Python

Introduction to Python: (DAY-1)

Python is a general-purpose interpreted, interactive, object-oriented, and high-level programming language.

Why to Learn Python?

Class

Object (data and function)

Python is a high-level, interpreted, interactive and object-oriented scripting language. Python is designed to be highly readable.

- **Python is Interpreted**
- **Python is Interactive**
- **Python is Object-Oriented**
- **Python is a Beginner's Language**

Applications of Python

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

- **Easy-to-learn**
- **Easy-to-read**
- **Easy-to-maintain**
- **A broad standard library**
- **Portable**

Characteristics of Python

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

- It supports functional and structured programming methods as well as OOP.
- It can be used as a scripting language or can be compiled to byte-code for building large applications.
- It provides very high-level dynamic data types and supports dynamic type checking.
- It supports automatic garbage collection.

- It can be easily integrated with C, C++, COM, ActiveX, CORBA, and Java.

Program 1:

```
Print(“"Hello, Python!")
```

Reserved Words

The following list shows the Python keywords. These are reserved words and you cannot use them as constant or variable or any other identifier names. All the Python keywords contain lowercase letters only.s

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

Data Types & I/O Operations: (Day-2)

Data Types:

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

Python has five standard data types −

- Numbers
- String
- List
- Tuple
- Dictionary

Python Numbers

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

```
var1 = 1
var2 = 10
```

You can also delete the reference to a number object by using the del statement. The syntax of the del statement is −

```
del var1[,var2[,var3[....,varN]]]]
```

You can delete a single object or multiple objects by using the del statement. For example −

```
del var
del var_a, var_b
```

Python supports four different numerical types −

- int (signed integers)
- long (long integers, they can also be represented in octal and hexadecimal)
- float (floating point real values)
- complex (complex numbers)

Python Strings

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

The plus (+) sign is the string concatenation operator and the asterisk (*) is the repetition operator. For example −

```
str = 'Hello World!'
print str          # Prints complete string
print str[0]       # Prints first character of the string
print str[2:5]     # Prints characters starting from 3rd to 5th
print str[2:]      # Prints string starting from 3rd character
print str * 2      # Prints string two times
print str + "TEST" # Prints concatenated string
```

Python Lists

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

```
list = [ 'abcd', 786 , 2.23, 'john', 70.2 ]
tinylist = [123, 'john']

print list          # Prints complete list
print list[0]       # Prints first element of the list
print list[1:3]     # Prints elements starting from 2nd till 3rd
print list[2:]      # Prints elements starting from 3rd element
print tinylist * 2  # Prints list two times
print list + tinylist # Prints concatenated lists
```

Python Tuples

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

The main differences between lists and tuples are: Lists are enclosed in brackets ([ ]) and their elements and size can be changed, while tuples are enclosed in parentheses (( )) and cannot be updated. Tuples can be thought of as **read-only** lists. For example

```
tuple = ( 'abcd', 786 , 2.23, 'john', 70.2  )
tinytuple = (123, 'john')

print tuple              # Prints the complete tuple
print tuple[0]           # Prints first element of the tuple
print tuple[1:3]         # Prints elements of the tuple starting from 2nd till 3rd
print tuple[2:]          # Prints elements of the tuple starting from 3rd element
print tinytuple * 2      # Prints the contents of the tuple twice
print tuple + tinytuple  # Prints concatenated tuples
```

Python Dictionary

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

Dictionaries are enclosed by curly braces ({ }) and values can be assigned and accessed using square braces ([]). For example −#!/usr/bin/python

```
dict = {}
dict['one'] = "This is one"
dict[2]     = "This is two"

tinydict = {'name': 'john','code':6734, 'dept': 'sales'}


print dict['one']       # Prints value for 'one' key
print dict[2]           # Prints value for 2 key
print tinydict          # Prints complete dictionary
print tinydict.keys()   # Prints all the keys
print tinydict.values() # Prints all the values
```

I/O Operations:

Types of Operator

Python language supports the following types of operators.

- Arithmetic Operators
- Comparison (Relational) Operators
- Assignment Operators
- Logical Operators
- Bitwise Operators
- Membership Operators
- Identity Operators

Python Arithmetic Operators

Assume variable a holds 10 and variable b holds 20, then −

Operator	Description	Example

+ Addition	Adds values on either side of the operator.	a + b = 30
- Subtraction	Subtracts right hand operand from left hand operand.	a – b = -10
* Multiplication	Multiplies values on either side of the operator	a * b = 200
/ Division	Divides left hand operand by right hand operand	b / a = 2
% Modulus	Divides left hand operand by right hand operand and returns remainder	b % a = 0
** Exponent	Performs exponential (power) calculation on operators	a**b =10 to the power 20
//	Floor Division - The division of operands where the result is the quotient in which the digits after the decimal point are removed. But if one of the operands is negative, the result is floored, i.e., rounded away from zero (towards negative infinity) −	9//2 = 4 and 9.0//2.0 = 4.0, -11//3 = -4, -11.0//3 = -4.0

Python Comparison Operators

These operators compare the values on either sides of them and decide the relation among them. They are also called Relational operators.

