

Python

Basics of Python

- Python is High Level, OOP, scripting language
- Platform Independent
- Python is Interpreted language
-

Different Ways to run Python Code -

Add Python Installed directory path in Env Variables.

1. using Python.exe - inside installed directory in windows.

It gives access to python shell/Terminal. we can write and execute code there.

```
Select C:\Program Files (x86)\Python3.6.4\python.exe
Python 3.6.4 (v3.6.4:d48ebeb, Dec 19 2017, 06:04:45) [MSC v.1900 32 bit (Intel)] on win32
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> print("Hello world")
Hello world
>>> x=100
>>> y=200
>>> print(x+y)
300
>>>
```

2. Using IDLE python shell -

either directly into shell or create new file and then run module.

The screenshot shows the Python 3.6.4 Shell window. The menu bar includes File, Edit, Shell, Debug, Options, Window, and Help. The main area displays the following Python session:

```
Python 3.6.4 (v3.6.4:d48ebeb, Dec 19 2017, 06:04:45) [MSC v.1900 32 bit (Intel)]
on win32
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> print("Hello World")
Hello World
>>> x=100
>>> y=200
>>> print(x+y)
300
>>>
```

The output "300" is highlighted in a dark gray box.

3. By windows cmd prompt -

write python in windows cmd prompt. It will give access to python shell.

or create a file and then -

```
python test.py
```

4. Online python compiler

5. Using IDE

6. using Eclipse IDE -

need to install Pydev plugin (by going to help and then install).

Comments -

- For single line comment, use #
- For multi line, use triple single or double quotes('''' ''')
or ('" ")

Keywords -

- print is method in python 3 and hence not a keyword.
- Also, parenthesis are mandatory around print in python 3.

- False None , True are newly added keyword in Python 3.

- Python 2.x

```
import keyword
print keyword.kwlist
```

{ ['and', 'as', 'assert', 'break', 'class', 'continue', 'def', 'del', 'elif', 'else', 'except', 'exec', 'finally', 'for', 'from', 'global', 'if', 'import', 'in', 'is', 'lambda', 'not', 'or', 'pass', 'print', 'raise', 'return', 'try', 'while', 'with', 'yield'] }

- Python 3.x

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

{ ['False', 'None', 'True', 'and', 'as', 'assert', 'break', 'class', 'continue', 'def', 'del', 'elif', 'else', 'except', 'finally', 'for', 'from', 'global'] }

- In 2.x parenthesis are optional for print
- In 3.x parenthesis are mandatory for print
- Removed keywords from 3.x (print())
- Newly added keyords in 3.x : False, None, True,



Variables

- No need to mention data type b/c python is dynamically typed
- We can also assign different data types in a single line

```

1 a=10
2 b=10.5
3 name="Pavan"
4 name1='Kumar'
5 x=True

6
7 print(a)
8 print(b)
9 print(name)
10 print(name1)
11 print(x)
12
13 #this statement assign 100 to a, 10.5 to b and Pavan to name. Multiple Values to multiple variables
14 a,b,name=100,10.5,"pavan"
15 print(a,b,name)
16
17 #a,b,c= 10,10,10
18 a=b=c=10
19 print(a,b,c)

```

- In Python we can re-declare the variables
- To delete a variable, `del a`

Data Types Supported

Numbers - int, float

- `max()` and `min()` will give max and min out its given arguements.

string

boolean

List

Tuples

Dictionary

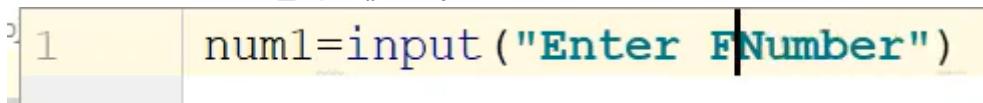
- Use type(x) to get data type of x
- We can concatenate two similar data types only, using + operator
We can't concatenate string with any other data type.
- We can concatenate numbers and boolean b/c boolean are also 1 and 0 only.
-

Swap 2 variables -

```
x, y = y, x
```

Taking user Input

- In python 3, we have input method, which takes input stores as string.
- Later, we can type cast it to according to our needs
- This is similar to raw_input() in Python 2



```
1 num1=input("Enter FNumber")
```

- We can't typecast, string containing float to int. Typecasting only possible to same data type as entered by user
- Float can hold int but reverse is not true.

Formatting Output

- We can use variable name to print its value
- we can use % opearator.

```
print("%d, %s, %g"%(age, name, sal))
```
- we can use {} operator and .format method.

```
print("Name is : {} age is: {} sal is: {}".format(name, age, sal))
```
- {} along with index

```
print("name:{0} age:{1} sal:{2}".format(name, age, sal))
```

```

name,age,sal = "John",24,10000.35

#Approach1
print(name,age,sal)

#Approach2
print("Name is:", name)
print("Age is:", age)
print("Sal is:", sal)

#Approach3 : using % Here type is imp
print("Name:%s age:%d salary:%g" %(name, age, sal))

#Approach3 : using {} Here value is imp
print("Name:{} age:{} salary:{}".format(name, age, sal))

#Approach4 : using {} Here value & index is imp
print("Name:{} age:{} salary:{}".format(name, age, sal))

```

Control Statements

1. if else - if and else keyword should be under same line
2. if elif else - here else is optional
3. for loop - for i in range(1,10,2):

