

Basic Python Notes

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1 Datatypes

Datatypes are of two types: (i) builtin and (ii) user defined.

User defined datatypes are datatypes that are defined by the user. Builtin datatypes are predefined.

These are the different type of builtin datatypes in Python:

1. Text type: 'str'
2. Numeric types: 'int', 'float', 'complex'
3. Sequence types: 'list', 'tuple', 'range'
4. Mapping type: 'dict'
5. Set type: 'set', 'frozenset'
6. Boolean type: 'bool', 'True'/'False'
7. Binary types: 'bytes', 'bytearray', 'memoryview'
8. None type: 'NoneType' = 'None'

1.1 Python Numbers

Three types: 'int', 'float', and 'complex'.

Random number: Python doesn't have 'random()' to make random numbers, but python has built-in module called 'random' that can be used to make random numbers.

```
1 import random
2 print(random.randrange(0,100))
```

1.2 Python Booleans

There are two main boolean values: 'True' and 'False'. Python has many built-in functions that returns 'bool' value like 'isinstance()' which can determine if an object is of certain datatype or not.

```
1 x = 200
2 print(isinstance(x, int))
```

Output:

| |
|------|
| True |
|------|

2 Python Strings

Surrounded by single or double quote marks: 'hello' = "hello"; both will be considered same by python.

2.1 String operations

2.1.1 upper case

```
1 a = "Hello World!"
2 print(a.upper())
```

Output:

```
HELLO WORLD!
```

2.1.2 lower case

```
1 print(a.lower())
2
3 # o/p: hello world!
```

Output:

```
hello world!
```

2.1.3 remove white spaces

```
1 print(a.strip())
```

Output:

```
HelloWorld!
```

2.1.4 replace string

```
1 print(a.replace(H, L))
```

Output:

```
Lello World!
```

2.1.5 split string

```
1 print(a.split(" "))
```

Output:

```
["Hello", "World!"]
```

2.1.6 String concatenation

```
1 a = "Hello"
2 b = "World"
3 c = a + b
4 print(c)
```

Output:

```
HelloWorld
```

2.2 f strings

We can combine strings and numbers by using f-strings.

To specify a string as an f-string, simply put an **f** in front of the string literal, and add curly brackets **{}** as placeholders for variables and other operations.

```
1 age = 56
2 txt = "My name is John, I am " + age
3 print(txt) # This format will throw an error
4
5 age = 56
6 txt = f"My name is John, I am {age}"
7 print(txt)
```

Output:

```
My name is John, I am 56
```

2.2.1 Placeholders and Modifiers

A placeholder can contain variables, operations, functions, and modifiers to format the value.

```
1 # Placeholder:
2 price = 59
3 txt = f"The price is {price} dollars"
4 print(txt)
5
6 # Modifier:
7 price = 59
8 txt = f"The price is {price:.2f} dollars"
9 print(txt)
```

Output:

```
The price is 59 dollars
The price is 59.00 dollars
```

2.3 Escape characters

To insert characters that are illegal in a string, use an escape character. An escape character is a backslash **** followed by the character you want to insert.

An example of an illegal character is a double quote inside a string that is surrounded by double quotes:

```
1 txt = "We are the so-called \"Vikings\" from the north."
```

To fix this problem, use the escape character ****:

```
1 txt = "We are the so-called \"Vikings\" from the north."
```

| Code | Result |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| <code>\'</code> | single quote |
| <code>\\</code> | backslash |
| <code>\n</code> | newline |
| <code>\r</code> | carriage return |
| <code>\t</code> | tab |
| <code>\b</code> | back space |
| <code>\f</code> | form feed |
| <code>\ooo</code> | octal value |
| <code>\xhh</code> | hex value |