Assume variable a holds 10 and variable b holds 20, then −

Operator	Description	Example

==	If the values of two operands are equal, then the condition becomes true.	(a == b) is not true.
!=	If values of two operands are not equal, then condition becomes true.	(a != b) is true.
<>	If values of two operands are not equal, then condition becomes true.	(a <> b) is true. This is similar to != operator.
>	If the value of left operand is greater than the value of right operand, then condition becomes true.	(a > b) is not true.
<	If the value of left operand is less than the value of right operand, then condition becomes true.	(a < b) is true.
>=	If the value of left operand is greater than or equal to the value of right operand, then condition becomes true.	(a >= b) is not true.
<=	If the value of left operand is less than or equal to the value of right operand, then condition becomes true.	(a <= b) is true.

Python Assignment Operators

Operator	Description	Example
=	Assigns values from right side operands to left side operand	c = a + b assigns value of a + b into c

+= Add AND	It adds right operand to the left operand and assign the result to left operand	c += a is equivalent to c = c + a
-= Subtract AND	It subtracts right operand from the left operand and assign the result to left operand	c -= a is equivalent to c = c - a
*= Multiply AND	It multiplies right operand with the left operand and assign the result to left operand	c *= a is equivalent to c = c * a
/= Divide AND	It divides left operand with the right operand and assign the result to left operand	c /= a is equivalent to c = c / a
%= Modulus AND	It takes modulus using two operands and assign the result to left operand	c %= a is equivalent to c = c % a
**= Exponent AND	Performs exponential (power) calculation on operators and assign value to the left operand	c **= a is equivalent to c = c ** a
//= Floor Division	It performs floor division on operators and assign value to the left operand	c //= a is equivalent to c = c // a

Python Bitwise Operators

Bitwise operator works on bits and performs bit by bit operation. Assume if a = 60; and b = 13; Now in the binary format their values will be 0011 1100 and 0000 1101 respectively. Following table lists out the bitwise operators supported by Python language with an example each in those, we use the above two variables (a and b) as operands −

a = 0011 1100

b = 0000 1101

---

a&b = 0000 1100

a|b = 0011 1101

a^b = 0011 0001

~a = 1100 0011

There are following Bitwise operators supported by Python language

Operator	Description	Example
& Binary AND	Operator copies a bit to the result if it exists in both operands	(a & b) (means 0000 1100)
| Binary OR	It copies a bit if it exists in either operand.	(a | b) = 61 (means 0011 1101)
^ Binary XOR	It copies the bit if it is set in one operand but not both.	(a ^ b) = 49 (means 0011 0001)
~ Binary Ones Complement	It is unary and has the effect of 'flipping' bits.	(~a) = -61 (means 1100 0011 in 2's complement form due to a signed binary number.

<< Binary Left Shift	The left operands value is moved left by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	a << 2 = 240 (means 1111 0000)
>> Binary Right Shift	The left operands value is moved right by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	a >> 2 = 15 (means 0000 1111)

Python Logical Operators

There are following logical operators supported by Python language. Assume variable a holds 10 and variable b holds 20 then

Operator	Description	Example
and Logical AND	If both the operands are true then condition becomes true.	(a and b) is true.
or Logical OR	If any of the two operands are non-zero then condition becomes true.	(a or b) is true.
not Logical NOT	Used to reverse the logical state of its operand.	Not(a and b) is false.

Python Membership Operators

Python’s membership operators test for membership in a sequence, such as strings, lists, or tuples. There are two membership operators as explained below −

Operator	Description	Example

in	Evaluates to true if it finds a variable in the specified sequence and false otherwise.	x in y, here in results in a 1 if x is a member of sequence y.
not in	Evaluates to true if it does not finds a variable in the specified sequence and false otherwise.	x not in y, here not in results in a 1 if x is not a member of sequence y.

Python Identity Operators

Identity operators compare the memory locations of two objects. There are two Identity operators explained below −

[Show Example]

Operator	Description	Example
is	Evaluates to true if the variables on either side of the operator point to the same object and false otherwise.	x is y, here **is** results in 1 if id(x) equals id(y).
is not	Evaluates to false if the variables on either side of the operator point to the same object and true otherwise.	x is not y, here **is not** results in 1 if id(x) is not equal to

		id(y).

Python Operators Precedence

The following table lists all operators from highest precedence to lowest.

Sr.No.	Operator & Description
1	****** Exponentiation (raise to the power)
2	**~ + -** Complement, unary plus and minus (method names for the last two are +@ and -@)
3	*** / % //** Multiply, divide, modulo and floor division
4	**+ -** Addition and subtraction
5	**>> <<** Right and left bitwise shift
6	**&** Bitwise 'AND'
7	**^ |** Bitwise exclusive `OR' and regular `OR'

8	**<= < > >=** Comparison operators
9	**<> == !=** Equality operators
10	**= %= /= //= -= += *= **=** Assignment operators
11	**is not** Identity operators
12	**in not in** Membership operators
13	**not or and** Logical operators