Above loop will start from 1 , go until $10-1 = 9$, with inc of 2 at a time.
4. while loop -


```
i = 10;
while i >= 1:
    print(i)
    i = i - 1
```
5. break - to exit a loop based on certain condition
6. continue - to skip that particular iteration

- Number Type Conversion -

Number Type Conversion

- Type `int(x)` to convert `x` to a plain integer.
- Type `float(x)` to convert `x` to a floating-point number.

```
x=10
print(int(x))
print(float(x))

print(type(x))
print(type(int(x)))
print(type(float(x)))
```

Strings -

- can be declared inside single or double quotes
- typecast user input to string using `str(input("Enter a str"))`
- `str()` will create an empty string
`str("John")` will add newstring john to str b/c in python re-declarartion is allowed.
- If 2 different var have same content inside it, they will both be on same physical address in memory.
`id(str)` will give address of str in memory
- Strings are immutable , i.e. once a str var is created , that same variable can't be modified. If we try to modify that var, then new var with same name at different memory location is created.
- String index starts from 0
- Operations on strings -
`str1+str2` - add two string literal
`str*n` - repeat str n times(without adding white spaces)

- Slicing string -

Slicing string

- We can take subset of string from original string by using [] operator also known as slicing operator.
- Syntax: s[start:end]
- this will return part of the string starting from index start to index end-1 .

```
str="welcome"
print(str[1:3]) #el
print(str[:6]) #welcom
print(str[4:]) #ome
print(str[1:-1]) #elcom
```

- here , str[1:-1] means it will omit last string character
- ord('A') method returns ASCII value of a character A and chr(65) returns character A corresponding to ASCII code 65

ord() and chr() Functions

- ord() – function returns the ASCII code of the character.
- chr() – function returns character represented by a ASCII number.

```
print(ord('A')) #65
print(chr(65)) #A
```

- String Functions -
- len(str), max(str), min(str)

Function name	Function Description
len()	returns length of the string
max()	returns character having highest ASCII value
min()	returns character having lowest ASCII value

```
print(len("hello")) #5
print(max("abc")) #c
print(min("abc")) #a
```

- Membership operators -

in - returns T if a substring is present inside a string

not in - returns T if a substring is not inside a string

```
s1 = "Welcome"
print("come" in s1) # True
print("come" not in s1) #False
```

- String Comparisons -

we can compare 2 strings based on their ASCII characters, matching starts from left to right.

You can use (> , < , <= , <= , == , !=) to compare two strings.

Python compares string lexicographically i.e using ASCII value of the characters.

```
print("tim" == "tie") #False
print("free" != "freedom") #True
print ("arrow" > "aron") #True
print ("right" >= "left") #True
print ("teeth" < "tee") #False
print ("yellow" <= "fellow") #False
print ("abc" > "") #True
```

- ASCII value of empty character is the least

- str is of type sequence , so we can iterate over it.

- String is a sequence type and also iterable using for loop

```
s = "hello"
for i in s:
    print(i)
    print(s, end="\n") # this is default behavior
    print(s, end="") # print string without a newline
    print(s, end="foo") # now print() will print foo after every
string
```

- Testing Strings -

String class in python has various inbuilt methods which allows to check for different types of strings.

Method name	Method Description
isalnum()	Returns True if string is alphanumeric
isalpha()	Returns True if string contains only alphabets
isdigit()	Returns True if string contains only digits
isidentifier()	Return True if string is valid identifier
islower()	Returns True if string is in lowercase
isupper()	Returns True if string is in uppercase
isspace()	Returns True if string contains only whitespace

```
s = "welcome to python"
print(s.isalnum()) #False
print("Welcome".isalpha()) #True
print("2012".isdigit()) #True
print("first Number".isidentifier())#False
print(s.islower()) #True
print("WELCOME".isupper()) #True
print(" ".isspace()) #True
```

- Search within a string -

Method Name	Methods Description:
endswith(s1: str): bool	Returns True if strings ends with substring s1
startswith(s1: str): bool	Returns True if strings starts with substring s1
count(substring): int	Returns number of occurrences of substring the string
find(s1): int	Returns lowest index from where s1 starts in the string, if string not found returns -1
rfind(s1): int	Returns highest index from where s1 starts in the string, if string not found returns -1

```
s = "welcome to python"
print(s.endswith("thon")) #True
print(s.startswith("good")) #False
print(s.find("come")) #3
print(s.find("become")) #-1
print(s.rfind("o")) #15
print(s.count("o")) #3
```

Converting/Modifying Strings -

- Original string remains the same , we can store modified string in some other str1 var.

Method name	Method Description
capitalize(): str	Returns a copy of this string with only the first character capitalized.
lower(): str	Return string by converting every character to lowercase
upper(): str	Return string by converting every character to uppercase
title(): str	This function return string by capitalizing first letter of every word in the string
swapcase(): str	Return a string in which the lowercase letter is converted to uppercase and uppercase to lowercase
replace(old, new): str	This function returns new string by replacing the occurrence of old string with new string

```
s = "String in PYTHON"
s1 = s.capitalize()
print(s1) #String in python

s2 = s.title()
print(s2) #String In Python

s3 = s.lower()
print(s3) #string in python

s4 = s.upper()
print(s4) #STRING IN PYTHON

s5 = s.swapcase()
print(s5) #STRING IN python

s6 = s.replace("in", "on")
print(s6) #String on PYTHON

print(s) #String in PYTHON
```

Lists

- List allows to add, delete , process elements easily.
- List is a sequence type and its similar to arrays. But in list we can store same or different data types.
- To create a list -

list1 = list([22,45,65])

list2 = list("Python") --> This will create a list of characters, P,y,t,h,o,n

- To access elements of a list

list[0], list[1]

List index starts from 0.

