

Reading and Writing to the standard input and output. Now, we will see how to use actual data files.

Python provides basic functions and methods necessary to manipulate files by default. You can do most of the file manipulation using a **file** object.

The *open* Function

Before you can read or write a file, you have to open it using Python's built-in *open()* function. This function creates a **file** object, which would be utilized to call other support methods associated with it.

Syntax

fileobject=open(file_name[,access_mode][,buffering])

Here are parameter details—

- **file_name**—The `file_name` argument is a string value that contains the name of the file that you want to access.
- **access_mode**—The `access_mode` determines the mode in which the file has to be opened, i.e., read, write, append, etc. A complete list of possible values is given below in the table. This is optional parameter and the default file access mode is read (r).
- **buffering** — If the buffering value is set to 0, no buffering takes place. If the buffering value is 1, line buffering is performed while accessing a file. If you specify the buffering value as an integer greater than 1, then buffering action is performed with the indicated buffer size. If negative, the buffer size is the system default (default behavior).

Sr.No.

Modes & Description

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 | R
Opens a file for reading only. The file pointer is placed at the beginning of the file. This is the default mode. |
| 2 | Rb
Opens a file for reading only in binary format. The file pointer is placed at the beginning of the file. This is the default mode. |
| 3 | r+
Opens a file for both reading and writing. The file pointer is placed at the beginning of the file. |
| 4 | rb+
Opens a file for both reading and writing in binary format. The file pointer is placed at the beginning of the file. |
| 5 | W
Opens a file for writing only. Overwrites the file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for writing. |

- 6 **Wb**
Opens a file for writing only in binary format. Overwrites the file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for writing.
- 7 **w+**
Opens a file for both writing and reading. Overwrites the existing file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for reading and writing.

The *file* Object Attributes

Once a file is opened and you have one *file* object, you can get various information related to that file.

Sr.No.	Attribute & Description
--------	-------------------------

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 | file.closed
Returns true if file is closed, false otherwise. |
| 2 | file.mode
Returns access mode with which file was opened. |
| 3 | file.name
Returns name of the file. |
| 4 | file.softspace
Returns false if space explicitly required with print, true otherwise. |

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

# Open a file
fo=open("foo.txt","wb")
print "Name of the file: ", fo.name
print "Closed or not : ", fo.closed
print "Opening mode : ", fo.mode
print "Softspaceflag:",fo.softspace
```

This produces the following result— Name

```
of the file:foo.txt
Closed or not:False Opening
mode :wb Softspace flag :0
```

The *close()* Method

The *close()* method of a *file* object flushes any unwritten information and closes the file object, after which no more writing can be done.

Python automatically closes a file when the reference object of a file is reassigned to another file. It is a good practice to use the *close()* method to close a file.

Syntax

```
fileObject.close()
```

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

# Open a file
fo=open("foo.txt","wb")
print "Name of the file:",fo.name

# Close open file
fo.close()
```

This produces the following result—

Name of the file: foo.txt

Reading and Writing Files

The *file* object provides a set of access methods to make our lives easier. We would see how to use *read()* and *write()* methods to read and write files.

The *write()* Method

The *write()* method writes any string to an open file. It is important to note that Python strings can have binary data and not just text.

The *write()* method does not add a new line character ('\n') to the end of the string—

Syntax

```
fileObject.write(string)
```

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
#Open a file
```

```
fo=open("foo.txt","wb")
```

```
fo.write("Python is a great language.\nYeah it's great!!\n")
```

```
#Close open file
```

```
fo.close()
```

The above method would create *foo.txt* file and would write given content in that file and finally it would close that file. If you would open this file, it would have following content.

```
Python is a great language. Yeah
```

```
it's great!!
```

The *read()* Method

The *read()* method reads a string from an open file. It is important to note that Python strings can have binary data, apart from text data.

Syntax

```
fileObject.read([count])
```

Here, passed parameter is the number of bytes to be read from the opened file. This method starts reading from the beginning of the file and if *count* is missing, then it tries to read as much as possible, maybe until the end of file.

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
#Open a file
fo=open("foo.txt","r+") str
= fo.read(10);
print"ReadString is:",str #
Close open file fo.close()
```

This produces the following result—

Read String is :Python is

File Positions

The *tell()* method tells you the current position within the file; in other words, the next read or write will occur at that many bytes from the beginning of the file.

The *seek(offset[,from])* method changes the current file position. The *offset* argument indicates the number of bytes to be moved. The *from* argument specifies the reference position from where the bytes are to be moved.

If *from* is set to 0, it means use the beginning of the file as the reference position and 1 means use the current position as the reference position and if it is set to 2 then the end of the file would be taken as the reference position.

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
#Open a file
fo=open("foo.txt","r+") str
= fo.read(10)
print"ReadString is:",str

#Check current position
position = fo.tell()
print"Current file position:",position
```

```
#Reposition pointer at the beginning once again position
= fo.seek(0, 0);
str=fo.read(10)
print "Again read String is:", str #
Close open file
fo.close()
```

This produces the following result—

```
Read String is :Python is
Current file position
:10Again read String is:Python is
```

Renaming and Deleting Files

Python `os` module provides methods that help you perform file-processing operations, such as renaming and deleting files.

To use this module you need to import it first and then you can call any related functions. The

`rename()` Method

The `rename()` method takes two arguments, the current filename and the new filename.

Syntax

```
os.rename(current_file_name, new_file_name)
```

Example

Following is the example to rename an existing file *test1.txt*—

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import os

#Rename a file from test1.txt to test2.txt
os.rename( "test1.txt", "test2.txt" )
The remove() Method
```

You can use the `remove()` method to delete files by supplying the name of the file to be deleted as the argument.

Syntax

```
os.remove(file_name)
```

Example

Following is the example to delete an existing file *test2.txt*—

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import os

# Delete file test2.txt
os.remove("text2.txt")
```

FILE BUILT-IN FUNCTIONS

[open()]

A built-in function `open()` to open a file. Which accepts two arguments, file name and access mode in which the file is accessed. The function returns a file object which can be used to perform various operations like reading, writing, etc.

Syntax:

```
Fileobject=open(file-name,access-mode)
```

file-name: It specifies the name of the file to be opened.

access-mode: There are following access modes for opening a file:

access-mode	Description
"w"	Write-Opens a file for writing, creates the file if it does not exist.

access-mode	Description
"r"	Read-Defaultvalue.Opens afileforreading,errorifthefiledoesnotexist.
"a"	Append-Opens afileforappending,createsthefileifitdoesnotexist.
"x"	Create-Createsthespecifiedfile,returnsanerrorifthefileexists.
"w+"	Open afileforupdating(readingandwriting),overwriteifthefileexists.
"r+"	Open afileforupdating(readingandwriting),doesn'toverwriteifthefileexists.

thefileshouldbehandledasbinaryortext mode

access-mode	Description
"t"	Text-Defaultvalue.Textmode.
"b"	-Binary-Binarymode(e.g.images)

EXAMPLE

```
fileptr=open("myfile.txt","r") if
fileptr:
    print("fileisopenedsuccessfullywithreadmodeonly")
```

Example:

```
fileptr=open("myfile1.txt","x") if
fileptr:
    print("newfilewascreatedsuccessfully")
```

Output:

```
file is opened successfully with read mode only
```

FILE BUILT-IN METHODS:-

File handling allows users to handle files i.e., to read and write files, along with many other file handling options, to operate on files.

Built-in functions,

- **close()**
- **read()**
- **readline()**
- **write()**
- **writelines()**
- **tell()**
- **seek()**

close()

The `close()` method is used to close the currently opened file, after which no more writing or reading can be done. Automatically closes a file when the reference object of a file is reassigned to another file. It is a good practice to use the `close()` method to close a file.

Syntax:

```
Fileobject.close()
```

Example:

```
f=open("myfile.txt","r") f.close()
```

read()

The `read()` method is used to read the content from file. To read a file in Python, we must open the file in reading mode.

Syntax:

`Fileobject.read([size])`

Where 'size' specifies number of bytes to be read.

myfile.txt

function `open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.

Example:

```
#Opening a file with read mode
fileptr = open("myfile.txt", "r")
if fileptr:
    print("file is opened successfully")
    content = fileptr.read(5) # read 5 characters
    print(content)
    content = fileptr.read() # read all characters
    print(content)
else:
    print("file not opened")
fileptr.close();
```

Output:

file is opened successfully
function `open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.

readline()

To read the file line by line by using a function `readline()`. The `readline()` method reads the lines of the file from the beginning, i.e., if we use the `readline()` method two times, then we can get the first two lines of the file.

Syntax:

Fileobject.readline()

myfile.txt

function `open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.

Example:

```
fileptr=open("myfile.txt","r")
if fileptr:
    print("file is opened successfully")
    content=fileptr.readline()
    print(content)
    content=fileptr.readline()
    print(content)
fileptr.close();
```

Output:

file is opened successfully
function `open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.

write()

The write () method is used to write the content into file. To write some text to a file, we need to open the file using the open method with one of the following access modes.

w: It will overwrite the file if any file exists. The file pointer points at the beginning of the file in this mode.

Syntax:

Fileobject.write(content)

function `open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.

Example:

```
fileptr = open("myfile.txt", "w");  
#appending the content to the file  
fileptr.write("Python is the modern day language.")  
#closing the opened file  
fileptr.close();
```

myfile.txt:

Python is the modern day language.

a: It will append the existing file. The file pointer points at the end of the file.

myfile.txt

function `open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.

Example:

```
fileptr = open("myfile.txt", "a");  
#appending the content to the file  
fileptr.write("Python is the modern day language.")  
#closing the opened file  
fileptr.close();
```

myfile.txt:

function `open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.
Python is the modern day language.

Now, we can see that the content of the file is modified.

writelines()

The `writelines()` method is used to write multiple lines of content into a file. To write some lines to a file

Syntax:

Fileobject.writelines(list)

list—This is the Sequence of the strings.

Example:

```
f=open("myfile.txt","w")
f.writelines(["Python supports Files\n","python supports Strings."]) f.close()
```

myfile.txt:

```
Python supports Files
python supports Strings.
```

tell()

The tell() method returns the current file position in a file stream. You can change the current file position with the seek() method.

Syntax:

Fileobject.tell()

myfile.txt

function open() to open a file.
method read() to read a file.

Example:

```
f=open("myfile.txt","r")
print(f.readline())
print(f.tell())
f.close();
```

Output:

33

In the first line of file that is "function open() to open a file." with 32 characters so the output is 33

seek()

The seek() method sets and returns the current file position in a file stream.

Syntax:

Fileobject.seek(offset)

myfile.txt

function `open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.

Example:

```
f=open("myfile.txt","r")
print(f.seek(9))
print(f.read())
f.close();
```

Output:

`open()` to open a file.
method `read()` to read a file.

FILE BUILT-IN ATTRIBUTES

Python supports following built-in attributes, those are

- **file.name** - returns the name of the file which is already opened.
- **file.mode** - returns the access mode of opened file.

- **file.closed**-returnstrue,ifthefileclosed,otherwisefalse.

Example:

```
f=open("myfile.txt","r")
print(f.name)print(f.mode)
print(f.closed)
f.close()
print(f.closed)
```

Output:

```
myfile.txt
r
False
True
```

Pythonprogram to print number of lines, words and characters in given file.

myfile.txt

```
functionopen()toopenafile.
method read() to read a file.
Pythonisthemoderndaylanguage.
Python supports Files
pythonsupportsStrings
```

Example:

```
fname=input("Enterfilename:") num_lines
= 0
num_words=0
num_chars=0 try:
    fp=open(fname,"r")
    for i in fp:
        #icontainseachlineofthefile words =
        i.split()
        num_lines += 1
        num_words+=len(words)
        num_chars += len(i)
    print("Lines=",num_lines)
```

```

    print("Words = ",num_words)
    print("Characters=",num_chars)
fp.close()
except Exception:
    print("Entervalidfilename")

```

Output:Case1

```

Enterfilename:myfile.txt Lines
=5
Words=24
Characters=144

```

Output:Case2

```

Enter file name: gh
Entervalidfilename

```

COMMAND-LINE ARGUMENTS IN PYTHON

Python using `raw_input()` or `input()`. There is another method that uses command line arguments. The command line arguments must be given whenever we want to give the input before the start of the script, while on the other hand, `input()` is used to get the input while the python program / script is running

How to use it?

To use it, you will first have to import it (`import sys`)

The first argument, `sys.argv[0]`, is always the name of the program as it was invoked, and `sys.argv[1]` is the first argument you pass to the program.

It's common that you slice the list to access the actual command line argument:

The `sys` module also provides access to any command-line arguments via `sys.argv`.
Command-line

arguments are those arguments given to the program in addition to the script name on invocation.

- `sys.argv` is the list of command-line arguments
- `len(sys.argv)` is the number of command-line arguments.

.Example:

```
#filename"cmdarg.py"impo
rt sys
program_name=sys.argv[0]
arguments = sys.argv[1:]
count = len(arguments)
print(program_name)
print(arguments)
print("Numberofarguments",count)
```

Output:

```
pythoncmdarg.py4556
cmdarg.py
['45','56']
Numberofarguments2
```

UNIT –4

Functions and Functional Programming – Functions – calling functions – creating functions – passing functions – Built-in Functions: apply(), filter(), map() and reduce() - Modules – Modules and Files – Modules built-in functions - classes – class attributes – Instances.

Functional Programming

Functional programming is designed to handle the symbolic computation and application processing list, and it is based on mathematical work. The most popular functional programming languages are Python, Lisp, Haskell, Clojure, Erlang etc.

Functional Programming has two types; those are shown as below:

Pure Functional Languages: Pure functional language supports only the functional pattern. An example of the pure functional language is Haskell.

Impure Functional Language: Impure Functional language supports the prototype of functions and the programming's imperative style. An example of an impure functional language is LISP.

Characteristics of the Functional Programming Language

Characteristics of the functional programming languages are like as shown below:

Functional programming languages are designed to perform the functions of mathematical functions. These functions use conditional expressions and recursion to perform the computation.

Functional programming supports functions in **higher-order** and features of **lazy evaluation**.

Functional Programming language directly uses the functions and function calls. It does not support the flow of the controls like statements of the loop, and statements are like the conditional statements such as If-Else and Switch Statements.

Object-Oriented Programming supports the Abstraction, Encapsulation, and Polymorphism, just like functional programming languages support OOPS concepts.

Advantages of the Functional Programming

Advantages of the functional programming languages are as shown below:

Bugs-Free code: Functional Programming language does not support **state**, so there is no side effect of the functional programming; hence we can write the error-free code.

Efficient Programming Language: Functional Programming language has no mutable state, so there is no state change issue. We can do the program "Functions" to work parallel to "Instruction". This type of code supports reusability and testability easily.

Efficiency-Functional Program contains the Independent Units. Independent units run concurrently. Hence these functional programs are more efficient.

Supports Nested Functions-Nested functions are supported by functional programming.

Lazy Evaluation- Lazy Functional Constructions are also supported by functional programming such as Lazy Lists, Lazy Maps, etc.

Functional programming does not have any state, so all the time, there is a need to create new objects to perform the actions. That's why functional programming needs a large memory space.

Functional programming is used to perform the different operations on the same dataset.

The LISP supports artificial intelligence applications such as language processing, Machine learning, Modelling of speech and vision.

Differences between the Functional Programming and Object-Oriented Programming are:

Sr.No.	Functional Programming	Object-Oriented Programming
1.	The functional programming language supports immutable data.	OOP uses mutable data.
2.	Functional Programming supports the Declarative Programming Model.	OOP supports the imperative Programming Model.
3.	Functional Programming focuses on the "What we are doing".	OOP focuses on the "How we are doing".
4.	The methods of Functional Programming will not produce any side-effects.	Methods of the OOP can produce the side-effects.
5.	Functional Programming follows parallel programming.	OOP does not work on parallel programming.
6.	For the flow control, we do function calls & function calls with recursion.	Object-Oriented Programming supports the use of the loops and conditional statements for the flow control.
7.	For the iteration of the data collection, functional programming uses the "Recursion" concept.	Object-Oriented Programming uses the "Loop" concept for the iteration of Data collection. For example, For-each loop in Java
8.	For functional programming, the execution of statements in the order is not so important.	It is essential for the oop programming to execute the statements in order is very important.
9.	Functional Programming supports "Abstraction over Data" and "Abstraction over Behavior".	OOP supports only "Abstraction over Data".

Efficiency of Program

The program's code is directly proportional to the efficiency of the algorithm and the execution speed of the program. If the efficiency is good, that means the performance will be high in the program.

The efficiency of the program is affected by the below factors:

The machine's speed affects the efficiency of the program.

The compiler's speed also affects the efficiency of the program.

The operating system also plays a crucial role in the efficiency of the programming code.

The choice of the right Programming language affects the efficiency of the programming. Data organization is also affecting the efficiency of the program.

The use of the algorithm in the program affects the efficiency of the programs. An algorithm in the Functional Programming solves the problem.

We can increase the efficiency of the programming language with the help of the below tasks-

To increase the program's efficiency, we have to remove the program's unusable code or the code that is having redundant processing.

The use of optimal memory and non-volatile storage helps to improve the efficiency of the programming language.

We can reuse the components. This will also help to increase the efficiency of the program. By using the error & exception handling on all the layers of the program.

During the program's coding, the programs should have to be ensured about the data's integrity and consistency.

By using the programming code, we can do design logic and flow.

Efficient programming code can reduce the consumption of the resources and time taken by the completion programs.

Functional Programming-Call by Value

After defining the function, there is a need to pass the arguments into the function to get the desired output. All the programming language supports the **call by value** and **call by reference** methods after arguments passed into the functions.

"Call by value" works only on the object-oriented programming language like C++. Functional programming language like Python also supports "call by value".

The original value of the call by value method will not change when we pass the arguments to the function. The function will store the value locally through the function parameter in stack's memory. The changed value in the function will not affect functions from the outside.

CallbyValue inC++

Here is the program which shows the call by value in the C++.

```
#include<iostream.h>
#include<conio.h>

void swap(int x, int y)
{
    int temp;
    temp = x;
    x = y;
    y = temp;
}

void main()
{
    int x = 400, y = 600;
    clrscr();
    swap(x, y); // arguments passed to the function
    cout << "Value of x" << x;
    cout << "Value of y" << y;
    getch();
}
```

This will show the following output:

```
Value of x is: 200
Value of y is: 100
```

CallbyValue inPython

Below program shows the working of Call by Value in Python:

```
def swap(x, y):
    t = x;
    x = y;
```

```

y=t;
print "thevalueofxargument insidethe function: ",x
print "thevalueofyargument insidethe function: ",y #
Now we will call swap function
x=70
y=75
print "thevalueofxargument beforeassigning intofunction:",x print
"thevalueofyargument beforeassigning intofunction:", y swap (x,
y)
print "thevalueofxargument afterassigning intofunction:",y
print"thevalueofyargumentafterassigningintofunction:",x

```

Theoutputoftheaboveprogramwilllooklikeasshownbelow:

```

value of x before sending to function: 70
value of y before sending to function: 75
value of x inside the function: : 75
value of y inside the function: 70
value of x after sending to function: 75
value of y after sending to function: 70

```

Function Overloading

When any program contains multiple functions, whose name is the same, but the parameters are different, they are known as overloaded. We use this technique to increase the readability of the program.

To overload the functions, we will use two methods. - The

function contains a different number of arguments.

Function having different types of arguments.

We usually will do the function overloading when we want to perform one operation, containing different numbers or types of arguments.

Function Overloading in C++

Function Overloading in C++ will be like as shown below: #

```

include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void addNum(int, int);
void addNum(int, int, int);
int main()
{

```

```

addNum(5,7);
addNum(5,6,8);
return0;
}
voidaddNum(inta,intb)
{
cout<<"Integernumberwouldbe: "<<a+b<<endl;
}
voidaddNum(int a,int b, intc)
{
cout<<"Floatnumberwouldbe: "<<a+b+c<<endl;
}

```

The output of the above program will look like, as shown below:

```

Integer number would be: 12
Float number would be: 19

```

Now we will take another example of the function overloading.

```

#include<iostream>
using namespacestd;

voidprint(intg)
{
cout<<"intnumberis:"<<g<<endl;
}
voidprint(doublef)
{
cout<<"doublenumberis:"<<f<<endl;
}
void print(charconst*c)
{
cout<<"Charis:"<<c<<endl;
}

intmain()
{
print(20);

```

```

print(20.20);
print("twenty");
return 0;
}

```

Now the output of the above program will look like as shown in the below screenshot:

Output

```

int number is: 20
double number is: 20.2
Char is: twenty

```

Function Overloading in Erlang

In the system, the Overloading process regulates the use of the CPU. In the function overloading, the main application calls the request function before doing any job and executes the process when it returns the positive value; else, the job will not start.

Overload is the part of the sas1 application, and we can define all the configuration parameter here.

We will maintain the two sets of intensity; those are the **total intensity** and the **accept intensity**. Intensities can be measured through the configuration parameters, which are: **MaxIntensity** and the **Weight value**. Both the intensities will be measured according to the 1/second.

Total intensity can be calculated, as shown below:

The assumption is that the current call to request/0 is $K(n)$, and the time of the previous call was $K(n-1)$. The current total intensity is denoted as $KI(n)$. We will calculate the intensity through the below formulas:

$$KI(m) = \exp(-\text{Weight} * (K(m) - K(m-1))) * KI(m-1) + \text{Weight}$$

Where $KI(n-1)$ is the previous total intensity.

The accept intensity is denoted as $BI(n)$, current accept intensity can be defined as shown below:

$$BI(n) = \exp(-\text{Weight} * (T(m) - T(m-1))) * AI(m-1) + \text{Weight}$$

where $AI(n-1)$ is known as the previous accept intensity, provided that the value of $\exp(-\text{Weight} * (T(n) - T(n-1))) * AI(n-1)$ is less than MaxIntensity ; else the value is

$$AI(n) = \exp(-\text{Weight} * (T(n) - T(n-1))) * AI(n-1)$$

Speed is controlled by the value of the configuration parameter (Weight), and the intensities' calculations will react according to the changes in the input intensity. The inverted value of Weight will be denoted like as shown below,

$$T = 1/\text{Weight}$$

This value can be defined as the "time constant," which is the intensity calculation formulas. For example, if Weight = 0.1, then the input intensity change is denoted by the total and accepts the 10 seconds' intensities. The overload process defined one alarm, which sets the alarm_handler:set_alarm(Alarm). We will define the alarm as:

```
{overload,[]}
```

We will set this alarm when the current accept intensity exceeds **MaxIntensity**.

Now we will perform function overloading in Erlang, Erlang is a functional programming language:

```
-module(helloworld).
    -export([add/3,add/3,start/0]).
```

```
add(X, Y)->
    Z=X+Y,
    io:fwrite("~w~n",[Z]).
```

```
add(X, Y, Z)-
    >A=X+Y+Z,
    io:fwrite("~w~n",[A]).
```

```
start()->
    add(5, 8),
    add(5, 6, 8).
```

Output of the above program will look like as shown below:

Pass function as parameter in python

In this article, we are discussing the pass function as a parameter in python. Functions can take multiple arguments. These arguments can be objects, variables (of the same or different data types), and functions. Python functions are the first elegant gadgets.

Within the following instance, a feature is assigned to a variable. This project no longer names a function. This takes the feature object pointed to by "shout" and creates a second call, "yell," pointing to it.

Facts may be exceeded to features as arguments. Arguments are unique after the characteristic call-in parentheses. You could add as many arguments as possible; separate them with commas.

The following example has a function with one argument (fname). At the same time, the function is referred to as passing the name used in the characteristic to print the overall call.

Example 1: Right here, we give an instance of the pass function as a parameter in python. The example is given below -

```
def my_function(fname):
    print(fname + " Id")
my_function("Emil")
my_function("Phone")
```

Result: We assemble the above program, and after compilation, we run the program. Then the result is given below -

```
EmailId
PhoneId
```

Example 2: Right here, we give another instance of the pass function as a parameter in python. The example is given below -

```
def shout(text):
    return text.upper()
print(shout('Hello World'))
yell = shout
print(yell('Hello Coders'))
```

Result: We assemble the above program, and after compilation, we run the program. Then the result is given below -

```
HELLOWORLD
```


HELLOCODERS

Wrapper Function: A wrapper function or decorator allows you to wrap another function and extend it without permanently changing the behavior of the wrapped function. In the decorator, the function is taken as an argument of another function and called inside the wrapper function.

Example 1: Right here, we give an instance of a wrapper function as a parameter in python. The example is given below -

```
def hello_decorator(func):  
    def inner1():  
        print("Hello coders, it is before the function execution")  
        func()  
        print("It is after the function execution")  
    return inner1  
def function_to_be_used():  
    print("It is inside of this function")  
function_to_be_used = hello_decorator(function_to_be_used)  
function_to_be_used()
```

Result: We assemble the above program, and after compilation, we run the program. Then the result is given below -

```
Hello coders, it is before the function execution  
It is  
inside of this function  
It is after the function execution
```

Lambda wrapper function: In Python, a nameless function approach that the character has no call. As you recognize, the `def` keyword defines ordinary functions, and the `lambda` keyword is used to create anonymous functions. This characteristic will have a variety of arguments but evaluates and returns the simplest expression.

A lambda function also can have every other character as an argument. The subsequent example suggests a primary Lambda characteristic surpassed every other Lambda function as a controversy.

Example 1: Right here, we give an instance of the lambda wrapper function as a parameter in python. The example is given below -

```
square = lambda a: a * a  
cube = lambda func: func ** 3  
print("The square of 4 is: " + str(square(4)))  
print("\nThe cube of " + str(square(4)) + " is: " + str(cube(square(4))))
```

Result: We assemble the above program, and after compilation, we run the program. Then the result is given below -

```
The square of 4
is:16
The cube of 16 is:
4096
```

Higher order function: Since functions are objects, we can pass them as arguments to other features. Capabilities that take other features as arguments are also referred to as better-order functions. The subsequent instance creates a Greet feature that takes a feature as an issue.

Example 1: Right here, we give an instance of a higher order function as a parameter in python. The example is given below -

```
def shout(text):
    return text.upper()
def whisper(text):
    return text.lower()
def greet(function):
    greeting = function("Hello, we are created by a higher order function passed as an argument.")
    print(greeting)
greet(shout)
greet(whisper)
```

Result: We assemble the above program and run the program after compilation. Then the result is given below -

```
HELLO, WE ARE CREATED BY A HIGHER ORDER FUNCTION PASSED AS AN ARGUMENT.
hello, we are created by a higher order function passed as an argument.
```

Conclusion: In Python, you can pass function objects to other functions. Functions can be propagated in Python. Python has built-in functions requiring you to specify the function as one or more arguments so you can call it later.

map, filter, and reduce in Python with Examples

Python Streams

Python stream is a term for a particular paradigm for data processing that involves the sequential processing of data items as they pass through a pipeline of processes. Streams allow data processing to be continuous, effective, and memory-friendly without loading the entire dataset into memory at once.

The map, filter, and reduce functions in Python are higher-order functions that work on sequences of data, such as lists or other iterable objects. Streams can be used in conjunction with these methods.

With the help of these functions, you may quickly and effectively analyze typical data on sequence elements.

What is functional programming?

Functional programming is a programming paradigm that treats computation as evaluating mathematical functions and avoids changing state and mutable data.

In functional programming, functions are first-class citizens, meaning they can be assigned to variables, passed as arguments to other functions, and returned as values from other functions.

Functional programming emphasizes **immutability**, meaning that once a value is assigned, it cannot be changed, and it avoids side effects, which are changes to the state or behaviour that affect the result of a function beyond its return value.

Functional programming is possible in Python using a number of features and tools, such as:

1. Higher-order functions- Python enables the assignment of functions to variables, the passing of functions as arguments, and the return of functions as values. Higher-order functions are the functions that accept other functions as arguments or return them as results and can be used as a result of this. Strong functional programming techniques like giving functions as parameters, returning functions from functions, and constructing functions on the fly are made possible by higher-order functions.

#Example of using higher-order functions in Python #

Function that adds 1 to the passed value (x)

```
def add(x):  
    return x+1
```

#Function that multiplies the passed value (x) by 2

```
def multiply(x):  
    return x*2
```

#Function that applies another function on passed value (x)

```
def apply(func, x):  
    return func(x)
```

```
result1 = apply(add, 3) # Result: 4  
result2 = apply(multiply, 3) # Result: 6
```

2. Lambda Functions- Lambda functions, also known as anonymous functions, can be defined inline without requiring a formal function declaration and are short and one-time-use functions. They are helpful for the performance of a single task that only requires one line of code to convey.

#Example of using lambda functions in Python

```
#Lambdafunctionthat adds1to x add
= lambda x: x + 1
```

```
#Lambdafunctionthatmultipliesxby2
multiply = lambda x: x * 2
```

```
result1 = add(3)# Result: 4
result2=multiply(3)#Result:6
```

3. map, filter, and reduce-Map, Filter, and Reduce are built-in Python functions that can be used for functional programming tasks. With the help of these operations, you may apply a specific function to sequence items using the 'map', filter sequence elements based on a condition using the 'filter', and cumulatively aggregate elements using the 'reduce'.