Table 1: Escape Characters

2.4 String methods

| Methods | Description |
|----------------|---|
| capitalize() | Converts the first character to upper case |
| casefold() | Converts string into lower case |
| center() | Returns a centered string |
| count() | Returns the number of times a specified value occurs in a string |
| encode() | Returns an encoded version of the string |
| endswith() | Returns true if the string ends with the specified value |
| expandtabs() | Sets the tab size of the string |
| find() | Searches the string for a specified value and returns the position of where it was found |
| format() | Formats specified values in a string |
| format_map() | Formats specified values in a string |
| index() | Searches the string for a specified value and returns the position of where it was found |
| isalnum() | Returns True if all characters in the string are alphanumeric |
| isalpha() | Returns True if all characters in the string are in the alphabet |
| isascii() | Returns True if all characters in the string are ascii characters |
| isdecimal() | Returns True if all characters in the string are decimals |
| isdigit() | Returns True if all characters in the string are digits |
| isidentifier() | Returns True if the string is an identifier |
| islower() | Returns True if all characters in the string are lower case |
| isnumeric() | Returns True if all characters in the string are numeric |
| isprintable() | Returns True if all characters in the string are printable |
| isspace() | Returns True if all characters in the string are whitespaces |
| istitle() | Returns True if the string follows the rules of a title |
| isupper() | Returns True if all characters in the string are upper case |
| join() | Joins the elements of an iterable to the end of the string |
| ljust() | Returns a left justified version of the string |
| lower() | Converts a string into lower case |
| lstrip() | Returns a left trim version of the string |
| maketrans() | Returns a translation table to be used in translations |
| partition() | Returns a tuple where the string is parted into three parts |
| replace() | Returns a string where a specified value is replaced with a specified value |
| rfind() | Searches the string for a specified value and returns the last position of where it was found |
| rindex() | Searches the string for a specified value and returns the last position of where it was found |
| rjust() | Returns a right justified version of the string |
| rpartition() | Returns a tuple where the string is parted into three parts |
| rsplit() | Splits the string at the specified separator, and returns a list |
| rstrip() | Returns a right trim version of the string |
| split() | Splits the string at the specified separator, and returns a list |
| splitlines() | Splits the string at line breaks and returns a list |
| startswith() | Returns true if the string starts with the specified value |
| strip() | Returns a trimmed version of the string |
| swapcase() | Swaps cases, lower case becomes upper case and vice versa |
| title() | Converts the first character of each word to upper case |
| translate() | Returns a translated string |
| upper() | Converts a string into upper case |
| zfill() | Fills the string with a specified number of 0 values at the beginning |

Table 2: String Methods

3 Python Operators

Operators are used to perform operations on variables and values

3.1 Arithmetic operators

Arithmetic operators are used with numeric values to perform common mathematical operations.

| Operator | Description |
|----------|----------------|
| + | Addition |
| - | Subtraction |
| * | Multiplication |
| / | Division |
| % | Modulus |
| ** | Exponentiation |
| // | Floor division |

Table 3: Arithmetic operators

3.2 Assignment operators

Assignment operators are used to assign values to variables.

| Operator | Example | Same as |
|----------|---------------|-------------------|
| = | x = 5 | x = 5 |
| += | x += 3 | x = x + 3 |
| -= | x -= 3 | x = x - 3 |
| *= | x *= 3 | x = x * 3 |
| /= | x /= 3 | x = x / 3 |
| %= | x %= 3 | x = x % 3 |
| //= | x //= 3 | x = x // 3 |
| **= | x **= 3 | x = x ** 3 |
| &= | x &= 3 | x = x & 3 |
| = | x = 3 | x = x 3 |
| ^= | x ^= 3 | x = x ^ 3 |
| >>= | x >>= 3 | x = x >> 3 |
| <<= | x <<= 3 | x = x << 3 |
| := | print(x := 3) | x = 3 print(x) |

Table 4: Assignment operators

3.3 Comparison operators

Comparison operators are used to compare two values.

| Operator | Name | Example |
|----------|--------------------------|---------|
| == | Equal | x == y |
| != | Not equal | x != y |
| > | Greater than | x > y |
| < | Lesser than | x < y |
| >= | Greater than or equal to | x >= y |
| <= | Lesser than or equal to | x <= y |

Table 5: Comparison operators

3.4 Logical operators

Logical operators are used to combine conditional statements.

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

Table 6: Logical operators

3.5 Identity operators

Identity operators are used to compare the objects, not if they are equal, but if they are actually the same object, with the same memory location.

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|--|----------------|
| is | Returns True if both variables are the same object | x is y |
| is not | Returns True if both variables are not the same object | x is not y |

Table 7: Identity operators

3.6 Membership operators

Membership operators are used to test if a sequence is presented in an object.

| Operator | Description | Example |
|----------|--|----------------|
| in | Returns True if a sequence with the specified value is present in the object | x in y |
| not in | Returns True if a sequence with the specified value is not present in the object | x not in y |

Table 8: Membership operators

3.7 Bitwise operators

Bitwise operators are used to compare (binary) numbers.

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

Table 9: Bitwise operators

3.8 Operator precedence

Operator precedence describes the order in which operations are performed.

The precedence order is described in the table below, starting with the highest precedence at the top:

| Operator | Description |
|--|---|
| () | Parentheses |
| ** | Exponentiation |
| '+x' '-x' '~x' | Unary plus, unary minus, and bitwise NOT |
| *, '/', '//', '%' | Multiplication, division, floor division, and modulus |
| +, - | Addition and subtraction |
| <<, >> | Bitwise left and right shifts |
| & | Bitwise AND |
| ^ | Bitwise XOR |
| | Bitwise OR |
| '==', '!=', '>', '>=', '<', '<=', 'is', 'is not', 'in', 'not in' | Comparisons, identity, and membership operators |
| not | Logical NOT |
| and | AND |
| or | OR |

Table 10: Operator precedence

4 Python List

1. They are used to store multiple items in a single variable.
2. They created by using '[']' .
3. Lists are ordered i.e., indexing operations can be performed.
4. They are changeable: we can add, remove items after the lists have been created.
5. Allows duplicates.
6. All data types allowed; that too within the same list.

