

# 01 Variables and Data Types

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## Overview

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Variables bind names to objects at runtime. Python is dynamically typed: names can be rebound to any type. Common built-ins: int, float, bool, str, NoneType. Mutable vs immutable types matter for behavior and performance. Use descriptive snake\_case names and constants in UPPER\_CASE.

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## Example Code

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```
x = 10                # int
pi = 3.14159          # float
name = "Elvin"        # str
is_active = True      # bool
n = None              # NoneType

# multiple assignment and swapping
a, b = 1, 2
a, b = b, a

print(type(x), type(pi), type(name), type(is_active), type(n))
```

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## Explanation

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We assign values without declaring types; Python infers them. Swapping uses tuple unpacking. Immutables (ints, strings, tuples) produce new objects on change; mutables (lists, dicts, sets) are modified in place. This affects function arguments and copying semantics.

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## Question

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What is the output?

```
x = 1
x = x + 2
print(type(x), x)
```

---

## Answer

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```
<class 'int'> 3
```

# 02 Numbers and Math

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## Overview

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Python supports integers with arbitrary precision, floats (binary IEEE754), complex numbers, and decimals (exact base10 via decimal module). Use math for common functions and fractions for rational arithmetic.

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## Example Code

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```
import math, decimal, fractions

x = 7 // 3    # floor division -> 2
y = 7 / 3     # true division  -> 2.333...
z = 7 % 3     # modulo          -> 1
p = 2 ** 10   # exponentiation -> 1024

print(math.sqrt(16), math.ceil(2.1), math.floor(2.9))

# Decimal for money
D = decimal.Decimal
price = D("0.10") + D("0.20")
print("Decimal price:", price)

# Fractions
f = fractions.Fraction(2, 3) + fractions.Fraction(1, 6)
print("Fraction:", f)
```

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## Explanation

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// truncates towards negative infinity for ints. / always returns float. Decimal avoids binary rounding issues in finance. Fractions keep exact rational results. Prefer math.isclose for float comparisons.

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## Question

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Why is  $0.1 + 0.2 \neq 0.3$  in floats, and how to compare properly?

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## Answer

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Binary floating point cannot represent some decimals exactly; use `math.isclose(0.1+0.2, 0.3)` or the decimal module for exact arithmetic.

## 03 Strings Basics

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### Overview

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Strings are immutable sequences of Unicode code points. Supports indexing, slicing, concatenation, repetition, and membership tests. Useful methods: lower, upper, title, replace, find, split, join.

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### Example Code

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```
s = "Python"
print(s[0], s[-1])    # indexing
print(s[1:4])         # slicing 'yth'
print(len(s))
print("py" in s.lower())

name = "elvin babanli"
print(name.title())
print(name.replace(" ", "_"))
```

---

### Explanation

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Indexing accesses characters; negative indices count from the end. Slices are half-open [start:end). Immutability means operations create new strings. Join is more efficient than string concatenation in loops.

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### Question

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What happens if you assign `s[0] = 'X'`? Why?

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### Answer

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`TypeError: strings are immutable; you must create a new string like 'X' + s[1:].`

# 04 String Methods and Formatting

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## Overview

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Format values with f-strings, `str.format`, or %-format (legacy). Control width, precision, alignment. Sanitize/escape user data if building SQL/HTML; prefer parameterized queries and templates.

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## Example Code

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```
user = "Elvin"; score = 97.456
print(f"{user} scored {score:.2f}")
print("{u} scored {s:.1f}".format(u=user, s=score))
print("%s scored %.0f" % (user, score))

# alignment
print(f"|{user:^10}|{score:>8.2f}|")
```

---

## Explanation

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f-strings evaluate expressions inline, very readable. Format specs like `.2f` control decimal places; `>`, `<`, `^` align within a field of given width.

---

## Question

---

Format `PI=3.14159` as `'3.14'` using f-string.

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## Answer

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```
PI = 3.14159; print(f"{PI:.2f}")
```

# 05 Input and Output

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## Overview

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`input()` returns text; convert types as needed. `print()` supports `sep`, `end`, `file`. For large outputs, join strings or write to files.