- Operations on list -

Method name	Description	Method name	Description
x in s	True if element x is in sequence s.	len(s)	Length of sequence s, i.e. the number of elements in s.
x not in s	If element x is not in sequence s.	min(s)	Smallest element in sequence s.
s1 + s2	Concatenates two sequences s1 and s2	max(s)	Largest element in sequence s.
s * n , n * s	n copies of sequence s concatenated	sum(s)	Sum of all numbers in sequence s.
s[i]	ith element in sequence s.	for loop	Traverses elements from left to right in a for loop.

```
list1 = [2, 3, 4, 1, 32]
print(2 in list1) # True
print(33 not in list1) # False
print(len(list1)) # find the number of elements in the list 5
print(max(list1)) # find the largest element in the list 32
print(min(list1)) # find the smallest element in the list 1
print(sum(list1)) # sum of elements in the list 42
```

- we can also do slicing in list -

list1[:5] --> takes elements from 0th index to 5-1 =4th index

- To traverse list, use for loop -

for i in list:

print(i, end = " ")

- Inbuilt method on Lists -

Method name	Description
append(x:object):None	Adds an element x to the end of the list and returns None.
count(x:object):int	Returns the number of times element x appears in the list.
extend(l:list):None	Appends all the elements in l to the list and returns None.
index(x: object):int	Returns the index of the first occurrence of element x in the list
insert(index: int, x:object): None	Inserts an element x at a given index. Note that the first element in the list has index 0 and returns None..
remove(x:object):None	Removes the first occurrence of element x from the list and returns None
reverse():None	Reverse the list and returns None
sort(): None	Sorts the elements in the list in ascending order and returns None.
pop(i): object	Removes the element at the given position and returns it. The parameter i is optional. If it is not specified, pop() removes and returns the last element in the list.

- List Comprehension

```
list1 = [ x for x in range(10) ]
print(list1) #[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]

list2 = [ x + 1 for x in range(10) ]
print(list2) #[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]

list3 = [ x for x in range(10) if x % 2 == 0 ]
print(list3) #[0, 2, 4, 6, 8]
```

Dictionary

- used to store key value pair
- It is a data type
- order is not important in dictionary.
- Dictionaries are mutable
- To create a dictionary -

```
friends = {'tom': '123',
'jerry': '456'}
```

- Dictionaries can be created using pair of curly braces ({}).
- Each item in the dictionary consist of key, followed by a colon, which is followed by value.
- And each item is separated using commas (,).
- key must be of hashable type, but value can be of any type. Each key in the dictionary must be unique.

- Keys being hashable means all keys should have same data type.
- we can retrieve, add, delete keys in dictionary (i.e. dict are mutable)

```
friends = {'tom': '111-222-333', 'jerry': '666-33-111'}
print(friends) #{'tom': '111-222-333', 'jerry': '666-33-111'}
```

#Retrieving elements from the dictionary
`print(friends['tom']) # 111-222-333`

#Adding elements into the dictionary
`friends['bob'] = '888-999-666'`
`print(friends) #{'tom': '111-222-333', 'jerry': '666-33-111', 'bob': '888-999-666'}`

#Modify elements into the dictionary
`friends['bob'] = '888-999-777'`
`print(friends) #{'tom': '111-222-333', 'jerry': '666-33-111', 'bob': '888-999-777'}`

#Delete element from the dictionary
`del friends['bob']`
`print(friends) #{'tom': '111-222-333', 'jerry': '666-33-111'}`

retrieve - friends['key']

```
add - friends['new key'] = new value  
modify - friends['old key'] = new value  
delete - del friends['key']
```

- To traverse a dict -
for x in friends:
print(x, ":", friends[x])
- Here, x will become tom, bob ..etc in successive iterations.
- length -- len(friends)
- Two dict are equal if and only if all key and corresponding values are same. we can compare using -
== and != operator
- methods in dict class -

Methods	Description
popitem()	Returns randomly select item from dictionary and also remove the selected item.
clear()	Delete everything from dictionary
keys()	Return keys in dictionary as tuples
values()	Return values in dictionary as tuples
get(key)	Return value of key, if key is not found it returns None, instead on throwing KeyError exception
pop(key)	Remove the item from the dictionary, if key is not found KeyError will be thrown

Tuples

- Tuples are like constant arrays. Once declared, we can't add, delete, modify its elements. so, we can say that tuples are immutable.
- To declare a tuple, use ()
t1 = (1,2,3,4)
t2 = tuple("abc")
t3 = tuple([1,3,4,5])
- we can use methods on tuples

```
t1 = (1, 12, 55, 12, 81)
```

```
print(min(t1)) #1  
print(max(t1)) # 81  
print(sum(t1)) #161  
print(len(t1)) #5
```

- we can also use for loop to iterate over tuples
t =(1,4,5,6)
for i in t:
print(i, end=" ")

- we can also slice thru tuples
`t = (0,1,2,3,5,6)`
`print(t[3:5])`
- Also we can use in and not in operator
`print(3 not in t)`
`print(2 in t)`

