

## Operating system (os) :

An os. is system software, that manages hardware, software resources and provide common service for computer programs. The os acts as intermediate between the program & computer for hardware function such as input, output and memory allocation. OS is the first software installed in any device. (Windows, Mac, Linux)

## Programming language :

A programming language is a set of predefined words that are combined into a program according to predefined rules (syntax) to get desired output. They are used to develop application that helps to get our task done. (C, C++, JAVA, python)

## Types of programming language:

### i) Low level programming language.

\* Machine level or Binary code.

\* Assembly language.

### ii) High level programming language.

\* Based on Purpose.

\* Based on converters.

## Low level language:

Low level programming language that contains basic instruction recognized by a computer. They are cryptic and not human readable. This provides little or no abstraction. Low level language code is not portable.

- \* Machine language - binary & hexadecimal
- \* Assembly language - MOV, ADD, SUB, PUSH, JMP

Assembly code is converted to machine code using the assembler.

## High level programming language:

It is a programming language with strong abstraction from the detail of computer. They are very close to the human language and the user.

### \* Based on purpose:

i) General purpose - XML, HTML, PYTHON

ii) Special purpose - LISP, PROLOG, SQL

AI  
Database Management

### \* Based on converters:

i) Compiled - C/C++

ii) Interpreted - PEARL/JAVA SCRIPT

## Translators:

Translator is a language processor that converts the high level language to low level programming language. The most common types of translators are,

- \* Compiler.
- \* Interpreter.

Compiler: Compiler translates the whole source code from one form to another all at once if it is free of errors. In case of errors in any line of source code then it won't be converted to machine code.

Interpreter: Interpreter converts the source code from one form to another in line-by-line sequence. In case of error in any one of the line, then the interpreter moves on to the next line only after the removal of errors. Machine code will be generated till the for the lines without errors and the output is processed upto error free lines.

Compiled languages need compiler to translate and interpreted languages requires interpreter to translate the code. They both are just translators, and are computer programs.

## SOURCE CODE:

A code which we initially write to develop an application or to execute a computer code is called as a source code.

## BYTE CODE:

A fixed set of instruction that represents all operation (Arithmetic, comparison, memory operation) is called as byte code.

- \* It is generated after the compilation of source code
- \* It is platform independent and system independent.
- \* It is also called as p-code, portable code and platform independent code.

## MACHINE CODE:

The code generated after the interpretation of byte code is called as machine code. It is system and platform dependent.

PVM: PVM stands for Python virtual machine and it's a software that comes along with interpreter.

- \* Source code extension in python is .py
- \* Byte code extension in python is .pyc

WHAT IS PYTHON ?

→ python class ←

Python is general purpose, interpreted and high level programming language. It is created by "Guido van Rossum" and released in 1991. Name 'PYTHON' is taken from Monty Python's flying circus (a British sketch comedy series). Guido was a big fan of that series.

## FEATURES OF PYTHON:

\* simple and easy to learn; python is one of the simplest language ever. Syntaxes are simple and expressive.

Sample program to add two numbers :

In JAVA :

```
public class add {  
    public static void main (String [] args) {  
        int a = 10;  
        int b = 20;  
        int c = a+b;  
        System.out.println(c);  
    }  
}
```

In python :

```
a = 10  
b = 20  
c = a+b  
print(c)
```

- \* Most expressive language: It is easy to write code in few lines in python, that leads to less cluttered program, faster execution & easy to debug & maintain.
- \* Freeware and open source: Python licensing is free of cost, since it is a open source its original source code freely available and can be redistributed & modifiable.
- \* Translator: Initially python was a interpreted language, latter it was made interpreted and compiled both. It was initially developed to bridge the gap between C and shell scripting, also to include the feature of exception handling from ABC language.

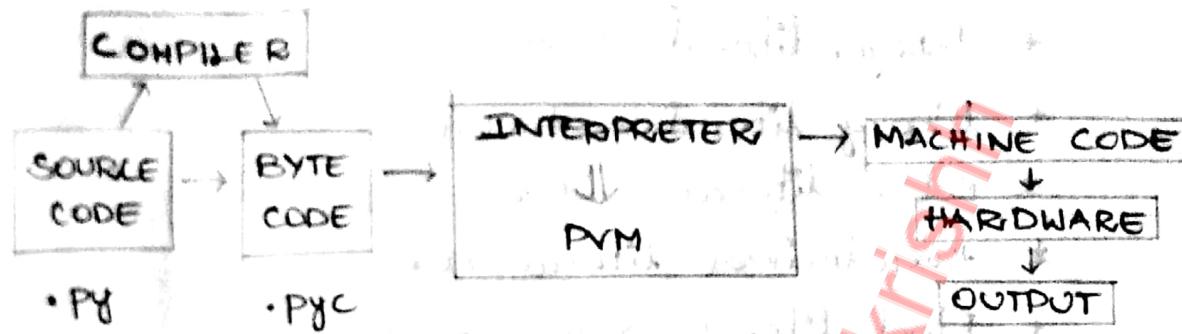
#### TYPES OF ERRORS IN PYTHON:

- \* compile time error.
- \* Run time error.

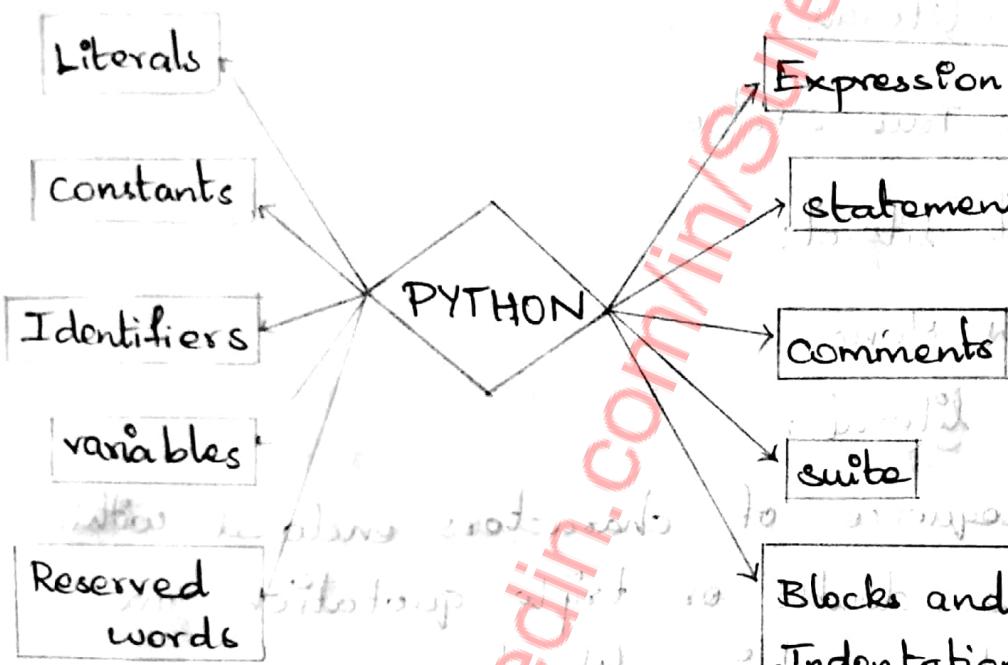
compile time error: Any error that gets caught during compilation stage is called compile time error. Example - syntax error and Indentation error.

Run time error: All Errors other than syntax and Indentation errors are called as runtime error and they are caught during interpretation stage. To check all kinds of runtime error type `print(dir(__builtins__))`

# HOW PYTHON RUNS ON OUR SYSTEM?



## COMPONENTS OF PYTHON PROGRAM:



Literals: (Integers, float, string) having : aligned

Literals are the data / constant value stored in a variable. Example `a = 20`, where "a" is a variable and "20" is a literal (Numeric).

Type of literals in python are;

- \* Numeric literal.
- \* Boolean literal.
- \* Special literal.
- \* String literal.

⇒ Numeric literal:

- \* Integer literal → 200, -15
- \* Binary literal → 0b100101
- \* Octal literal → 0o12
- \* Hexadecimal literal → 0xa
- \* Float literal → 10.2, -16.1932
- \* Complex literal → 10+2j, -10-20j

⇒ Boolean literal:

- \* True, False

⇒ Special literal:

- \* None

⇒ String literal:

sequence of characters enclosed within single, double or triple quotation are called as string literal.

Example: print ('This is string literal')

Identifiers:

Any name given to a variable, function,

(class) or object is called as identifiers.

⇒ variable identifiers :- identifiers that may change the values associated with them, lower case always.

Ex: num = 100

⇒ constant identifiers :- identifiers that may not change the values associated with them, upper case always.

Ex: MAX\_NUM = 200

→ Rules for defining the identifiers:

- \* Allowed characters - A to Z, a to z, 0 to 9, \_.
- \* Not allowed - special characters.
- \* Identifier should not start with a number.
- \* Identifier are case sensitive.
- \* Never use reserved words as an identifier.
- \* -abc → private - not accessible outside the module
- \* --abc → strongly private - NA outside the class.
- \* ---abc--- → language defined special identifier.

→ variable identifiers and constant identifiers are represented in lower and upper case, those are just the recommendation & future reference. constant identifiers are not really constant they can be changed.

Example: MAX-NUM = 200

If after declaration, it makes good sense, I wish to print (MAX-NUM) output value 100

output : 100

What happens is, it prints the latest literal of MAX-NUM not the maximum number.

Reserved words:

Keywords with special meaning and tasks associated with it are called as reserved words. These key words are developed used to develop programming instruction. They can't be used as identifiers for other programming elements.

→ There are 35 reserved words in python. To check / view all reserved words type the following,

```
import keyword
```

```
print(keyword.kwlist)
```

→ It is further classified into:

\* Reserved literals → True, False, None.

\* keywords → other 32 lowercase words.

## Variables and constants:

→ A variable in python is a name which may change the data associated with it over time as and when required. Rules to define a variable is same as an identifier.