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## Example Code

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```
name = input("Enter name: ")
age = int(input("Age: "))
print("Hello", name, "age:", age, sep=" | ", end="!\n")
with open("hello.txt", "w", encoding="utf-8") as f:
    print(f"Hi {name}", file=f)
```

---

## Explanation

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`input` always returns `str`. Casting ensures correct arithmetic. `print` can redirect to a file. For performance, avoid concatenating many small strings; use `join` or write once.

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## Question

---

Why convert input to `int` for numeric operations?

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## Answer

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Because `input()` returns `str`; numeric ops require `int/float`.

# 06 Conditionals

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## Overview

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Use `if/elif/else` to branch logic. Values have truthiness: `0`, `'`, `[]`, `{}`, `set()`, `None` evaluate to `False`. Chain comparisons like `0 < x < 10`.

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## Example Code

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```
x = 42
if x > 50:
    print("big")
elif x == 42:
    print("exactly 42")
else:
    print("small")

s = ""
if not s:
    print("empty string")
```

---

## Explanation

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Truthiness simplifies checks. Chain comparisons are more readable than combining with `and`. Remember to handle edge cases in `elif` chains.

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## Question

---

Write a condition that checks if `s` is a non-empty string.

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## Answer

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```
if isinstance(s, str) and s: ...
```

# 07 Match Case (Pattern Matching)

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## Overview

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Python 3.10+ structural pattern matching simplifies complex branching by matching values and shapes.

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## Example Code

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```
def classify_http(code):
    match code:
        case 200:
            return "OK"
        case 400 | 404:
            return "Client error"
        case 500:
            return "Server error"
        case _:
            return "Unknown"

print(classify_http(404))
```

---

## Explanation

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The match statement compares the subject to patterns in order; pipes combine alternatives; `_` is the wildcard. Pattern matching also destructures sequences and dicts.

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## Question

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Match a tuple `(x, y)` where `x==0` and extract `y`.

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## Answer

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```
match pt:
    case (0, y): print("On Y axis", y)
```



# 08 Loops

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## Overview

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for iterates over any iterable; while repeats while a condition holds. Use break, continue, else on loops. Prefer enumerate and zip over manual index counters.

---

## Example Code

---

```
# for with range
for i in range(1, 6):
    print("Number:", i)

# iterate a list
fruits = ["apple", "banana", "cherry"]
for f in fruits:
    print(f)

# while
count = 0
while count < 3:
    print("Count:", count)
    count += 1

# enumerate
for idx, val in enumerate(fruits, 1):
    print(idx, val)
```

---

## Explanation

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range is lazy in Py3. The loop else runs if no break occurred. enumerate gives index+value cleanly; zip pairs multiple iterables.

---

## Question

---

Print only even numbers from 1..10.

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## Answer

---

```
for i in range(1,11):
```

```
if i % 2 == 0:  
    print(i)
```

# 09 Comprehensions

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## Overview

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List/set/dict comprehensions provide concise, readable transformations and filters; often faster than explicit loops.

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## Example Code

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```
squares = [x*x for x in range(10)]
evens = {x for x in range(10) if x % 2 == 0}
mapping = {x: x*x for x in range(5)}
print(squares, evens, mapping)
```

---

## Explanation

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Comprehensions evaluate expression for each item; optional if clause filters. Dict/set comprehensions mirror list comprehensions with braces.

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## Question

---

Build a dict mapping numbers 1..5 to their cubes.

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## Answer

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```
cubes = {n: n**3 for n in range(1,6)}
```

# 10 Functions and Arguments

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## Overview

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Functions encapsulate logic. Parameters can be positional, keyword-only, defaulted, \*args, \*\*kwargs. Document behavior and types with docstrings and hints.

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## Example Code

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```
def greet(name, title="Mr/Ms"):
    return f"Hello {title} {name}"
```

```
def add(*nums):
    return sum(nums)
```

```
def show(**kw):
    print(kw)
```

```
print(greet("Elvin"))
print(add(1,2,3))
show(role="admin", active=True)
```

---

## Explanation

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Default values are evaluated once at definition. Use None as default for mutable parameters and create inside. \*args collects extra positionals, \*\*kwargs collects extra keywords.

