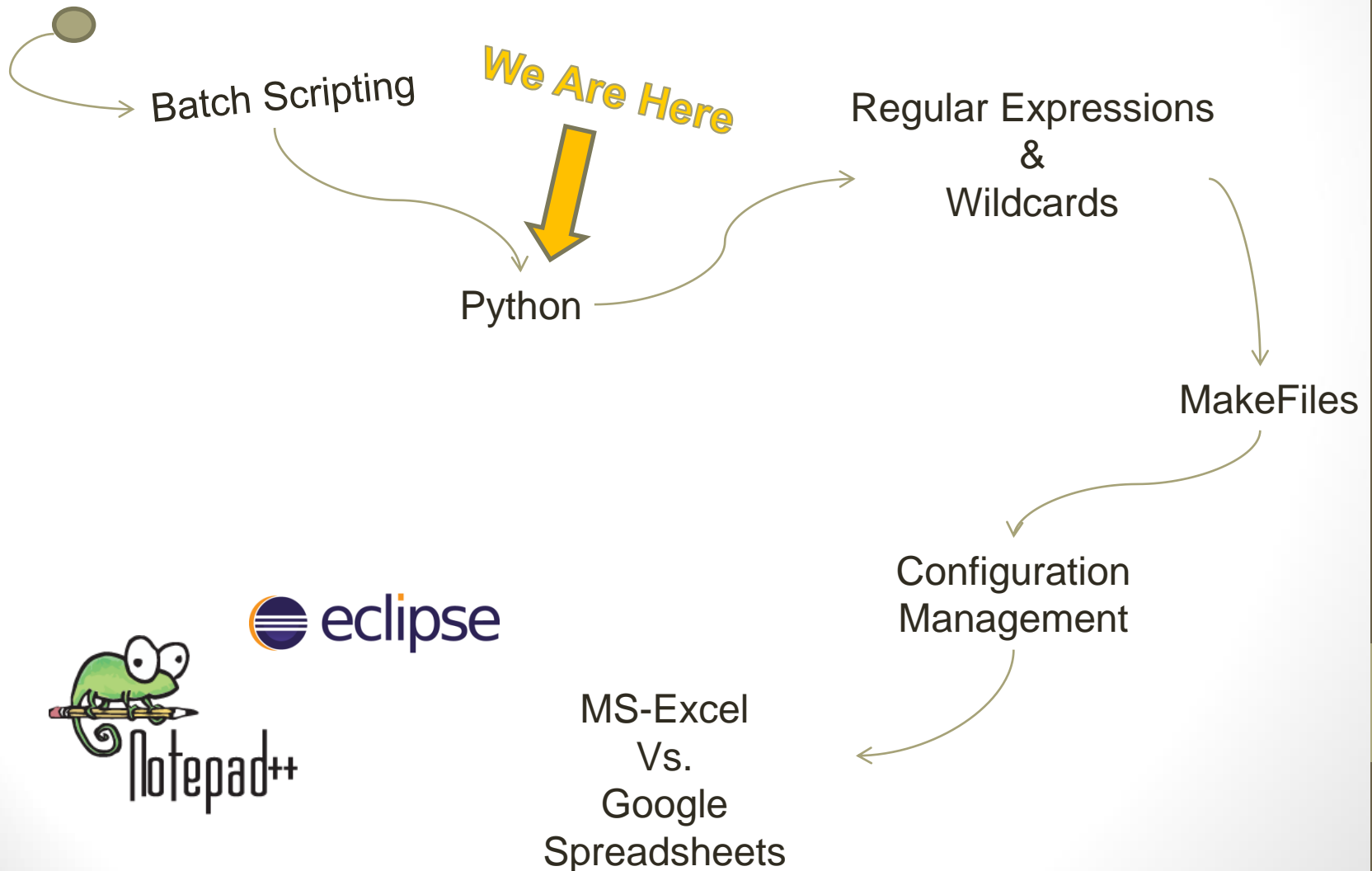


Python



Course Map



Agenda -1

- Introduction
- How Python Works?
- Seeking Help
- Google Python Class
- Python Setup
- Python Syntax
- Python Editors
- **Lab-1**
- Python Source Code
- Python Native Types
 - Boolean Types
 - Numeric Types
- **Lab-2**
- Sequence Types
 - Strings
- Conditional Statements
 - If...Elif...else
 - Truth Value
- **Lab-3**