```
#Exampleofusing map,filter,andreduceinPython data =
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

```
#Usingthemaptoapplyafunctiontoeachelement #
Lambda function returns the square of x
result1=map(lambdax: x*2,data)#Result:[2,4,6,8,10]
```

```
#Usingthe filtertofilterelementsbasedonacondition #
Lambda function returns True for an even number
result2=filter(lambda x: x%2== 0,data)#Result: [2,4]
```

```
#Using reducetoaggregateelements
#Lambdafunctionreturnsproductofxandy
fromfunctoolsimport reduce
result3=reduce(lambda x,y:x*y,data)#Result:120
```

4. List Comprehension - List comprehensions are supported by Python, which are simple and expressive techniques to build new lists from older ones. Functional programming techniques such as mapping, filtering, and aggregating can be implemented using list comprehensions.

```
#Exampleofusinglist comprehensionsinPython data
= [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

```
#Using list comprehensiontoapplyafunctiontoeachelement
result1 = [x * 2 for x in data]# Result: [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]
```

```
#Using list comprehension to filter elements based on a condition
```

```
result2 = [x for x in data if x % 2 == 0]# Result: [2, 4]
```

```
# Using list comprehension to aggregate elements
```

```
result3=reduce(lambda x, y:x* y,data)#Result 120
```

Let's dive deeper into the `map()`, `filter()`, and `reduce()` functions in Python.

1. `map()` - Python's `map()` method applies a specified function to each item of an iterable (such as a list, tuple, or string) and then returns a new iterable containing the results.

The `map()` syntax is as follows: **`map(function, iterable)`**

The first argument passed to the `map` function is itself a function, and the second argument passed is an iterable (sequence of elements) such as a list, tuple, set, string, etc.

Example 1-usage of the `map()`:

```
#Using map() to square each element of the data list data
```

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

```
#Map function returns the map object
```

```
squares = map(lambda x: x*x, data)
```

```
#Iterating the elements of the squares
```

```
for i in squares:
```

```
    print(i, end="")
```

```
#Also, we can convert the map object into a list squares =
```

```
list(map(lambda x: x*x, data)) print(f"Squares:
```

```
{squares}")
```

Output:

```
1, 4, 9, 16, 25
```

```
Squares:[1,4,9,16,25]
```

Here, the `map` function takes each element one by one from the data starting from `x = 1`. Each element is passed to the `lambda` function, returning its square. And the returned value is stored in the `map` object (an iterable).

2. `filter()` - The `filter()` function in Python filters elements from an iterable based on a given condition or function and returns a new iterable with the filtered elements.

The syntax for the `filter()` is as follows: **`filter(function, iterable)`**

Here also, the first argument passed to the filter function is itself a function, and the second argument passed is an iterable (sequence of elements) such as a list, tuple, set, string, etc.

Example 1-usage of the filter():

You are given a list of integers and should filter the even numbers from the list. #

Using `filter()` to filter even numbers from a list

```
data=[1,2,3,4,5]
```

```
#The filter function filters the even numbers from the data #
```

```
and returns a filter object (an iterable)
```

```
evens=filter(lambdax:x%2==0,data)
```

```
#Iterating the values of evens
```

```
for i in evens:
```

```
    print(i,end=" ")
```

```
#We can convert the filter object into a list as follows:
```

```
evens=list(filter(lambdax:x%2==0,data))
```

```
#Printing the evens list
```

```
print(f'Evens={evens}')
```

Output:

```
24
```

```
Evens=[2,4]
```

Example 2: Filtering Perfect Squares

You are given a list of random integers and should filter the perfect squares from them. A perfect square is a number that can be expressed as the product of the same whole number.

```
#Python to demonstrate usage of filter function
```

```
from math import sqrt
```

```
# List that contains random integer values
```

```
data=[0,1,4,6,8,9,10,12,16,81,23, 36]
```

```
#Functionthatreturnstruefor perfectsquares
```

```
defisPerfectSqr(i):
```

```
    returnsqr(i).is_integer()
```

```
#Storing theresult
```

```
answer=list(filter(isPerfectSqr, data))
```

```
#Printing the result
```

```
print("Answer:",answer)
```

Output:

```
Answer:[0,1,4,9,16,81,36]
```

In the above example, we have a data list that contains some random integers. The 'isPerfectSqr' function returns True for perfect square numbers and False for others. The filter function filters out the numbers from the data, which is a perfect square, and returns an iterable that contains those perfect square numbers. In the end, we converted the result into a list and printed it into the console.

Example3:FilterOut NamesStarting withH

You are given a list containing names of persons and you should filter out the names starting with the letter 'H'. Below is the solution of the problem:

```
#Method1
```

```
#Using filter()to filternamesstartingwithletterH # A
```

```
list containing names
```

```
names=["Arun", "Sonu", "Harsh","Harry", "Anu", "Hassi"]
```

```
#Thefilter functionfiltersthenname fromthenames #
```

```
and returns a filter object (an iterable)
```

```
# We can convert the filter object into a list as follows:
```

```
name_start_with_H=list(filter(lambda:x[0]=='H',names))
```

```
#Printingthename_start_with_Hlist
```

```
print(f"Method1result={ name_start_with_H}") #
```

```
Method 2
```

```
#Wecanalsoseafunction insteadoflambdafunction
```

```
#TheH_namefunctionreturnstrueifx(name)startswith 'H'
```

```
def H_name(x):
    return x[0] == 'H'

# Filtering the result and printing it into the console
name_start_with_H = list(filter(H_name, names))
print(f"Method 2 result = {name_start_with_H}")
```

Output:

```
Method 1 result = ['Harsh', 'Harry', 'Hassi']
Method 2 result = ['Harsh', 'Harry', 'Hassi']
```

In the above example, the lambda or `H_name` function returns `true` for each `x` in `names` starting with letter `H`. The `filter` function filters all the names which satisfies the condition.

3.reduce()- In Python, `reduce()` is a built-in function that applies a given function to the elements of an iterable, reducing them to a single value.

The syntax for `reduce()` is as follows: **`reduce(function, iterable[, initializer])`**

The **function argument** is a function that takes two arguments and returns a single value. The first argument is the accumulated value, and the second argument is the current value from the iterable.

The **iterable argument** is the sequence of values to be reduced.

The optional **initializer argument** is used to provide an initial value for the accumulated result. If no `initializer` is specified, the first element of the iterable is used as the initial value.

Here's an example that demonstrates how to use `reduce()` to find the sum of a list of numbers:

Example 1:

You are given a list containing some integers and you should find the sum of all elements in the list using `reduce` function. Below is the solution of the problem:

```
# Example to understand the reduce() function
from functools import reduce

# Function that returns the sum of two numbers
def add(a, b):
    return a + b

# Our Iterable
num_list = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
```



```
#addfunctionispassedasthefirst argument,andnum_list ispassedasthesecondargument sum =  
reduce(add, num_list)
```

```
print(f"Sumoftheintegerstofnum_list:{sum}")
```

```
# Passing 10 as an initial value
```

```
sum=reduce(add,num_list,10)
```

```
print(f"Sumoftheintegerstofnum_listwith initialvalue 10 :{sum}")
```

Output:

```
Sumoftheintegerstofnum_list:55
```

```
Sumoftheintegerstofnum_listwithinitial value10 :65
```

In the above example, the reduce function takes two elements 1 and 2 from the num_list and passes to the add function in the first iteration. The add function returns the sum of 1 and 2 which is 3. In the second iteration, the reduce function passes the result of the previous call which is 3 and the next element which is also 3. This process is repeated until all elements have been processed.

In the case, where we pass the initial value (10), the reduce function takes one element from the num_list and initial value (10) and passes to the add function in the first iteration.

Example2: Using operator functions with reduce function

In the below example, we have used operator.add to perform addition, operator.mul to perform multiplication and operator.concat to perform concatenation on strings.

```
#Python program to demonstrate
```

```
#how to use operator functions with reduce function
```

```
#Importing reduce function
```

```
from functools import reduce
```

```
#Importing operator
```

```
import operator
```

```
# Creating
```

```
list my_list1=[1,2,3,4,5
```

```
]
```

```
my_list2=["I","Love","Javatpoint"]
```

```
#Calculating the sum of the numbers of my_list1 #
```

```
using reduce and operator.add
```

```

sum=reduce(operator.add,my_list1)

#Calculatingtheproductofthenumbersofmy_list1 #
using reduce and operator.mul
product=reduce(operator.mul,my_list1)

#Concatenatingalltheelementsinmy_list2 #
using reduce and operator.concat
concatated_str1=reduce(operator.concat,my_list2)

#Wecanachievethe same output by using operator.add
concatated_str2 = reduce(operator.add, my_list2)

#Printing result
print(f"Sum of all elements in my_list1: {sum}")
print(f"Product of all elements in my_list1 : {product}")
print(f"Concatenated string by using operator.concat : {concatated_str1}")
print(f"Concatenated string by using operator.add : {concatated_str2}")

```

Output:

```

Sum of all elements in my_list1 :
15Product of all elements in my_list1:120
Concatenated string by using operator.concat: I Love JavatpointCon
catenated string by using operator.add : I Love Javatpoint

```

Here, the function argument in the reduce function is replaced with the operator functions. All the steps are same as previous examples.

Example3: Find the largest of the given numbers.

In this example, you are given a list of integers and you should find the largest number using the reduce function. Below is the solution of the problem:

The are three methods, we can use to achieve the same result:

Method1-Using normal function

```

#Importing reduce function from the functools module
from functools import reduce

#A list containing some integers

```

```
num=[20,22,24, 12,6, 88,10, 55,66]
```

```
"""Method 1-Using simple function"""
```

```
#Function that returns the largest of x and y
```

```
def large(x,y):  
    return x if x > y else y
```

```
#Using reduce to find the largest of all and printing the result largest
```

```
= reduce(large, num)
```

```
print(f"Largest found with method 1: {largest}")
```

Method 2-Using Lambda function

```
"""Method 2-Using lambda function"""
```

```
#Using reduce to find the largest of all and printing the result largest
```

```
= reduce(lambda x, y: x if x > y else y, num) print(f"Largest  
found with method 2: {largest}")
```

Method 3-Using max function

```
"""Method 3-Using max() function"""
```

```
#Using reduce to find the largest of all and printing the result largest
```

```
= reduce(max, num)
```

```
print(f"Largest found with method 3: {largest}")
```

Output:

```
Largest found with method 1: 88
```

```
Largest found with method 2: 88
```

```
Largest found with method 3: 88
```

In the above example, the large function, lambda function, and the max function returns the maximum of x and y to the reduce function. And the reduce function parses all the elements one by one. At the end, it returns the largest of all.

CONCLUSION:

In conclusion, **map()**, **filter()**, and **reduce()** are built-in functions in Python that are commonly used for functional programming.

map() is used to apply a given function to each element of an iterable and returns a new iterable with the results.

filter() is used to filter elements from an iterable based on a given condition or function and returns a new iterable with the filtered elements.

reduce() is used to apply a given function to the elements of an iterable in a cumulative way, reducing the iterable to a single value.

These functions or tools give you strong capabilities for processing data quickly and expressively, making it simple to convert, filter, and aggregate data. They are frequently used in Python's functional programming concepts to create readable and efficient codes.

Python Modules

In this tutorial, we will explain how to construct and import custom Python modules. Additionally, we may import or integrate Python's built-in modules via various methods.

What is Modular Programming?

Modular programming is the practice of segmenting a single, complicated coding task into multiple, simpler, easier-to-manage sub-tasks. We call these subtasks modules. Therefore, we can build a bigger program by assembling different modules that act like building blocks.

Modularizing our code in a big application has a lot of benefits:

Simplification: A module often concentrates on one comparatively small area of the overall problem instead of the full task. We will have a more manageable design problem to think about if we are only concentrating on one module. Program development is now simpler and much less vulnerable to mistakes.

Flexibility: Modules are frequently used to establish conceptual separations between various problem areas. It is less likely that changes to one module would influence other portions of the program if modules are constructed in a fashion that reduces interconnectedness. (We might even be capable of editing a module despite being familiar with the program beyond it.) It increases the likelihood that a group of numerous developers will be able to collaborate on a big project.

Reusability: Functions created in a particular module may be readily accessed by different sections of the assignment (through a suitably established api). As a result, duplicate code is no longer necessary.

Scope: Modules often declare a distinct namespace to prevent identifier clashes in various parts of a program.

In Python, modularization of the code is encouraged through the use of functions, modules, and packages.

What are Modules in Python?

A document with definitions of functions and various statements written in Python is called a Python module.

In Python, we can define a module in one of 3 ways:

Python itself allows for the creation of modules.

Similar to the re (regular expression) module, a module can be primarily written in C programming language and then dynamically inserted at run-time.

A built-in module, such as the `itertools` module, is inherently included in the interpreter.

A module is a file containing Python code, definitions of functions, statements, or classes. An example `example_module.py` file is a module we will create and whose name is `example_module`.

We employ modules to divide complicated programs into smaller, more understandable pieces. Modules also allow for the reuse of code.

Rather than duplicating their definitions into several applications, we may define our most frequently used functions in a separate module and then import the complete module.

Let's construct a module. Save the file as `example_module.py` after entering the following.

Example:

```
# Here, we are creating a simple Python program to show how to create a module. #
```

```
defining a function in the module to reuse it
```

```
def square( number ):
```

```
    # here, the above function will square the number passed as the input result
```

```
    = number ** 2
```

```
    return result    # here, we are returning the result of the function
```

Here, a module called `example_module` contains the definition of the function `square()`. The function returns the square of a given number.

How to Import Modules in Python?

In Python, we may import functions from one module into our program, or as we say into, another module.

For this, we make use of the `import` Python keyword. In the Python window, we add the next to `import` keyword, the name of the module we need to import. We will import the module we defined earlier `example_module`.

Syntax:

```
import example_module
```

The functions that we defined in the `example_module` are not immediately imported into the present program. Only the name of the module, i.e., `example_module`, is imported here.

We may use the dot operator to use the functions using the module name. For instance:

Example:

```
#here, we are calling the module square method and passing the value 4
result = example_module.square(4)
print("By using the module square of number is:", result)
```

Output:

```
By using the module square of number is: 16
```

There are several standard modules for Python. The complete list of Python standard modules is available. The list can be seen using the help command.

Similar to how we imported our module, a user-defined module, we can use an import statement to import other standard modules.

Importing a module can be done in a variety of ways. Below is a list of them.

Python import Statement

Using the `import` Python keyword and the dot operator, we may import a standard module and can access the defined functions within it. Here's an illustration.

Code

```
#Here, we are creating a simple Python program to show how to import a standard module # Here,
we are import the math module which is a standard module
import math
print("The value of euler's number is", math.e)
#here, we are printing the euler's number from the math module
```

Output:

```
The value of euler's number is 2.718281828459045
```

Classes and Objects in Python

You wanted to build a house. What is the first thing you do to start the building process? You create a plan on how you want your house. You follow the plan to build the house. A plan is like a blueprint of the house that is not built yet and will be built based on it.

Why do we even need a plan? For the organization of all components like different rooms, walls, windows, and doors in the right places with the correct dimensions.

Definition of a class:

In any programming language, **a class is a user-defined plan or blueprint using which objects or instances of the class are created.**

You may wonder why we need classes in programming. We can create something like a variable or a structure, store what we want, and use it.

A class can have its attributes-variables and functions with pre-stored values and functionalities.

Example situation: If we want to store the data of different age groups of children and their details in an orphanage :

We cannot just create a list and keep on storing the ages and names of the children without any organization.

Creating multiple lists for multiple age groups -one list to store ages, one for names, another to match - becomes complex and leads to ambiguity.

Syntax:

#Definition of a class