---

## Question

---

Write power(base, exp=2) that returns base\*\*exp.

---

## Answer

---

```
def power(base, exp=2): return base ** exp
```

# 11 Recursion

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## Overview

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Recursion solves problems by calling the same function on smaller inputs. Requires a base case to stop and a recursive step to progress. Useful for divide&conquer (quick sort), tree/graph traversal, and mathematical sequences.

---

## Example Code

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```
def factorial(n):
    """Return n! using recursion"""
    if n == 0 or n == 1:    # Base case
        return 1
    return n * factorial(n-1) # Recursive step

print(factorial(5)) # 120
```

---

## Explanation

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Each call reduces  $n$  by 1 until it hits 0/1; then the call stack unwinds multiplying results. Recursion depth is limited (`sys.getrecursionlimit`). Tail recursion is not optimized in CPython, so beware deep recursion.

---

## Question

---

Write recursive `fibonacci(n)`. What is its time complexity?

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## Answer

---

```
def fibonacci(n):
    if n <= 1:
        return n
    return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2)
# Exponential  $O(\phi^n)$ ; memoization reduces to  $O(n)$ .
```

# 12 Modules and Packages

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## Overview

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Modules are .py files; packages are directories with `__init__.py` (or implicit namespaces). Import using absolute or relative paths. `__name__ == '__main__'` guards script entry points.

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## Example Code

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```
# mypkg/mymod.py
def hello(name): return f"Hello {name}"

# main.py
from mypkg.mymod import hello
if __name__ == "__main__":
    print(hello("Elvin"))
```

---

## Explanation

---

Absolute imports are clearer and robust. The main guard prevents code from executing on import. Use virtual environments to isolate dependencies.

---

## Question

---

How do you run a module as a script?

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## Answer

---

```
python -m package.module # runs module's __main__ context
```

# 13 Exceptions

---

## Overview

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Use `try/except/else/finally` to handle errors. Catch specific exceptions, not bare `except`. Raise custom exceptions for domain errors. Use context managers for cleanup.

---

## Example Code

---

```
try:
    val = int("x")    # ValueError
except ValueError as e:
    print("Bad value:", e)
else:
    print("Parsed OK")
finally:
    print("Done")

def divide(a,b):
    if b == 0:
        raise ZeroDivisionError("b cannot be 0")
    return a/b
```

---

## Explanation

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`Except` runs on error; `else` runs when no exception; `finally` always runs. Raising communicates failure to callers. Log exceptions with context; avoid swallowing them silently.

---

## Question

---

Safely parse integer from input string `s`; if invalid, return `0`.

---

## Answer

---

```
def to_int(s):
    try:
        return int(s)
    except ValueError:
        return 0
```

# 14 File Handling

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## Overview

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Use open with context managers to read/write text and binary files. Understand newline, encoding, buffering. For large files, stream line by line.

---

## Example Code

---

```
# write
with open("demo.txt","w",encoding="utf-8") as f:
    f.write("hello\nworld")

# read all
with open("demo.txt","r",encoding="utf-8") as f:
    data = f.read()

# stream
with open("demo.txt","r",encoding="utf-8") as f:
    for line in f:
        print(line.rstrip())
```

---

## Explanation

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The with block ensures files close on errors. Specify UTF-8 encoding. Iterating over the file yields lines efficiently. For CSV/JSON, use dedicated modules.

---

## Question

---

How to count lines in a large file efficiently?

---

## Answer

---

```
with open(path,'r',encoding='utf-8') as f:
    count = sum(1 for _ in f)
```



# 15 Context Managers

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## Overview

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Context managers guarantee setup/teardown. Implement with `__enter__`/`__exit__` or `contextlib contextmanager`.

---

## Example Code

---

```
from contextlib import contextmanager
@contextmanager
def opening(path):
    f = open(path, 'r', encoding='utf-8')
    try:
        yield f
    finally:
        f.close()

with opening('demo.txt') as f:
    print(f.readline().strip())
```

---

## Explanation

---

The decorated function yields a resource; after the with block, `__exit__` closes it even on exceptions. This avoids leaks and duplicated try/finally code.