→ It always refers to memory location in heap where the data associated with it is stored. When ever the associated data is changed memory address of the variable also changes.

## Constants:

→ A constant value being similar to variable with one exception that it is not meant to be changed (its changeable actually).

→ Constants should be specified by capital letter only but generic names like num, sum etc can't be used.

Example: MAX\_NUM = 1000

## Comments:

- Writing comments in python is very good programming practice. This helps the peer coder to understand the reason of including the part of the code in a program.
- To create a single line comment '#' is used and to create a multi-line comment "''' (triple quotation) is used.

## Expressions:

Expression is a combination of variables, values, variable, or function call that is executable.

Example: 10

10.00

value

a = 100  
a + 80

import math

math.sqrt(80)

→ Here each and every line is executable and it is called as expression

## Statement:

It is a combination of variable and statement. simply it is the instruction written in the source code for execution.

Example:  $a = 10 + 80$

This is assignment operation statement.

Example:

```
for i in range(10):
```

```
    print(i)
```

→ This is loop operator statement.

```
if a == 100:
```

```
    print(a)
```

```
print(a)
```

→ This is condition operator statement.

Suites or blocks and Indentation:

⇒ A group of individual statements that makes a single block of code are called as suite.

⇒ Block is a piece of program text that is executed in a unit.

⇒ Indentation are the spaces at the beginning of the code line, they are generally used to indicate block of code. Missing Indentation will cause runtime compile time error in python.

Example:

```
x = 10
y = 20
if x < y :
    print(True)
else:
    print(False)
```

→ block of code

→ block / suite inside  
= if statement

Intention →

## DATA TYPES IN PYTHON:

Data type is a attribute of data that tells the translator how the programmer intends to use the data. In python, it is classified into,

- \* Fundamental data types.
- \* Derived data types.

### Fundamental data types.

- ⇒ int, float, complex, boolean, string, none.
- ⇒ int data type: (integer).

Any whole number without decimal point is called as integer. The different points are

- Decimal → allowed digit ± 0 to 9, Ex: int(26921)
- binary → allowed 0 & 1 → prefix ob./0B, Ex: bin(0b1010)
- octal → allowed 0 to 7 → prefix 0o/0O, Ex: oct(0o7643)
- hexa decimal → allowed ± 0 to 9 & A/a to F/f  
→ Prefix 0x/0X, Ex: hex(0xfc98).

Any int datatype can be converted.

Any integer datatype can be paired to other form of integer datatype to get the result.

Example :

a = 98126	b = ob10011010
print(a)	print(b)
print(bin(a))	print(oct(b))
print(oct(a))	print(hex(b))
print(hex(a))	

## Example:

```
c = 0o 782164
print(c)
print(bin(c))
print(hex(c))
```

```
d = 0x fc 3682
print(d)
print(bin(d))
print(oct(d))
```

→ int function is mainly used in typecasting  
The accepted arguments are,

print(int(10)) → decimal

print(int(10.20)) → float

print(int('10')) → decimal in string

print(int(0b10110110)) → binary

print(int(0o64216)) → octal

print(int(0xca842)) → hexa

print(int(True)) → Reserved words

Not accepted arguments are printed as it is

print(int('10.20')) → complex or float in string

print(int(10+2j)) → complex

print(int(0b1001101)) → bin/oct/hex in string

print(int('hello')) → string literal.

## Float datatype:

Any number with decimal point is called as float datatype. Float can't be represented in binary, octal, hexa.

### Example:

```
print(float(10))
print(float(10.20))
print(float('10.20'))
print(float(0b1011010))
```

```
print(float(True))
print(float(0o64216))
print(float(0xfc3682))
```

→ Not acceptable float example

print(float(10+2j)) → complex

print(float('0b1001101')) → hex/oct/bin in strings

print(float('True')) → string literal / Reserved

print(float('A')) → word inside string

complex data type:

complex is used for mathematical calculation. It has real & imaginary part.

Complex  $a + bi$ , where  $a$  is the real part,  $b$  is the imaginary part and  $i$  is imaginary value.

Example:

$a = 25 + 8i$

print(a.real) | output:  
25.0

print(a.imag) |  
8.0

→ Acceptable complex arguments are,

print(complex(10))

print(complex(10, 20))

print(complex(10-20))

print(complex(10.3, 20.9))

print(complex('10.80'))

print(complex(True, False))

print(complex(0b101010))

print(complex(0b101, 0xfc98))

print(complex(True))

None - ignored

→ Not acceptable complex arguments

print(complex('0b101010'))

print(complex('10.80', '20.9'))

print(complex('True'))

print(complex('10.80', '20.9'))

print(complex('A'))

print(complex('10.80', '20.9'))

print(complex('10', 20))

print(complex('10.80', '20.9'))

Boolean data type: A type of built-in data type.

Boolean data type is represented by True and False (1 & 0).

→ True - 1, 1.0 or 1+0j

→ False - 0, 0.0 or 0+0j

→ In numbers every thing apart from 0 is True

print(bool(10))

print(bool(10.20))

print(bool(0.0000000001))

print(bool(0 + 0.0001j))

print(bool(1.0))

→ In string every thing apart from empty string is true

print(bool("")) → False

print(bool("A"))

print(bool(" "))

④ print(bool("0"))

String data type:

combination of characters kept

inside the quotation is called as string.

Example - 'hell', "hell", " hell", " hell"

print('This is python')

print("This is python's class")

print(" This is \"python\" and \"data's class\" ")

→ Following method is used to write multi-line text,

→ `print ("This  
is  
multi-line  
text")`

Output:

This  
is  
multi-line  
text

→ `print(""" This  
is also  
multi-line  
text""")`

→ `Print ('This xxx is also xx multi-line')`

⇒ Following method is used to write multi line string in source code, but it is displayed in output as single line.

→ `print ('This  
is not  
a multi-line  
text')`

Output:

This is not a multi-line text

None data type: (Id of None is same throughout the entire source code)

None is a datatype defined to represent a null value or no value at all. It is not as same as 0, False or empty string. Its datatype of its own. None can only be None. It can be added in list for future changes.

Example: `a = None`

`lst = [None] * 10`

`lst[2] = 100`

`print (lst)`

`a = None`

`b = None`

`print (id(a))`

`print (id(b))`

## Escape sequence:

Escape sequence is used to pass the string to next line / leave a blank space in the sentence. Escape sequence in python are.

\, \n, \t, \w

## Sequence:

→ Sequence types in python are string, list, tuple, byte, bytearray, range. In sequence the values are indexed and it is a ordered collection of elements.

→ Indexing & slicing are allowed.

Example : a = 'python' → string.

→ Python allows both positive and negative indexing.

## Indexing :

P y t h o n  
-6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1      Starts from -1 and negative indexing  
0 1 2 3 4 5      Always starts from 0 and positive indexing

→ Indexing is a concept of accessing single character from a string

→ syntax : str\_name [index]

(Error) string  
(Error) Integ

or [index] - tab

or [a] tab

(tab) Integ

Example : `a = 'python'`

- i) `print(a[-1])`
- ii) `print(a[0])`
- iii) `print(a[len(a)-1])`
- iv) `print(a[-len(a)])`
- v) `print(a[-len(a)+3])`

Output

- i) n
- ii) P
- iii) n
- iv) P
- v) h

→ only one character can be accessed at a time.

slicing: ~~process of copying part of it.~~

→ slicing is used to access multiple char at a time. ~~updated me how to slice~~

④ → syntax = `str-name[start:stop:step]`

→ default value of start = 0, stop = length of the string, step = 1.

→ value of stop is always one more than the index that we want to slice.

→ { positive step → slicing from left to right.  
Negative step → slicing from right to left.

Example : `b = 'This is python class'`

- `print(b[8:14:1])`
- `print(b[8:20])`
- `print(b[8:20:2])`
- `print(b[13:7:-1])`
- `print(b[::-1])`
- `print(b[::-2])`

Output:

python  
python class  
pto ls  
nottyp  
sint si nottyp srake  
\*\*ealcnohtyp si siht  
sacnhy ish

## concatenation:

concatenation is the process of combining two sequence of same data type.

### Example:

```
a = 'python'
b = 'learnbay'
print(a+b)
```

Output:

pythonlearnbay

## Rept

### Repetition:

It is the process of repeating a string multiple time. It should have one string data type and one integer data type.

### Example:

```
print(a*2)
print(a*3)
print(a*b)
print(a*2.5)
```

Output:

PythonPython  
Python Python Python  
→ type error  
→ type error

## OPERATORS:

### → Arithmetic operators:

- \* Addition → +
- \* Subtraction → -
- \* multiplication → \*
- \* Float division → / → (True division)
- \* floor division → // → Floor value / Quotient
- \* modulo operation → % → Remainder
- \* Exponent → \*\* → power of

$$\begin{array}{r} 45 \\ \times 2 \\ \hline 90 \end{array}$$

## Example :

	<u>Output</u>
print (10+3)	→ 13
print (10-3)	→ 7
print (10*3)	→ 30
print (10/3)	→ 3.333
print (10//3)	→ 3
print (10 % 3)	→ 1
print (10**3)	→ 1000
print (622//8)	→ 77
print (622 % 8)	→ 6

## Floor value and ceil value:

- Floor value returns the nearest lowest whole number and ceil value returns the nearest highest whole number.
- math has to be imported for this.