```
class class_name:
    #body of the class
    #variables
    #functions
    #body of the functions
```

Important points:

"**class**" is a keyword in python libraries. A

class name must be **capitalized**.

Attributes are the variables owned by the class (declared inside the class) that the created objects can use.

Methods are the functions owned by the class (defined inside the class) that the created objects can use. The created objects using the dot (.) operator uses these attributes and methods of a class.

Example program:

```
class Employee:  
    #Attributes like name, id  
    #Methods
```

Now, let's get the overview of Objects:

OBJECTS - The instances of a class

Now, we have the blueprint. This is the time for action and implementing the idea of the class. The house - the plan is ready. It is time to start the construction. The organizing pattern is ready. Now, we build the rooms one by one. You can assume one of the objects of the house class is a room. We can create many objects - many different rooms. An object is like a specimen of the class.

The characteristics of an object:

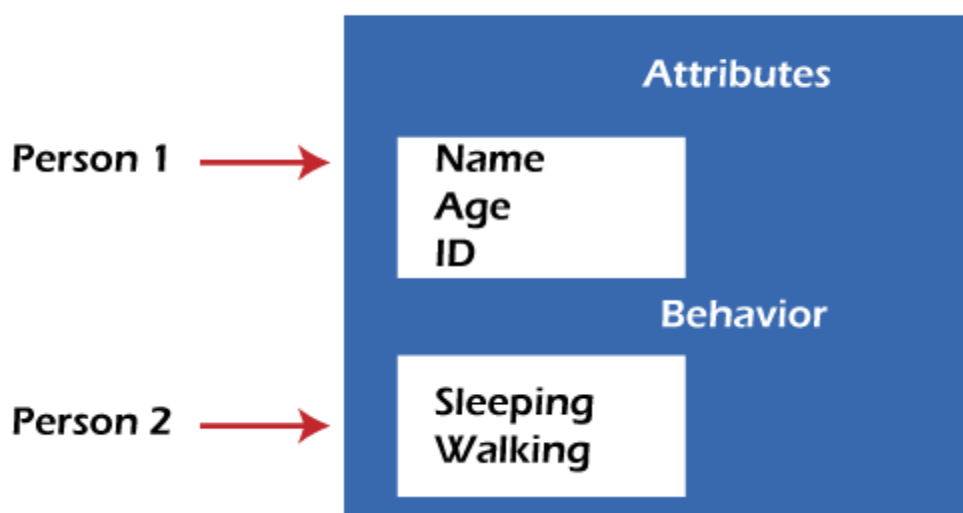
State: The state of an object refers to the attributes of the object - different variables with different info about the object.

Identity: It is the object's name to identify every object uniquely from another.

Behavior: The behavior of an object refers to the methods of object - different functionalities.

Examples for the characteristics of an object (Random):

Person

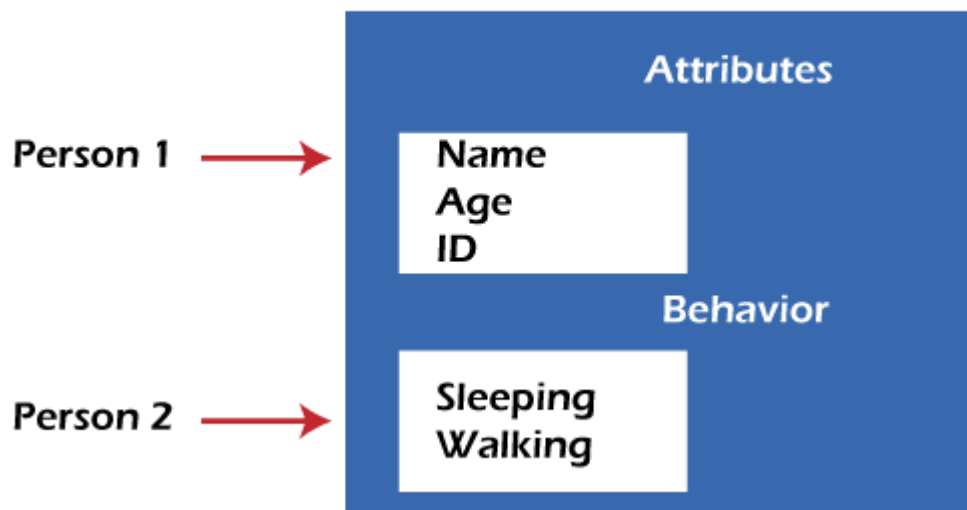


Object	Identity	State	Behavior
Aperson	Rakesh	Literate,qualified, vegetarian	Speaking,walking,reading
Ashopping sale	Republicdaysale	Started,offers,Ended,Cancelled	Earnloyaltypoints

If we created a class, say, people, a person is an object in that class. The person's name is the unique identity to identify the object; variables like literate and vegetarian refer to the object's state - different attributes of the object. The functions like walking; sleeping explains the person's behavior (object).

If the object is a dog:

Person



Declaring an object:

Object_name=Class_name()

Depending on the need, we can create as many objects as we want for a single function. So, we create a class and store the blueprint to do a task or organize something; we store them in variables called attributes and functions called methods.

Then, in the program, when we need the functionality of a class or its attributes and methods, we access them by declaring an object of that class.

Syntax to access:

#Declaring

Object_name=Class_name()

#To access a class-attribute

Object_name.class_attribute=value

#To access a class-method

Object_name.method_name(arguments)

Letustakethe example above-ADog.

Program:

```
class Our_Puppy:
```

```
    Name="Snoopy"
```

```
    Color = "Brown"
```

```
    Breed="GermanSheppard"
```

```
    Hungry = "yes"
```

```
Snoopy=Our_Puppy()
```

```
print("Thecolorofmydogis:",Snoopy.Color)
```

Output:

```
Thecolorofmydog is: Brown
```

Now,goingtothethodsofaclass,weneedtolearnaboutthe **selfvariable** and **theinit**

method.

The**init()**methodis a constructorwhich willbeinvoked by defaultwhen anew objectis created and initialized.

"**self**"isnotakeywordinpython.Itisaspecialvariable.Whenwedeclareamethodinaclass,we need to declare the first argument as self.

We will be able to access the attributes and the methods of the class using this self-argument. It holdsthe arguments to the attributes.

Eveninthe initmethod,wemust declarethefirstargument asself.

Self determinesthecurrentinstanceof theclass;In thecaseof theinitmethod,itreferstothenewly created object, while in other methods, it refers to the object whose method is called.

Evenifwewanttocreatea methodwithnoarguments,weneedtokeep theselfvariableastheonly argument in the method.

The syntaxwilllook likethis:

```

class Class_Name:
    attribute(variable)1
    attribute(variable)2
    ...
    attribute(variable)N

    definit(self,arg1,...,argn):

    defMethod_name1(self,arg1,...,argn):

    defMethod_name2(self):
    ...
    defMethod_nameN(self,arg1,...,argn):

```

Example programs:

#Using init method

```

class Student:
    definit(self,name,age,email):
        self.name = name
        self.age  =  age
        self.email=email
name = input("Please enter the name of the student1: ")
age=int(input("Please enter the age of the student1:")) stud
= Student(name,age,'santhosh@gmail.com')
name = input("Please enter the name of the student2: ")
age=int(input("Please enter the age of the student2:"))
stud2 = Student(name,age,"")
print("Stud_1.name=",stud.name)
print("Stud_2.name=",stud2.name)

```

Output:

```

Please enter the name of the student1: Santhosh Please
enter the age of the student1: 19
Please enter the name of the student2: Rakesh Please
enter the age of the student2: 19

```

```
Stud_1.name=SanthoshStu  
d_2.name = Rakesh
```

#Using more methods in the class

```
class Person_details:
```

```
    def init(self,name):
```

```
        self.name = name
```

```
    def setName(self,name):
```

```
        self.name = name
```

```
    def getName(self):
```

```
        return self.name
```

```
name= input("Enter the name of the person1:") p1 =
```

```
Person_details(name)
```

```
name=input("Enter the name of the person2:") p2 =
```

```
Person_details(name)
```

```
print("Person P1 name:",p1.getName())
```

```
print("Person P2 name:",p2.getName())
```

Output:

```
Enter the name of the person1: MaheshEnt
```

```
er the name of the person2:
```

```
Rakesh Person P1 name: Mahesh
```

```
Person P2 name: Rakesh
```

Attributes for an Empty class:

Python language allows the programmer to create attributes of an object declared for an empty class. We can even modify the values of attributes in different objects.

Here is an example of an empty class "Student_info". In the body of the program, we created an object Stud_1 for the class and gave values to 3 attributes for the class:

```
class Student_info:
```

```
    pass
```

```
Stud_1 = Student()
```

```
Stud_1.name='Sonu'
```

```
Stud_1.age = 19
```

```
Stud_1.graduate = 'B-  
tech'  
print("Stud_1.name:", Stud_1.name)  
print("Stud_1.age:", Stud_1.age)  
print("Stud_1.graduate:", Stud_1.graduate)
```

Output:

```
Stud_1.name:  
Sonu  
Stud_1.age:  
19  
Stud_1.graduate:B-tech
```

We discussed above that the `__init__` method is a constructor. Diving deep into **Constructors in python:**

A constructor can be understood as a type of a method. We use this to perform actions or tasks like initializing variables and other tasks that **must be done when a new object is created.**

In python, we use the same `__init__(self)` in all classes. The convention of the name: Two leading and trailing underscores. It is designed this way to prevent ambiguity with user-defined methods.

If we create a class without using the constructor, by default, python creates a constructor which doesn't have functionality other than instantiating the created object.

Let's summarize the learned topic till now:

Every class in python will consist of 3 key partners:

The constructor

Attributes of the class

Methods of the class

We create a class. Inside the class, we build the constructor `__init__()` with `self` argument and other arguments that we bind with the class attributes inside the body. So, when we create an object with some parameters, these parameters will occupy the arguments and be stored in the class attributes.

It is the same in normal methods, but in normal methods, we will have a task going on, but in the `__init__`, it is only about initializing the arguments.

The `self` keyword helps bind the parameters and arguments of the constructor and other methods. It must be declared as the first argument in any method.

Python Instance

Introduction

Python is a type of programming language used by developers worldwide. One of the essential features of Python is object-oriented programming (OOP). It allows the programmer to create objects, classes,

and instances. In this article, we are going to discuss Python instances in detail and demonstrate how they work with an example.

Understanding Object-Oriented Programming

Before we know about Python instances, it's very much important to understand the basics of object-oriented programming. OOP is a programming concept that revolves around objects, which are instances of classes. Classes are user-defined datatypes that encapsulate data and functions that operate on that data.

In OOP, objects are created from classes, and each object is unique. You can create multiple objects from the same class, and each object will have its own data and behavior. The following code shows how to define a class in Python:

Program 1:

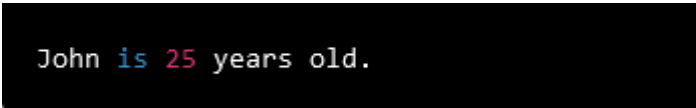
```
class MyClass:
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age

    def get_info(self):
        return f'{self.name} is {self.age} years old.'

# create an instance of MyClass
my_obj = MyClass("John", 25)

# call get_info method to print out the information
print(my_obj.get_info()) # output: John is 25 years old.
```

Output:



```
John is 25 years old.
```

Explanation

The above code defines a class `MyClass` with an `__init__` method. The `__init__` method initializes two instance variables `name` and `age`. The `get_info` method returns a formatted string that includes the values of the `name` and `age` instance variables.

An instance of the class is created with the name "John" and age 25. Then, the `get_info` method is called on the instance, which prints the information "John is 25 years old." to the console.

Creating Python Instances

Once the programmer have defined a class, then they can create objects (or instances) from that class. To create an instance, the programmer simply call the class and assign the result to a variable. The following code snippet shows how to create an instance of the MyClass class:

Program2:

```
class Person:
    def init(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age

    def greet(self):
        print(f"Hello, my name is {self.name} and I am {self.age} years old.")

# create instances of Person class
person1 = Person("Alice", 25)
person2 = Person("Bob", 30)

# call the greet method on each instance
person1.greet() # output: Hello, my name is Alice and I am 25 years old.
person2.greet() # output: Hello, my name is Bob and I am 30 years old.
```

Output:

```
Hello, my name is Alice and I am 25 years old.
Hello, my name is Bob and I am 30 years old.
```

Explanation

The above code defines a Person class with a constructor that initializes name and age instance variables. The class also has a greet method that prints out a greeting with the name and age of the person.

Two instances of the Person class are created with different name and age values. Then, the greet method is called on each instance, which prints out the greeting with the corresponding values for name and age.

Accessing Instance Attributes and Methods

Once the programmer have created an instance, then the programmer can access its attributes and methods using the dot notation. The following codesnippet shows how to access the name attribute and call the get_info method of the person object:

Program3:

```
class Car:
    def __init__(self, make, model, year, color):
        self.make = make
        self.model = model
        self.year = year
        self.color = color

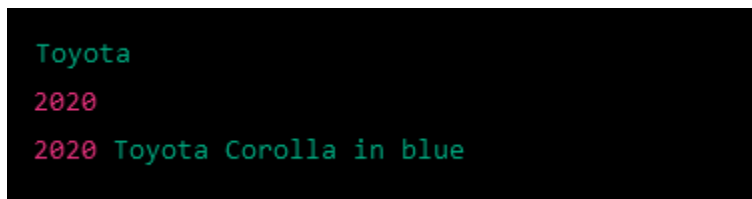
    def get_info(self):
        return f"{self.year} {self.make} {self.model} in {self.color}"

# create an instance of Car
my_car = Car("Toyota", "Corolla", 2020, "blue")

# access instance attributes
print(my_car.make) # output: Toyota
print(my_car.year) # output: 2020

# call instance method
car_info = my_car.get_info()
print(car_info) # output: 2020 Toyota Corolla in blue
```

Output:



```
Toyota
2020
2020 Toyota Corolla in blue
```

Explanation

The above code shows a class Car with an __init__ method that initializes four instance variables: make, model, year, and color. The get_info method returns a formatted string that includes the values of the year, make, model, and color instance variables.

An instance of the class is created with the make "Toyota", model "Corolla", year 2020, and color "blue". Then, the make and year instance variables are accessed using dot notation to print their values.

Finally, the `get_info` method is called on the instance and the returned string is stored in a variable `car_info` which is then printed to the console.

ModifyingInstanceAttributes

The programmer can also modify the attributes of an instance after it has been created. The following code snippet shows how to modify the attribute of the object:

Program4:

```
class MyClass:
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age

    def get_info(self):
        return f"{self.name} is {self.age} years old."