---

## Question

---

Why use context managers instead of manual open/close?

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## Answer

---

They ensure cleanup on all paths, including exceptions, reducing bugs.

# 16 Iterators and Generators

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## Overview

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Iterators implement `__iter__`/`__next__`. Generators yield values lazily; generator expressions create on-the-fly sequences. Useful for streaming data without storing all in memory.

---

## Example Code

---

```
def countdown(n):
    while n>0:
        yield n
        n -= 1

for v in countdown(3):
    print(v)

# generator expression
squares = (x*x for x in range(5))
print(list(squares))
```

---

## Explanation

---

Each `next()` resumes execution after the last `yield`. Using generators reduces memory footprint and can improve performance on pipelines.

---

## Question

---

Build a generator that yields even numbers up to `n` (inclusive).

---

## Answer

---

```
def evens(n):
    for x in range(0, n+1, 2):
        yield x
```

# 17 Lambda, map, filter, reduce

---

## Overview

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Small anonymous functions plus functional tools for transforms, filters, and reductions. Prefer comprehensions for clarity when possible; use reduce for associative operations.

---

## Example Code

---

```
from functools import reduce
nums = [1,2,3,4]
print(list(map(lambda x: x*x, nums)))
print(list(filter(lambda x: x%2==0, nums)))
print(reduce(lambda a,b: a+b, nums, 0))
```

---

## Explanation

---

map applies a function to each item; filter keeps those where predicate is True; reduce combines values into one using an accumulator. Initial value prevents errors on empty sequences.

---

## Question

---

Keep even squares for 0..10 using one expression.

---

## Answer

---

```
vals = [x*x for x in range(11) if (x*x)%2==0]
```

# 18 Lists

---

## Overview

---

Mutable sequence supporting append, extend, insert, remove, pop, sort, reverse, slicing. Be aware of shallow vs deep copies and list multiplication pitfalls.

---

## Example Code

---

```
arr = [3,1,2]
arr.append(5); arr.extend([6,7])
arr.insert(1, 9)
arr.remove(1)      # first match
arr.sort()         # in place
arr2 = sorted(arr) # new list

# shallow copy
b = arr[:]
```

  

```
# list of lists pitfall
matrix = [[0]*3]*3
matrix[0][0] = 1
print(matrix) # unexpected
```

---

## Explanation

---

matrix uses the same inner list three times; use `[[0 for _ in range(3)] for _ in range(3)]`. Shallow copy duplicates the outer list only. sorted returns a new list, leaving original intact.

---

## Question

---

Remove duplicates from a list while preserving order.

---

## Answer

---

```
seen=set(); out=[]
for x in arr:
    if x not in seen:
        out.append(x); seen.add(x)
```

# 19 Tuples

---

## Overview

---

Immutable sequences; good for fixed collections and dict keys. Support unpacking, including starred and nested patterns.

---

## Example Code

---

```
t = (1,2,3)
x,y,z = t
x, *mid, z = (1,2,3,4,5)
print(mid)
```

```
# single-element tuple
single = (42,)
```

---

## Explanation

---

Immutability enables hashing (if elements are hashable). Unpacking improves readability. Use tuples for heterogeneous records that shouldn't change.

---

## Question

---

Why can tuples be dict keys but lists cannot?

---

## Answer

---

Tuples are immutable and hashable (if elements are hashable); lists are mutable and unhashable.

# 20 Dictionaries

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## Overview

---

Mapping of keys to values. Methods: `get`, `items`, `keys`, `values`, `setdefault`, `update`. Merge with `|` (3.9+). Use dict comprehensions. Keys must be hashable.

---

## Example Code

---

```
user = {"name": "Elvin", "age": 23}
user["city"] = "Warsaw"
print(list(user.keys()))
print(user.get("missing", "default"))
```

```
# merge
extra = {"active": True}
merged = user | extra
```

---

## Explanation

---

Access with square brackets raises `KeyError` if missing; `get` returns default. `items` returns (key,value) pairs for iteration. Merging with `|` creates a new dict.

---

## Question

---

Create a dict counting word frequencies in a list words.