## Example:

Input	Output
import math print(math.floor(3.99))	→ 3
print(math.ceil(4.001))	→ 5
print(math.floor(399))	→ 3
print(math.ceil(8.5))	→ 9

(\*) This can also be written as,

Input	Output
from math import floor	→ 263
from math import ceil	→ 264
print(floor(263.85))	
print(ceil(263.85))	

→ comparison operator: → ( $<$ ,  $\leq$ ,  $>$ ,  $\geq$ )

→ comparison operator returns boolean value based on the result

→ comparison between different data type except ~~an~~ int and float is not possible

→ sequence comparison can be done

\* length of string

\* char by char & using ASCII code

Example:

print(10 < 20)

→ True

print(10 > 20)

→ False

print('python' > 'pyth')

→ True (by length)

print('Py' < 'Py')

→ False (by ASCII)

print('False' < 10)

→ True (by boolean)



To get corresponding ASCII code & character:

print(ord('p'))

→ 112

print(ord('P'))

→ 80

print(ord('+'))

→ 43



To get corresponding ASCII value of character:

print(chr(60))

→ <

print(chr(82))

→ R

print(chr(51))

→ 3

→ Equality operator: → ( $= =$  &  $!=$ )

It compares the content and return the boolean value. checking equality can be done between different data type.

$= =$  → equal to - equal to

$!=$  → not equal to

Example:

`print (10 == 10.0)`

→ False

`print ('python' == 'python')`

→ True

`print (10 != 20)`

→ True

`print ('class' != 'class')`

→ False

→ Logical operator: → (and, or, not)

→ and table:

A	B	# print(not(...))
True	True	= True
True	False	= False
False	True	= False
False	False	= False

↳ Reverse the results

And operator return A if A is False,

else it returns B

Example:

(Input)

(Output)

`print ((10 < 20) and (5 != 100))` → True ] boolean in case of comparison &

`print ((10 > 20) and (5 != 100))` → False ] equality operator

`print (10+20 and 20+3)` → 23, ] Returns integer

`print (80+1 and 60*0)` → 0 ] in case of arithmetic

`print (0 and 0.0)` → 0 ] operators.

OR table:

A or B = True if A or B is true

True or False = True

True or True = True

False or True = True

False or False = False

OR operator returns A if A is true

else it returns B

Example:

Input	Output
print( $(10 < 20)$ or ( $10 == 100$ ))	→ True
print( $(10 > 20)$ or ( $10 != 10$ ))	→ False
print( $(20 * 0)$ or ( $10 + 20$ ))	→ 40
print(False or True)	→ True
print('hai' or 'bye')	→ hai

→ Bitwise operator: → ( $\&$ ,  $\mid$ ,  $\wedge$ ,  $\sim$ ,  $\ll$ ,  $\gg$ )

→ These operators works on bits or binary values.

& table : (bitwise AND)

$1 \& 1 = 1$	Print ( $25 \& 24$ )
$1 \& 0 = 0$	$25 = 11001$
$0 \& 111 = 0$	$24 = 11000$
$0 \& 0 = 0$	$(0 \& 0) = 0$
$0 \leftarrow$	Output → 24
$0 \leftarrow$	

I table : (OR bitwise) Bitwise operation

$$\begin{array}{l} 1 \mid 1 = 1 \\ 1 \mid 0 = 1 \\ 0 \mid 1 = 1 \\ 0 \mid 0 = 0 \end{array}$$

Print: (80 | 61)

$$\begin{array}{r} 80 = 1010000 \\ 61 = 111101 \\ \hline 1 = 1111101 \Rightarrow 125 \\ \text{output} = 125 \end{array}$$

A table : (bitwise xor)

$$\begin{array}{l} 1 \wedge 1 = 0 \\ 1 \wedge 0 = 1 \\ 0 \wedge 1 = 1 \\ 0 \wedge 0 = 0 \end{array}$$

print (31 ^ 40)

$$\begin{array}{r} 31 = 11111 \\ 40 = 101000 \\ \hline x = 110111 \Rightarrow 55 \end{array}$$

output = 55

Bitwise negation : (~)

Bitwise negation runs on formula

$$n = -(n+1).$$

Example:

print (~True)	$\rightarrow -2 \rightarrow -(1+1)$
print (~False)	$\rightarrow -1 \rightarrow -(0+1)$
print (~8)	$\rightarrow -9 \rightarrow -(8+1)$
print (~-16)	$\rightarrow 15 \rightarrow -(-16+1)$

Bitwise right shift and left shift : (>>) & (<<)

$\Rightarrow$  doing left shift of 25 by 3 bits

print (25 << 3)

$$25 = 11001$$

$$<<3 \Rightarrow \underline{11001000} \Rightarrow 200$$

Output: 200

doing right shift 25 by 3 bit

print ( $25 \gg 3$ )

$$25 = 11001$$

$$\gg 3 = \underline{11} \rightarrow 3$$

Output : 3

→ Assignment operator:

$$a \text{ } \boxed{a = a + 2}$$

→ In the above case the value of 'a' is assigned to 'a' and again it is added with 2 and assigned as 'a'. This can also be written as  $a += 2$

$$a = a / 2 \text{ is equal to } a / 2$$

other assignment operators are :

$$(+=, -=, *=, /=, \% =, \& =, \& & =, \\ ^=, \gg =, \ll =, \sim =)$$

→ Membership operator & Identity operator:

Membership Identity operator - in, not in - This operator

↑ checks an element is a member of the seq or not.

→ Identity operator - is, is not - This operator checks both the operands have same ID or not.

→ The output of this both operators will be a boolean value.

## Example : (Membership operator)

Input	Output
print ('p' in 'Python')	→ True
print ('h' in 'Help')	→ False
print ('el' in 'Help')	→ True
print ('Hp' in 'Help')	→ False
print ('R' not in 'rat')	→ True
print ('t' not in 'rat')	→ False

## Example : (identity operation)

Input	Output
a = 101	
b = 101	
print (a is b)	True
a = 1000	
b = 1000	
print (a is b)	False (Object reusability)*
a = 210	
b = 220	
print (a is not b)	True
a = 1010	
b = 1010	
print (a is not b)	True (Object reusability)*

\* → Concept of taking the object if it is already created in heap area but its only between 0 - 256

## DERIVED DATA TYPES:

⇒ list, tuple, set, frozenset, dictionary, range, byte, bytearray

② ⇒ List: Anything that is kept inside a square bracket is a list. It is a collection of heterogeneous elements.

\* list is sequence - indexing & slicing is possible and it is mutable, item assignment is possible

Example:

```
lst = [100, 200, 'python', (50, 60), [67, 24, 20]]
```

{ lst[3] = 'PYTHON' → to assign by index

lst.append('python') → to add

lst.remove('python') → to remove

print(lst)

Output: [100, 200, 'PYTHON', 'python2']

③ ⇒ tuple: Anything kept inside a small bracket is tuple and it is immutable.

Example:

```
tpl = (100, 200, 'Python', [100, 150], (10, 20))
```

④ append & remove is not possible in tuple

→ set : It is a collection of unique elements.  
It is not a sequence so indexing and slicing is not possible.

\* It doesn't hold duplicate elements, it is kept inside the {} bracket.

$s = \{100, 20, 20, 10, 20, 100, 200, 30, 20\}$   
print(s)

Output : {100, 200, 20, 20, 30}

\* Set is a mapping type and uses hashmap internally so output is not in order of input.

\* Generally if we have set of rivers in India the same river can't be repeated twice, like wise python set doesn't allow to have duplicates.

\* set is mutable, but it does not allow mutable object to be taken as element.

s.add((10, 20, 30))

Output : {100, 200, 20, 20, (10, 20, 30), 30}

s.add([10, 20]) → This will give error.

s.remove((10, 20, 30)).

Output : {100, 200, 20, 30}

→ frozen set : frozen set is immutable.

fz = frozenset([100, 200, 300, 400])

print(fz)

Output : frozenset({100, 200, 300})

## → bytes and bytearray:

- \* They are used to store the image or pdf or sound clip.
- \* Bytes → immutable } allowed character
- \* Byte array → mutable } are 0-256.

Example:

```
lst = [3, 4, 6, 12] }  
by = bytes(lst) } → b'1x03|x04|x06|x0c  
print(by)  
by[2] = 16 → error
```

```
ba = bytearray(lst) }  
print(ba) } → bytearray(b'1x03|x04|x06|x0c')  
ba[2] = 16  
print(ba)
```

## → dictionary:

\* It is a combination of key, value pair. key and value is separated by `:`

\* keys can't be duplicated but values can be duplicated. key does not allow mutable datatype but values allows all.

```
d = {1:100, 'a':200, (2,3):'python'}  
print(d)
```

Output: {1:100, 'a':200, (2,3):'python'}

\* list can't be used as key but it can be used as value in dictionary.

→ Range function:

\* It is used to create sequence of numbers based on pattern

\* Syntax : range(start, stop, step)

(or) range(stop) → (n-1)

-- for +ve step seq will be from L to R-->

-inf ← - - - - - - - - - 0 - - - - - - - - - → +inf

← - - for -ve step seq will be from R to L--

Example :

i) print(list(range(10)))

ii) print(list(range(0, 20, 2)))

iii) print(list(range(0, -10, -1)))

Output :

i) [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]

ii) [0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18]

iii) [0, -1, -2, -3, -4, -5, -6, -7, -8, -9]

\* list, set, tuple can be used to print range in output.

## INPUT FUNCTION AND PRINT:

- ⇒ \* Input function is used to take input from the user. Input function converts every thing into string, so it has to be typecasted for particular datatype.
- \* Type casting is only allowed for fundamental datatype.

Example :

```
num = print('Enter the number: ')
num = input('Enter the number: ')
print(num, type(num))
num1 = int(input('Enter the number: '))
print(num1, type(num1))
```

\* eval can be used to evaluate the input and finds the appropriate datatype. They can be used to evaluate both fundamental and derived datatype.

Example:

```
lst = eval(input('Enter the value: '))
print(lst, type(lst))
```

⇒ \* Print function can take multiple arguments.

Ex: print(10, 20, 30)

Output: 10 20 30

In print default separator is space in output.

\* To have a user defined separator we use 'sep'.

Example:

i) `print(10, 20, 30, sep='and')`

ii) `print(10, 20, 30, sep='|t|')`

Output: i) 10 and 20 and 30

ii) 10      20      30

→ '|\t|' is a tab space

\* 'end' is used to display the output of multiline print statement in single line.