# create an instance of MyClass
my_obj = MyClass("John", 25)

# print the initial information
print(my_obj.get_info()) # output: John is 25 years old.

# modify the instance attributes
my_obj.name = "Jane"
my_obj.age = 30

# print the modified information
print(my_obj.get_info()) # output: Jane is 30 years old.
```

Output:

```
John is 25 years old.
Jane is 30 years old.
```

Explanation

The above code shows a `MyClass` class with an `__init__` method that initializes two instance variables `name` and `age`. Here the `get_info` method returns a formatted string that includes the values of the `name` and `age` instance variables.

An instance of the class is created with the name "John" and age 25. The initial information is printed by calling the `get_info` method on the instance.

The instance attributes `name` and `age` are then modified by directly accessing them using the instance `name` and the dot notation.

Finally, the modified information is printed by calling the `get_info` method on the instance again, and it prints the modified information "Jane is 30 years old." to the console.

Benefits of using Python Instance

There are so many advantages of using Python instances in the programming projects. These are as follows.

Encapsulation: Python instances allow the programmer to encapsulate data and functions that operate on that data. This means that the programmer can group related data and functionality together, making the code more organized and modular.

Reusability: Once the programmer has defined a class, then the programmer can create multiple instances of that class. This allows the programmer to reuse code and avoid duplicating functionality in the program.

Customization: Each instance of a class is unique and can be customized to suit specific needs. This means that the programmer can create objects that have different attributes and behavior based on their specific use case.

Inheritance: In Python, the programmer can create subclasses that inherit attributes and behavior from a parent class. This allows the programmer to create more specialized classes that build on the functionality of existing classes.

Polymorphism: Polymorphism is a programming concept that allows the programmer to use the same code to operate on different types of objects. Python instances support polymorphism, which means that the programmer can write code that works with different types of objects as long as they share a common interface.

Disadvantages of using Python Instance

There are also many disadvantages of using Python instances. These are as follows.

Overhead: When the programmer wants to create instances for a class, it can be computationally expensive, especially if the class has complex data structures or methods. This overhead can impact the performance of the code, particularly in applications that require high-speed processing.

Memory Usage: Each instance of a class requires memory to store its data and methods. If the programmer creates many instances of a class, it can consume a significant amount of memory, which may cause the application to slow down or crash.

Complexity: Object-oriented programming can be more complex than other programming paradigms, especially for beginners. Understanding how to create classes and instances, and how they interact with each other, requires a more comprehensive understanding of programming concepts.

Maintenance: As the code grows, managing instances and their relationships can become more challenging. Code changes to a class can impact the behavior of all instances of that class, which can make it harder to maintain and debug code.

Design: To use instances effectively, the programmer needs to design your classes and objects carefully. Poor design decisions can lead to a codebase that is difficult to understand and maintain.

Conclusion

Python instances are objects created from classes that encapsulate data and functions. The programmer can create multiple instances from the same class, and each instance will have its own data and behavior. Python instances are a powerful feature of object-oriented programming that allows the programmer to model real-world objects and their behavior in code. By mastering Python instances, the programmer will be able to write more modular, maintainable, and scalable Python code.

UNIT-V

Database Programming – Introduction-Basic Database Operations and SQL-Example of using Database Adapters, Mysql - Regular Expression – Special Symbols and Characters – REs and Python

What is Database

The database is a collection of inter-related data which is used to retrieve, insert and delete the data efficiently. It is also used to organize the data in the form of a table, schema, views, and reports, etc.

For example: The college Database organizes the data about the admin, staff, students and faculty etc. Using the database, you can easily retrieve, insert, and delete the information.

Database Management System

Database management system is a software which is used to manage the database. For example: MySQL, Oracle, etc are a very popular commercial database which is used in different applications.

DBMS provides an interface to perform various operations like database creation, storing data in it, updating data, creating a table in the database and a lot more.

It provides protection and security to the database. In the case of multiple users, it also maintains data consistency.

DBMS allows users the following tasks:

Data Definition: It is used for creation, modification, and removal of definition that defines the organization of data in the database.

Data Updation: It is used for the insertion, modification, and deletion of the actual data in the database.

Data Retrieval: It is used to retrieve the data from the database which can be used by applications for various purposes.

User Administration: It is used for registering and monitoring users, maintaining data integrity, enforcing data security, dealing with concurrency control, monitoring performance and recovering information corrupted by unexpected failure.

Characteristics of DBMS

It is a digital repository established on a server to store and manage the information. It can provide a clear and logical view of the process that manipulates data.

DBMS contains automatic backup and recovery procedures.

It contains ACID properties which maintain data in a healthy state in case of failure. It can reduce the complex relationship between data.

It is used to support manipulation and processing of data. It is used to provide security of data.

It can view the database from different viewpoints according to the requirements of the user.

Advantages of DBMS

Controls database redundancy: It can control data redundancy because it stores all the data in one single database file and that recorded data is placed in the database.

Data sharing: In DBMS, the authorized users of an organization can share the data among multiple users.

Easily Maintenance: It can be easily maintained due to the centralized nature of the database system.

Reduce time: It reduces development time and maintenance need.

Backup: It provides backup and recovery subsystems which create automatic backup of data from hardware and software failures and restores the data if required.

multiple user interface: It provides different types of user interfaces like graphical user interfaces, application program interfaces

Disadvantages of DBMS

Cost of Hardware and Software: It requires a high speed of data processor and large memory size to run DBMS software.

Size: It occupies a large space of disks and large memory to run them efficiently.

Complexity: Database system creates additional complexity and requirements.

Higher impact of failure: Failure is highly impacted the database because in most of the organization, all the data stored in a single database and if the database is damaged due to electric failure or database corruption then the data may be lost forever.

Database Connection

In this section of the tutorial, we will discuss the steps to connect the python application to the database. There are the following steps to connect a python application to our database.

```
Import mysql.connector module
```

Create the connection object.

Create the cursor object

Execute the query

Creating the connection

To create a connection between the MySQL database and the python application, the connect() method of mysql.connector module is used.

Pass the database details like HostName, username, and the database password in the method call. The method returns the connection object.

The syntax to use the connect() is given below.

```
Connection-Object=mysql.connector.connect(host=<host-name> , user = <username> , passwd = <password> )
```

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
#Create the connection object
```

```
myconn=mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost", user ="root",passwd="google")
```

```
#printing the connection object
```

```
print(myconn)
```

Output:

```
<mysql.connector.connection.MySQLConnectionobject at 0x7fb142edd780>
```

Here, we must notice that we can specify the database name in the connect() method if we want to connect to a specific database.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
#Createtheconnectionobject
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="m ydb")

#printingtheconnectionobject
print(myconn)
```

Output:

```
<mysql.connector.connection.MySQLConnectionobjectat0x7ff64aa3d7b8>
```

Creatingacursorobject

The cursor object can be defined as an abstraction specified in the Python DB-API 2.0. It facilitates us to have multiple separate working environments through the same connection to the database. We can createthe cursor object by calling the 'cursor' function ofthe connection object. The cursor object is an important aspect of executing queries to the databases.

Thesyntaxtocreatethecursorobjectisgivenbelow.

```
<my_cur>=conn.cursor()
```

Example

```
import mysql.connector
#Createtheconnectionobject
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="m ydb")

#printingtheconnectionobject
print(myconn)

#creatingthecursorobject
cur = myconn.cursor()

print(cur)
```

Output:

```
<mysql.connector.connection.MySQLConnectionobjectat0x7faa17a15748>
MySQLCursor:(Nothingexecutedyet)
```

Creating new databases

In this section of the tutorial, we will create the new database PythonDB.

Getting the list of existing databases

We can get the list of all the databases by using the following MySQL query.

```
>showdatabases;
```

Example

```
importmysql.connector
```

```
#Create the connection object
```

```
myconn=mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost", user ="root",passwd="google")
```

```
#creating the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
    dbs=cur.execute("showdatabases")
```

```
except:
```

```
    myconn.rollback()
```

```
for x in cur:
```

```
    print(x)
```

```
myconn.close()
```

Output:

```
('EmployeeDB',)
```

```
('Test',)
```

```
('TestDB',)
```

```
('information_schema'),('jav  
atpoint',)
```

```
('javatpoint1',)
```

```
('mydb',)
```

```
('mysql'),('performance_sch  
ema'),('testDB',)
```

Creating the new database

Thenewdatabasecanbecreated byusing thefollowingSQL query.

```
>createdatabase<database-name>
```

Example

```
import mysql.connector

#Createtheconnectionobject
myconn=mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost", user ="root",passwd="google")

#creatingthecursorobject
cur = myconn.cursor()

try:
    #creating a new database
    cur.execute("createdatabasePythonDB2")

    #gettingthe list ofallthedatabaseswhichwillnowincludethenewdatabasePythonDB dbs =
    cur.execute("show databases")

except:
    myconn.rollback()

forxincur:
    print(x)

myconn.close()
```

Output:

```
('EmployeeDB',)
('PythonDB',)
('Test',)
('TestDB',)
('anshika',)(('information_sch
ema',)(('javatpoint',)
('javatpoint1',)
```

```
('mydb',)
('mydb1',)
('mysql',)(performance_sch
ema',)(testDB',)
```

Creating the table

In this section of the tutorial, we will create the new table Employee. We have to mention the database name while establishing the connection object.

We can create the new table by using the CREATE TABLE statement of SQL. In our database PythonDB, the table Employee will have the four columns, i.e., name, id, salary, and department_id initially.

The following query is used to create the new table Employee.

```
>create table Employee(name varchar(20) notnull, id int primarykey, salary float notnull, Dept_Id int not null)
```

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
#Create the connection object
```

```
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host = "localhost", user="root", passwd="google", database="PythonDB")
```

```
#creating the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
    #Creating a table with name Employee having four columns i.e., name, id, salary, and department id
    dbs=cur.execute("create table Employee(name varchar(20) notnull, id int(20) notnull primarykey, salary float notnull, Dept_id int not null)")
```

```
except:
```

```
    myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```

```
javatpoint@localhost:~  
File Edit View Search Terminal Help  
Reading table information for completion of table and column names  
You can turn off this feature to get a quicker startup with -A  
  
Database changed  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> show tables;  
+-----+  
| Tables_in_PythonDB |  
+-----+  
| Employee            |  
+-----+  
1 row in set (0.00 sec)  
  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> desc Employee;  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| Field | Type          | Null | Key | Default | Extra |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| name  | varchar(20)   | NO   |     | NULL    |       |  
| id    | int(20)       | NO   | PRI | NULL    |       |  
| salary | float         | NO   |     | NULL    |       |  
| Dept_id | int(11)      | NO   |     | NULL    |       |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
4 rows in set (0.01 sec)  
  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> █
```

Now, we may check that the table Employee is present in the database.

Alter Table

Sometimes, we may forget to create some columns, or we may need to update the table schema. The alter statement is used to alter the table schema if required. Here, we will add the column branch_name to the table Employee. The following SQL query is used for this purpose.

```
alter table Employee add branch_name varchar(20) not null
```

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
# Create the connection object
```

```
myconn = mysql.connector.connect(host = "localhost", user = "root", passwd = "google", database = "PythonDB")
```

```
# creating the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

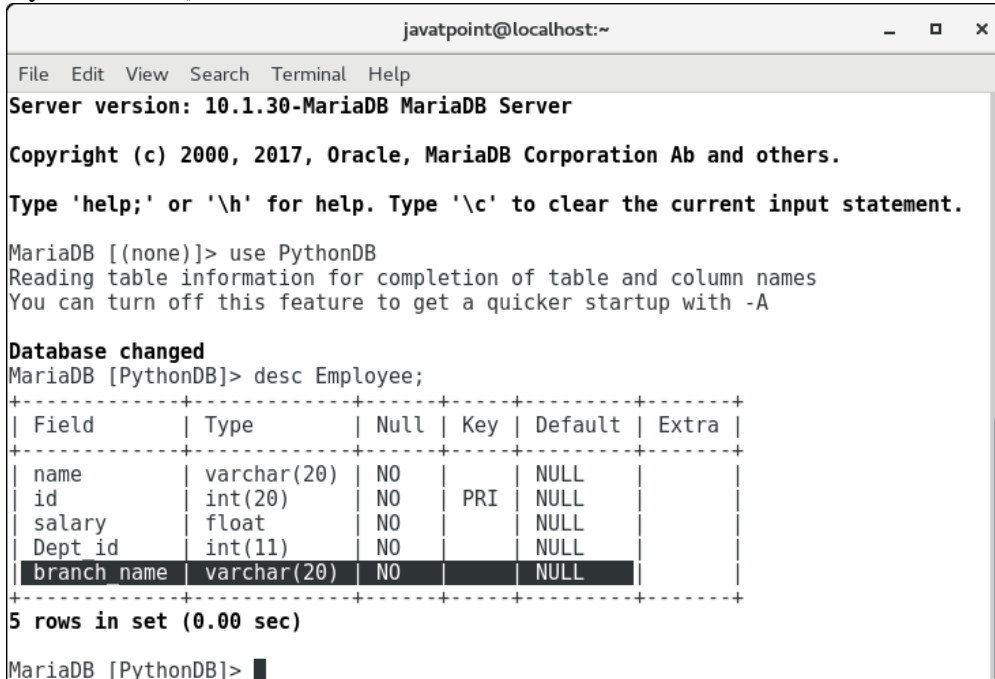
```
    # adding a column branch name to the table Employee
```

```
cur.execute("altertableEmployeeaddbranch_namevarchar(20)notnull")
```

except:

```
myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```



The screenshot shows a terminal window titled 'javatpoint@localhost:~'. The terminal output is as follows:

```
Server version: 10.1.30-MariaDB MariaDB Server
Copyright (c) 2000, 2017, Oracle, MariaDB Corporation Ab and others.
Type 'help;' or '\h' for help. Type '\c' to clear the current input statement.
MariaDB [(none)]> use PythonDB
Reading table information for completion of table and column names
You can turn off this feature to get a quicker startup with -A

Database changed
MariaDB [PythonDB]> desc Employee;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Field      | Type          | Null | Key | Default | Extra |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| name       | varchar(20)   | NO   |     | NULL    |       |
| id         | int(20)       | NO   | PRI | NULL    |       |
| salary     | float         | NO   |     | NULL    |       |
| Dept id    | int(11)       | NO   |     | NULL    |       |
| branch name | varchar(20)   | NO   |     | NULL    |       |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
5 rows in set (0.00 sec)

MariaDB [PythonDB]> 
```

InsertOperation

Adding arecordtothetable

The**INSERTINTO** statementisusedtoaddarecordtothetable.Inpython,wecanmentionthe format specifier (%s) in place of values.

Weprovidetheactualvalues inthe formoftuple intheexecute()methodofthecursor.