Popularity of Programming Language

Rank	Language	Share	Trend
1	Python	22.7 %	-0.7 %
2	Java	16.3 %	+3.7 %
3	PHP	8.9 %	-1.1 %
4	C#	8.3 %	-0.5 %
5	Javascript	8.0 %	+0.5 %
6	C++	6.6 %	-0.2 %
7	C	6.4 %	-0.7 %
8	R	3.6 %	+0.4 %
9	Objective-C	3.6 %	-1.2 %
10	Swift	2.8 %	-0.3 %
11	Matlab	2.3 %	-0.2 %
12	Ruby	1.8 %	-0.5 %
13	VBA	1.5 %	+0.0 %
14	Visual Basic	1.4 %	-0.3 %
15	TypeScript	1.3 %	+0.4 %
16	Scala	1.2 %	+0.1 %
17	Perl	0.8 %	-0.3 %
18	Go	0.6 %	+0.2 %

Introduction

- Python is an easy to learn, powerful programming language.
- Ideal language for scripting and rapid application development in many areas on most platforms.
- The Python interpreter and the extensive standard library are **freely available** in **source** or **binary** form for all major platforms
- Most popular implementation of the python interpreter is called **CPython** and is written in **C**.
- Named after the BBC show “**Monty Python’s Flying Circus**”

<https://www.python.org/>

How Python Works?



Seeking Help

- <https://docs.python.org/2.7/>
- <https://wiki.python.org/moin/>



Google's Python Class

- This python course will be based on Google's Python Class:
 - <https://developers.google.com/edu/python/>
- Extra topics & notes will be included in the slides.



Python Set Up

- Go to the [python.org download](https://python.org/download) page, select version **2.7.10**. Google's Python Class should work with any version 2.4 or later.
- Run the Python installer, taking all the defaults.
- With Python installed, open a command prompt and run **hello.py**, use the below link to download hello.py
 - <https://drive.google.com/file/d/0B6Hf8UvSSqTXTElHX25faHZKRzA/view?usp=sharing>

```
C:\google-python-exercises> python hello.py
Hello World
C:\google-python-exercises> python hello.py ITI_39
Hello ITI_39
```

Python Syntax

- Python is **case sensitive** so **"a"** and **"A"** are different variables.
- There are no type declarations of variables, parameters, functions, or methods in source code.
- Python variables don't have any type spelled out in the source code (i.e. There is no **int a=5** it's **a=5**), so it's extra helpful to give meaningful names to your variables to remind yourself of what's going on.

Python Syntax

- A Python program is divided into a number of **logical lines** and there is no **;** to end a statement as in C-language.
- A logical line is constructed from one or more **physical lines** by following the explicit or implicit **line joining** rules.
- A physical line is a sequence of characters terminated by an end-of-line sequence:
 - Unix form using ASCII LF (linefeed – “\n”)
 - Windows form using the ASCII sequence CR LF (return followed by linefeed)
 - Old Macintosh form using the ASCII CR (return - “\r”) character
- A logical line that contains only spaces, tabs, formfeeds and possibly a comment, is **ignored**.

Python Syntax

- **Indentation:**

- Leading whitespace (spaces and tabs) at the beginning of a logical line is used to compute the **indentation level** of the line, which in turn is used to determine the grouping of statements(i.e there are no { } as there is in C-language).

```
def foo(grade):  
    if grade > 25:  
        result = "pass"  
    else:  
        result = "fail"  
    return result
```

```
char foo(int grade)  
{  
    char result;  
    if (grade>25)  
    {  
        result = 1;  
    }  
    else  
    {  
        result = 0;  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

Python Syntax

- **Indentation:**
 - **Cross-platform compatibility note:** it is unwise to use a **mixture** of **spaces** and **tabs** for the indentation in a single source file. It should also be noted that different platforms may explicitly limit the maximum indentation level.

Python Syntax

- **Comments:**

- A comment starts with a hash character (**#**), and ends at the end of the physical line

```
# This is a single line comment
```

- **Triple-quoted strings** can be used a block line comment.