List vs Dictionary vs Tuples -

- In dictionary, Duplicate keys are not allowed , value can be duplicated
 Also, we can't do slicing over a dictionary
- We can't modify Tuples after declarartion

Lists	Dictionaries	Tuples
<code>List=[10,12,14]</code>	<code>Dict={"John":26, "Mary": 30}</code>	<code>Tup1=("10,20,30") or</code> <code>Tup2=10,20,30</code>
		<code>Tup3=("John","Scott") or</code> <code>Tup4="John","Scott"</code>
<code>print(List[0])</code>	<code>print(Dict["Mary"])</code>	<code>print(Tup1[0])</code>
Allow duplicates	Duplicates Keys NOT allowed but duplicate values allowed.	Allow duplicates. Faster than Lists.
<code>List[0]=100</code>	<code>Dict["John"]=35</code>	<code> Tuple1[0]=100 #Type error</code>
Mutable	Mutable	Immutable – Values can't changed once assinged
<code>[]</code>	<code>{}</code>	<code>()</code>
<code>Slicing can be done.</code> <code>List=[10,20,30]</code> <code>print(List[1:2]) #[20]</code>	Slicing can't be done.	<code>Slicing can be done.</code> <code>tup=(10,20,30,40,50)</code> <code>print(tup[1:4]) #[20, 30, 40]</code>
Usage: use lists if you have a collection of data that doesn't need random access. Use lists when you need a simple, iterable collection that is modified frequently.	When you need a logical association between Key:value pair. When you need fast lookup for your data based on a custom key.	Use tuples when your data cannot change. A tuple is used in combination with a dictionary, for example a tuple might represent a key, because its immutable.

Functions

- To create a function -
`def func():`
`print("This is a function")`
- If you don't want to do anythingh by function, use keyword pass
- Function can return single or Multiple values
 Multi values can be returned using commas and it will be returned as a tuple.
- By default, return is "None". If we dont write anythingh after return , it will return None
- Global var is declared outside function and is accessible anywhere in the script, but local variabes are declared and accessed inside a function only.
- Also, we can declare a global var inside a function itself(as global var) and then it will be accesssible to outside function also.
- Also, first prefernce is given to local var and then global var.
- We can pass arguements to a function in 3 ways -

- Positional(default)/Value - def func(i, j =100)
func(10,20)

here, order of argument matters and j=100 is its default value. if we don't provide any value of j during function call , it will automatically take values as 100.

-Keyword arguments -

```
def func(name, age)
func(name="Pavan", age=19)
```

Here, order of arguments doesn't matter

-Mixed Positional and Keyword arguments

we can mix positional and keyword arguments but make sure all positional arguments are given first and then keyword args. Once , we give one keyword args, then we can't give any positional args.

```
func("Pavan", age = 19)
```

- Multiple values are returned as tuples.

File Handling in Python -

- We can R/W, Open/close, append , iterate thru file.

- we can open a file in 3 modes - r, w,a

```
file = open("myfile.txt", "w") -- opened file in write mode
file.write("haha\n")
file.close
```

- Always close file at end of operation.

- Here file behave as pointer to the file.

- Reading/writing occurs in terms of lines.

- If we open an already existing file in write mode, it will be cleared first. If we want to avoid this, open in append mode.

- To read we have 3 methods -

```
file.read([3]) - reads only 3 characters
```

Note If no number is provided it will read entire file

```
file.readline() - reads only first line
```

```
file.readlines() - reads entire file as tuples(containing strings) of each line.
```

- To append , open in append mode and then file.write()

- To iterate thru file-

```
file = open("myfile.txt", "r")
for f in file:
    print(f)
file.close()
```

OOP in Python

Classes and Objects -

- Class is an logical entity which contains variables and Methods, which contains the logic that can be performed over that class object. Class doesn't occupy space in memory.

- Object is an Physical Entity of any class. It occupies space in memory

- To create a class -

```
a,b = 100, 200 # Global Variables
```

```
class MyClass(): # Parenthesis are optional
```

```
a, b = 10, 20 # Class Variables
```

```
def func(self):# instance Method
```

```
pass
```

```
@staticmethod
```

```
def add( a, b): # static method with parameter
```

```
print(a+b) #This a&b are local variables
```

```
print(self.a+self.b) # These are class variables
```

```
print(globals()['a']+globals()['b']) # these are global variables
```

```
m1=MyClass() # Named Object
```

```
m1.func()
```

```
m1.add(3,5)
```

```
m2=MyClass() # Named Object
```

```
m2.add(7,8)
```

```
print(id(m1))
```

```
print(id(m2))
```

```
MyClass.add() # Nameless object + accessing static method
```

- Instance method can only be called after creating an object of that class but static method can be called without creating an object.
- we can create local, class, global variables with same name but to access them we need to differently.
- A function is created outside of a class, but a method is created inside a class and it belongs to that class
- Only instance method has default parameter as self, for static method we dont need to have self as parameter.
- To access class variables, use self.var

To access global var, use `globals()['var']` if we have both local and global var of same name. Else we can access directly.

Local variables can be accessed directly as var

- `c1 = MyClass()`

```
c2 = MyClass()
```

c3 = c1

here, c1 and c3 will point to same location in memory.

Also, c1, c2, c3 are called reference variables.