Example:

`print(10, end='|n|')`

`print(20, end='|n|')`

`print(30)`

10 20 and 30

\* Generally typing print line by line without 'end' attribute, the default separator is '\n'.

\* 'sep' and 'end' are both called as attribute

→ Formatting the output:

Prefic 'f' followed by the required output string will do the need full.

Ex: `a = int(input('Enter first number: '))`

`b = int(input('Enter second number: '))`

`c = a + b`

`print('sum of {} and {} is {}'.format(a, b, c))`

(or) `print('sum of {} and {} is {}'.format(a, b, c))`

## CONDITIONAL STATEMENT:

→ (if - else - elif)

\* An 'if statement' is written by using 'if'.  
The keyword. The 'elif' keyword represent "if the previous condition were not true, then try this condition".

\* 'Else' keyword catches anything which isn't caught by preceding condition.

Example to display the user entered Number:

```
num = int(input('Enter a number between 0-5:'))
```

```
if num == 0:  
    print('zero')  
elif num == 1:  
    print('One')  
elif num == 2:  
    print('Two')  
elif num == 3:  
    print('Three')  
elif num == 4:  
    print('Four')  
elif num == 5:  
    print('Five')  
else:  
    print('Number not in range')
```

Output:

Enter a number between 0-5 : 3

Three.

## Exercise problem:

Write a program for calculator to perform arithmetic operation for two numbers from user. Operation has to be defined by user.

Input:

```
x = int(input('Enter first number: '))
```

```
y = int(input('Enter second number: '))
```

```
op = int(input("Enter the operation:"))
```

```
if op == 1:
```

```
    print(x + y)
```

```
elif op == 2:
```

```
    if x > y:
```

```
        print(f'{x} - {y} = {x - y}')
```

```
    else:
```

```
        print(f'{y} - {x} = {y - x}')
```

```
elif op == 3:
```

```
    print(x * y)
```

```
elif op == 4:
```

```
    if x > y:
```

```
        print(f'{x} / {y} = {x / y}')
```

```
    else:
```

```
        print(f'{y} / {x} = {y / x}')
```

```

    elif op == 5:
        if x > y:
            print(f'{x} // {y} = {x // y}')
        else:
            print(f'{y} // {x} = {y // x}')
    elif op == 6:
        if x > y:
            print(f'{x} % {y} = {x % y}')
        else:
            print(f'{y} % {x} = {y % x}')
    elif op == 7:
        print(x ** y)
    else:
        print('operation is not defined')

```

Exercise problem:

To find the largest of three numbers,  
input is taken from the user.

```

[ num1 = int(input('Enter first number: '))
  num2 = int(input('Enter the second number: '))
  num3 = int(input('Enter third number: '))
  if num1 > num2 and num1 > num3:
    print(f"First number '{num1}' is largest")
  elif num2 > num3:
    print(f"Second number '{num2}' is largest")
  else:
    print(f"Third number '{num3}' is largest")
  ]

```

The following problem can be simply written with ternary operator.



Syntax -  $\text{exp}_1 \text{ if } \text{cond}_1 \text{ else } \text{exp}_2 \text{ if } \text{cond}_2 \text{ else } \text{exp}_3 \text{ if } \text{cond}_3$

Accordingly:

→ [ ]

```
print(f"First number '{num1}' is largest")\nif num1 > num2 and num1 > num3:\n    else print(f"second number '{num2}' is largest")\n    if num2 > num3:\n        else print(f"third number '{num3}' is largest")
```

Output:

Enter first number: 60

Enter the second number: 40

Enter third number: 86

Third number '86' is largest.

In both the cases the output will be same  
the advantage of using ternary operator is  
that the code can be written in single line

## Exercise problem:

To find whether the user input year  
is a leap year not.

Rules for a year to be leap year:

- i) The year should be divisible by 4.
- ii) Year should be divisible by 4 but not 100
- iii) Year should be divisible by 4 and 100 but not by 400 than its not a leap year
- iv) Year should be divisible by 4, 100 and 400.

(Input year is a leap year or not)

Input:

```
year = int(input('Enter a year: '))
if year % 4 == 0:
    print('It is a leap year')
    if year % 100 == 0:
        if year % 400 == 0:
            print('It is a leap year')
        else:
            print('It is not a leap year')
    else:
        print('It is a leap year')
else:
    print('It is not a leap year')
```

Output:

Enter a year : 1826

It is not a leap year.

## CONCEPT OF LOOP

- \* For loop → if no. of iterations is known
- \* While loop → if no. of iteration is not known and want to execute code till one condition is false.

### For loop :

Syntax - for variable in sequence

Example:

```
s = 'hello'  
for i in range(0, len(s)):  
    print(s[i])
```

code  
code  
code

for loop  
loop condition  
(len(s)) loop  
(i) loop  
+ 1 }  
h e l l o

```
s = 'python'  
for i in s:  
    print(i)  
print('Done')
```

p y t h o n  
Done

```
d = {1:100, 2:200, 3:300}  
for i in d:  
    print(i, end='|')  
    print(i, d[i])
```

1 2 3  
1 100  
2 200  
3 300

## while loop:

Syntax → while expression (True / False):

code  
code  
code  
increment /decrement

Example:

s = 'iam suresh'

ind = 0

while ind < len(s):

    print(ind)

    print(s[ind])

    print()

    ind += 1

print('done')

8  
1  
a  
2  
m  
3  
4  
s  
5  
u  
6  
r  
7  
t  
8  
e  
9  
s  
done

## Loop control:

\* break → to come out of loop.

\* continue → skip current iteration.

Example: (Break)

lst = list(range(10))

for i in lst:

    if i == 6:

        Indentation required → print('coming out')

        → break

        else

            print(i)

0  
1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
Coming out

Example: (continue)

```
lis = list(range(10))  
for i in lis:  
    if i % 2 == 0:  
        continue  
    else:  
        print(i)
```

0  
2  
4  
6  
8

Exercise:

i) s = 'I am from programming background.'

out\_list = []

out\_str = ''

for i in s:

if i == ' ' or i == '.':

out\_list.append(out\_str)

out\_str = ''

else:

out\_str += s[i]

print(out\_list)

Output = ['Iam', 'from', 'programming', 'background']

ii) my\_str = 'I am suresh krishna.'

out\_str = ''

Count = -1

while count >= -(len(my\_str)):

out\_str += my\_str[count]

Count -= 1

print(out\_str) Output = 'I am suresh krishna'

string:

It is the combination of character kept inside single, double or triple quotation.

```
s = 'python'  
print(s)  
print(id(s), type(s))
```

This gives id

This gives the

of the string s and type of string

There is no concept of character in python, anything written in string is quote is string.

s = 'A'  $\Rightarrow$  This is not char its string

print(type(s))

Object reusability:

s1 = 'python'

s2 = 'python'

(\*) print(s1 is s2)  $\Rightarrow$  True

print(s1[3] is s2[3])  $\Rightarrow$  True

t1 = 'I am krishna'

t2 = 'I am krishna'

(\*) print(t1 is t2)  $\Rightarrow$  False  $\Rightarrow$  (space doesn't follow object reusability)

(\*) print(t1[6] is t2[6])  $\Rightarrow$  True

$\Rightarrow$  print just obj. directly (In element level object  
t1[6] is t2[6] object reusability is followed)

- ⇒ string is a sequence, so both negative and positive indexing and slicing is possible.
- ⇒ string is immutable datatype.
- ⇒ To get the length of string - `print(len())`

### String condition of "is":

- ⇒ `isalnum`, `isalpha`, `isascii`, `isdecimal`, `isdigit`, `isidentifier`, `islower`, `isnumeric`, `isprintable`, `isspace`, `istitle`, `isupper`.
- ⇒ All of those returns boolean value.

# To check given string is alphabet and numeric or not:

```
s = 'python'  
s1 = 'python3'  
s2 = '89391522'  
s3 = ' python $'  
s4 = 'python$ 98'
```

```
print(s.isalnum()) }  
print(s1.isalnum()) } → True  
print(s2.isalnum()) }  
print(s3.isalnum()) → False
```

It works on alphabet or numeric or combination of both but not with special character.

# To check string is alphabet:  $\Rightarrow$  `isalnum()`

`print(s. isalpha())  $\Rightarrow$  True`

`print(s1. isalpha())  $\Rightarrow$  False`

`print(s2. isalpha())  $\Rightarrow$  False`

# To check string is ASCII:  $\Rightarrow$  `isascii()`

`print(s. isascii())`

`print(s1. isascii())`

`print(s2. isascii())`

`print(s3. isascii())`

`print('Flub'. isascii())  $\Rightarrow$  False`

For 'Flub' in english is 'Flues'. This is not ASCII it is unicode.

# To check string is decimal, digit, numeric:

$\Rightarrow$  `isdigit()`:

Number apart from roman numerals,

fraction, currencies and unicode is digit.

`print(s2. isdigit())  $\Rightarrow$  True`

`print(s1. isdigit())  $\Rightarrow$  False`

`print('1u00BC'. isdigit())  $\Rightarrow$  False`

$\Rightarrow$  `isdecimal()`:

Any number written in decimal format is true, but it should not have space.