4.1 Few list operations

4.1.1 Common method of creating a list

```
1 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
```

4.1.2 Alternate method to initiate a list

```
1 a = list(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
2 print(a)
```

Output:

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

4.1.3 Determining list length

we use 'len()'

```
1 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 print(len(mylist)) #o/p: 3
```

4.1.4 Changing the elements of a list

method 1:

```
1 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 mylist[2] = "coconut"
3 print(mylist)
```

Output:

```
[`apple', `banana', `coconut']
```

method 2:

```
1 mylist.insert(2, "watermelon")
2 print(mylist)
```

Output:

```
[`apple', `banana', `watermelon', `coconut']
```

4.1.5 Adding items at the end of a list

```
1 mylist.append("durian")
2 print(mylist)
```

Output:

```
[`apple', `banana', `watermelon', `coconut', `durian']
```

4.1.6 Extending a list

```
1 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 tropical = ["mango", "pineapple", "papaya"]
3 mylist.extend(tropical)
4 print(mylist)
```

Output:

```
[`apple', `banana', `cherry', `mango', `pineapple', `papaya']
```

You can add any iterable objects (like tuple, sets, dictionary) to 'extend()' method

```
1 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 thistuple = ("kiwi", "orange")
3 mylist.extend(thistuple)
4 print(mylist)
```

Output:

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

4.1.7 Remove items from a list

```
1. remove()

1 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 mylist.remove("cherry")
3 print(mylist)
```

Output:

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

2. removing at specified index => .pop()

```
1 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 mylist.pop(1)
3 print(mylist)
4
5 # if index isnt mentioned, it removes last item.
6 mylist.pop()
7 print(mylist)
```

Output:

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

3. del keyword

```
1 # removing at specific index:
2 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
3 del mylist[2]
4 print(mylist)
5
6 # deleting entire list:
7 del mylist
8 print(mylist) # o/p: error message as list has been deleted
```

Output:

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

4. clear() method

It empties entire list.

```
1 mylist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 mylist.clear()
3 print(mylist) # o/p: []
```

4.1.8 Looping through list

1. for loop:

```
1 thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 for x in thislist:
3     print(x)
```

Output:

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

2. Loop through index numbers:

We use the 'range()' and 'len()' functions to create a suitable iterable.

```
1 thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 for i in range(len(thislist)):
3     print(thislist[i])
```

Output:

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

3. while loop:

```
1 thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 i = 0
3 while i < len(thislist):
4     print(thislist[i])
5     i = i + 1
```

Output:

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

4. Looping using list comprehension:

```
1 thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 [print(x) for x in thislist]
```

Output:

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

4.1.9 List Comprehension

List comprehension offers a shorter syntax when you want to create a new list based on the values of an existing list.

```
1 # without list comprehension
2 fruits = ["apple", "banana", "cherry", "kiwi", "mango"]
3 newlist = []
4
5 for x in fruits:
6     if "a" in x:
7         newlist.append(x)
8
9 print(newlist)
10
11 # with list comprehension
12 fruits = ["apple", "banana", "cherry", "kiwi", "mango"]
13 newlist = [x for x in fruits if "a" in x]
14 print(newlist)
```

Output:

```
['apple', 'banana', 'mango']
```

4.1.10 Sorting lists

To sort lists, we use 'sort()' method; to obtain the sort in reverse order, we use 'sort(reverse=True)' .

```
1 thislist = ["orange", "mango", "kiwi", "pineapple", "banana"]
2 thislist.sort()
3 print(thislist)
4
5 thislist = ["orange", "mango", "kiwi", "pineapple", "banana"]
6 thislist.sort(reverse = True)
7 print(thislist)
```

Output:

```
['banana', 'kiwi', 'mango', 'orange', 'pineapple']
['pineapple', 'orange', 'mango', 'kiwi', 'banana']
```

To reverse a list, we use 'reverse()' method.

```
1 thislist = ["orange", "mango", "kiwi", "pineapple", "banana"]
2 thislist.reverse()
3 print(thislist)
```

Output:

```
[`cherry', `Kiwi', `orange', `banana']
```

4.1.11 Copying a list

```
1 thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 mylist = thislist.copy()
3 print(mylist)
4
5 # built-in method:
6 thislist = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
7 mylist = list(thislist)
8 print(mylist)
```

Output:

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

4.2 List methods

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

Table 11: List Methods

5 Python Tuple

1. Tuples are used to store multiple items in a single variable.
2. A tuple is a collection which is **ordered** and **unchangeable**.
3. Tuples are written with round brackets '()'.