Example 2: Add Two Numbers

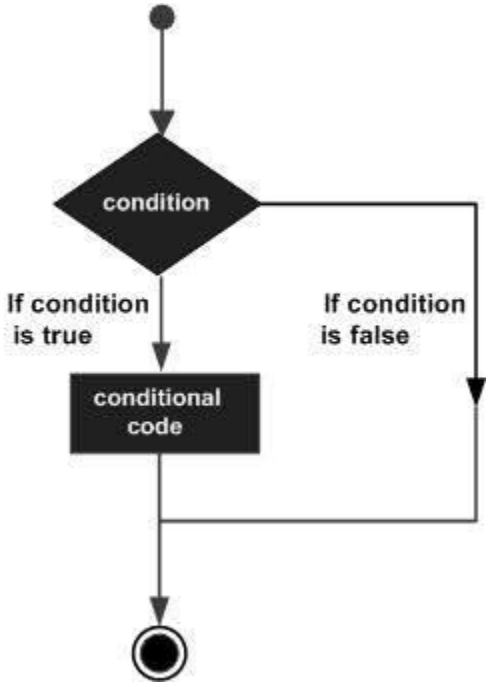
```
# This program adds two numbers

num1 = 1.5
num2 = 6.3

# Add two numbers
sum = num1 + num2

# Display the sum
print('The sum of {0} and {1} is {2}'.format(num1, num2, sum))
```

Conditional Exceptions (Day-3)

Decision making is anticipation of conditions occurring while execution of the program and specifying actions taken according to the conditions.

Decision structures evaluate multiple expressions which produce TRUE or FALSE as outcome. You need to determine which action to take and which statements to execute if outcome is TRUE or FALSE otherwise.

Following is the general form of a typical decision making structure found in most of the programming languages −



Python programming language assumes any **non-zero** and **non-null** values as TRUE, and if it is either **zero** or **null**, then it is assumed as FALSE value.

Python programming language provides following types of decision making statements. Click the following links to check their detail.

S.No.	Statement & Description
1	if statements An **if statement** consists of a boolean expression followed by one or more statements.
2	if...else statements An **if statement** can be followed by an optional **else statement**, which executes when the boolean expression is FALSE.

3	nested if statements You can use one **if** or **else if** statement inside another **if** or **else if** statement(s).

Example 3: Add Two Numbers

```
# Python Program to convert temperature in celsius to fahrenheit

# change this value for a different result
celsius = 37.5

# calculate fahrenheit
fahrenheit = (celsius * 1.8) + 32
print('%0.1f degree Celsius is equal to %0.1f degree Fahrenheit' %(celsius,fahrenheit))
```

Functions (Day-4)

A function is a block of organized, reusable code that is used to perform a single, related action. Functions provide better modularity for your application and a high degree of code reusing.

As you already know, Python gives you many built-in functions like print(), etc. but you can also create your own functions. These functions are called *user-defined functions.*

Defining a Function

You can define functions to provide the required functionality. Here are simple rules to define a function in Python.

- Function blocks begin with the keyword **def** followed by the function name and parentheses (( )).
- Any input parameters or arguments should be placed within these parentheses. You can also define parameters inside these parentheses.
- The first statement of a function can be an optional statement - the documentation string of the function or *docstring*.
- The code block within every function starts with a colon (:) and is indented.
- The statement return [expression] exits a function, optionally passing back an expression to the caller. A return statement with no arguments is the same as return None.

Syntax

```
def functionname( parameters ):
   "function_docstring"
   function_suite
   return [expression]
```

By default, parameters have a positional behavior and you need to inform them in the same order that they were defined.

Example

The following function takes a string as input parameter and prints it on standard screen.

```
def printme( str ):
   "This prints a passed string into this function"
   print str
   return
```

Calling a Function

Defining a function only gives it a name, specifies the parameters that are to be included in the function and structures the blocks of code.

Once the basic structure of a function is finalized, you can execute it by calling it from another function or directly from the Python prompt. Following is the example to call printme() function –

```
# Function definition is here
def printme( str ):
   "This prints a passed string into this function"
   print str
   return;

# Now you can call printme function
printme("I'm first call to user defined function!")
printme("Again second call to the same function")
```

O/P:

```
I'm first call to user defined function!
Again second call to the same function
```

Pass by reference vs value

All parameters (arguments) in the Python language are passed by reference. It means if you change what a parameter refers to within a function, the change also reflects back in the calling function. For example −

```
# Function definition is here
def changeme( mylist ):
   "This changes a passed list into this function"
   mylist.append([1,2,3,4]);
   print "Values inside the function: ", mylist
   return

# Now you can call changeme function
mylist = [10,20,30];
changeme( mylist );
print "Values outside the function: ", mylist
```

Here, we are maintaining reference of the passed object and appending values in the same object. So, this would produce the following result −

```
Values inside the function:  [10, 20, 30, [1, 2, 3, 4]]
Values outside the function:  [10, 20, 30, [1, 2, 3, 4]]
```

There is one more example where argument is being passed by reference and the reference is being overwritten inside the called function.

```
# Function definition is here
def changeme( mylist ):
   "This changes a passed list into this function"
   mylist = [1,2,3,4]; # This would assig new reference in mylist
   print "Values inside the function: ", mylist
   return

# Now you can call changeme function
mylist = [10,20,30];
changeme( mylist );
print "Values outside the function: ", mylist
```

The parameter *mylist* is local to the function changeme. Changing mylist within the function does not affect *mylist*. The function accomplishes nothing and finally this would produce the following result −

```
Values inside the function:  [1, 2, 3, 4]
Values outside the function:  [10, 20, 30]
```