`print('1234'. isdecimal())  $\Rightarrow$  True`

`print('1 2 3 4'. isdecimal())  $\Rightarrow$  False`

→ isnumeric():

This supports digit, vulgar fraction, subscript, currency, Roman numerals and superscript.

print('1000BC'.isnumeric()) → True

print('25'.isnumeric()) → True

print('18 48'.isnumeric()) → False

Examples:

x = 42

print(x.isdigit()) → True

print(x.isnumeric()) → True

print(x.isdecimal()) → True

y = 1000b<sub>2</sub> (superscript 12)

print(y.isdigit()) → False

print(y.isnumeric()) → True

print(y.isdecimal()) → True

z = 1/3 (vulgar fraction)

print(z.isnumeric()) → True

print(z.isdigit()) → False

print(z.isdecimal()) → False

To check string is identifier → isidentifier()

print('abc'.isidentifier()) → True

print('abc@'.isidentifier()) → False

print('gabc'.isidentifier()) → False

print('abc1'.isidentifier()) → True

# To check string is upper, lower & title:

→ islower(): returns True if all letters

in str are lowercase  
s5 = 'python'  
s6 = 'PYTHON'  
s7 = 'Python'

print(s5.islower()) → True

print(s7.islower()) → False

→ isupper():

print(s6.isupper()) → True

print(s7.isupper()) → False

print('HELLO6'.isupper()) → True

→ istitle(): → first letter of each word in sentence

If first letter is upper, it prints true.

print(s7.istitle()) → True

print(s6.istitle()) → False

print('PICKAT'.istitle()) → True

# To check string is a space: → isspace()

print(' '.isspace())

print('In'.isspace())

print('It'.isspace())

# To check the string is printable: → isprintable()

a = 'hello In there'

b = r'hello In there' → Raw string: suffix - r

print(a) ⇒ {hello  
there}

print(b) ⇒ hello In there

→ isprintable():

isprintable() returns true only when every element inside the string is printable in output. else it returns false.

print('a'.isprintable()) → True

print('a\nhi'.isprintable()) → False

print(a.isprintable()) → True

print(b.isprintable()) → False

# To check string starts and ends:

y = 'This is python class'

nt : → startswith():

print(y.startswith('T'))

print(y.startswith('This')) → True

print(y.startswith('py', 8)) → indexed y[8]

print(y.startswith('pn', 8)) → False

→ endswith():

print(y.endswith('ss'))

print(y.endswith('n', 8, 14)) → True

print(y.endswith('is', 0, 4))

↳ start and end + 1

## # capital capitalize():

This capitalize the first character in the string or complete sentence.

s = 'peter parker is here'

print(s.capitalize())  $\Rightarrow$  Peter parker is here

## # casefold() and lower() and upper():

$\Rightarrow$  casefold():

casefold works more aggressively that it converts every thing to lower.

print('der Flüs', casefold())

Output: derflüs

$\Rightarrow$  lower():

lower does not converts the unicode just make letter to lower case.

print('der Flüs', lower())

Output: der flüs

$\Rightarrow$  upper():

This also works more aggressively.

print('hello', upper())  $\Rightarrow$  HELLO

print('SHELL POWER', upper())  $\Rightarrow$  SHELLPOWER

print('Flüs', upper())  $\Rightarrow$  Flüs

print('HEAVY-LoS', upper())  $\Rightarrow$  HEAVY- LOSS

## # swapcase () :

swapcase does the execution opposite to the mentioned condition.

```
print ('HIGHEr'.lower().swapcase())
print ('HIGHER'.higher().swapcase())
print ('none'.capitalize().swapcase())
print ('hello there'.title().swapcase())
```

output : HIGHER  
higher  
NONE  
HELLO THERE

## # count () :

This is used to count the total number of occurrence of a particular letter in a string :

a = 'I am looking for a letter in string'

```
print (a.count('i'))
```

```
print (a.count('i', 11))
```

```
print (a.count('i', 11, 28))
```

```
print (a.count('m', 6))
```

$\Rightarrow$  count() is case sensitive. count('i') and count('I') are different.

```
print (a.count('i'))
```

```
print (a.count('I'))
```

## # find() and index() :

→ Both are similar, except the `find()` return -1 if the char / substring is not found whereas `index()` returns value error.

→ Both of the finds and returns the index of first occurrence of char in string.

`print(a.find('e'))` → 4

`print(a.find('in'))` → 8

`print(a.find('.r'))` → 34

`print(a.find('l', 15, 23))` → 18

`print(a.find('l', 15))` → 18

`print(a.find('z'))` → -1 ⇒ not found

Similarly above, code can be replaced

with `a.index()`; Returns same value except, if

`print(a.index('z'))` → value error.

## # rfind() and rindex() :

`rfind` and `rindex` (are) similar to the `find` and `index` but this (initiates the search) for substring from right side of string and returns the index of first occurrence from right hand side in positive index;

`print(a.rfind('l'))` → 18

`print(a.rindex('l'))` → 18

`print(a.rfind('in', 15, 23))` → 28

`print(a.rfind('ze'))` → -1

`print(a.rindex('ze'))` → value error.

# strip(), rstrip(), lstrip(): remove spaces

This is used to remove spaces from the string, they don't remove spaces in between words.

s = " python is easy "

print(s.strip()) → python is easy

right side ← print(s.rstrip()) → python is easy

left side ← print(s.lstrip()) → python is easy

# split(), join():

Input for z = "python is programming"

z = "python is programming"

print(z.split()) → (space is default)

split() → dst = z.split() → can be replaced.

dst[2] = 'easy' → ['python', 'is', 'programming']

print(dst) → ['python', 'is', 'program easy']

join() → print(''.join(dst)) → syntax: "sep".join()

or print(':-'.join(dst)) → the separator is

another output: python is easy more predictable

Input for z = "python is easy" → easy to print out

# replace:

s = 'peter piper picked'

print(s.replace('pe', 'ges')) → peter ges per picked

print(s) → peter piper picked

For all the string control method for modified condition new output is created input won't change.

# ljust(), rjust

s = 'python'

s1 = 'hello'

→ four empty space

print(s.rjust(10)) →         python → totally 10

print(s.ljust(10, 'o')) → hoooooo

s2 = (s.rjust(10, '\*'))

print(s2.ljust(14, '\*')) → \*\*\*\*\* python \*\*\*\*

List and its method:

→ List is a sequence and an ordered collection of elements in square bracket.

→ Indexing, slicing, concatenation, repetition, membership operations are possible.

→ It is a collection of heterogeneous element and allows duplicate element and it's mutable.

lst = [10, 10.20, 'python', (1, 2, 3), {1:100, 2:300}]

print(id(lst), type(lst))

# taking list input from user:

lst = eval(input('Enter a list.'))

eval can be used to get list input from user. We can't use list input printed of eval as it returns the input in list type, but each and every character are separated.

## # converting string to list:

p = 'hello this is string'

print(p.split())

output  $\Rightarrow$  ['hello', 'this', 'is', 'string']

## # indexing in list:

lst = [10, 20, 'true', 'False', [10, 20, 30], {1: 200, 2: 800}]

print(lst[4])  $\Rightarrow$  [10, 20, 30]

print(lst[4][2])  $\Rightarrow$  30

print(lst[5][1])  $\Rightarrow$  200 nested indexing

## # slicing in list:

print(lst[2:4])  $\Rightarrow$  ['true', 'false']

slicing creates a shallow copy and does not alter the original list.

## # Aliasing:

Aliasing a process of assigning another name to existing object

lst = [10, 20, 30]

lst1 = lst

id(lst) = id(lst1)

print(id(lst), id(lst1))

print(id(lst) is id(lst1))

output  $\Rightarrow$  [10, 20, 30] [10, 20, 30]

$\Rightarrow$  True

## \* shallow copy:

This is used to create a copy of existing object, but the changes are reflected only in mentioned object not in both.

```
lst = [10, 20, 30]
```

```
lst2 = lst[::]
```

```
print(lst2[0]) = 'shallow'
```

```
print(lst, lst2)
```

```
print(lst is lst2)
```

Output  $\Rightarrow$  [10, 20, 30] ['shallow', 20, 30]

$\Rightarrow$  False

concept of shallow copy doesn't work inside nested object.

```
lst = [10, 20, 30, ['hello', 40, 100]]
```

```
lst3 = lst[::]
```

```
lst[3][0] = 'oops'
```

```
print(lst, lst3)
```

Output  $\Rightarrow$  [10, 20, 30, ['oops', 40, 100]] [10, 20, 30, ['oops', 40, 100]]

This kind of objects can be shallowed using deep copy concept.

## \* deepcopy:

```
from copy import deepcopy
```

```
lst4 = deepcopy(lst)
```

```
lst4[-1][0] = '20.5'
```

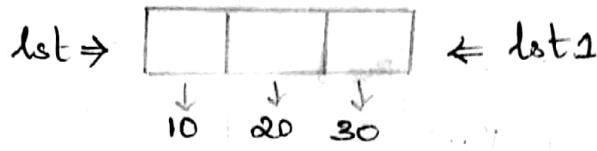
```
print(lst, lst4)
```

OP  $\neq$  [10, 20, 30, ['oops', 40, 100]] [10, 20, 30, [20.5, 40, 100]]

## # Concept of Aliasing:

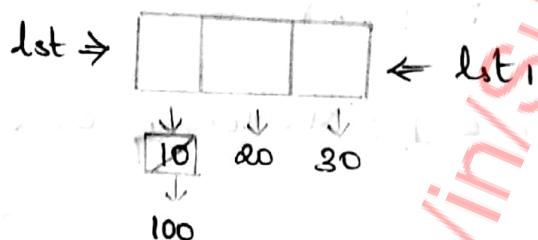
lst = [10, 20, 30]

lst1 = lst



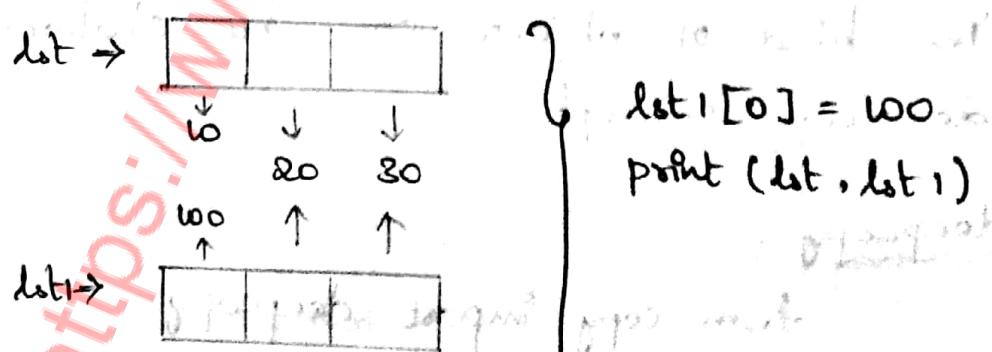
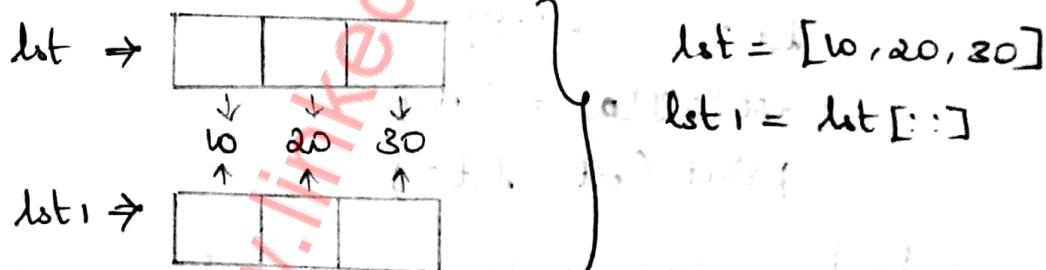
lst1[0] = 100

print(lst), (lst1)