```
'''
```

```
This is a multiline  
comment.
```

```
'''
```

```
"""
```

```
This is a multiline  
comment.
```

```
"""
```

Python Syntax

- Line Joining:

- Two or more physical lines may be joined into logical lines using backslash characters (\)

```
if 1900 < year < 2100 and 1 <= month <= 12 \  
and 1 <= day <= 31 and 0 <= hour < 24 \  
and 0 <= minute < 60 and 0 <= second < 60: # Looks like a valid date  
    return 1
```

- A line ending in a backslash cannot carry a comment. A backslash does not continue a comment.

Python Syntax

- **Line Joining:**

- Expressions in parentheses, square brackets or curly braces can be split over more than one physical line without using backslashes. For example:

```
month_names = ['Januari', 'Februari', 'Maart',           # These are the
                'April', 'Mei', 'Juni',                 # Dutch names
                'Juli', 'Augustus', 'September',        # for the months
                'Oktober', 'November', 'December']      # of the year
```

- Implicitly continued lines can carry comments. The indentation of the continuation lines is not important. Blank continuation lines are allowed.

Python Syntax

- **Syntax Guidelines:**

- Python Enhancement Proposals (PEP)
<https://www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0008/>
- In this course the following syntax guidelines will be used:
 - 2-spaces as the indent
 - Spaces instead of tabs
 - Unix line-ending convention

Python Editors

- **Available Editors:**

- IDLE (C:\Python27\Lib\idlelib\idle.bat)
- Notepad++ (used in this course)

- **Configuring Notepad++:**

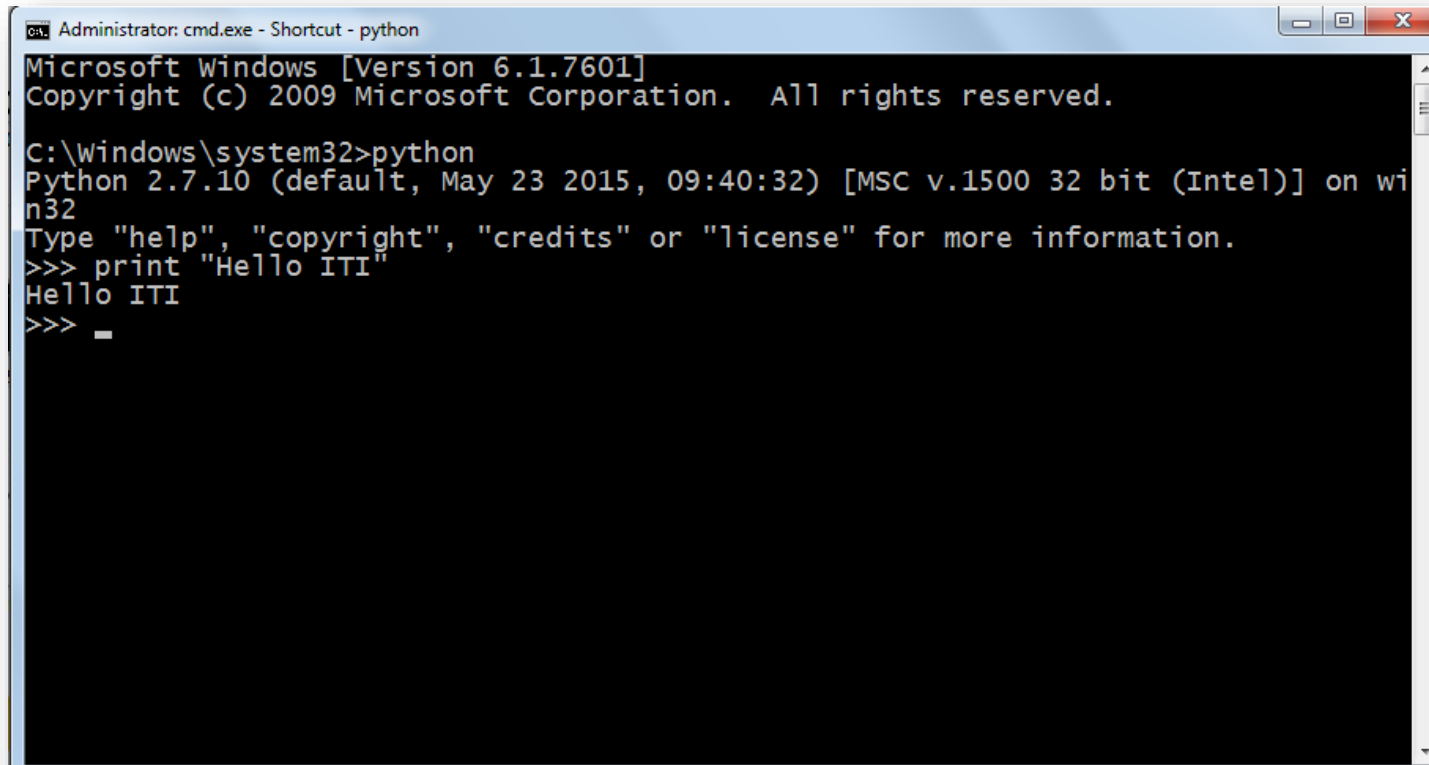
- Settings > Preferences > Tab settings > tab size=2 and check replace by space
- Settings > Preferences > MISC > select auto-indent
- Settings > Preferences > New Document > select Unix/OSX

LAB – 1

TRY PYTHON INTERPRETER

Python Interpreter

- To run the Python interpreter interactively, type “python” in the CMD. On Windows, use **Ctrl-Z** to exit (on all other operating systems it's **Ctrl-D** to exit).

A screenshot of a Windows Command Prompt window titled "Administrator: cmd.exe - Shortcut - python". The window shows the output of running the 'python' command. It displays the Microsoft Windows version (6.1.7601), copyright information (© 2009 Microsoft Corporation), and the Python version (2.7.10) along with its build date and architecture (MSC v.1500 32 bit (Intel) on win32). The prompt then shows the user typing 'python' at the command line, followed by the Python interpreter's prompt '>>>' and the user typing 'print "Hello ITI"', which results in the output 'Hello ITI'. The prompt '>>>' is followed by a cursor character '_'.