---

## Answer

---

```
freq = {}
for w in words:
    freq[w] = freq.get(w, 0) + 1
```

# 21 Sets

---

## Overview

---

Unordered collections of unique items. Support union, intersection, difference, symmetric difference. Great for membership tests and deduplication.

---

## Example Code

---

```
a = {1,2,3}; b = {3,4,5}
print(a | b, a & b, a - b, a ^ b)
nums = [1,2,2,3]
print(list(set(nums)))
```

---

## Explanation

---

Set operations are  $O(n)$  on average for membership and insertion. Converting to set removes duplicates but loses order; for ordered dedup, use `dict.fromkeys` or a seen set loop.

---

## Question

---

Find common elements between two lists a and b.

---

## Answer

---

```
common = set(a) & set(b)
```

# 22 Collections Module

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## Overview

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Specialized containers: Counter (multiset), deque (fast appends/pops at both ends), defaultdict (auto defaults), namedtuple (lightweight classes).

---

## Example Code

---

```
from collections import Counter, deque, defaultdict, namedtuple
print(Counter("banana").most_common(1))
dq = deque([1,2,3]); dq.appendleft(0)
dd = defaultdict(int); dd['x'] += 1
Point = namedtuple('Point','x y'); p = Point(1,2)
```

---

## Explanation

---

Counter simplifies frequency tasks; deque is efficient for queues; defaultdict avoids KeyError; namedtuple provides attribute access without full classes.

---

## Question

---

Get the two most common letters in 'abracadabra'.

---

## Answer

---

```
Counter('abracadabra').most_common(2)
```



# 23 Itertools

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## Overview

---

Powerful iterator utilities: product, permutations, combinations, accumulate, chain, groupby, islice. Efficient and memory-friendly.

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## Example Code

---

```
import itertools as it
print(list(it.accumulate([1,2,3])))
print(list(it.chain([1,2],[3,4])))
print(list(it.permutations('abc',2)))
print(list(it.combinations('abc',2)))
print(list(it.product([0,1], repeat=3)))
```

---

## Explanation

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accumulate computes running totals; chain flattens iterables; permutations/combinations generate arrangements; product builds Cartesian products.

---

## Question

---

Build an infinite counter starting at 10, step 2, and print first 3 values.

---

## Answer

---

```
c = it.count(10,2)
for _ in range(3): print(next(c))
```

# 24 Datetime and Time

---

## Overview

---

Work with dates/times: now, arithmetic with timedelta, formatting/parsing with strftime/strptime, timezone handling with zoneinfo (3.9+).

---

## Example Code

---

```
from datetime import datetime, timedelta
now = datetime.now()
tomorrow = now + timedelta(days=1)
print(now.strftime('%Y-%m-%d %H:%M'))
parsed = datetime.strptime('2025-01-15', '%Y-%m-%d')
print(parsed.date())
```

---

## Explanation

---

strftime formats datetimes to strings;.strptime parses strings. Timedelta supports addition/subtraction. For tz-aware datetimes, use zoneinfo for correct conversions.

---

## Question

---

Parse '2024-12-31 23:59' and add 2 minutes; print result.

---

## Answer

---

```
dt = datetime.strptime('2024-12-31 23:59', '%Y-%m-%d %H:%M')
print(dt + timedelta(minutes=2))
```

# 25 Random

---

## Overview

---

Pseudo-random utilities: random, randint, choice, shuffle, sample. Seed for reproducibility. Don't use for crypto; use secrets instead.

---

## Example Code

---

```
import random as R
R.seed(42)
print(R.random())
print(R.randint(1,6))
items = [1,2,3,4,5]
R.shuffle(items); print(items)
print(R.sample(range(100), 5))
```

---

## Explanation

---

Seeding fixes the random sequence for testing. shuffle mutates the list. sample returns a new list of unique items. For secure tokens, use secrets.token\_hex.

---

## Question

---

Pick 3 distinct random numbers from 1..10.

---

## Answer

---

```
import random as R
print(R.sample(range(1,11), 3))
```

## 26 Regular Expressions

---

### Overview

---

Search, validate, and extract patterns with the `re` module. Use raw strings `r''` for patterns. Common tokens: `\d` digits, `\w` word, `\s` space, `.` any char, `^/$` anchors, `[]` classes, `()` groups, `? * +` quantifiers.