5.1 Few tuple operations

Most tuple operations are similar to list operations. Here are few of them:

5.1.1 Creating a tuple

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

Output:

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

5.1.2 tuple length

```
1 thistuple = ("apple", "banana", "cherry")
2 print(len(thistuple)) # o/p: 3
```

5.1.3 Create tuple with one item

```
1 thistuple = ("apple",)
2 print(type(thistuple))
3
4 # NOT a tuple
5 thistuple = ("apple")
6 print(type(thistuple))
```

Output:

```
<class 'tuple'>
<class 'str'>
```

5.1.4 The tuple() constructor

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

Output:

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

5.2 tuple methods

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

Table 12: tuple methods

6 Python Sets

1. Sets are used to store multiple items in a single variable.
2. A set is a collection which is unordered, and un-indexed.
3. Set items are unchangeable, but you can remove items and add new items.
4. Duplicates not allowed.
5. The values 'True' and '1' are considered the same value in sets, and are treated as duplicates.

6.1 Set operations

6.1.1 Creating a set

```
1 thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}
2 print(thisset)
```

Output:

```
{'apple', 'banana', 'cherry'}
```

6.1.2 type()

```
1 myset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}
2 print(type(myset))
```

Output:

```
<class 'set'>
```

6.1.3 The set() constructor

```
1 thisset = set(("apple", "banana", "cherry"))
2 print(thisset)
```

Output:

```
{'apple', 'banana', 'cherry'}
```

6.1.4 Adding items

```
1 thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}
2 thisset.add("orange")
3 print(thisset)
```

Output:

```
{'apple', 'banana', 'cherry', 'orange'}
```

6.1.5 Adding sets

```
1 thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}
2 tropical = {"pineapple", "mango", "papaya"}
3 thisset.update(tropical)
4 print(thisset)
```

Output:

```
{'apple', 'banana', 'cherry', 'pineapple', 'mango', 'papaya'}
```

6.1.6 Add any iterable

The object in the 'update()' method does not have to be a set, it can be any iterable object (tuples, lists, dictionaries etc).

```
1 thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}
2 mylist = ["kiwi", "orange"]
3 thisset.update(mylist)
4 print(thisset)
```

Output:

```
{'apple', 'banana', 'cherry', 'orange', 'kiwi'}
```

6.1.7 Remove item

```
1 thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}
2 thisset.remove("banana") # or thisset.discard("banana")
3 print(thisset)
```

Output:

```
{'apple', 'cherry'}
```

.pop() => Removes a random item

```
1 thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}
2 x = thisset.pop()
3 print(x)
4 print(thisset)
```

Output:

```
{'apple', 'cherry'}
{'apple', 'banana', 'cherry'}
```

6.1.8 Join sets

There are several ways to join two or more sets in Python.

1. The 'union()' or '|' and 'update()' methods joins all items from both sets. {can have multiple values}
2. The 'intersection()' or '&' method keeps ONLY the duplicates. {can have multiple values}
3. The 'difference()' or '-' method keeps the items from the first set that are not in the other set(s).
4. The 'symmetric_difference()' method keeps all items EXCEPT the duplicates.

6.2 Set methods

| Method | Shortcut | Description |
|--|----------|--|
| <code>add()</code> | | Adds an element to the set |
| <code>clear()</code> | | Removes all the elements from the set |
| <code>copy()</code> | | Returns a copy of the set |
| <code>difference()</code> | $-$ | Returns a set containing the difference between two or more sets |
| <code>difference_update()</code> | $- =$ | Removes the items in this set that are also included in another, specified set |
| <code>discard()</code> | | Remove the specified item |
| <code>intersection()</code> | $\&$ | Returns a set, that is the intersection of two other sets |
| <code>intersection_update()</code> | $\&=$ | Removes the items in this set that are not present in other, specified set(s) |
| <code>isdisjoint()</code> | | Returns whether two sets have a intersection or not |
| <code>issubset()</code> | \leq | Returns whether another set contains this set or not |
| | $<$ | Returns whether all items in this set is present in other, specified set(s) |
| <code>issuperset()</code> | \geq | Returns whether this set contains another set or not |
| | $>$ | Returns whether all items in other, specified set(s) is present in this set |
| <code>pop()</code> | | Removes an element from the set |
| <code>remove()</code> | | Removes the specified element |
| <code>symmetric_difference()</code> | \wedge | Returns a set with the symmetric differences of two sets |
| <code>symmetric_difference_update()</code> | | Inserts the symmetric differences from this set and another |
| <code>union()</code> | $ $ | Return a set containing the union of sets |
| <code>update()</code> | $ =$ | Update the set with the union of this set and others |

Table 13: Set methods

7 Python Dictionary

1. Dictionaries are used to store data values in key:value pairs.
2. A dictionary is a collection which is ordered*, changeable and do not allow duplicates.
3. Dictionaries are written with curly brackets, and have keys and values.