```
Administrator: cmd.exe - Shortcut - python
Microsoft Windows [Version 6.1.7601]
Copyright (c) 2009 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.

C:\Windows\system32>python
Python 2.7.10 (default, May 23 2015, 09:40:32) [MSC v.1500 32 bit (Intel)] on win32
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> print "Hello ITI"
Hello ITI
>>> _
```

```
$ python          ## Run the Python interpreter
Python 2.7.9 (default, Dec 30 2014, 03:41:42)
[GCC 4.1.2 20080704 (Red Hat 4.1.2-55)] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> a = 6        ## set a variable in this interpreter session
>>> a            ## entering an expression prints its value
6
>>> a + 2
8
>>> a = 'hi'     ## 'a' can hold a string just as well
>>> a
'hi'
>>> len(a)       ## call the len() function on a string
2
>>> a + len(a)   ## try something that doesn't work
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "", line 1, in
TypeError: cannot concatenate 'str' and 'int' objects
>>> a + str(len(a)) ## probably what you really wanted
'hi2'
>>> foo         ## try something else that doesn't work
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "", line 1, in
NameError: name 'foo' is not defined
>>> ^D          ## type CTRL-d to exit (CTRL-z in Windows/DOS terminal)
```



LAB – 1

TRY PYTHON INTERPRETER

Python Source Code

- Python source files use the ".py" extension and are called "modules".
- Here's the hello.py program from the exercises folder.

```
# import modules used here -- sys is a very standard one
import sys

# Gather our code in a main() function
def main():
    print 'Hello there', sys.argv[1]
    # Command line args are in sys.argv[1], sys.argv[2] ...
    # sys.argv[0] is the script name itself and can be ignored

# Standard boilerplate to call the main() function to begin
# the program.
if __name__ == '__main__':
    main()
```

Python Source Code

- **Modules and Imports:**

- The outermost statements in a Python file, or "module", do its one-time setup. Those statements run from top to bottom the first time the module is imported somewhere, setting up its variables and functions (**Global Space**).
- A Python module can be run directly "python hello.py Mohammad" or it can be **imported** and used by some other module.
- When a Python file is run directly, the special variable "**__name__**" is set to "**__main__**". Therefore, it's common to have the boilerplate `if __name__ == __main__` as shown in the last example to call a `main()` function when the module is run directly, but not when the module is imported by some other module.

Python Source Code

- **Modules and Imports:**

- Suppose you've got a module "ITl.py" which contains a "def foo()". The fully qualified name of that foo function is "ITl.foo". In this way, various Python modules can name their functions and variables whatever they want, and the variable names won't conflict — module1.foo is different from module2.foo.
- In the Python vocabulary, we'd say that ITl, module1, and module2 each have their own "namespaces".

Python Source Code

- **Modules and Imports:**

- For example, we have the standard "**sys**" module that contains some standard system facilities, like the **argv** list, and **exit()** function. With the statement "**import sys**" you can then access the definitions in the sys module and makes them available by their fully-qualified name, e.g. **sys.exit()**.