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
#Createtheconnectionobject
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="Py
thonDB")
#creatingthecursorobject
cur = myconn.cursor()
sql="insertintoEmployee(name,id, salary, dept_id, branch_name)values(%s, %s,%s,%s, %s)"
```

```
#The row values are provided in the form of tuple val =  
("John", 110, 25000.00, 201, "Newyork")
```

try:

```
#inserting the values into the table  
cur.execute(sql, val)
```

```
#commit the transaction  
myconn.commit()
```

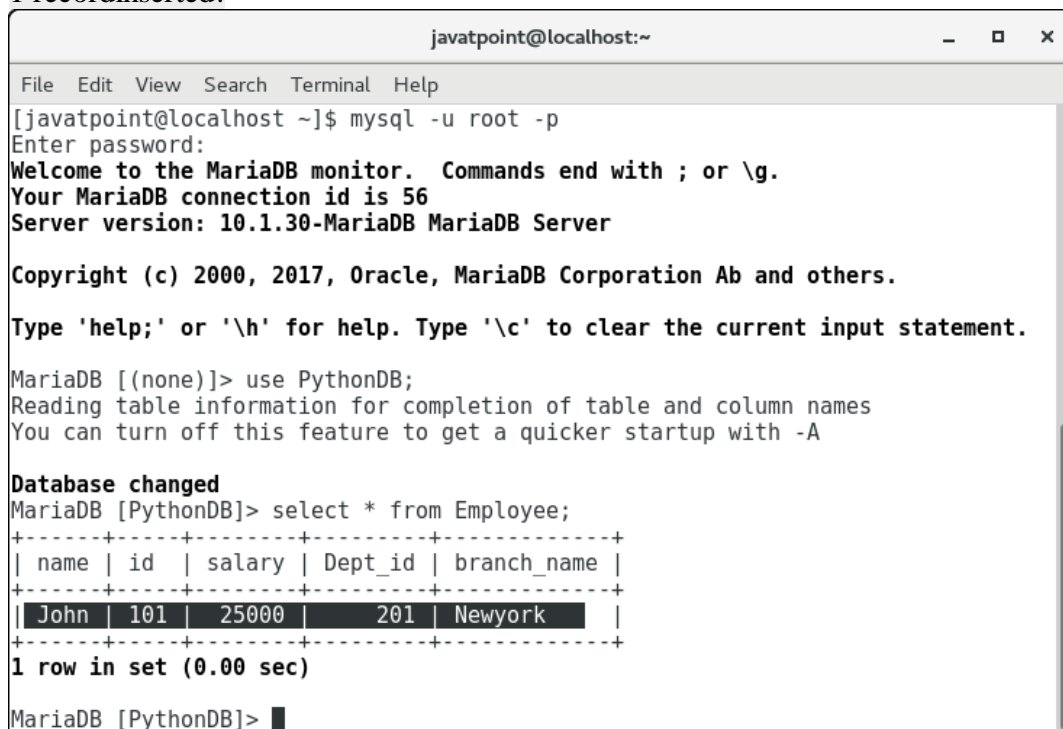
except:

```
myconn.rollback()
```

```
print(cur.rowcount, "record inserted!")  
myconn.close()
```

Output:

1 record inserted!



```
javatpoint@localhost:~  
File Edit View Search Terminal Help  
[javatpoint@localhost ~]$ mysql -u root -p  
Enter password:  
Welcome to the MariaDB monitor.  Commands end with ; or \g.  
Your MariaDB connection id is 56  
Server version: 10.1.30-MariaDB MariaDB Server  
  
Copyright (c) 2000, 2017, Oracle, MariaDB Corporation Ab and others.  
  
Type 'help;' or '\h' for help. Type '\c' to clear the current input statement.  
  
MariaDB [(none)]> use PythonDB;  
Reading table information for completion of table and column names  
You can turn off this feature to get a quicker startup with -A  
  
Database changed  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> select * from Employee;  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| name | id  | salary | Dept_id | branch_name |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| John | 101 | 25000  | 201     | Newyork     |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
1 row in set (0.00 sec)  
  
MariaDB [PythonDB]>
```

Insert multiple rows

We can also insert multiple rows at once using the python script. The multiple rows are mentioned as the list of various tuples.

Each element of the list is treated as one particular row, whereas each element of the tuple is treated as one particular column value (attribute).

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
# Create the connection object
```

```
myconn = mysql.connector.connect(host = "localhost", user = "root", passwd = "google", database = "PythonDB")
```

```
# creating the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
sql = "insert into Employee (name, id, salary, dept_id, branch_name) values (%s, %s, %s, %s, %s)"
```

```
val = [("John", 102, 25000.00, 201, "Newyork"), ("David", 103, 25000.00, 202, "Portofspain"), ("Nick", 104, 90000.00, 201, "Newyork")]
```

```
try:
```

```
    # inserting the values into the table
```

```
    cur.executemany(sql, val)
```

```
    # commit the transaction
```

```
    myconn.commit()
```

```
    print(cur.rowcount, "records inserted!")
```

```
except:
```

```
    myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```

Output:

```
3 records inserted!
```

```
javatpoint@localhost:~  
File Edit View Search Terminal Help  
Your MariaDB connection id is 61  
Server version: 10.1.30-MariaDB MariaDB Server  
Copyright (c) 2000, 2017, Oracle, MariaDB Corporation Ab and others.  
Type 'help;' or '\h' for help. Type '\c' to clear the current input statement.  
MariaDB [(none)]> use PythonDB;  
Reading table information for completion of table and column names  
You can turn off this feature to get a quicker startup with -A  
  
Database changed  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> select * from Employee;  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| name | id | salary | Dept_id | branch_name |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| John | 101 | 25000 | 201 | Newyork |  
| John | 102 | 25000 | 201 | Newyork |  
| David | 103 | 25000 | 202 | Port of spain |  
| Nick | 104 | 90000 | 201 | Newyork |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
4 rows in set (0.00 sec)  
  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> █
```

RowID

InSQL, a particular row is represented by an insertion id which is known as rowid. We can get the last inserted row id by using the attribute lastrowid of the cursor object.

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector  
# Create the connection object  
myconn = mysql.connector.connect(host = "localhost", user = "root", passwd = "google", database = "PythonDB")  
# creating the cursor object  
cur = myconn.cursor()  
  
sql = "insert into Employee(name, id, salary, dept_id, branch_name) values(%s,%s,%s,%s,%s)" val =  
("Mike", 105, 28000, 202, "Guyana")  
  
try:  
    # inserting the values into the table  
    cur.execute(sql, val)  
  
    # commit the transaction
```

```

myconn.commit()

#gettingrowid
print(cur.rowcount,"recordinserted!id:",cur.lastrowid)

```

except:

```

    myconn.rollback()

```

```

myconn.close()

```

Output:

```

1record inserted!Id: 0

```

Read Operation

The **SELECT** statement is used to read the values from the databases. We can restrict the output of a select query by using various clause in SQL like where, limit, etc.

Python provides the `fetchall()` method returns the data stored inside the table in the form of rows. We can iterate the result to get the individual rows.

In this section of the tutorial, we will extract the data from the database by using the python script. We will also format the output to print it on the console.

Example

```

import mysql.connector

```

```

#Create the connection object

```

```

myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="Py
thonDB")

```

```

#creating the cursor object

```

```

cur = myconn.cursor()

```

try:

```

    #Reading the Employee data

```

```

    cur.execute("select * from Employee")

```

```

    #fetching the rows from the cursor object

```

```

    result = cur.fetchall()

```

```

    #printing the result

```



```

forxinresult:
    print(x);
except:
    myconn.rollback()

```

```
myconn.close()
```

Output:

```

Backward Skip 10sPlay VideoForward Skip 10s
('John', 101, 25000.0, 201, 'Newyork')
('John', 102, 25000.0, 201, 'Newyork')
('David',103,25000.0,202,'Portofspain')
('Nick',104,90000.0,201,'Newyork')
('Mike',105, 28000.0, 202, 'Guyana')

```

Reading specific columns

We can read the specific columns by mentioning their names instead of using star (*).

In the following example, we will read the name, id, and salary from the Employee table and print it on the console.

Example

```

import mysql.connector
# Create the connection object
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="PythonDB")
# creating the cursor object
cur = myconn.cursor()try:
    # Reading the Employee data
    cur.execute("select name,id,salary from Employee")

    # fetching the rows from the cursor object
    result = cur.fetchall()
    # printing the result
forxinresult:

```

```
    print(x);
except:
    myconn.rollback()
myconn.close()
```

Output:

```
('John', 101, 25000.0)
('John', 102, 25000.0)
('David', 103, 25000.0)
('Nick', 104, 90000.0)
('Mike', 105, 28000.0)
```

The fetchone() method

The fetchone() method is used to fetch only one row from the table. The fetchone() method returns the next row of the result-set.

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
# Create the connection object
```

```
myconn = mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost", user="root", passwd="google", database="PythonDB")
```

```
# Create the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
    # Reading the Employee data
```

```
    cur.execute("select name, id, salary from Employee")
```

```
    # Fetching the first row from the cursor object result =
```

```
    cur.fetchone()
```

```
    # Printing the result
```

```
    print(result)
```

except:

```
myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```

Output:

```
('John', 101, 25000.0)
```

Formatting the result

We can format the result by iterating over the result produced by the `fetchall()` or `fetchone()` method of cursor object since the result exists as the tuple object which is not readable.

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
# Create the connection object
```

```
myconn = mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost", user="root", passwd="google", database="PythonDB")
```

```
# Creating the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

try:

```
# Reading the Employee data
```

```
cur.execute("select name, id, salary from Employee")
```

```
# Fetching the rows from the cursor object
```

```
result = cur.fetchall()
```

```
print("Name    id    Salary");
```

```
for row in result:
```

```
    print("%s    %d    %d" % (row[0], row[1], row[2]))
```

except:

```
myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```

Output:

Name	id	Salary
John	101	25000
John	102	25000
David	103	25000
Nick	104	90000
Mike	105	28000

Using where clause

We can restrict the result produced by the select statement by using the where clause. This will extract only those columns which satisfy the where condition.

Consider the following example.

Example: printing the names that start with j

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
# Create the connection object
```

```
myconn = mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost", user="root", passwd="google", database="PythonDB")
```

```
# creating the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
    # Reading the Employee data
```

```
    cur.execute("select name, id, salary from Employee where name like 'J%')")
```

```
    # fetching the rows from the cursor object
```

```
    result = cur.fetchall()
```

```
    print("Name    id    Salary");
```

```
    for row in result:
```

```

        print("%s  %d  %d"%(row[0],row[1],row[2]))
except:
    myconn.rollback()

```

```
myconn.close()
```

Output:

Name	id	Salary
John	101	25000
John	102	25000

Example:printingthenameswith id=101,102,and103

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
#Createtheconnectionobject
```

```
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="Py
thonDB")
```

```
#creatingthecursorobject
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
#ReadingtheEmployeedata
```

```
cur.execute("selectname,id,salaryfromEmployeeewhere idin(101,102,103)")
```

```
#fetchingtherowsfromthecursorobject
```

```
result = cur.fetchall()
```

```
print("Name  id  Salary");
```

```
forrowinresult:
```

```
    print("%s  %d  %d"%(row[0],row[1],row[2]))
```

```
except:
```

```
    myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```

Output:

Name	id	Salary
John	101	25000
John	102	25000
David	103	2500

Ordering the result

The `ORDER BY` clause is used to order the result. Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector

# Create the connection object
myconn = mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost", user="root", passwd="google", database="PythonDB")

# creating the cursor object
cur = myconn.cursor()

try:
    # Reading the Employee data
    cur.execute("select name, id, salary from Employee order by name")

    # fetching the rows from the cursor object
    result = cur.fetchall()

    print("Name    id    Salary");

    for row in result:
        print("%s    %d    %d" % (row[0], row[1], row[2]))
except:
    myconn.rollback()

myconn.close()
```

Output:

Name	id	Salary
David		

103

25000

John	101	25000
John	102	25000
Mike	105	28000
Nick	104	90000

OrderbyDESC

This order stores the result in the decreasing order of a particular column.

Example

```
import mysql.connector

# Create the connection object
myconn = mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost", user="root", passwd="google", database="PythonDB")

# creating the cursor object
cur = myconn.cursor()

try:
    # Reading the Employee data
    cur.execute("select name, id, salary from Employee order by name desc")

    # fetching the rows from the cursor object
    result = cur.fetchall()

    # printing the result
    print("Name  id  Salary");
    for row in result:
        print("%s  %d  %d" % (row[0], row[1], row[2]))

except:
    myconn.rollback()

myconn.close()
```

Output:

Name	id	Salary
------	----	--------

Nick	104	90000
Mike	105	28000
John	101	25000
John	102	25000
David	103	25000

UpdateOperation

The UPDATE-SET statement is used to update any column inside the table. The following SQL query is used to update a column.

```
>updateEmployeeaset name= 'alex'where id=110
```

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
#Createtheconnectionobject
```

```
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="Py  
thonDB")
```

```
#creatingthecursorobject
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
    #updating the name of the employee whose id is 110
```

```
    cur.execute("updateEmployeeaset name='alex'whereid=110")
```

```
    myconn.commit()
```

```
except:
```

```
    myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```

```
javatpoint@localhost:~  
File Edit View Search Terminal Help  
Copyright (c) 2000, 2017, Oracle, MariaDB Corporation Ab and others.  
Type 'help;' or '\h' for help. Type '\c' to clear the current input statement.  
MariaDB [(none)]> use PythonDB;  
Reading table information for completion of table and column names  
You can turn off this feature to get a quicker startup with -A  
  
Database changed  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> select * from Employee;  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| name | id | salary | Dept_id | branch_name |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| John | 101 | 25000 | 201 | Newyork |  
| John | 102 | 25000 | 201 | Newyork |  
| David | 103 | 25000 | 202 | Port of spain |  
| Nick | 104 | 90000 | 201 | Newyork |  
| Mike | 105 | 28000 | 202 | Guyana |  
| alex | 110 | 25000 | 201 | Newyork |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
6 rows in set (0.00 sec)  
  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> █
```

DeleteOperation

TheDELETE FROMstatement isusedto deleteaspecificrecordfromthetable. Here, wemust impose a condition using WHERE clause otherwise all the records from the table will be removed.

The followingSQLQueryisusedtodeletetheemployeeedetailwhoseidis110fromthe table.

```
>deletefromEmployeewhereid=110
```

Consider the following example.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
#Createtheconnectionobject
```

```
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="Py  
thonDB")
```

```
#creatingthecursorobject
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
#Deleting the employee details whose id is 110
cur.execute("deletefromEmployeewhereid=110")
myconn.commit()
```

except:

```
myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```

JoinOperation

We can combine the columns from two or more tables by using some common column among them by using the join statement.

We have only one table in our database, let's create one more table Departments with two columns department_id and department_name.