7.1 Few dictionary operations

7.1.1 Overview

Creating and printing a dictionary

```
1 thisdict = {  
2     "brand": "Ford",  
3     "model": "Mustang",  
4     "year": 1964  
5 }  
6 print(thisdict)
```

Output:

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

Dictionary items

```
1 thisdict = {  
2     "brand": "Ford",  
3     "model": "Mustang",  
4     "year": 1964  
5 }  
6 print(thisdict["brand"]) # o/p: Ford
```

Ordered or Unordered?

As of Python version 3.7, dictionaries are ordered. In Python 3.6 and earlier, dictionaries are unordered.

7.1.2 Accessing items

```
1 thisdict = {  
2     "brand": "Ford",  
3     "model": "Mustang",  
4     "year": 1964  
5 }  
6  
7 x = thisdict["model"]  
8 print(x) # o/p: Mustang
```

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

```
1 x = thisdict.get("model")  
2 print(x) # o/p: Mustang
```

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

```
1 x = thisdict.keys()  
2 print(x)
```

Output:

```
dict_keys(['brand', 'model', 'year'])
```

```
1 car = {
2     "brand": "Ford",
3     "model": "Mustang",
4     "year": 1964
5 }
6
7 x = car.keys()
8
9 # before the change
10 print(x)
11
12 car["color"] = "white"
13
14 # after the change
15 print(x)
```

Output:

```
dict_keys(['brand', 'model', 'year'])
dict_keys(['brand', 'model', 'year', 'color'])
```

7.1.3 Change items

You can change the value of a specific item by referring to its key name.

```
1 thisdict = {
2     "brand": "Ford",
3     "model": "Mustang",
4     "year": 1964
5 }
6 thisdict["year"] = 2018
7 print(thisdict)
```

Output:

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

Update dictionary

```
1 thisdict = {
2     "brand": "Ford",
3     "model": "Mustang",
4     "year": 1964
5 }
6 thisdict.update({"year": 2020})
7 print(thisdict)
```

Output:

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

7.1.4 Remove items

There are several methods to remove items from a dictionary.

1. **pop()** method removes the item with the specified key name.

```

1 thisdict = {
2     "brand": "Ford",
3     "model": "Mustang",
4     "year": 1964
5 }
6 thisdict.pop("model")
7 print(thisdict)

```

Output:

```
{'brand': 'Ford', 'year': 1964}
```

2. **popitem()** method removes the last inserted item (in versions before 3.7, a random item is removed instead).

```

1 thisdict = {
2     "brand": "Ford",
3     "model": "Mustang",
4     "year": 1964
5 }
6 thisdict.popitem()
7 print(thisdict)

```

Output:

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

3. **del** keyword removes the item with the specified key name.

```

1 thisdict = {
2     "brand": "Ford",
3     "model": "Mustang",
4     "year": 1964
5 }
6 del thisdict["model"]
7 print(thisdict)

```

Output:

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

The **del** keyword can also delete the dictionary completely.

```

1 thisdict = {
2     "brand": "Ford",
3     "model": "Mustang",
4     "year": 1964
5 }
6 del thisdict
7 print(thisdict) # this will cause an error because "thisdict" no longer
                  exists.

```

4. **clear()** method empties the dictionary.

```

1 thisdict = {
2     "brand": "Ford",
3     "model": "Mustang",
4     "year": 1964
5 }
6 thisdict.clear()
7 print(thisdict) # o/p: {}

```

7.1.5 Loop through dictionary

You can use the **values()** method to return values of a dictionary.

```
1 thisdict = {  
2     "brand": "Ford",  
3     "model": "Mustang",  
4     "year": 1964  
5 }  
6  
7 for x in thisdict.values():  
8     print(x)
```

Output:

```
Ford  
Mustang  
1964
```

You can use the **keys()** method to return the keys of a dictionary.

```
1 for x in thisdict.keys():  
2     print(x)
```

Output:

```
brand  
model  
year
```

Loop through both keys and values, by using the **items()** method.

```
1 for x, y in thisdict.items():  
2     print(x, y)
```

Output:

```
brand Ford  
model Mustang  
year 1964
```

7.1.6 Nested dictionary

A dictionary can contain dictionaries, this is called nested dictionaries.

```
1 myfamily = {  
2     "child1" : {  
3         "name" : "Emil",  
4         "year" : 2004  
5     },  
6     "child2" : {  
7         "name" : "Tobias",  
8         "year" : 2007  
9     },  
10    "child3" : {  
11        "name" : "Linus",  
12        "year" : 2011  
13    }  
14 }  
15  
16 print(myfamily)
```

Output:

```
# {'child1': {'name': 'Emil', 'year': 2004}, 'child2': {'name': 'Tobias', 'year': 2007},  
↪  'child3': {'name': 'Linus', 'year': 2011}}
```

or you can use this method:

```
1 child1 = {  
2     "name" : "Emil",  
3     "year" : 2004  
4 }  
5 child2 = {  
6     "name" : "Tobias",  
7     "year" : 2007  
8 }  
9 child3 = {  
10    "name" : "Linus",  
11    "year" : 2011  
12 }  
13  
14 myfamily = {  
15     "child1" : child1,  
16     "child2" : child2,  
17     "child3" : child3  
18 }  
19  
20 print(myfamily)
```