- we can compare 2 objects -

print(c1 is c3) --> True

print(c1 is not c3) --> False

- Constructor -

It is a method that is used to initialize a class object. It is automatically called when we create an object.

class MyClass:

```
def __init__(self, var1, var2): # constructor with args
```

```
    self.var1 = var1 # converting local var to class var
```

```
    self.var2 = var2
```

```
    print(var2)
```

```
def m1(self):
```

```
    print("this is m1")
```

```
    self.m2() # calling class method into other method
```

```
def m2(self):
```

```
    print("this is m2")
```

```
c = MyClass(var1, var2)
```

- Local var are converted to class var so that other method can also use it.

- def str(self):

this method executes automatically when we print reference variable

Note - Return Type of this method should only be string

If we don't overwrite this method, by default it returns a string containing address of object.

-def del(self):

this automatically gets execute when we destroy an object.

- An complete class Example -

```
class Emp:
```

```
def __str__(self, Eid, Ename, Esal):
```

```
    self.Eid = Eid
```

```
    self.Ename = Ename
```

```
    self.Esal = Esal
```

```
        def __str__(self):  
            return ("Eid:() Ename:() Esal:()".format(Eid,  
Ename, Esal))
```

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

```
e1 = Emp(101,"Pavan", 10000.00)
```

```
print(e1)
```

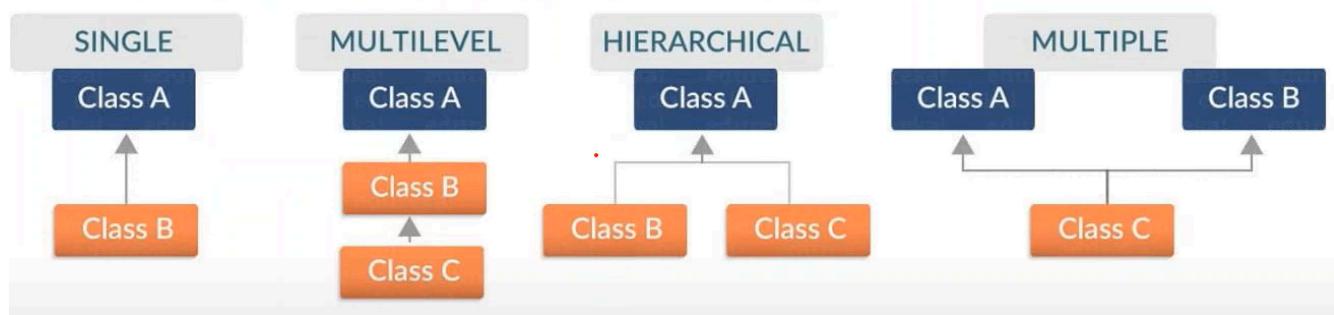
```
del e1
```

```
'
```

Inheritance in Python

- A class can access variables and methods of other class , if it inherits from it.
- Parent class can also be called as Base Class or SuperClass
- Child Class can also be called as Derived Class or SubClass.
- To inherit from a class A , we can define like -
class MyClass(A):
- Types Of Inheritances -

Types Of Inheritance



- An Example of Hybrid Inheritance -

```
class A:
```

```
x,y= 1,2
```

```
def m1(self):
```

```
print(self.x+self.y)
```

```
class B(A):
```

```
a,b= 3,4
```

```
def m2(self):
```

```
print(self.a+self.b)
```

```
class C(A):
```

```
p,q= 5,6
```

```
def m3(self):
```

```
print(self.p+self.q)
```

```
class D(B, C): # D inherits from Both B and C
```

```
s,t= 7,8
```

```
def m4(self):
```

```
print(self.s+self.t)
```

```
a= A()  
a.m1()
```

```
b= B()  
b.m1()  
b.m2()
```

```
c= C()  
c.m1()  
c.m3()
```

```
d = D()  
d.m1()  
d.m2()  
d.m3()  
d.m4()
```

- use of super() keyword in child class -

super() can be used to invoke parent class -

constructor, variables, methods. Eg. -

a,b = 1,2

class A:

a,b = 10, 20

```
def int(self):
```

```
print("Constructor from A")
```

```
def m1(self):
```

```
print("this is m1 from A")
```

```
class B(A):
```

a,b = 5,10

```
def init(self):
```

```
print("constructor from B")
```

```
super().init(self) # invoked parent class constructor
```

```
A.init(self) # Another way to invoke parent class constructor
```

```
def m2(self, a, b):  
    print("this is m2 from B")  
    super().m1() # invoked parent class method  
    print(a+b) # local var  
    print(self.a+self.b) # class var  
    print(super().a+super().b) # parent class var  
    print(globals()['a']+globals()['b']) # global var
```

```
bobj = B()  
bobj.m2()
```

- Also, if no constructor is present in child class then parent class constructor is called by default.

Polymorphism in Python

- It means a single method or variable of a class, can act in different ways based on the parameter that we pass while calling it.
- It is achieved by using Overriding or Overloading.
- Overriding means redefining a method or variable of parent class in child class (with the same name) but changing its logic or value respectively.

Eg. -

```
class Bank:
    name= "Bank"
    def ROI(self):
        return 0

class HDFC(Bank):
    name="HDFC"
    def ROI(self):
        return 10.5
```

Here, if we don't override the name, then if we still access the name , it will give the name HDFC from parent class.

- Overloading means a method will act differently based on parameter we pass to it when calling.