Example 4: Using a flag variable

```
# Program to check if a number is prime or not

num = 29
```

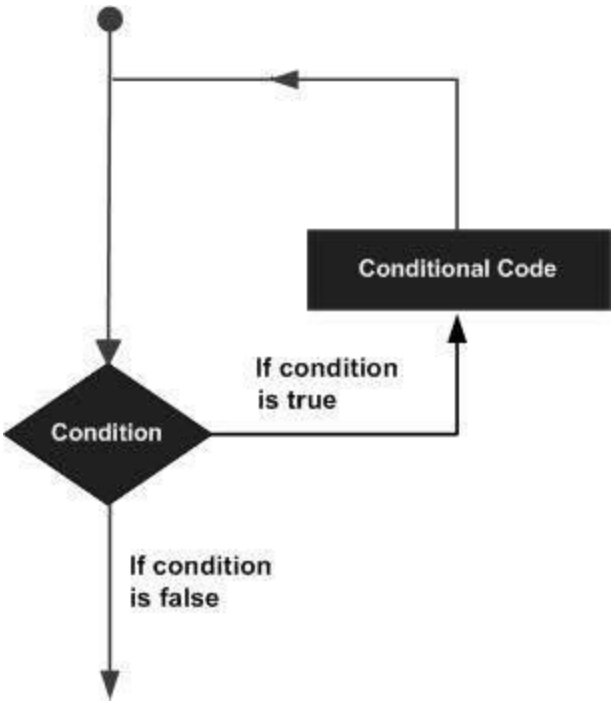
```
# To take input from the user
#num = int(input("Enter a number: "))

# define a flag variable
flag = False

# prime numbers are greater than 1
if num > 1:
   # check for factors
   for i in range(2, num):
      if (num % i) == 0:
         # if factor is found, set flag to True
         flag = True
         # break out of loop
         break

# check if flag is True
if flag:
   print(num, "is not a prime number")
else:
   print(num, "is a prime number")
```

Iterations: (Day-5)

In general, statements are executed sequentially: The first statement in a function is executed first, followed by the second, and so on. There may be a situation when you need to execute a block of code several number of times.

Programming languages provide various control structures that allow for more complicated execution paths.

A loop statement allows us to execute a statement or group of statements multiple times. The following diagram illustrates a loop statement −



Python programming language provides following types of loops to handle looping requirements.

Sr.No.	Loop Type & Description
1	while loop Repeats a statement or group of statements while a given condition is TRUE. It tests the condition before executing the loop body.
2	for loop Executes a sequence of statements multiple times and abbreviates the code that manages the loop variable.
3	nested loops You can use one or more loop inside any another while, for or do..while loop.

Loop Control Statements

Loop control statements change execution from its normal sequence. When execution leaves a scope, all automatic objects that were created in that scope are destroyed.

Python supports the following control statements. Click the following links to check their detail.

Let us go through the loop control statements briefly

Sr.No.	Control Statement & Description
1	break statement Terminates the loop statement and transfers execution to the statement immediately following the loop.
2	continue statement Causes the loop to skip the remainder of its body and immediately retest its condition prior to reiterating.
3	pass statement The pass statement in Python is used when a statement is required syntactically but you do not want any command or code to execute.

Strings are amongst the most popular types in Python. We can create them simply by enclosing characters in quotes. Python treats single quotes the same as double quotes. Creating strings is as simple as assigning a value to a variable. For example −

```
var1 = 'Hello World!'
var2 = "Python Programming"
```

Example 5:

```
# Python program to find the factorial of a number provided by the user.

# change the value for a different result
num = 7

# To take input from the user
#num = int(input("Enter a number: "))

factorial = 1

# check if the number is negative, positive or zero
if num < 0:
   print("Sorry, factorial does not exist for negative numbers")
elif num == 0:
   print("The factorial of 0 is 1")
```

```
else:
   for i in range(1,num + 1):
      factorial = factorial*i
   print("The factorial of",num,"is",factorial)
```

Accessing Values in Strings(Day-6)

Python does not support a character type; these are treated as strings of length one, thus also considered a substring.

To access substrings, use the square brackets for slicing along with the index or indices to obtain your substring. For example −

```
var1 = 'Hello World!'
var2 = "Python Programming"
print "var1[0]: ", var1[0]
print "var2[1:5]: ", var2[1:5]
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

```
var1[0]:  H
var2[1:5]:  ytho
```

Updating Strings

You can "update" an existing string by (re)assigning a variable to another string. The new value can be related to its previous value or to a completely different string altogether. For example −

```
var1 = 'Hello World!'
print "Updated String :- ", var1[:6] + 'Python'
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

```
Updated String :-  Hello Python
```

Escape Characters

Following table is a list of escape or non-printable characters that can be represented with backslash notation.

An escape character gets interpreted; in a single quoted as well as double quoted strings.