---

### Example Code

---

```
import re
m = re.search(r"(\d+)", "Item42")
print(m.group(1))
print(re.findall(r"\b\w+\b", "Hello, world!"))

# simple email (basic)
pat = r"^\[\w.-]+\@[\w.-]+\.[a-zA-Z]{2,}$"
print(bool(re.match(pat, "a@b.com")))
```

---

### Explanation

---

Always compile complex patterns for speed. Use groups to capture subparts. Escape special characters. For readability, use `re.VERBOSE` with comments.

---

### Question

---

Write a regex that captures a 3-letter uppercase word at start of line.

---

### Answer

---

```
pat = r"^[A-Z]{3}\b"
```

# 27 OOP Basics

---

## Overview

---

Define classes to model data/behavior. Use `__init__` for construction, methods for behavior, and `__repr__` for debugging. Favor composition over inheritance by default.

---

## Example Code

---

```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
    def greet(self):
        return f"Hi, I'm {self.name}"
    def __repr__(self):
        return f"Person(name={self.name!r})"

p = Person("Elvin"); print(p.greet()); print(p)
```

---

## Explanation

---

Attributes belong to each instance. `__repr__` returns an unambiguous representation for debugging. Encapsulation is by convention (single underscore).

---

## Question

---

Add an age attribute and method `is_adult (>=18)`.

---

## Answer

---

```
class Person:
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name, self.age = name, age
    def is_adult(self):
        return self.age >= 18
```

# 28 Inheritance and Dunder Methods

---

## Overview

---

Reuse behavior with inheritance; override methods. Dunder methods customize built-ins like `len()`, iteration, arithmetic, context managers.

---

## Example Code

---

```
class Animal:
    def speak(self): return "..."
class Dog(Animal):
    def speak(self): return "Woof"

d = Dog(); print(d.speak())

class Box:
    def __init__(self): self.items=[]
    def __len__(self): return len(self.items)

b = Box(); b.items.extend([1,2,3]); print(len(b))
```

## Explanation

---

Dog inherits `speak` and overrides it. `__len__` allows `len(b)` to call `b.__len__()`. Implementing dunder methods integrates classes with Python idioms.

---

## Question

---

Implement `__iter__` for `Box` to iterate over items.

---

## Answer

---

```
def __iter__(self):
    return iter(self.items)
```

# 29 Dataclasses and Typing

---

## Overview

---

Dataclasses reduce boilerplate for simple data containers; typing adds static hints that improve readability and tooling.

---

## Example Code

---

```
from dataclasses import dataclass
from typing import List

@dataclass
class User:
    name: str
    age: int
    tags: List[str]

u = User("Elvin", 23, ["python","ai"])
print(u)
```

---

## Explanation

---

Dataclasses automatically generate `__init__`, `__repr__`, `__eq__`. Type hints are not enforced at runtime but help linters/IDEs. Use `Optional[T]` for nullable fields.

---

## Question

---

Why prefer dataclass over a plain dict for records?

---

## Answer

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Dataclasses provide structure, validation points, equality, defaults, and IDE support, reducing bugs versus unstructured dicts.

# 30 Decorators

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## Overview

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Higher-order wrappers that extend behavior of functions without modifying their code. Common uses: logging, timing, caching, access control, retries.

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## Example Code

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```
import time

def timer(fn):
    def wrapper(*a, **kw):
        t0 = time.perf_counter()
        try:
            return fn(*a, **kw)
        finally:
            dt = time.perf_counter() - t0
            print(f"{fn.__name__} took {dt:.4f}s")
    return wrapper

@timer
def work():
    sum(range(1_000_000))

work()
```

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## Explanation

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The decorator returns a new function that calls the original plus extra logic. The @ syntax assigns `work = timer(work)`. Use `functools.wraps` to preserve metadata.

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## Question

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What does `@timer` print and why is `finally` used?

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## Answer

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It prints the function duration after execution; `finally` guarantees printing even if the function raises or returns early.