Eg -

```
class Bird():
    def fly(self,name=None):
        if name== "Parrot":
            print("can fly")
        if name== "Penguin":
            print("cannot fly")
        if name is None:
            print("No Input")

obj=Bird()
obj.fly() # No input
obj.fly("Parrot") # can fly
obj.fly("Penguin") # cannot fly
```

Encapsulation in Python

- It means restricting access of a class variables or Methods outside the class by making it private.
- We can make variables or methods private by prefixing them with __

Eg -

```
class Empid:
    __empid = 101
```

```

def __getempid(self, eid):
    self.__empid = eid
def dispempid(self):
    print(self.__empid)
def changempid(self, eid):
    self.__getempid(eid)

e1=Empid()
print(e1.__empid) # 101
print(Empid.__empid) # error b/c private variable
e1.__getempid # error b/c private method
e1.dispempid() # will display empid
e1.changeempid(105) # will change emp id

```

Abstraction in Python

- Abstract class are those class which have one or more abstract methods.
- Abstract Methods are methods, whose only declaration is given. Their logic/Implementation is not present in the class.
- We can't directly create objects of abstract classes.
First we need to create a child class, where we implement the logic of all abstract methods of parent class and then we can create object of the child class.
- In python, all abstract classes inherit from a default class named ABC. It is present in abc module in python.
- If an abstract class has , say 2, abstract methods and in a child class if i only implement 1 abstact method, then this child class will still be considered a abstract class only. We need to have a child class that declares all the abstract methods , then only we can create objects of it.
- If the child class doesn't have a constructor, then constructor of parent class will be invoked while creating object for its child class

Eg-

```
from abc import ABC, abstraction method
```

```
class A(ABC):
```

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

```
        self.value = value
```

```
    @abstractionmethod
```

```
    def disp1(self):
```

```
        None
```

```
    @abstractionmethod
```

```
    def disp2(self):
```

```
        pass
```

```
class B(A):
```

```
    def disp1(self):
```

```

print("this is disp1")
def disp2(self):
    print("this is disp2")
def add(self):
    print(self.value+100)
def sub(self):
    print(self.value-10)

obj = B(100)
obj.disp1()
obj.disp2()
obj.add()
obj.sub()

```

Modules in Python

- A module is just another python file.
- we can use its classes and methods in our main function by importing them
- There are 2 ways to import modules -
 1. import operations

Here, to use operations file functions , use operations.add(10,20)

2. from operations import add, mul

now, use add(10,20) mul(10,20) directly

If we want to import all functions of operations file -

from operations import *

and then use add(10,20) mul(10,20) directly

- If we import multiple modules ,using 2nd way, containing same function (say display), then the last imported module function will be given priority and used. To avoid this, import by way 1 and then use animal.disp() , bird.disp()
- If we have class in our module, to access its method we need to first create an object of that class and then use.

Eg - Approach 1

```

class Animal: # in a.py
def disp():
print("I am animal")

class Bird: # in b.py
def disp():
print("I am bird")

import a
import b

```

```
obj1 = a.Animal
```

```
obj1.disp()
```

```
obj2 = b.Bird()
```

```
obj2.disp()
```

Approach 2 -

```
from a import Animal
```

```
from b import Bird
```

```
obj1 = Animal()
```

```
obj1.disp()
```

```
obj2 = Bird()
```

```
obj2.disp()
```

- If we want to know how many classes or functions are there in our imported module , we can use -
import m
print(dir(m)) -- this will give user created classes or functions, plus few default methods or functions of a python class.

A Python Package

- A python Package is a folder that contains many modules and other folder, i.e. sub-packages

- We can import class and functions of other package's modules using -

```
import sys
```

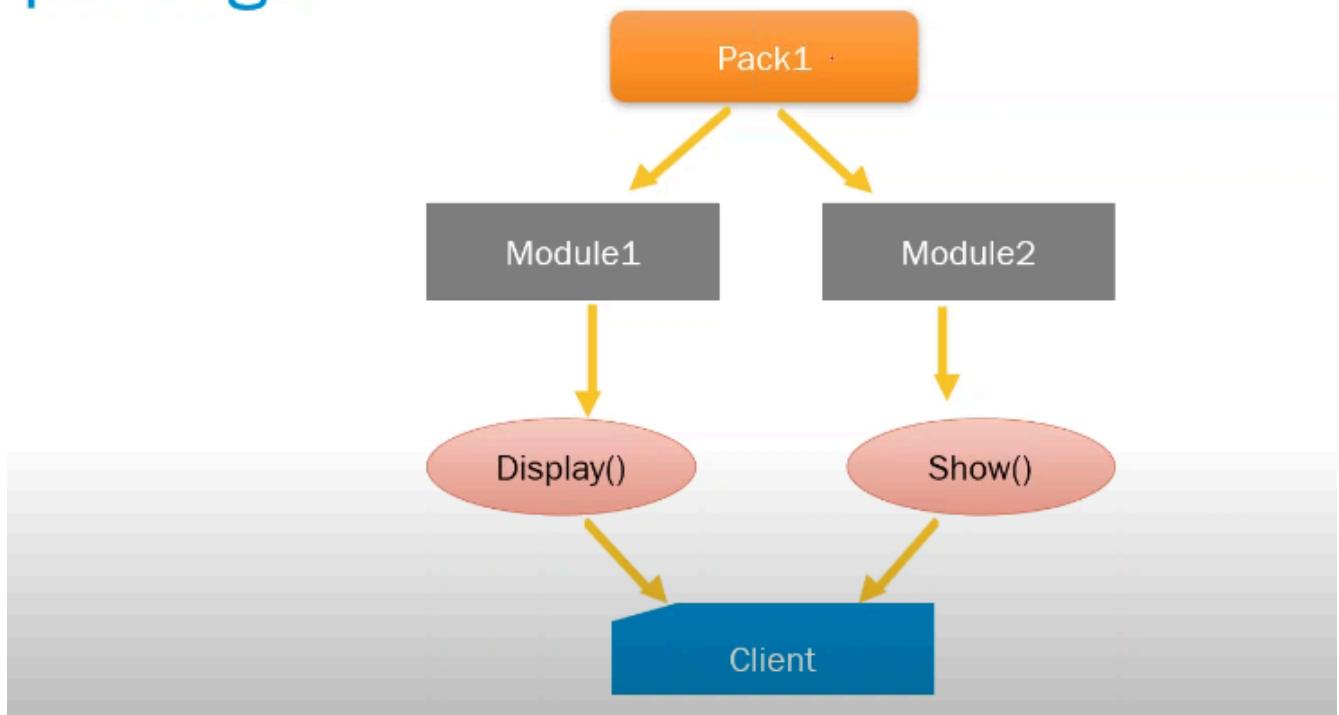
```
sys.path.append($PATH_TO_PACKAGE)
```

```
import module 1
```