```
createtableDepartments(Dept_idint(20)primarykeynotnull,Dept_Namevarchar(20)notnull);
```

The screenshot shows a terminal window titled 'javatpoint@localhost:~'. It displays the output of two SQL commands in MariaDB [PythonDB].

First command: `desc Departments;`

Field	Type	Null	Key	Default	Extra
Dept_id	int(20)	NO	PRI	NULL	
Dept_Name	varchar(20)	NO		NULL	

2 rows in set (0.21 sec)

Second command: `desc Employee;`

Field	Type	Null	Key	Default	Extra
name	varchar(20)	NO		NULL	
id	int(20)	NO	PRI	NULL	
salary	float	NO		NULL	
Dept_id	int(11)	NO		NULL	
branch_name	varchar(20)	NO		NULL	

5 rows in set (0.02 sec)

The terminal prompt is now `MariaDB [PythonDB]>`.

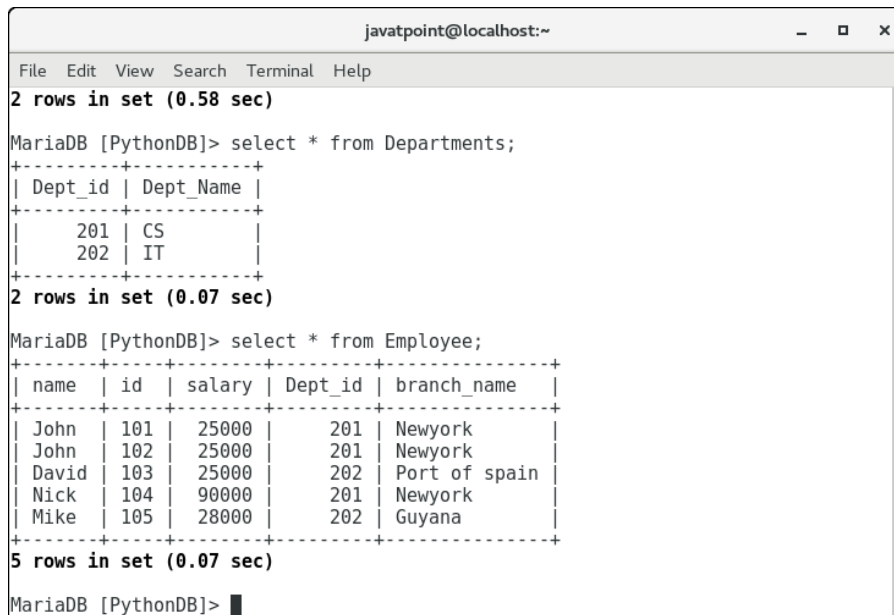
As we have created a new table Departments as shown in the above image. However, we haven't yet inserted any value inside it.

Let's insert some Departments IDs and department names so that we can map this to our Employee table.

```
insertintoDepartmentsvalues(201, "CS");
```

```
insertintoDepartmentsvalues(202, "IT");
```

Let's look at the values inserted in each of the tables. Consider the following image.



```
javatpoint@localhost:~  
File Edit View Search Terminal Help  
2 rows in set (0.58 sec)  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> select * from Departments;  
+-----+-----+  
| Dept_id | Dept_Name |  
+-----+-----+  
|      201 | CS        |  
|      202 | IT        |  
+-----+-----+  
2 rows in set (0.07 sec)  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> select * from Employee;  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| name  | id  | salary | Dept_id | branch_name |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
| John  | 101 | 25000  |      201 | Newyork      |  
| John  | 102 | 25000  |      201 | Newyork      |  
| David | 103 | 25000  |      202 | Port of spain |  
| Nick  | 104 | 90000  |      201 | Newyork      |  
| Mike  | 105 | 28000  |      202 | Guyana       |  
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+  
5 rows in set (0.07 sec)  
MariaDB [PythonDB]> █
```

Now, let's create a python script that joins the two tables on the common column, i.e., dept_id.

Example

```
importmysql.connector
```

```
#Create the connection object
```

```
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="PythonDB")
```

```
#creating the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
#joining the two tables on departments_id
```

```
cur.execute("select Employee.id,Employee.name,Employee.salary,Departments.Dept_id,Departments.Dept_Name from Departments join Employee on Departments.Dept_id = Employee.Dept_id")
```

```
print("ID  Name  Salary  Dept_Id  Dept_Name")
```

```
forrowincur:
```

```
print("%d  %s  %d  %d  %s"%(row[0],row[1],row[2],row[3],row[4]))
```

```
except:
```

```
myconn.rollback()
```

```
myconn.close()
```

Output:

ID	Name	Salary	Dept_Id	Dept_Name
101	John	25000	201	CS
102	John	25000	201	CS
103	David	25000	202	IT
104	Nick	90000	201	CS
105	Mike	28000	202	IT

RightJoin

Right join shows all the columns of the right-hand side table as we have two tables in the database PythonDB, i.e., Departments and Employee. We do not have any Employee in the table who is not working for any department (Employee for which department id is null). However, to understand the concept of right join let's create the one.

Execute the following query on the MySQL server.

```
insert into Employee(name, id, salary, branch_name) values ("Alex",108,29900,"Mumbai");
```

This will insert an employee Alex who doesn't work for any department (department id is null).

Now, we have an employee in the Employee table whose department id is not present in the Departments table. Let's perform the right join on the two tables now.

Example

```
import mysql.connector
```

```
#Create the connection object
```

```
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="PythonDB")
```

```
#creating the cursor object
```

```
cur = myconn.cursor()
```

```
try:
```

```
    #joining the two tables on departments_id
```

```
    result = cur.execute("select Employee.id, Employee.name, Employee.salary, Departments.Dept_id, Departments.Dept_Name from Departments right join Employee on Departments.Dept_id=Employee.Dept_id")
```

```

print("ID   Name   Salary   Dept_Id   Dept_Name")

for row in cur:
    print(row[0], "   ", row[1], "   ", row[2], "   ", row[3], "   ", row[4])

except:
    myconn.rollback()

myconn.close()

```

Output:

ID	Name	Salary	Dept_Id	Dept_Name
101	John	25000.0	201	CS
102	John	25000.0	201	CS
103	David	25000.0	202	IT
104	Nick	90000.0	201	CS
105	Mike	28000.0	202	IT
108	Alex	29900.0	None	None

Left Join

The left join covers all the data from the left-hand side table. It has just opposite effect to the right join. Consider the following example.

Example

```

import mysql.connector

# Create the connection object
myconn= mysql.connector.connect(host ="localhost",user="root",passwd="google",database="PythonDB")

# creating the cursor object
cur = myconn.cursor()

try:

```

```
#joining the two tables on departments_id
result = cur.execute("select Employee.id, Employee.name, Employee.salary, Departments.Dept_id,
Departments.Dept_Name from Departments left join Employee on Departments.Dept_id=Employee.D
ept_id")
print("ID   Name   Salary   Dept_Id   Dept_Name")
for row in cur:
    print(row[0], " ", row[1], " ", row[2], " ", row[3], " ", row[4])

except:
    myconn.rollback()

myconn.close()
```

Output:

ID	Name	Salary	Dept_Id	Dept_Name
101	John	25000.0	201	CS
102	John	25000.0	201	CS
103	David	25000.0	202	IT
104	Nick	90000.0	201	CS
105	Mike	28000.0	202	IT

Transaction property

The transaction has the four properties. These are used to maintain consistency in a database, before and after the transaction.

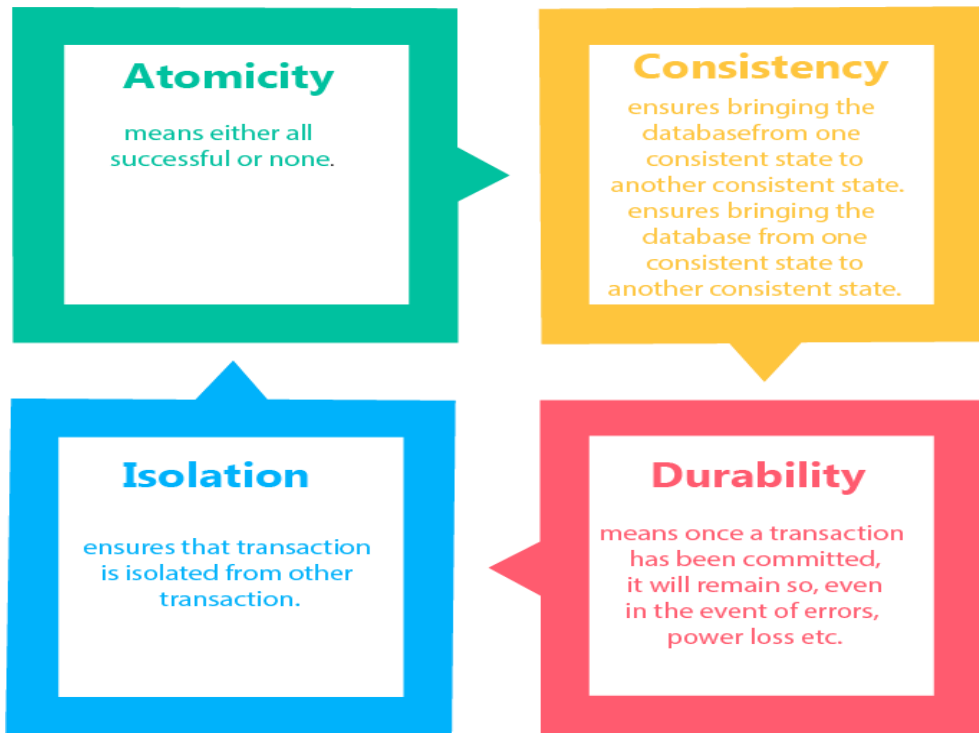
Property of Transaction

Atomicity

Consistency

Isolation

Durability



Atomicity

It states that all operations of the transaction take place at once; if not, the transaction is aborted.

There is no midway, i.e., the transaction cannot occur partially. Each transaction is treated as one unit and either run to completion or is not executed at all.

Atomicity involves the following two operations:

Abort: If a transaction aborts then all the changes made are not visible.

Commit: If a transaction commits then all the changes made are visible.

Example: Let's assume that following transaction T consisting of T1 and T2. A consists of Rs 600 and B consists of Rs 300. Transfer Rs 100 from account A to account B.

T1	T2
Read(A) A:=A-100 Write(A)	Read(B) Y:=Y+100 Write(B)

After completion of the transaction, A consists of Rs 500 and B consists of Rs 400.

If the transaction T fails after the completion of transaction T1 but before completion of transaction T2, then the amount will be deducted from A but not added to B. This shows the inconsistent database state. In order to ensure correctness of database state, the transaction must be executed in entirety.

Consistency

The integrity constraints are maintained so that the database is consistent before and after the transaction.

The execution of a transaction will leave a database in either its prior stable state or a new stable state. The consistent property of database states that every transaction sees a consistent database instance.

The transaction is used to transform the database from one consistent state to another consistent state.

For example: The total amount must be maintained before or after the transaction.

Total before T occurs = $600 + 300 = 900$

Total after T occurs = $500 + 400 = 900$

Therefore, the database is consistent. In the case when T1 is completed but T2 fails, then inconsistency will occur.

Isolation

It shows that the data which is used at the time of execution of a transaction cannot be used by the second transaction until the first one is completed.

In isolation, if the transaction T1 is being executed and using the data item X, then that data item can't be accessed by any other transaction T2 until the transaction T1 ends.

The concurrency control subsystem of the DBMS enforces the isolation property.

Durability

The durability property is used to indicate the performance of the database's consistent state. It states that the transaction made the permanent changes.

They cannot be lost by the erroneous operation of a faulty transaction or by the system failure. When a transaction is completed, then the database reaches a state known as the consistent state. That consistent state cannot be lost, even in the event of a system's failure.

The recovery subsystem of the DBMS has the responsibility of durability property.

MySQL Regular Expressions

A regular expression is a special string that describes a search pattern. It's a powerful tool to give a concise and flexible way for identifying text strings such as characters and words based on patterns.

It uses its own syntax that can be interpreted by a regular expression processor. A regular expression is widely used in almost all platforms, from programming languages to databases, including MySQL.

A regular expression uses the backslash as an **escape character** that should be considered in the pattern match if double backslashes have been used. The regular expressions are not case sensitive. **It is abbreviated as REGEX or REGEXP in MySQL.**

The advantage of using a regular expression is that we are not limited to searching for a string based on a fixed pattern with the percent (%) sign and underscore (_) in the LIKE operator. The regular expression has more meta-characters that allow more flexibility and control while performing pattern matching.

We have **previously learned about wildcards**, which allows us to get a similar result as regular expressions. So we may ask **why we learn regular expressions** if we will get the same result as the wildcards. It is because regular expressions allow us to search data matching even more complex ways compared to wildcards.

Syntax

MySQL adapts the regular expression implemented by **Henry Spencer**. MySQL allows us to match patterns right in the SQL statements by using the REGEXP operator. The following is the basic syntax that illustrates the use of regular expressions in MySQL:

```
SELECT column_lists FROM table_name WHERE field_name REGEXP 'pattern';
```

In this syntax, the **column_list** indicates the column name that returns in the result set. The **table_name** is the name of the table that data will be retrieved using the pattern. The **WHERE field_name** represents the column name on which the regular expression is performed. The REGEXP is the regular expression operator, and the **pattern** is the search condition to be matched by REGEXP. We can also use the **RLIKE** operator, which is the synonym for REGEXP that gives the same results as REGEXP. We can avoid the confusion to use this statement with the LIKE operator by using the REGEXP instead of LIKE.

This statement returns **true** if a value in the WHERE field_name matches the pattern. Otherwise, it returns **false**. If either field_name or pattern is **NULL**, the result is always **NULL**. The negation form of the REGEXP operator is NOT REGEXP.

Regular Expression Meta-Characters

The following table shows the most commonly used meta-characters and constructs in a regular

Meta-Character	Descriptions
^	The caret (^) character is used to start matches at the beginning of a searched string.
\$	The dollar (\$) character is used to start matches at the end of a searched string.
.	The dot (.) character matches any single character except for a newline.
[abc]	It is used to match any characters enclosed in the square brackets.
[^abc]	It is used to match any characters not specified in the square brackets.
*	The asterisk (*) character matches zero (0) or more instances of the preceding strings.
+	The plus (+) character matches one or more instances of preceding strings.
{n}	It is used to match n instances of the preceding element.
{m,n}	It is used to match m to n instance of the preceding element.
p1 p2	It is used to isolate alternatives that match any of the patterns p1 or p2.
?	The question mark (?) character matches zero (0) or one instance of preceding strings.
[A-Z]	It is used to match any uppercase character.
[a-z]	It is used to match any lower case character.
[0-9]	It is used to match numeric digits from 0 to 9.
[[:<:]]	It matches the beginning of words.
[[:>:]]	It matches the end of words.
[[:class:]]	It is used to match a character class, i.e. [[:alpha:]] matches letters, [[:space:]] match white space, [[:punct:]] matches punctuations and [[:upper:]] for upper-class letters.

expression:

Let us understand the regular expressions using practical examples given below:

Suppose we have a table named **student_info** that contains the following data. We will demonstrate various examples based on this table data.

MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info;
```

stud_id	stud_code	stud_name	subject	marks	phone
1	101	Mark	English	68	34545693537
2	102	Joseph	Physics	70	98765435659
3	103	John	Maths	70	97653269756
4	104	Barack	Maths	90	87698753256
5	105	Rinky	Maths	85	67531579757
6	106	Adam	Science	92	79642256864
7	107	Andrew	Science	83	56742437579
8	108	Brayan	Science	85	75234165670
10	110	Alexandar	Biology	67	2347346438