Output → [10, 20, 30] [100, 20, 30]

## # Concept of shallow copy:

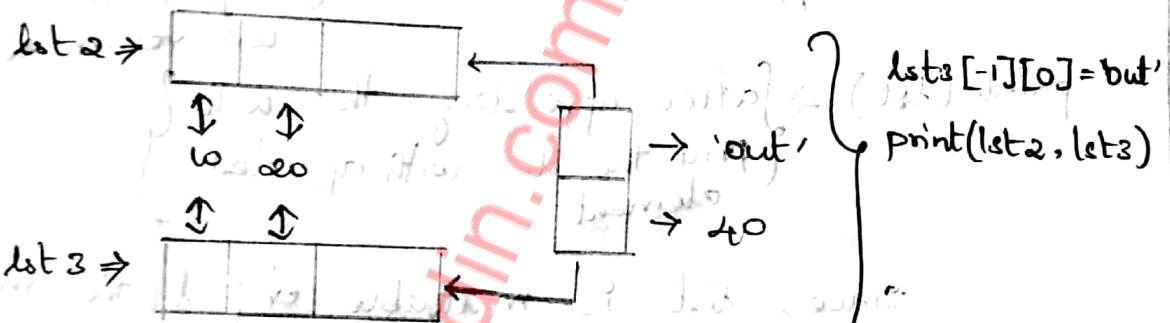
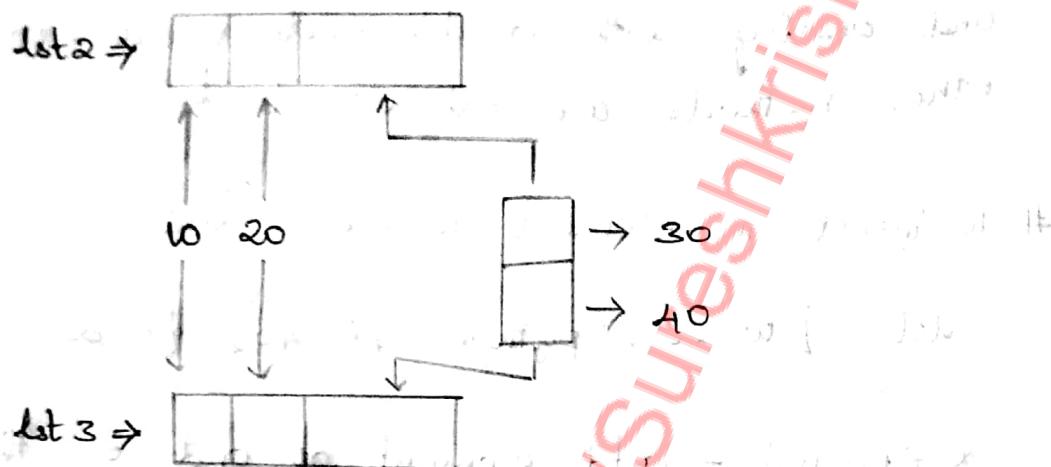


Output → [10, 20, 30] [100, 20, 30]

## concept of shallow copy in nested list / object:

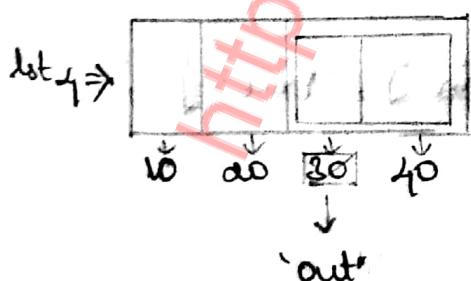
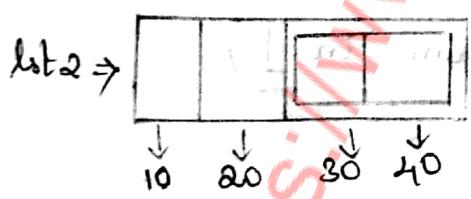
lst 2 = [10, 20, [30, 40]]

lst 3 = lst 2 / lst 2 [::]



output → [10, 20, [30, 40]] [10, 20, ['out', 40]]

## #concept of deep copy in nested list



from copy import deepcopy

lst4 = deepcopy(lst2)

lst4[-1][0] = 'out'

print(lst2, lst4)

output → [10, 20, [30, 40]]

[10, 20, ['out', 40]]

## Methods in list:

To see all the method in list type `print(dir(list))`. Except the words starting and ending with double underscore, every other methods are discussed below.

### # To insert an element inside a list:

`lst = [10, 20, 'python', [60, 40], {1: 400, 3: 1200}]`

\* Append - add element at end of the list.

`print(lst.append(range(10)))`  $\Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{This will add the} \\ \text{range to lst but it} \\ \text{will return None} \end{array} \right\}$

`print(lst)`  $\Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{after appending this will} \\ \text{print the list with appended} \\ \text{element} \end{array} \right\}$

Since, list is mutable object the methods used in list will change the orginal list itself.

\* insert - add element at specified index.

`lst = [10, 20, 40, 'true']`

`lst.insert(③, ['hi', 'iam', 'in'])`

③ here 3 is  $\rightarrow$  index

$\hookrightarrow$  object

`print(lst)`

output  $\Rightarrow$  `lst = [10, 20, 40, ['hi', 'iam', 'in'], 'true']`

\* extend - extends one list into another.

```
lst1 = [200, 400, 10]
```

```
lst.extend(lst1)
```

```
print(lst)
```

output → [10, 20, 40, 200, 400, 10]

# Difference between append & extend.

\* append can take only one argument either it is list([10, 20, 10]) or tuple((10, 20, 10)) or individual string('hi').

\* extend used to add input as element or list or combination of heterogeneous elements.

# To remove a element from the list.

\* remove - this is used to remove a single object from list.

```
lst.remove(['hi', 'ram', 'in'])
```

```
print(lst)
```

output → [10, 20, 30, 'true', 200, 400, 10]

\* pop - pop will remove the object by index.

printing pop will return the removed object

print(lst.pop()) → removes last element  
by default and returns it

print(lst.pop(3)) → removes element at third index and returns it

print(lst) → prints the remaining list.

output: → 10  
→ true

→ [10, 20, 30, 200, 400]

# To remove a range of element in a list:

\* using for loop:

```
lst = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 'true', 'false']
```

```
lst1 = lst[5:8]
```

```
for i in lst1:
```

```
    lst.remove(i)
```

```
print(lst)
```

Output  $\Rightarrow$  [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]

# copy - creates a shallow copy:

```
lst2 = lst.copy()
```

```
lst2[3] = 'what'
```

```
print(lst, lst2)
```

Output  $\Rightarrow$  [10, 20, 30, 40, 50] [10, 20, 30, 'what', 50]

# Count and Index:

\* count - returns the total count / number of occurrence of a element

```
ct = [100, 2, 200, 1, 2, 4, 2, 8, 16, 2]
```

```
print(ct.count(2))
```

Output  $\Rightarrow$  4

\* index - returns the index of the first occurrence of element:

```
print(ct.index(2))
```

Output  $\Rightarrow$  1

\* clear - this will delete all the element from the list and returns empty list.

ct.clear()

print(ct)

Output  $\Rightarrow$  [ ]

\* reverse - this reverses the complete list, printing reverse will return None.

print(lst)

lst.reverse()

print(lst)

Output  $\Rightarrow$  [50, 40, 30, 20, 10]

\* sorting - this will sort the list in ascending and descending order.

\* sort() :- sort in ascending  $\Rightarrow$  low to high

st = [5, 20, 14, 6, 200, 13, 8]

st.sort()

print(st)

Output  $\Rightarrow$  [1, 3, 5, 6, 14, 20, 200]

\* sort(reverse = True) :- descending  $\Rightarrow$  high to low

st.sort(reverse = True)

print(st)

Output  $\Rightarrow$  [200, 20, 14, 6, 5, 3, 1]

$\Rightarrow$  sorting a list with different data type will return type error. Only homogeneous elements can be sorted.

# list comprehension: It is a simple way of creating a list.

point([i for i in range(21) if i%2==0])

Output  $\Rightarrow [0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20]$ .

Syntax  $\Rightarrow [expression \text{ for } var \text{ in } seqn \text{ if cond}]$

lt = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 1]

point([e for e in lt if e!=1])

Output  $\Rightarrow [2, 3, 4, 5, 6]$

## TUPLE AND ITS METHOD:

$\Rightarrow$  Tuple is a sequence in which has ordered collection of elements. Indexing, slicing, concatenation, repetition can be done.

$\Rightarrow$  Tuple is immutable datatype, all elements are kept inside () and separated by comma. The bracket is optional and comma is mandatory.