Backslash notation	Hexadecimal character	Description
\a	0x07	Bell or alert
\b	0x08	Backspace
\cx		Control-x
\C-x		Control-x
\e	0x1b	Escape
\f	0x0c	Formfeed
\M-\C-x		Meta-Control-x
\n	0x0a	Newline
\nnn		Octal notation, where n is in the range 0.7
\r	0x0d	Carriage return
\s	0x20	Space
\t	0x09	Tab
\v	0x0b	Vertical tab
\x		Character x

\xnn		Hexadecimal notation, where n is in the range 0.9, a.f, or A.F

String Special Operators

Assume string variable **a** holds 'Hello' and variable **b** holds 'Python', then −

Operator	Description	Example
+	Concatenation - Adds values on either side of the operator	a + b will give HelloPython
*	Repetition - Creates new strings, concatenating multiple copies of the same string	a*2 will give - HelloHello
[]	Slice - Gives the character from the given index	a[1] will give e
[:]	Range Slice - Gives the characters from the given range	a[1:4] will give ell
in	Membership - Returns true if a character exists in the given string	H in a will give 1
not in	Membership - Returns true if a character does not exist in the given string	M not in a will give 1
r/R	Raw String - Suppresses actual meaning of Escape characters. The syntax for raw strings is exactly the same as for normal strings with the exception of the raw string operator, the letter "r," which precedes the quotation marks. The "r" can be lowercase (r) or uppercase (R) and must be placed immediately preceding the first quote mark.	print r'\n' prints \n and print R'\n'prints \n

%	Format - Performs String formatting	See at next section

String Formatting Operator

One of Python's coolest features is the string format operator %. This operator is unique to strings and makes up for the pack of having functions from C's printf() family. Following is a simple example −

```
print "My name is %s and weight is %d kg!" % ('Zara', 21)
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

My name is Zara and weight is 21 kg!

Format Symbol	Conversion
%c	character
%s	string conversion via str() prior to formatting
%i	signed decimal integer
%d	signed decimal integer
%u	unsigned decimal integer
%o	octal integer
%x	hexadecimal integer (lowercase letters)
%X	hexadecimal integer (UPPERcase letters)

%e	exponential notation (with lowercase 'e')
%E	exponential notation (with UPPERcase 'E')
%f	floating point real number
%g	the shorter of %f and %e
%G	the shorter of %f and %E

Other supported symbols and functionality are listed in the following table −

Symbol	Functionality
*	argument specifies width or precision
-	left justification
+	display the sign
<sp>	leave a blank space before a positive number
#	add the octal leading zero ('0') or hexadecimal leading '0x' or '0X', depending on whether 'x' or 'X' were used.
0	pad from left with zeros (instead of spaces)
%	'%%' leaves you with a single literal '%'
(var)	mapping variable (dictionary arguments)

m.n.	m is the minimum total width and n is the number of digits to display after the decimal point (if appl.)

Example 6:

```
#Accessing string characters in Python
str = 'programiz'
print('str = ', str)

#first character
print('str[0] = ', str[0])

#last character
print('str[-1] = ', str[-1])

#slicing 2nd to 5th character
print('str[1:5] = ', str[1:5])

#slicing 6th to 2nd last character
print('str[5:-2] = ', str[5:-2])
```

Files (Day-7)

Until now, you have been reading and writing to the standard input and output. Now, we will see how to use actual data files.

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

The *open* Function

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

Syntax

file object = open(file_name [, access_mode][, buffering])

Here are parameter details −

- **file_name** − The file_name argument is a string value that contains the name of the file that you want to access.

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

Here is a list of the different modes of opening a file −

Sr.No.	Modes & Description
1	**r** Opens a file for reading only. The file pointer is placed at the beginning of the file. This is the default mode.
2	**rb** Opens a file for reading only in binary format. The file pointer is placed at the beginning of the file. This is the default mode.
3	**r+** Opens a file for both reading and writing. The file pointer placed at the beginning of the file.
4	**rb+** Opens a file for both reading and writing in binary format. The file pointer placed at the beginning of the file.
5	**w** Opens a file for writing only. Overwrites the file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for writing.
6	**wb** Opens a file for writing only in binary format. Overwrites the file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for writing.

7	**w+** Opens a file for both writing and reading. Overwrites the existing file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for reading and writing.
8	**wb+** Opens a file for both writing and reading in binary format. Overwrites the existing file if the file exists. If the file does not exist, creates a new file for reading and writing.
9	**a** Opens a file for appending. The file pointer is at the end of the file if the file exists. That is, the file is in the append mode. If the file does not exist, it creates a new file for writing.
10	**ab** Opens a file for appending in binary format. The file pointer is at the end of the file if the file exists. That is, the file is in the append mode. If the file does not exist, it creates a new file for writing.
11	**a+** Opens a file for both appending and reading. The file pointer is at the end of the file if the file exists. The file opens in the append mode. If the file does not exist, it creates a new file for reading and writing.
12	**ab+** Opens a file for both appending and reading in binary format. The file pointer is at the end of the file if the file exists. The file opens in the append mode. If the file does not exist, it creates a new file for reading and writing.

Example 7:

```
f = open("test.txt",'r',encoding = 'utf-8')
>>> f.read(4)    # read the first 4 data
'This'

>>> f.read(4)    # read the next 4 data
' is '
```

```
>>> f.read()     # read in the rest till end of file
'my first file\nThis file\ncontains three lines\n'