Output:

```
{'child1': {'name': 'Emil', 'year': 2004}, 'child2': {'name': 'Tobias', 'year': 2007},  
↪  'child3': {'name': 'Linus', 'year': 2011}}
```

Accessing items in nested dictionary

```
1 print(myfamily["child2"]["name"]) # o/p: Tobias
```

Looping through a nested dictionary

You can loop through a dictionary by using the `items()` method

```
1 for x, obj in myfamily.items():  
2     print(x)  
3  
4     for y in obj:  
5         print(y + ': ', obj[y])
```

Output:

```
child1  
name: Emil  
year: 2004  
child2  
name: Tobias  
year: 2007  
child3  
name: Linus  
year: 2011
```


7.2 Dictionary methods

| Modular | Description |
|---------------------------|---|
| <code>clear()</code> | Removes all the elements from the dictionary |
| <code>copy()</code> | Returns a copy of the dictionary |
| <code>fromkeys()</code> | Returns a dictionary with the specified keys and value |
| <code>get()</code> | Returns the value of the specified key |
| <code>items()</code> | Returns a list containing a tuple for each key value pair |
| <code>keys()</code> | Returns a list containing the dictionary's keys |
| <code>pop()</code> | Removes the element with the specified key |
| <code>popitem()</code> | Removes the last inserted key-value pair |
| <code>setdefault()</code> | Returns the value of the specified key. If the key does not exist: insert the key, with the specified value |
| <code>update()</code> | Updates the dictionary with the specified key-value pairs |
| <code>values</code> | Returns a list of all the values in the dictionary |

Table 14: Dictionary Methods

8 Python Conditions (if-elif-else)

Python supports the usual logical conditions from mathematics. These conditions can be used in several ways, most commonly in "if statements" and loops.

8.1 If

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

```
1 if b > a:
2     print("b is greater than a")
```

8.2 Elif

The elif keyword is Python's way of saying "if the previous conditions were not true, then try this condition".

```
1 if b > a:
2     print("b is greater than a")
3 elif a == b:
4     print("a and b are equal")
```

8.3 Else

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

```
1 if b > a:
2     print("b is greater than a")
3 elif a == b:
4     print("a and b are equal")
5 else:
6     print("a is greater than b")
```

8.4 Shorthand if

If you have only one statement to execute, you can put it on the same line as the if statement.

```
1 if a > b: print("a is greater than b")
```

8.5 Shorthand if ... else

If you have only one statement to execute, one for if, and one for else, you can put it all on the same line.

```
1 print("A") if a > b else print("B")
```

8.6 And

The and keyword is a logical operator, and is used to combine conditional statements.

```
1 if a > b and c > a:
2     print("Both conditions are True")
```

8.7 Or

The or keyword is a logical operator, and is used to combine conditional statements.

```
1 if a > b or a > c:
2     print("At least one of the conditions is True")
```

8.8 Not

The not keyword is a logical operator, and is used to reverse the result of the conditional statement.

```
1 if not a > b:
2     print("a is NOT greater than b")
```

8.9 Nested if

You can have ‘if’ statements inside ‘if’ statements, this is called nested if statements.

```
1 if x > 10:
2     print("Above ten,")
3     if x > 20:
4         print("and also above 20!")
5     else:
6         print("but not above 20.")
```

8.10 pass statement

‘if’ statements cannot be empty, but if you for some reason have an ‘if’ statement with no content, put in the ‘pass’ statement to avoid getting an error.

```
1 if b > a:
2     pass
```

9 Python Loops

Python has two primitive loop commands:

1. while loop
2. for loop

9.1 while loop

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

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

Output:

```
1
2
3
4
5
```

9.1.1 break statement

With the break statement we can stop the loop even if the while condition is true.

```
1 i = 1
2 while i < 6:
3     print(i)
4     if i == 3:
5         break
6     i += 1
```

Output:

```
1
2
3
```

9.1.2 continue statement

With the continue statement we can stop the current iteration, and continue with the next.

```
1 i = 0
2 while i < 6:
3     i += 1
4     if i == 3:
5         continue
6     print(i)
```

Output:

```
1
2
4
5
6
```

9.1.3 else statement

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

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

Output:

```
1
2
3
4
5
i is no longer less than 6
```

9.2 for loop

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

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

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

Output:

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

9.2.1 Looping through a string

Even strings are iterable objects, they contain a sequence of characters.

```
1 for x in "banana":
2     print(x)
```

Output:

```
b
a
n
a
n
a
```

9.2.2 break statement

With the break statement we can stop the loop before it has looped through all the items.

```
1 fruits = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 for x in fruits:
3     print(x)
4     if x == "banana":
```

Output:

```
apple
banana
```

9.2.3 continue statement

With the continue statement we can stop the current iteration of the loop, and continue with the next.

```
1 fruits = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
2 for x in fruits:
3     if x == "banana":
4         continue
5     print(x)
```

Output:

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

9.2.4 range() function

To loop through a set of code a specified number of times, we can use the range() function.