$\Rightarrow$  Tuple is a collection of homogeneous element and it allows duplicates.

tpl = (10, 20, 30)

print(tpl, type(tpl))  $\Rightarrow (10, 20, 30) <\text{class 'tuple'}>$

tpl1 = (10)

print(tpl1, type(tpl1))  $\Rightarrow 10 <\text{class 'int'}>$

```
tpl2 = 100, 200, 5
```

```
print(tpl2, type(tpl2)) → (100, 200, 5) <class 'tuple'>
```

```
tpl3 = (20,)
```

```
print(tpl3, type(tpl3)) → (20,) <class 'tuple'>
```

### # Taking tuple input from user :-

```
user = eval(input('Enter a tuple'))
```

eval can be used to get tuple input from user.

### # Methods in tuple:

To view all the methods in tuple type

print(dir(tuple))  
count and index are the two methods in tuple if they are used in tuple similar to list.

### # Tuple packing and unpacking:

→ packing :

```
a = 100
```

```
b = 10
```

```
c = 15
```

```
d = 200
```

```
tpl = a, b, c, d
```

```
print(tpl)
```

Output → (100, 10, 15, 200)

→ unpacking: (no. of elements in tuple should be equal to the variable)

tpl = 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60 → elements

a, b, c, d, e, f = tpl → variable

print(a)

print(c)

print(e)

Output → 10

30

50

## DICTIONARY AND ITS METHOD

→ It is a combination of key, value pairs separated by colon and kept inside '{ }'

→ keys can't be duplicated but values can be duplicated. It is mutable datatype.

d = {'std1': {'name': 'ABC', 'num': 40}, 'std2': {'num': 50}}

print(d['std1']) → {'name': 'ABC', 'num': 40}

print(d['std1']['num']) → 40

d['std1']['num'] = 100

print(d)

→ {'std1': {'name': 'ABC', 'num': 100}, 'std2': {'num': 50}}

↳ mutable datatype, and so on

To view all the methods of dictionary, type

print(dir(dict))

## \* get() • setdefault():

→ get() method returns the value of a key if it is present in the dictionary or else it will return none by default that can be edited by user.

```
print(d.get('std1'))  
print(d.get('std3'))  
print(d.get('std3', 'This is not available'))  
print(d)
```

output → { 'name': 'ABC', 'num': 40 }

→ None

→ This is not available

→ Returns the complete dictionary

\* get() will not change anything in dictionary, it will only returns the value.

## → setdefault()

```
print(d.setdefault('std1'))
```

```
print(d.setdefault('std3'))
```

```
print(d.setdefault('std4', 'not available'))
```

```
print(d)
```

output: In this key 'std3' will be added to the original dictionary followed by key 'std4' and value 'not available'.

\* setdefault() will make changes in the original dictionary data type and saves the values.

## # update()

It is used to update the dictionary with new set of key and value or it can edit the value of available key.

```
d1 = {'std1': 50, 'std2': 60, 3: 300, 4: 600}
```

```
d.update(d1)
```

```
print(d)
```

```
output → {'std1': 50, 'std2': 60, 3: 300, 4: 600}
```

## # pop(), popitem()

→ pop() is used to remove a particular element from the dictionary.

```
d['std1'].pop('num', 'this is not available')
print(d)
```

In case of pop() if we don't use 'this is not available' and if the value is not present in key it will create a key error. To avoid it use a string after the value.

→ popitem() is used to remove a random set of key and value from the dictionary.

If returns key error in case of empty dictionary

```
d.popitem()
```

```
print(d)
```

---

## # items(), keys(), values():

All of these creates the sequence of required element from the dictionary.

print(d.items()) → Returns seq of items.

print(d.keys()) → Returns seq of keys.

print(d.values()) → Returns seq of values.

Loop can also be used:

\* for i in d.keys():

    print(i)

\* for i in d.keys():

    print(d[i])

## # fromkeys():

This method is used to create a dictionary with default value for all the keys.

d1 = d.fromkeys([1, 2, 30], 600)

print(d1)

output → {1: 600, 2: 600, 30: 600}

# { }

## # copy():

This method creates the shallow copy of the dictionary.

d2 = d.copy()

print(d2 is d)

output → False

(=) third

## \* To create deep copy

```
from copy import deepcopy  
d1 = deepcopy(d)
```

## # dictionary comprehension:

Syntax: {expr : for var in seq if cond}

```
lst = ['chennai', 'Bangalore', 'Pune', 'Theni']
```

```
print ({count+1: name for count in enumerate(lst)})
```

```
Output: {1: 'chennai', 2: 'Bangalore', 3: 'Pune', 4: 'Theni'}
```

## # FUNCTIONS:

→ Function is a block of code that runs only when it is called. This is used to avoid the repetition of code. To define a function the syntax - def Function-name(). The code written below the function definition should be indented properly.

→ Function definition is not function execution. To execute a function it has to be called.

Example:

This will not point output as it is to define the func

def add():

```
x = int(input('First num'))  
y = int(input('Second num'))  
z = x+y  
print(z)
```

This example is to define the function that performs a task to add two numbers. To perform the same task again we can call the function.

Example:

Calling add() → This is function calling and it performs the previous defined function task.

Output:

```
First num 10  
Second num 20  
30
```

# Input to the function - Arguments

# Output to the function - return statement

→ Input to the function:

```
def add(a, b): # parameter  
    c = a + b # return statement  
    print(c)  
  
num1 = int(input('First num'))  
num2 = int(input('Second num'))  
add(num1, num2) # Arguments
```

parameter - variable listed during func definition.

arguments - value sent into function when it's called.

→ Parameter and arguments are inter-changeable.

# positional argument / parameter:  $\rightarrow$  Actual Argument

No of argument and the number of parameters should count the same.

Example: if the function is defined as

def value(a, b) then function

calling should have two variable  
as value(x, y)

# default parameter:  $\rightarrow$  Actual Argument

def product(a, b=1, c=1, d=1): (# default parameter)

res = a \* b \* c \* d,

print(res)

product(10) + it will work with the default #

num1 = int(input('First num')) + input #

num2 = int(input('Second num'))

product(num1, num2)

product(num1, num2, 20) } (# arguments)

product(num1, num2, 20, 2) }

(,) being

output:

First num 5

Second num 6

30

600

1200

$\Rightarrow$  default parameter should be written after positional parameter.

\* keyworded argument  $\Rightarrow$  Actual Argument

def difference (a, b)

$$z = a - b$$

print (z)

x = int (input ('First Num: '))

y = int (input ('Second Num: '))

if x > y:

difference (a=x, b=y)

else :

difference (a=y, b=x)

output :

First Num: 50

Second Num: 80

30

Assigning parameters to respective Argument is keyworded Argument

$\rightarrow$  keyworded arguments should be passed after positional argument, if both are used.

\* variable length arguments : (\*args)  $\Rightarrow$  Actual Arguments

Any value user will pass will be taken in form of args tuple. It is used to process large amount of parameters.

def add (\*suresh)  $\rightarrow$  (\*args can be replaced)  
by \*anything

total = 0

for i in suresh:

total += i

print (total)

	Output
add (10, 20)	→ 30
add (10, 20, 20)	→ 60
add (10, 20, 30, 40)	→ 100
add (10, 20, 30, 40, 50)	→ 150

# variable length keyworded argument - (\*\*kwargs)

Any value user will pass will be taken in form of dictionary.

```
def employee (**lst):
    print(lst, type(lst))
    for i in lst:
        print(i, lst[i], sep='-->')
```

```
employee (name = 'suresh', age = 22, addr = 'theni')
```

Output:

```
→ { 'name': 'suresh', 'age': 22, 'addr': 'theni'}
```

`<class 'dict'>`

→ name --> suresh

age --> 22

addr --> theni

⇒ In variable length keyworded argument the parameter will be taken as key and argument is taken as value and it becomes a pair.

# Output to the function:

return statement is used to let a function return a value.

Example:

def my\_function(x):

    return 5 \* x

my\_function(10) → This will print nothing  
print(my\_function(10)) → 50

# Anonymous function, filter, map & reduce

⇒ Anonymous function:

It is a function without any name it will be expressed by lambda.

Syntax: lambda var1, var2, var3 : expr

(a) = lambda var1, var2, var3 : expr

It has to be assigned to a variable, that can be used to print.

Example:

i)  $\delta = \lambda \text{num} : \text{num} * \text{num}$

print( $\delta(4)$ )

Output → 16

ii) def myfunc(n):

    return lambda a: a \* n

tripler = myfunc(3)

print(tripler(11)) → 33

## ⇒ Filter function:

This filters a sequence. length of the seq will be diminished.

syntax: filter(func, seq) → this is generator

Example:

```
lst = [10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20]
```

```
print(list(filter(lambda num: num % 2 == 0, lst)))
```

output : [12, 14, 16, 18, 20]

## ⇒ map function:

It is used to map every element of a sequence to some value. Length of the seq will be constant.

syntax: map(func, seq) → this is generator

Example:

```
lst = list(range(0, 20, 2))
```

```
out = list(map(lambda num: num * 2, lst))
print(out)
```

output : [0, 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32, 36]

(\*)

[In both map and filter function the original sequence / input is not altered. A new sequence is created.]

(\*)

[When two sequences of different length is mapped, the output will have the length of smallest seq.]

Example:

```
t1 = list(range(0, 9))  
t2 = list(range(0, 30))  
x = (lambda num1, num2: num1 + num2, lambda)  
out = list(map(x, t1, t2))  
print(out)  
output → [0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16]  
  
y = (lambda num: num % 4 == 0)  
fin = list(filter(y, out))  
print(fin)  
output → [0, 4, 8, 12, 16]
```

} mapped function  
} output is  
} filtered by  
} filter function

# reduce :

It is used to reduce a seq to a single value. This are not de faultly available in builtins. Reduce has to be imported.

Example:

```
from functools import reduce  
x1 = list(range(2, 1001, 2))  
out = reduce(lambda x, y: x+y, x1)  
print(out)  
output → 250500  
  
In dictionary → d = {1: 100, 2: 200, 3: 300, 4: 400}  
out = reduce(lambda x, y: x*y,  
            d.values())  
print(out)  
output → 2400000000
```

## # Decorators:

It is a function that takes one function as input and returns the function with some added functionality.