Then , we can use its class and functions

Eg. -

Ex-1 : Importing modules from Single package



1.

The screenshot shows a PyCharm interface with the following details:

- Project Structure:** The project is named "SeleniumwithPython". It contains two packages: "pack1" and "pack2". "pack1" contains files `__init__.py`, `module1.py`, and `module2.py`. "pack2" contains files `__init__.py`, `client.py`, and a virtual environment folder `venv`.
- Code Editor:** The file `client.py` is open, showing the following Python code:

```
import sys
sys.path.append("C:/Users/admin/PycharmProjects/SeleniumwithPython/pack1");

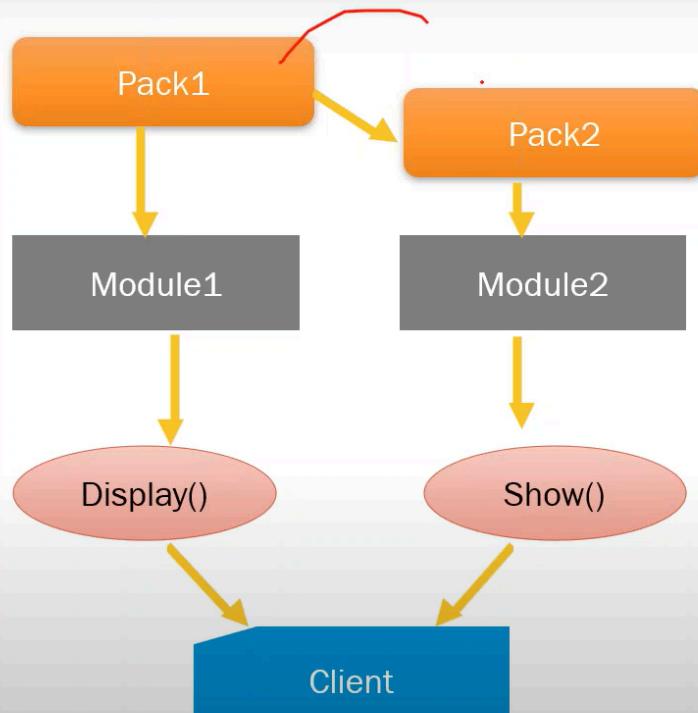
#Approach1
import module1
import module2

module1.display()
module2.show()
```
- Run Output:** The terminal window shows the execution results:

```
C:\Users\admin\PycharmProjects\SeleniumwithPython\venv\Scripts\python.exe C:/Users/admin/PycharmProjects/SeleniumwithPython/pack2/client.py
This is display function from module1
This is show function from module2 I

Process finished with exit code 0
```

Ex-2: Importing modules from 2 different packages



2.

Screenshot of PyCharm showing the project structure and code execution.

Project Structure:

- SeleniumwithPython
 - pack1
 - __init__.py
 - module1.py
 - client.py
 - pack2
 - __init__.py
 - module2.py
 - pack3
 - __init__.py
 - client.py
 - venv library root
 - External Libraries