The range() function returns a sequence of numbers, starting from 0 by default, and increments by 1 (by default), and ends at a specified number.

```
1 for x in range(6):
2     print(x)
```

Output:

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

The range() function defaults to 0 as a starting value, however it is possible to specify the starting value by adding a parameter: range(2, 6), which means values from 2 to 6 (but not including 6).

```
1 for x in range(2, 6):
2     print(x)
```

Output:

```
2
3
4
5
```

The range() function defaults to increment the sequence by 1, however it is possible to specify the increment value by adding a third parameter: range(2, 30, 3)

```
1 for x in range(2, 30, 3):
2     print(x)
```

Output:

```
2
5
8
11
14
17
20
23
26
29
```

9.2.5 else in for loop

The else keyword in a for loop specifies a block of code to be executed when the loop is finished.

```
1 for x in range(6):
2     print(x)
3 else:
4     print("Finally finished!")
```

Output:

```
0
1
2
3
4
5
Finally finished
```

9.2.6 Nested loop

A nested loop is a loop inside a loop. The "inner loop" will be executed one time for each iteration of the "outer loop".

```
1 adj = ["red", "big", "tasty"]
2 fruits = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
3
4 for x in adj:
5     for y in fruits:
6         print(x, y)
```

Output:

```
red apple
red banana
red cherry
big apple
big banana
big cherry
tasty apple
tasty banana
tasty cherry
```

9.2.7 pass statement

'for' loops cannot be empty, but if you for some reason have a 'for' loop with no content, put in the pass statement to avoid getting an error.

```
1 for x in [0, 1, 2]:
2     pass
```

10 Python Functions

A function is a block of code which only runs when it is called. You can pass data, known as parameters, into a function. A function can return data as a result.

10.1 Creating a function

In Python a function is defined using the `def` keyword.

```
1 def my_function():  
2     print("Hello from a function")
```

Output:

```
Hello from a function
```

10.2 Calling a function

To call a function, use the function name followed by parenthesis.

```
1 def my_function():  
2     print("Hello from a function")  
3  
4 my_function()
```

Output:

```
Hello from a function
```

10.3 Arguments

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

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

```
1 def my_function(fname):  
2     print(fname + " Refsnes")  
3  
4 my_function("Emil")  
5 my_function("Tobias")  
6 my_function("Linus")
```

Output:

```
Emil Refsnes  
Tobias Refsnes  
Linus Refsnes
```

10.3.1 Parameters or Arguments?

The terms parameter and argument can be used for the same thing: information that are passed into a function.

From a function's perspective:

1. A parameter is the variable listed inside the parentheses in the function definition.
2. An argument is the value that is sent to the function when it is called.

10.3.2 Number of arguments

By default, a function must be called with the correct number of arguments. Meaning that if your function expects 2 arguments, you have to call the function with 2 arguments, not more, and not less.

10.3.3 Arbitrary arguments (*args)

If you do not know how many arguments that will be passed into your function, add a * before the parameter name in the function definition

```
1 def my_function(*kids):
2     print("The youngest child is " + kids[2])
3
4 my_function("Emil", "Tobias", "Linus")
```

Output:

```
The youngest child is Linus
```

10.3.4 Keyword arguments

You can also send arguments with the key = value syntax. This way the order of the arguments does not matter.

```
1 def my_function(child3, child2, child1):
2     print("The youngest child is " + child3)
3
4 my_function(child1 = "Emil", child2 = "Tobias", child3 = "Linus")
```

Output:

```
The youngest child is Linus
```

10.3.5 Arbitrary keyword arguments (**kwargs)

If you do not know how many keyword arguments that will be passed into your function, add two asterisk: ** before the parameter name in the function definition. This way the function will receive a dictionary of arguments, and can access the items accordingly.

```
1 def my_function(**kid):
2     print("His last name is " + kid["lname"])
3
4 my_function(fname = "Tobias", lname = "Refsnes")
```

Output:

```
His last name is Refsnes
```

10.3.6 Default parameter value

If we call the function without argument, it uses the default value

```
1 def my_function(country = "Norway"):
2     print("I am from " + country)
3
4 my_function("Sweden")
5 my_function("India")
6 my_function()
7 my_function("Brazil")
```

Output:

```
I am from Sweden
I am from India
I am from Norway
I am from Brazil
```