If we want to **search for students whose name start with "A or B"**, we can use a regular expression together with the meta-characters as follows:

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info WHERE stud_name REGEXP '^[ab]';
```

Executing the statement, we will get the desired result. See the below output:

MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info WHERE stud_name REGEXP '^[ab]';
```

stud_id	stud_code	stud_name	subject	marks	phone
4	104	Barack	Maths	90	87698753256
6	106	Adam	Science	92	79642256864
7	107	Andrew	Science	83	56742437579
8	108	Brayan	Science	85	75234165670
10	110	Alexandar	Biology	67	2347346438

If we want to **get the student information whose name ends with k**, we can use 'k\$' meta-character to match the end of a string as follows:

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info WHERE stud_name REGEXP 'k$';
```

Executing the statement, we will get the desired result. See the below output:

MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info WHERE stud_name REGEXP 'k$';
```

stud_id	stud_code	stud_name	subject	marks	phone
1	101	Mark	English	68	34545693537
4	104	Barack	Maths	90	87698753256

2 rows in set (0.02 sec)

If we want to **get the student information whose name contains exactly six characters**, we can do this using '^' and '\$' **meta-characters**. These characters match the **beginning and end** of the student name and repeat {6} times of any character '.' in-between as shown in the following statement:

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info WHERE stud_name REGEXP '^.{6}$';
```

Executing the statement, we will get the desired result. See the below output:

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info WHERE stud_name REGEXP '^.{6}$';
```

stud_id	stud_code	stud_name	subject	marks	phone
2	102	Joseph	Physics	70	98765435659
4	104	Barack	Maths	90	87698753256
7	107	Andrew	Science	83	56742437579
8	108	Brayan	Science	85	75234165670

4 rows in set (0.00 sec)

If we want to **get the student info whose subjects contains 'i' characters**, we can do this by using the below query:

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info WHERE subject REGEXP 'i';
```

Executing the statement, we will get the desired result. See the below output:

Regular Expression Functions and Operators

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM student_info WHERE subject REGEXP 'i';
```

stud_id	stud_code	stud_name	subject	marks	phone
1	101	Mark	English	68	34545693537
2	102	Joseph	Physics	70	98765435659
6	106	Adam	Science	92	79642256864
7	107	Andrew	Science	83	56742437579
8	108	Brayan	Science	85	75234165670
10	110	Alexandar	Biology	67	2347346438

The following are the list of regular functions and operators in MySQL:

Name	Descriptions
NOT_REGEX	It is the negation of a REGEXP operator.

REGEXP	This operator represents whether the string matches regular expression or not.
RLIKE	This operator represents whether the string matches regular expression or not.
REGEXP_INSTR()	It is a function that gives a result when the starting index of substring matches a regular expression.
REGEXP_LIKE()	This function represents whether the string matches regular expression or not.
REGEXP_REPLACE()	It gives results by replacing substring that match the regular expression.
REGEXP_SUBSTRING()	This function returns substring that matches a regular expression.

Let's see all of them in detail.

REGEXP,RLIKE, ®EXP_LIKE()

Although these functions and operators return the same result, **REGEXP_LIKE()** gives us more functionality with the optional parameters. We can use them as follows:

expression REGEXP pattern expression

RLIKE pattern

REGEXP(expression, pattern[,match_type])

These statements give output whether string expression matches regular expression pattern or not. We will get 1 if an expression matches the pattern. Otherwise, they return 0. The below examples explain it more clearly.

In the below image, the first statement returns '1' because 'B' is in the range A-Z. The second statement limited the range of the pattern to B-Z. So 'A' will not match any character within the range, and MySQL returns 0. Here we have used the alias **match_ and not_match_** so that the returned column will be more understandable.

```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT ('B' REGEXP '[A-Z]') AS match_;
+-----+
| match_ |
+-----+
|      1 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT ('A' RLIKE '[B-Z]') AS not_match_;
+-----+
| not_match_ |
+-----+
|          0 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

REGEXP_LIKE()Parameter

The following are the **five possible parameters** to modify the function output:

c: It represents a case-sensitive matching.

i: It represents a case-insensitive matching.

m: It represents a multiple-line mode that allows line terminators within the string. By default, this function matches line terminators at the start and end of the string.

n: It is used to modify the . (dot) character to match line terminators.

u: It represents Unix-only line endings.

Example

In this example, we have added the '**c**' and '**i**' as an optional parameter, which invokes **case-sensitive** and **case-insensitive** matching. The first query gives the output 0 because 'a' is in the range 'a-z', but not in the range of capital letters A-Z. The second query gives the output 1 because of case-insensitive features.

```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT REGEXP_LIKE('a','[A-Z]','c') AS not_match_;
+-----+
| not_match_ |
+-----+
|          0 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT REGEXP_LIKE('a','[A-Z]','i') AS match_;
+-----+
| match_ |
+-----+
|       1 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

NOTREGEXP&NOTRLIKE

They are regular expression operators that compare the specified pattern and return the result, which does not match the patterns. These operators return 1 if no match is found. Otherwise, they return 0. We can use these functions as follows:

SELECT(exprNOTREGEXPpat); OR

SELECT(exprNOTRLIKE pat);

Example

The below statement returns 0 because 'a' is found in the given range.

mysql>**SELECT**('a'NOTREGEXP'[a-z'])ASnot_match; Here is

the output:

```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT ('a' NOT REGEXP '[a-z]') AS not_match;
+-----+
| not_match |
+-----+
|          0 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

REGEXP_INSTR()

It is a function that gives a result when the starting index of substring expression matches the pattern. It returns 0 if there is no match found. If either expression or pattern is **NULL**, it returns **NULL**. Here indexing starts at 1.

REGEXP_INSTR(expr,pat[,pos[,occurrence[,return_option[,match_type]]]])

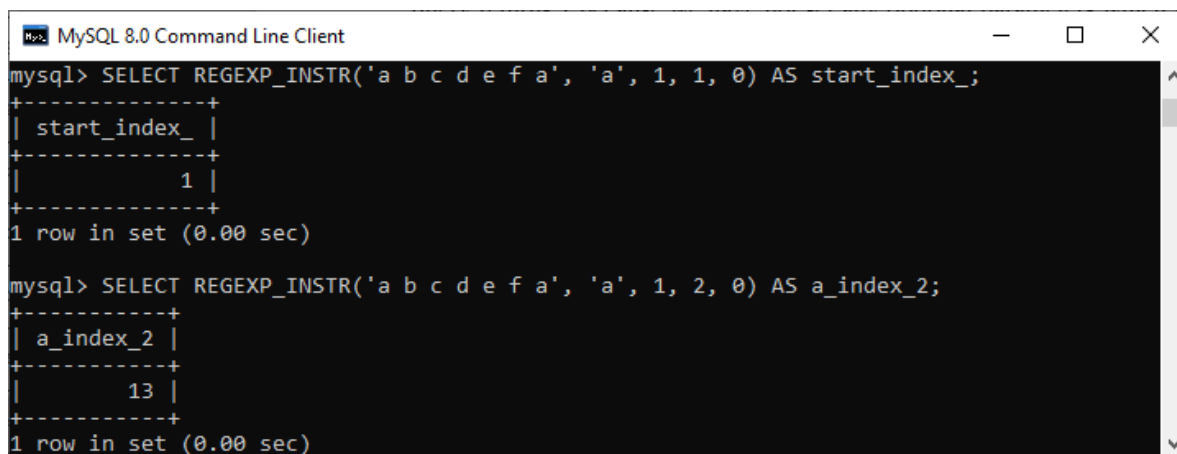
This function uses various optional parameters that are pos, occurrence, return_option, match_type, etc.

Example

Suppose we want to get the index position of substring 'a' within expr (a b c d e f a). The first query returns 1 because we have not set any optional parameters, which is the string's first index. The second query returns 13 because we have modified the query with optional parameter occurrence.

SELECT REGEXP_INSTR('abcd efa','a',1,1,0) AS start_index_;

SELECT REGEXP_INSTR('abcd efa','a',1,2,0) AS a_index_2;



```
mysql> SELECT REGEXP_INSTR('a b c d e f a', 'a', 1, 1, 0) AS start_index_;
+-----+
| start_index_ |
+-----+
|             1 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT REGEXP_INSTR('a b c d e f a', 'a', 1, 2, 0) AS a_index_2;
+-----+
| a_index_2 |
+-----+
|          13 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

REGEXP_REPLACE()

This function replaces the specified string character by matching characters and then returns the resulting string. If any expression, pattern, or replaceable string is not found, it will return **NULL**. This function can be used as follows:

SELECT REGEXP_REPLACE('expression','character','replace_character');

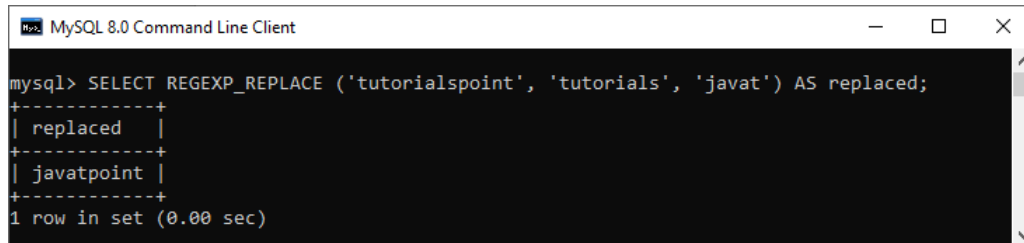
The replace character uses the optional parameters such as pos, occurrence, and match_type.

Example

This statement replaces the 'tutorials' pattern with the 'java' pattern.

```
mysql>SELECT REGEXP_REPLACE('tutorialspoint','tutorials','javat')ASreplaced;
```

Here is the output:



```
mysql> SELECT REGEXP_REPLACE ('tutorialspoint', 'tutorials', 'javat') AS replaced;
+-----+
| replaced |
+-----+
| javatpoint |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

REGEXP_SUBSTRING()

This function returns the substring of an expression that matches the specified pattern. If the expression or specified pattern or even no match is found, it returns NULL. This function can be used as follows:

```
SELECT REGEXP_SUBSTR('expr','pattern');
```

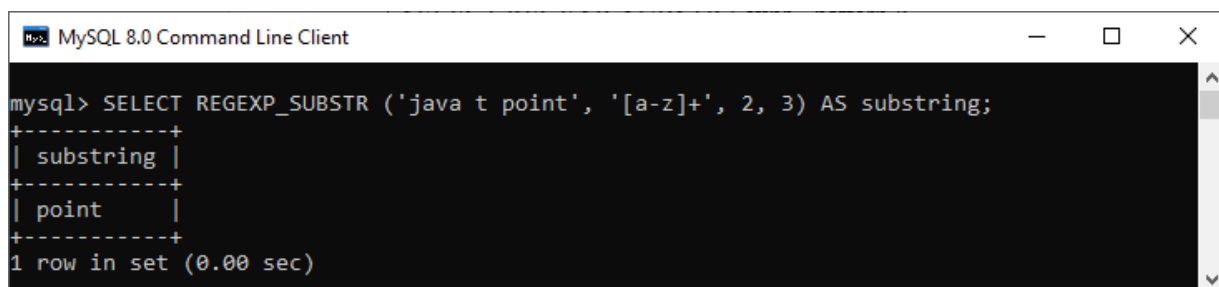
The pattern uses the optional parameters such as pos, occurrence, and match_type.

Example

This statement returns the 'point' pattern, which is the third occurrence of the given range.

```
mysql>SELECT REGEXP_SUBSTR('javatpoint','[a-z]'+,2,3)ASsubstring; Here is
```

the output:



```
mysql> SELECT REGEXP_SUBSTR ('java t point', '[a-z]'+, 2, 3) AS substring;
+-----+
| substring |
+-----+
| point      |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

DATABASE ADAPTER:

Python offers database adapters through its modules that allow access to major databases such as MySQL, PostgreSQL, SQL Server, and SQLite. Furthermore, all of these modules rely on Python's database API (DB-API) for managing databases.

Database adapter

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Out-of-the-box, virtual member manager provides a default database profile repository (wimDB), that supports all common virtual member manager supported profile repository features.

Note: The database user who configures the repository needs to have database administrator privileges such as permission to create tables in the database schema and to access the data in the database tables. The database repository is designed using relational database. The database adapter is a bridge between the virtual member manager profile and schema managers and the underlying database. The adapter looks up the data source and updates or queries the database using SQL queries.

The database repository supports all entity types that are predefined in the virtual member manager model schema definition, such as: Person, Group, OrgContainer, and PersonAccount. The database adapter can also support any user-defined entity types that extend from the virtual member manager standard schema. It creates the user-defined entities in the database during runtime.

The database repository supports predefined property definitions that are consistent with the virtual member manager schema, as well as dynamically defined new properties during runtime.

A database repository property definition extends the virtual member manager schema property definition. It contains:

name

Specifies the name of the property. This is a required property.

datatype

Specifies a data type. String, Integer, Long, Double, Timestamp, Base64Binary, Identifier and Object are the default supported data types. If a property has user-defined data type, set Objects as data type and set the user-defined datatype classname in the DBPROP table "classname" column. For example, to support a Boolean data type, set the "type_id" column OBJECT and set the "classname" column to java.lang.Boolean. This is a required property.

Note: Supported data types are defined in the SchemaConstant.java file.

applicableforentitytypes

Specifies a list of entity types for which this property is applicable, for example, PersonAccount;Group. This is a required property.

requiredforentitytypes

Specifies a list of entity types that require this property value to be set during the entity creation. This is an optional property.

multiValued

Specifies whether the database repository can store multiple values for a property. By default, multiValued is true. This is an optional parameter.

metaName

Specifies the name of metadata. By default, it is set to DEFAULT, which means that there is no associated metadata. This is an optional parameter.

readOnly

Specifies if a property is read-only. By default, it is false. This is an optional parameter.

caseExactMatch

Specifies if a property is case sensitive during the search. By default, it is set to true. This is an optional parameter.

valueLength

Specifies the maximum length of a property if it is String type. The default value is 1500. For other data types, this property is ignored. This is an optional parameter.

isComposite

Specifies if a property is a composite property. By default, it is false. This is an optional parameter.

classname