>>> f.read()  # further reading returns empty sting
''
```

Python Lists (Day-8)

The list is a most versatile datatype available in Python which can be written as a list of comma-separated values (items) between square brackets. Important thing about a list is that items in a list need not be of the same type.

Creating a list is as simple as putting different comma-separated values between square brackets. For example −

```
list1 = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000];
list2 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5 ];
list3 = ["a", "b", "c", "d"]
```

Similar to string indices, list indices start at 0, and lists can be sliced, concatenated and so on.

Accessing Values in Lists

To access values in lists, use the square brackets for slicing along with the index or indices to obtain value available at that index. For example −

```
#!/usr/bin/python

list1 = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000];
list2 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 ];
print "list1[0]: ", list1[0]
print "list2[1:5]: ", list2[1:5]
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

```
list1[0]:  physics
list2[1:5]:  [2, 3, 4, 5]
```

Updating Lists

You can update single or multiple elements of lists by giving the slice on the left-hand side of the assignment operator, and you can add to elements in a list with the append() method. For example –

```
list = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000];
print "Value available at index 2 : "
print list[2]
list[2] = 2001;
print "New value available at index 2 : "
print list[2]
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

```
Value available at index 2 :
1997
New value available at index 2 :
2001
```

Delete List Elements

To remove a list element, you can use either the del statement if you know exactly which element(s) you are deleting or the remove() method if you do not know. For example −

```
#!/usr/bin/python

list1 = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000];
print list1
del list1[2];
print "After deleting value at index 2 : "
print list1
```

When the above code is executed, it produces following result −

```
['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000]
After deleting value at index 2 :
['physics', 'chemistry', 2000]
```

EXAMPLE 8:

```
my_list = ['p','r','o','b','l','e','m']
my_list.remove('p')

# Output: ['r', 'o', 'b', 'l', 'e', 'm']
print(my_list)

# Output: 'o'
print(my_list.pop(1))

# Output: ['r', 'b', 'l', 'e', 'm']
```

```
print(my_list)

# Output: 'm'
print(my_list.pop())

# Output: ['r', 'b', 'l', 'e']
print(my_list)

my_list.clear()

# Output: []
print(my_list)
```

Python – Dictionary(Day-9)

Each key is separated from its value by a colon (:), the items are separated by commas, and the whole thing is enclosed in curly braces. An empty dictionary without any items is written with just two curly braces, like this: {}.

Keys are unique within a dictionary while values may not be. The values of a dictionary can be of any type, but the keys must be of an immutable data type such as strings, numbers, or tuples.

Accessing Values in Dictionary

To access dictionary elements, you can use the familiar square brackets along with the key to obtain its value. Following is a simple example –

```
dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}
print "dict['Name']: ", dict['Name']
print "dict['Age']: ", dict['Age']
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

```
dict['Name']:  Zara
dict['Age']:  7
```

If we attempt to access a data item with a key, which is not part of the dictionary, we get an error as follows −

```
dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}
print "dict['Alice']: ", dict['Alice']
```

Updating Dictionary

You can update a dictionary by adding a new entry or a key-value pair, modifying an existing entry, or deleting an existing entry as shown below in the simple example

```
dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}
dict['Age'] = 8; # update existing entry
dict['School'] = "DPS School"; # Add new entry

print "dict['Age']: ", dict['Age']
print "dict['School']: ", dict['School']
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

```
dict['Age']:  8
dict['School']:  DPS School
```

Delete Dictionary Elements

You can either remove individual dictionary elements or clear the entire contents of a dictionary. You can also delete entire dictionary in a single operation.

To explicitly remove an entire dictionary, just use the **del** statement. Following is a simple example −

```
dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}
del dict['Name']; # remove entry with key 'Name'
dict.clear();     # remove all entries in dict
del dict ;        # delete entire dictionary
print "dict['Age']: ", dict['Age']
print "dict['School']: ", dict['School']
```

This produces the following result. Note that an exception is raised because after **del dict** dictionary does not exist any more −

```
dict['Age']:
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "test.py", line 8, in <module>
    print "dict['Age']: ", dict['Age'];
TypeError: 'type' object is unsubscriptable
```

EXAMPLE 9:

```
# Removing elements from a dictionary

# create a dictionary
squares = {1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16, 5: 25}

# remove a particular item, returns its value
# Output: 16
```

```
print(squares.pop(4))

# Output: {1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 5: 25}
print(squares)

# remove an arbitrary item, return (key,value)
# Output: (5, 25)
print(squares.popitem())

# Output: {1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9}
print(squares)

# remove all items
squares.clear()

# Output: {}
print(squares)

# delete the dictionary itself
del squares

# Throws Error
print(squares)
```

Python – Tuples (Day-10)

A tuple is a collection of objects which ordered and immutable. Tuples are sequences, just like lists. The differences between tuples and lists are, the tuples cannot be changed unlike lists and tuples use parentheses, whereas lists use square brackets.

Creating a tuple is as simple as putting different comma-separated values. Optionally you can put these comma-separated values between parentheses also. For example −

```
tup1 = ('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000);
tup2 = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5 );
tup3 = "a", "b", "c", "d";
```

The empty tuple is written as two parentheses containing nothing −

```
tup1 = ();
```

To write a tuple containing a single value you have to include a comma, even though there is only one value −