(old car) → (service guy) → (same car with added functionality)

(existing function) → (decorators) → (same function with added functionality)

Example:

```
def my-dec(func):
    def wrap-func():
        name, phone = func()
        email = input('Enter email')
        return wrap-func() → print(name, phone,
                                     email)
```

@ my-dec

```
def existing-fun():
```

```
    name = input('Enter name')
    phone = input('Enter phone')
    return phone, name, phone
```

existing-fun()

## Generators #

Generator is a sequence. yield keyword in any function will make the function a generator. Yield is similar to return statement.

Example:

```
def my_gen(lst):
```

```
    for i in lst:
```

```
        yield i
```

```
        yield i*2
```

```
g = my_gen([11, 12, 13, 14])
```

```
print(next(g))
```

→ 11

```
print(next(g))
```

→ 22

```
print(next(g))
```

→ 12

```
print(next(g))
```

→ 24

```
print(next(g))
```

→ 13

```
print(next(g))
```

→ 26

```
print(next(g))
```

→ 14

```
print(next(g))
```

→ 28

```
# print(next(g))
```

→ error: stop iteration.

This internally happen when we run any loop.

(exceed the limit in seq)

```
for i in g:
```

```
    print(i)
```

output → 11

22

12

24

13

26

14

28

In this loop, the generator sequence is internally executed by next() keyword.

Example:

```
def my_ran(start, stop):
```

```
i = start
```

```
while i < stop:
```

```
    yield i
```

```
i += 1
```

```
r = my_ran(0, 6)
```

```
for i in r:
```

```
    print(i)
```

output →

```
0  
1  
2  
3  
4  
5
```

Example : (tuple generator)

```
list = [i + i for i in range(5)]
```

```
tpl = tuple(list) → ((0, 2), 4, 6, 8)
```

```
print(tpl) → (0, 2, 4, 6, 8)
```

Generator doesn't store the value in line by line execution. Instead it stores the current value and after which it is garbage collected.

list • tuple all the sequence will allocate memory for the object which while running will create overflow error after a point.

Ex : t = list(range(0, 10000000000))  
print(i for i in t)

output → Overflow error

But this can be made using generator sequence such as range.

Ex : x = range(0, 10000000000)

~~print~~ for i in x

print(i for i in x)

output → print values from 0 to 1000000000

↓ when wrapped around list/tuple

(creates a generator object)

## # MODULE # :

Any python file written and can be executed can be called as module. Module can be imported. There are lot of builtin module in python.

Example :

import math

import random

import datetime

import statistics

There are all some

inbuilt modules

in python written

in c language

multiple import → from math import sqrt, pi, tan

⇒ creating and importing user defined module:

1. create a .py executable file with

`if __name__ == '__main__':`

Example :

```
def sum():  
    z = x + y  
    print(z)
```

`print(__name__)` → (Points \_\_main\_\_ inside the file)

`If __name__ == '__main__':`

```
x = int(input())  
y = int(input())  
sum()
```

2. save the file with some name) ex: try.py.

3. open a new file and import the previous file using `import`.

Example :

`print(__name__)` → \_\_main\_\_

`import try` → try → (Prints file name) ↑  
when imported

⇒ importing builtins of python:

`* import &math`

`print(dir())`

`print(dir(math))`

} `math` module is imported to access a function in module use `math.fun()`

Example:

```
import math  
print(math.sqrt(4))  
O/P → 2
```

\* from math import \*

→ This will import all functions inside the module that can be used directly.

Example:

```
f(x) import  
from math import *  
print(sqrt(8))  
O/P → 2.82842  
print(pi)  
O/P → 3.1416
```

\* from math import pi

→ only the imported function will be available, other function will not be available.

Example:

```
from math import pi  
print(sqrt(8))  
O/P → name error  
print(pi) → 3.1416
```

\* Aliasing: from math import sqrt as s, pi as p

```
import math as m  
import random as r  
print(m.sqrt(4))
```

## # Regular expression # :

Regular expression is used to perform a specified task on string. It is mainly used to extract data from string. The action can only be performed in raw string. This has to be imported.

Example.

```
import re
```

```
str = 'cat mat can bat cup mad'
```

```
exp = r'c\w\w'
```

```
out = re.match(exp, str)
```

```
print(out.group())
```

```
print(out)
```

Output → cat

→ Always point( ) first and use print(out.group())

↳ This will return None if the action is not match.

Other way to get output:

For the above program:

```
out = re.match(exp, str)
```

```
if out == None:
```

```
    print(out)
```

```
else:
```

```
    print(out.group())
```

- # `re.match(exp, str) →` { Finds whether the string starts with given exp / letter. }
- # `re.search(exp, str) →` returns first occurrence of search
- # `re.findall(exp, str) →` { returns all occurrence of matched pattern in list & group() if groups to list else not }
- # `re.split(exp, str) →` { splits the string for specified character and return in list }
- # `re.sub(exp, 'new', str) →` { substring that replaces new wherever the pattern matches }  
this also returns list

(\*) use and check file 'Reference for regular exp'

## # FILE HANDLING #

syntax : `var = open('file-name-with-extension', 'mode')`

mode : `read(r), write(w), append(a)`

`read and write (r+), write and read (w+)`

`append and read (a+)`

⇒ Read mode : `f = open('file-name', 'r')`

\* This mode will only allow to read the file, we can't write anything in it.

\* If the file exists, it will open the file in read mode and cursor will be placed at the beginning of the file.

\* If file not exist, then it will give FileNotFoundError.

Ex:

`f = open('trail.txt', 'r')` file has to created and saved in same location.  
`print(f.tell())` gives the cursor index

`print(f.read())` prints the content of opened file

`print(f.tell())` (gives cursor index after reading complete file)  
`f.close()`

→ Write mode :

\* This will only allow to write the file cannot be read in this mode.

\* opening existing file in write mode will delete everything in that and places cursor at beginning.

\* If file is not available, it will create a file in that name.

Example:

```
f = open('trail.txt', 'w')
```

```
print(f.tell())
```

```
print(f.fileno())
```

```
f.write('content replaced!')
```

```
print(f.tell())
```

```
f.close()
```

## → append mode

- \* This is similar to write, but this will not delete the content of existing file when opened. New content is added followed by already available content.
- \* If file does not exist, this creates one with given name.

### Example:

```
a = open('trail.txt', 'a')  
print(a.tell())  
a.write('I am appended. In I am in new line.')  
print(a.tell())  
a.close  
f = open('trail.txt', 'r')  
print(f.read())
```

## → Read and write mode:

- \* This allows to read and write both in the file. But it is more into read mode. If file doesn't exist, it gives FileNotFoundError.

- \* If the file exists, it opens and places the cursor at the beginning of the line in read mode.

- \* `filename.seek()` is used to move the cursor to desired location.

Example:

```
rw = open('trial.txt', 'r+')
print(rw.tell())
print(rw.read())
print(rw.tell())
rw.write('I am written at the end')
rw.seek(0)
rw.write('I am written at the begining')
rw.close()
```

\* While writing at the beginning of the sentence it deletes the content equal to the length of written character as it replaces it with written string.

→ Write and read mode:

\* This is similar to write mode as it deletes the previous content when opening, but it additionally allows to read the file when cursor is seeked to zero index. It will create a file when it doesn't exist when opening.

Example:

```
wr = open('trial.txt', 'w+')
print(wr.tell())
print(wr.read())
wr.write('hello world')
wr.seek(0)
print(wr.read())
wr.close()
```

→ append and read mode:

- \* It allows to read and write in the file.
- It does not delete the previous content.
- \* When the existing file is opened cursor is placed at the end of the file.
- \* When non-existing file is opened, it will create a file in that name.

Example:

```
ar = open('trial.txt', 'a+')
```

```
print(ar.tell())
```

```
print(ar.read())
```

```
ar.write('Hello World!')
```

```
ar.seek(0)
```

```
ar.write('This is Python')
```

```
ar.seek(0)
```

```
print(ar.read())
```

```
ar.close()
```

→ Methods to read from the file:

`read()` → Reads whole content & returns string object.

`read(no. of. Char)` → Reads mentioned chara & returns string

`readline()` → read 1 line at a time & returns string object.

`readlines()` → Reads whole content & returns list object.

→ Methods to write in a file

`write('string')`

`writelines(['str1\n', 'str2\n...'])`

⇒ Binary files → Images, videos, PDF's

- \* Read mode → rb
- \* write mode → wb
- \* append mode → ab
- \* Read & write mode → rbt
- \* write & read mode → wbt
- \* append & read mode → abt

⇒ with statement:

It is used to open the file and close it till the executed line. The changes will be saved. In case of error in any one of the line the file will be closed and changes are saved for error-less lines.

Syntax:

with open('filename', 'mode') as var:

Code 1

Code 2

Code 3

### # EXCEPTION HANDLING #

- \* Try → Code expected or error is written in try
- \* except → After raising error in try block, the code that has to be executed is placed here
- \* finally → getting error or not code in this block will be executed as default.

Example:

```
1. f = open ('abc.txt', 'a')
   print (f.tell())
   try:
       print (f.read())
   except:
       print ('some error has occurred')
   f.write ('Hello')
   print (f.tell())
   f.close()
```

2. a = 100

b = 0

~~a/b~~

try:

res = a/b

print (res)

except ZeroDivisionError:

print ('Not divisible by 0')

3. a = 1000

b = 100

res = a+b

~~z = 25~~

try:

print (c)

except NameError:

print ('variable not found')

~~print (res)~~

Finally:

del z

print (res)

4.  $n = 200$

$y = 400$

$res = n * y$

$z = 100$

try:

    print(z)

except NameError:

    print('var not declared')

Finally

    del(z)

    print(n)

    print(y)

    print(res)

try:

    print(z)

except NameError:

    print('variable deleted')

output

⇒ var not declared

200

400

80000

variable deleted.