10.3.7 Passing a List as an Argument

You can send any data types of argument to a function (string, number, list, dictionary etc.), and it will be treated as the same data type inside the function.

```
1 def my_function(food):
2     for x in food:
3         print(x)
4
5 fruits = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
6
7 my_function(fruits)
```

Output:

```
apple
banana
cherry
```

10.3.8 Return values

To let a function return a value, use the return statement.

```
1 def my_function(x):
2     return 5 * x
3
4 print(my_function(3))
5 print(my_function(5))
6 print(my_function(9))
```

Output:

```
15
25
45
```

10.3.9 pass statement

function definitions cannot be empty, but if you for some reason have a function definition with no content, put in the pass statement to avoid getting an error.

```
1 def myfunction():
2     pass
3
4 # having an empty function definition like this, would raise an error
   without the pass statement
```

10.3.10 Positional arguments

Positional arguments are matched to function parameters based on their position (order) in the function call. When you call a function, the first argument you pass is assigned to the first parameter, the second argument to the second parameter, and so on.

```
1 def greet(first_name, last_name):
2     print(f"Hello, {first_name} {last_name}!")
3
4 greet("John", "Doe") # Positional arguments
```

1. 'first_name' is assigned the value "John".
2. 'last_name' is assigned the value "Doe".

In this case, the function call `greet("John", "Doe")` uses positional arguments because the values "John" and "Doe" are passed in order to the parameters `first_name` and `last_name`, respectively.

To specify that a function can have only positional arguments, you can add `'/'` after the arguments:

```
1 def my_function(x, /):
2     print(x)
3
4 my_function(3) # o/p: 3
```

Without the `, /` you are actually allowed to use keyword arguments even if the function expects positional arguments:

```
1 def my_function(x):
2     print(x)
3
4 my_function(x = 3) # o/p: 3
```

But when adding the `, /` you will get an error if you try to send a keyword argument:

```
1 def my_function(*, x):
2     print(x)
3
4 my_function(x = 3) # o/p: 3
```

10.3.11 Keyword arguments

Keyword arguments are matched to function parameters by their names. When calling a function, you can explicitly specify which value goes to which parameter by using the parameter names.

```
1 def greet(first_name, last_name):
2     print(f"Hello, {first_name} {last_name}!")
3
4 greet(first_name="John", last_name="Doe") # Keyword arguments
```

To specify that a function can have only keyword arguments, you can add `*`, before the arguments:

```
1 def my_function(*, x):
2     print(x)
3
4 my_function(x = 3)
```

Without the `*`, you are allowed to use positional arguments even if the function expects keyword arguments:

```
1 def my_function(x):
2     print(x)
3
4 my_function(x = 3)
```

But when adding the `*, /` you will get an error if you try to send a positional argument:

```
1 def my_function(*, x):
2     print(x)
3
4 my_function(3)
```

10.3.12 Combining positional and keyword arguments

You can combine the two argument types in the same function. Any argument before the / , are positional-only, and any argument after the *, are keyword-only.

```
1 def my_function(a, b, /, *, c, d):
2     print(a + b + c + d)
3
4 my_function(5, 6, c = 7, d = 8) # o/p: 26
```

Another example:

```
1 def greet(first_name, last_name):
2     print(f"Hello, {first_name} {last_name}!")
3
4 greet("John", last_name="Doe") # Mixing positional and keyword arguments
```

10.3.13 Difference between positional and keyword arguments

1. Order:

- (a) Positional Arguments: The order matters. The first argument matches the first parameter, the second argument matches the second parameter, and so on.
- (b) Keyword Arguments: The order does not matter. Each argument is matched to the parameter with the corresponding name.

2. Readability:

- (a) Positional Arguments: Can be less readable, especially if there are many arguments or the function parameters are not self-explanatory.
- (b) Keyword Arguments: Can improve readability by explicitly stating which value is assigned to which parameter.

3. Default Values:

- (a) Positional Arguments: You must provide all preceding arguments if you want to skip to a later one.
- (b) Keyword Arguments: You can skip arguments with default values by specifying only the ones you need.

Conclusion:

- 1. Positional Arguments: Matched by position; order matters.
- 2. Keyword Arguments: Matched by name; order does not matter; can enhance readability and flexibility.

10.4 Lambda functions

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

```
1 x = lambda a: a + 10
2 print(x(5)) # o/p: 15
```

Lambda functions can take any number of arguments.

```
1 x = lambda a, b : a * b
2 print(x(5, 6)) # o/p: 30
```

10.4.1 Why use lambda functions?

The power of lambda is better shown when you use them as an anonymous function inside another function. Say you have a function definition that takes one argument, and that argument will be multiplied with an unknown number:

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

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

```
1 def myfunc(n):  
2     return lambda a : a * n  
3  
4 mydoubler = myfunc(2)  
5 mytripler = myfunc(3)  
6  
7 print(mydoubler(11) # o/p: 22  
8 print(mydoubler(11) # o/p: 33
```