```
tup1 = (50,);
```

Like string indices, tuple indices start at 0, and they can be sliced, concatenated, and so on.

Accessing Values in Tuples

To access values in tuple, use the square brackets for slicing along with the index or indices to obtain value available at that index. For example −

```
tup1 = ('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000);
tup2 = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 );
print "tup1[0]: ", tup1[0];
print "tup2[1:5]: ", tup2[1:5];
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

```
tup1[0]:  physics
tup2[1:5]:  [2, 3, 4, 5]
```

Updating Tuples

Tuples are immutable which means you cannot update or change the values of tuple elements. You are able to take portions of existing tuples to create new tuples as the following example demonstrates −

```
tup1 = (12, 34.56);
tup2 = ('abc', 'xyz');
# Following action is not valid for tuples
# tup1[0] = 100;
# So let's create a new tuple as follows
tup3 = tup1 + tup2;
print tup3;
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result −

```
(12, 34.56, 'abc', 'xyz')
```

Delete Tuple Elements

Removing individual tuple elements is not possible. There is, of course, nothing wrong with putting together another tuple with the undesired elements discarded.

To explicitly remove an entire tuple, just use the **del** statement. For example −

```
tup = ('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000);
print tup;
del tup;
print "After deleting tup : ";
```

```
print tup;
```

This produces the following result. Note an exception raised, this is because after **del tup** tuple does not exist any more −

```
('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000)
After deleting tup :
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "test.py", line 9, in <module>
    print tup;
NameError: name 'tup' is not defined
```

EXAMPLE 10:

```
# Changing tuple values
my_tuple = (4, 2, 3, [6, 5])


# TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
# my_tuple[1] = 9

# However, item of mutable element can be changed
my_tuple[3][0] = 9   # Output: (4, 2, 3, [9, 5])
print(my_tuple)

# Tuples can be reassigned
my_tuple = ('p', 'r', 'o', 'g', 'r', 'a', 'm', 'i', 'z')

# Output: ('p', 'r', 'o', 'g', 'r', 'a', 'm', 'i', 'z')
print(my_tuple)
```

Set

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

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

A set is a collection which is both *unordered* and *unindexed*.

Sets are written with curly brackets.

Create a Set:

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

Duplicates Not Allowed

Sets cannot have two items with the same value.

Example:

```
thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry", "apple"}
```

Output:

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

Accessing Item in the Set:

```
thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}

for x in thisset:
  print(x)

print(thisset)
```

Add Items to Set:

Update:

```
thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}
tropical = {"pineapple", "mango", "papaya"}

thisset.update(tropical)

print(thisset)
```

Add:

```
thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}

thisset.add("orange")

print(thisset)
```

Remove Item

To remove an item in a set, use the remove(), or the discard() method.

Example:

Remove():

```
thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}

thisset.remove("banana")

print(thisset)
```

discard():

```
thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}

thisset.discard("banana")

print(thisset)
```

Pop():

```
thisset = {"apple", "banana", "cherry"}

x = thisset.pop()

print(x)

print(thisset)
```

Join Set:

Union():

The union() method returns a new set with all items from both sets:

```
set1 = {"a", "b" , "c"}
set2 = {1, 2, 3}

set3 = set1.union(set2)
print(set3)
```

Output:

```
{'c', 'a', 1, 3, 'b', 2}
```

Update():

The update() method inserts the items in set2 into set1:

```
set1 = {"a", "b", "c"}
set2 = {1, 2, 3}

set1.update(set2)
print(set1)
```

Python For Loops

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

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

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

Example

Print each fruit in a fruit list:

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

Python Classes/Objects

Python is an object oriented programming language.

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

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

Create a Class

To create a class, use the keyword class:

Example

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

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

Example

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

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

Object Methods:

Example:

```
class Person:
  def __init__(self, name, age):
    self.name = name
    self.age = age

  def myfunc(self):
    print("Hello my name is " + self.name)

p1 = Person("John", 36)
p1.myfunc()
```

Create a Parent Class

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

Example

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

```
class Person:
  def __init__(self, fname, lname):
    self.firstname = fname
    self.lastname = lname
```

```
  def printname(self):
    print(self.firstname, self.lastname)

#Use the Person class to create an object, and then execute the printname method:

x = Person("John", "Doe")
x.printname()
```

Example

Create a class named Student, which will inherit the properties and methods from the Person class:

```
class Student(Person):
  pass
```

Python Iterators

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

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

Example:

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

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

Local Scope

A variable created inside a function belongs to the *local scope* of that function, and can only be used inside that function.

Example:

```
def myfunc():
  x = 300
  print(x)

myfunc()
```

Global Scope

A variable created in the main body of the Python code is a global variable and belongs to the global scope.

Global variables are available from within any scope, global and local.

Example:

```
x = 300

def myfunc():
  print(x)

myfunc()

print(x)
```

Python Dates

Import the datetime module and display the current date:

```
import datetime

x = datetime.datetime.now()
print(x)
```

Creating Date Objects

To create a date, we can use the datetime() class (constructor) of the datetime module.

The datetime() class requires three parameters to create a date: year, month, day.

Example

Create a date object:

```
import datetime

x = datetime.datetime(2020, 5, 17)

print(x)
```

The strftime() Method

The datetime object has a method for formatting date objects into readable strings.

The method is called strftime(), and takes one parameter, format, to specify the format of the returned string:

Example:

```
import datetime

x = datetime.datetime(2018, 6, 1)

print(x.strftime("%B"))
```

Built-in Math Functions

Min and Max:

The min() and max() functions can be used to find the lowest or highest value in an iterable:

Example

```
x = min(5, 10, 25)
y = max(5, 10, 25)

print(x)
print(y)
```

Abs:

The abs() function returns the absolute (positive) value of the specified number:

Example

```
x = abs(-7.25)

print(x)
```

Pow:

The pow(*x*, *y*) function returns the value of x to the power of y (x^y).

Example

Return the value of 4 to the power of 3 (same as 4 * 4 * 4):

```
x = pow(4, 3)

print(x)
```

Square Root:

The math.sqrt() method for example, returns the square root of a number:

Example

```
import math

x = math.sqrt(64)

print(x)
```

Ceil and Floor:

The math.ceil() method rounds a number upwards to its nearest integer, and the math.floor() method rounds a number downwards to its nearest integer, and returns the result:

Example

```
import math

x = math.ceil(1.4)
y = math.floor(1.4)

print(x) # returns 2
print(y) # returns 1
```

PI:

The math.pi constant, returns the value of PI (3.14...):

Example

```
import math

x = math.pi
print(x)
```

Python Try Except

The try block lets you test a block of code for errors.

The except block lets you handle the error.

The finally block lets you execute code, regardless of the result of the try- and except blocks.

Exception Handling

When an error occurs, or exception as we call it, Python will normally stop and generate an error message.

These exceptions can be handled using the try statement:

Example

The try block will generate an exception, because x is not defined:

```
try:
  print(x)
except:
  print("An exception occurred")
```

Else

You can use the else keyword to define a block of code to be executed if no errors were raised:

Example

In this example, the try block does not generate any error:

```
try:
  print("Hello")
except:
  print("Something went wrong")
else:
  print("Nothing went wrong")
```

Finally

The finally block, if specified, will be executed regardless if the try block raises an error or not.

Example

```
try:
  print(x)
except:
  print("Something went wrong")
finally:
  print("The 'try except' is finished")
```

Raise an exception

As a Python developer you can choose to throw an exception if a condition occurs.

To throw (or raise) an exception, use the raise keyword.

Example

Raise an error and stop the program if x is lower than 0:

```
x = -1

if x < 0:
  raise Exception("Sorry, no numbers below zero")
```

Example: User-Defined Exception in Python

In this example, we will illustrate how user-defined exceptions can be used in a program to raise and catch errors.

This program will ask the user to enter a number until they guess a stored number correctly. To help them figure it out, a hint is provided whether their guess is greater than or less than the stored number.

```
# define Python user-defined exceptions
class Error(Exception):
   """Base class for other exceptions"""
   pass
```

```
class ValueTooSmallError(Error):
    """Raised when the input value is too small"""
    pass


class ValueTooLargeError(Error):
    """Raised when the input value is too large"""
    pass


# you need to guess this number
number = 10

# user guesses a number until he/she gets it right
while True:
    try:
        i_num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
        if i_num < number:
            raise ValueTooSmallError
        elif i_num > number:
            raise ValueTooLargeError
        break
    except ValueTooSmallError:
        print("This value is too small, try again!")
        print()
    except ValueTooLargeError:
        print("This value is too large, try again!")
        print()

print("Congratulations! You guessed it correctly.")
```

Here is a sample run of this program.

```
Enter a number: 12
This value is too large, try again!

Enter a number: 0
This value is too small, try again!
```

```
Enter a number: 8
This value is too small, try again!

Enter a number: 10
Congratulations! You guessed it correctly.
```

Python RegEx

A RegEx, or Regular Expression, is a sequence of characters that forms a search pattern.

RegEx can be used to check if a string contains the specified search pattern.

RegEx Module

Python has a built-in package called re, which can be used to work with Regular Expressions.

Import the re module:

```
import re
```

```
import re

txt = "The rain in Spain"
x = re.search("^The.*Spain$", txt)
```

RegEx Functions

The re module offers a set of functions that allows us to search a string for a match:

Function	Description

findall	Returns a list containing all matches
search	Returns a Match object if there is a match anywhere in the string
split	Returns a list where the string has been split at each match
sub	Replaces one or many matches with a string

The findall() Function

The findall() function returns a list containing all matches.

Example

Print a list of all matches:

```
import re

txt = "The rain in Spain"
x = re.findall("ai", txt)
print(x)
```

The search() Function

The search() function searches the string for a match, and returns a Match object if there is a match.

If there is more than one match, only the first occurrence of the match will be returned:

Example

Search for the first white-space character in the string:

```
import re
```

```
txt = "The rain in Spain"
x = re.search("\s", txt)

print("The first white-space character is located in position:", x.start())
```

The split() Function

The split() function returns a list where the string has been split at each match:

Example

Split at each white-space character:

```
import re

txt = "The rain in Spain"
x = re.split("\s", txt)
print(x)
```

The sub() Function

The sub() function replaces the matches with the text of your choice:

Example

Replace every white-space character with the number 9:

```
import re

txt = "The rain in Spain"
x = re.sub("\s", "9", txt)
print(x)
```