Code in client.py:

```

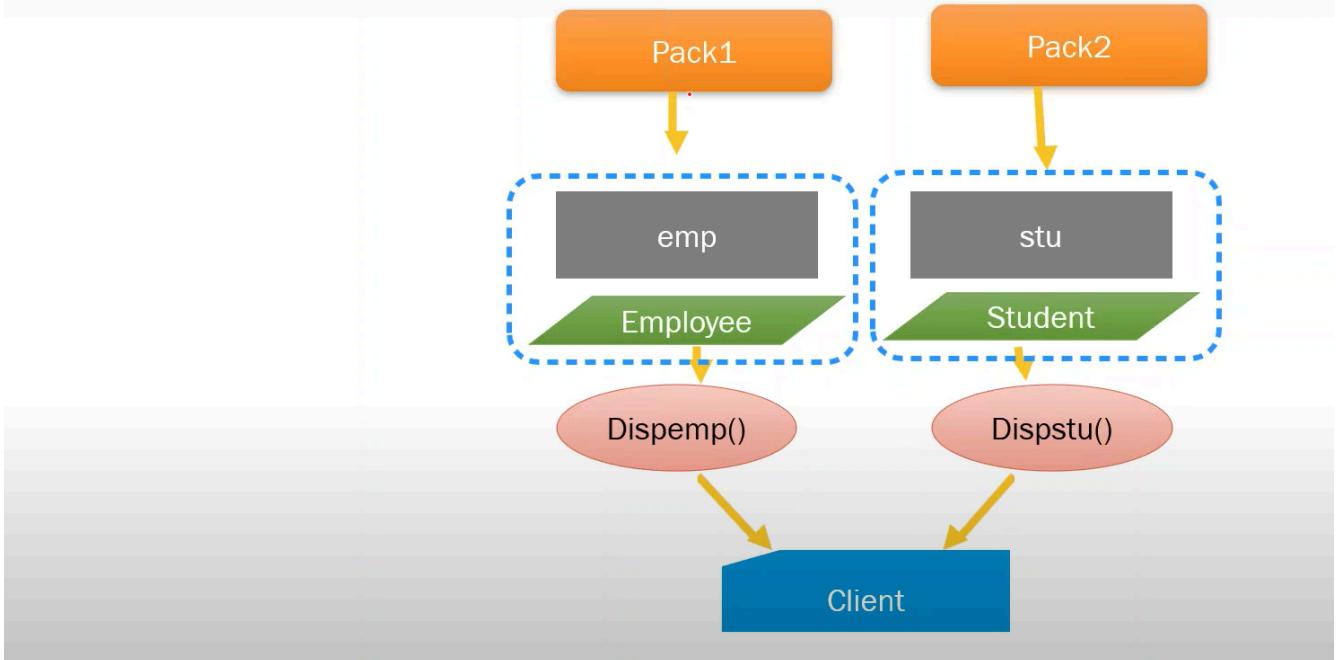
1 import sys
2 sys.path.append("C:/Users/admin/PycharmProjects/SeleniumwithPython/pack1")
3 from module1 import *
4
5
6 sys.path.append("C:/Users/admin/PycharmProjects/SeleniumwithPython/pack1/pack2")
7 from module2 import *
8
9
10 display()
11 show()
  
```

Run Tab Output:

```

Run client (2)
C:\Users\admin\PycharmProjects\SeleniumwithPython\venv\Scripts\python.exe C:/Users/admin/PycharmProjects/SeleniumwithPython/pack3/c
This is display function in module1-pack1
This is display function in module2-pack2
Process finished with exit code 0
  
```

Ex-3 : Importing classes from different modules & packages



3.

```

import sys
sys.path.append("C:/Users/admin/PycharmProjects/SeleniumwithPython/pack1")
from emp import Employee
e=Employee(101,'scott',40000)
e.displayemp()

sys.path.append("C:/Users/admin/PycharmProjects/SeleniumwithPython/pack2")
from stu import Student
s=Student(102,'Anil','A')
s.displaystu()
  
```

Run client (2)

C:\Users\admin\PycharmProjects\SeleniumwithPython\venv\Scripts\python.exe C:/Users/admin/PycharmProjects/SeleniumwithPython/pack3/client.py

empid:101 empname:scott empsal:40000
stuid:102 stuname:Anil stusal:A

Process finished with exit code 0

Exception Handling in Python

- An Error is either a programming syntax error or logical error in the program, whereas Exception is an abnormal condition that occurs due to illegal user input.
 - If an exception is raised at any point in program, rest of program will not be executed.
 - To handle , this we can use try, except, else, finally block.
 - try block contains statement that can throw error and there can be multiple except block, which will handle exception based on the type of exception error
- Syntax - except :
- else block is executed if try statement doesn't throw any error.
- finally block will always be executed no matter what so if exception occurred and there are no except

statements , so finally will be evaluated.

Eg. -

```
try:  
    print(10/0)  
except ZeroDivisionError:  
    print("Executed Zero Division Error")  
except NameError:  
    print("Executed Name Error")  
else :  
    print("Try block didn't throw any error, else block executed")  
finally:  
    print("Finally block....Always Executed")
```

- we can also use exception thrown as an object and then print the type of error thrown

Eg. -

```
try:  
    print(10/0)  
except as ex:  
    print("Exception :", ex)
```

- We can also raise our own Exceptions using -

```
raise ("Message to Print")
```

Lambda Function

- A variable can also act like a function,using lambda keyword, if it has only one line of expression.

Eg - syntax - lambda arguments: expression

```
x = lambda a : a+10 #x is a function, a is passed as parameter
```

```
print(x(5))
```

- We can give any number of arguments, but there should a single expression.

*args and **kwargs in Python

- *args is used to pass arbitrary number of inputs to a function.

- **kwargs is used to pass arbitrary number of key-value pair to a function.

- we can use * a and **a also, but convention is like *args and **kwargs.

Eg . -

```
def sum(*args):  
    sum = 0  
    for i in args:  
        sum+=i  
    print(sum)
```

```
sum(10,20, 30, 40)
```

- We can also pass list as arguments to function as -

```
def disp_three(a,b,c):
```

```
    print(a,b,c)
```

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

```
disp_three(*args)
```

- Eg -

```
def disp_three(a,b,c):
```

```
    print(a,b,c)
```

```
a = {name="tom", sport="football", roll="10"}
```

```
disp three(**a)
```

Eg -

```
def disp(**a):
```

```
for i, j in a.items():
```

```
    print(i,j)
```

```
a = {name="tom", sport="football", roll="10"}
```

```
disp three(**a)
```