```
import sys  
# Now you can refer to sys.xxx facilities  
sys.exit(0)
```

- There is another import form that makes argv and exit() available by their short names

```
from sys import argv, exit  
# Now you can refer to exit from sys modules directly  
exit(0)
```

Python Source Code

- **Modules and Imports:**

- There are many modules and packages which are bundled with a standard installation of the Python interpreter.
 - sys — access to exit(), argv, stdin, stdout, ...
 - re — regular expressions
 - os — operating system interface, file system
 - math — mathematical functions defined by the C standard.
 - For a complete list on the available standard modules:
 - <https://docs.python.org/2/library/>



Self-Study

RESERVED CLASSES OF IDENTIFIERS

Python Source Code

- **Reserved classes of identifiers:**
 - Certain classes of identifiers (besides keywords) have special meanings. These classes are identified by the patterns of leading and trailing underscore characters:
 - `_*`
 - This is used to indicate that attribute or method is intended to be private. Not imported by **from** module **import** *.
 - `__*__`
 - System-defined names. These names are defined by the interpreter and its implementation (including the standard library). *Any* use of `__*__` names, in any context, that does not follow explicitly documented use, is subject to breakage without warning.

Python Source Code

- **Reserved classes of identifiers:**
 - Certain classes of identifiers (besides keywords) have special meanings. These classes are identified by the patterns of leading and trailing underscore characters:
 - `__*`
 - Class-private names. Names in this category, when used within the context of a class definition, are re-written to use a **mangled** form to help avoid name clashes between “private” attributes of base and derived classes.
 - Example on mangling: The identifier `__spam` occurring in a class named `Ham` will be transformed to `_Ham__spam`.



Self-Study

RESERVED CLASSES OF IDENTIFIERS

Python Source Code

- help() and dir():
 - The **help()** function pulls up documentation strings for various modules, functions, and methods:
 - `help(len)` — help string for the built-in `len()` function; note that it's "len" not "len()".
 - `help(sys)` — help string for the `sys` module (must do an `import sys` first).
 - The **dir()** function tells you what the attributes of an object are:
 - `dir(sys)` — `dir()` is like `help()` but just gives a quick list of its defined symbols, or "attributes".
 - `dir(str)` — displays "str" object attributes, including its methods

Python Source Code

- **User-defined Functions:**

- Functions in Python are defined like this:

```
# Defines a "repeat" function that takes 2 arguments.
def repeat(s, exclaim):
    """
    Returns the string 's' repeated 3 times.
    If exclaim is true, add exclamation marks.
    """
    result = s + s + s # can also use "s * 3" which is faster (Why?)
    if exclaim:
        result = result + '!!!'
    return result
```

- The **def** keyword defines the function with its parameters within parentheses and its code indented. The first line of a function can be a documentation string ("**docstring**") that describes what the function does.

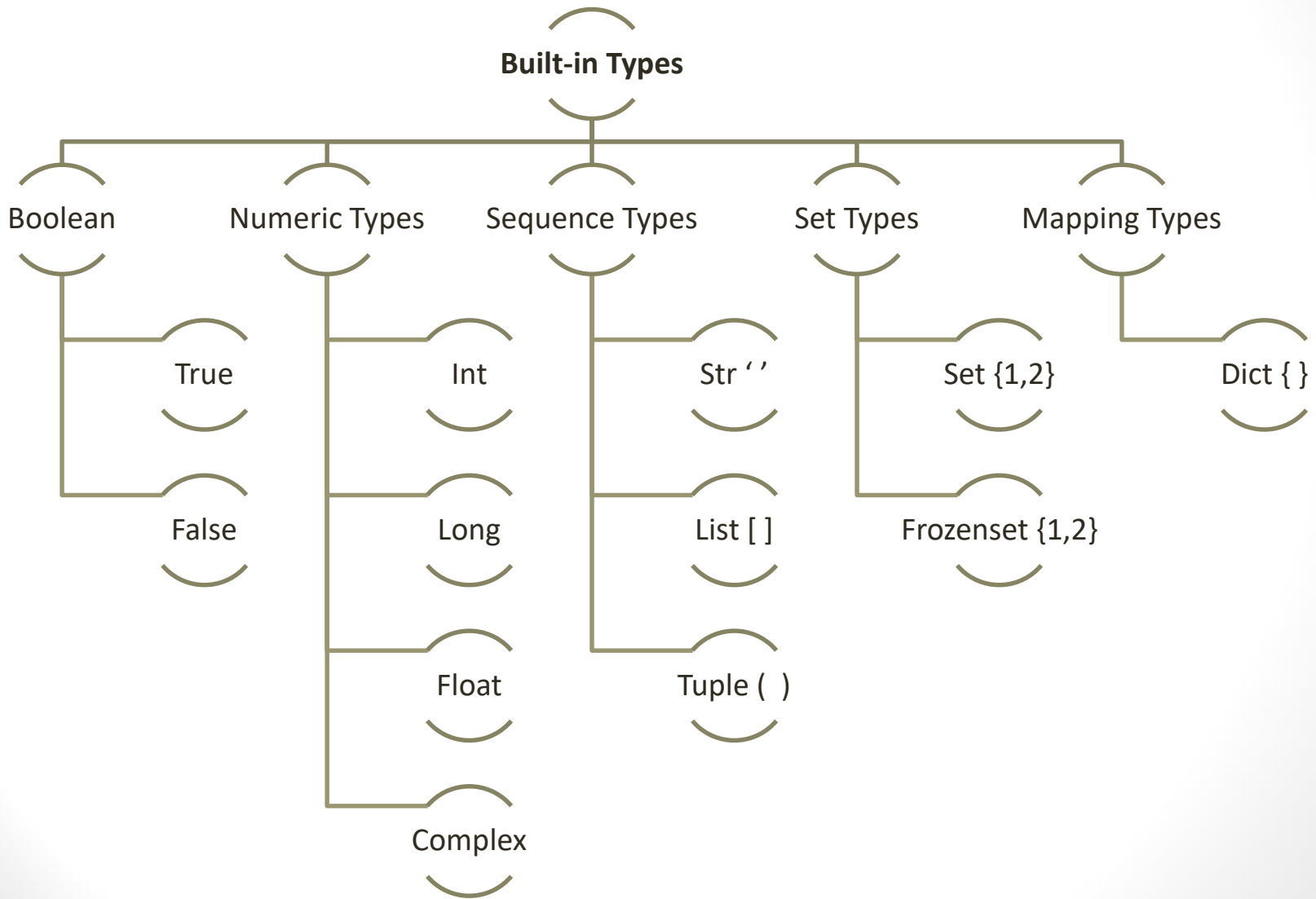
Python Source Code

- **User-defined Functions:**

- Variables defined in the function are **local** to that function, so the "result" in the example function is separate from a "result" variable in another function.
- The **return** statement can take an argument, in which case that is the value returned to the caller. Here is code that calls the above repeat() function, printing what it returns:

```
def main():  
    print repeat('Yay', False)    ## YayYayYay  
    print repeat('Woo Hoo', True) ## Woo HooWoo HooWoo Hoo!!!
```

Python Native Types



Boolean Type

- Boolean type consists of only two possible values:
 - **True** which is equal to **1**
 - **False** which is equal to **0**
- Python's Booleans were added with the primary goal of making code clearer.

```
def isemployee(name):  
    for emp in company_emps:  
        if name==emp:  
            return 1  
    else:  
        return 0
```

```
def isemployee(name):  
    for emp in company_emps:  
        if name==emp:  
            return True  
    else:  
        return False
```

Numeric Types

- There are four distinct numeric types:
 - Integers
 - Implemented using **long** in C.
 - At least 32 bits of precision.
 - Use **sys.maxint** & **-sys.maxint - 1** to know **max** & **min** values of integer on your machine .
 - Long integers
 - Unlimited precision.
 - Floating point numbers
 - Implemented using **double** in C.
 - Use **sys.float_info** for information about precision and internal representation on your machine.
 - Complex numbers.
 - Complex numbers have a real and imaginary part, which are each a floating point number.

Numeric Types

- To produce numbers of a specific type:
 - Appending 'L' or 'l' to a number yields a long integer
 - `my_long_int = 9L`
 - Numeric literals containing a decimal point or an exponent sign yield floating point numbers.
 - `my_fpoint_num=1e+1 (= 10.0)`
 - Appending 'J' or 'j' to a number yields a complex number
 - `my_complex_num=5+9J`
- The constructors `int()`, `long()`, `float()`, and `complex()` can be used to produce numbers of a specific type.

LAB – 2

NUMERIC TYPES

Exercise on Numeric Types

- Using python interpreter try the following

```
17 / 3      # int / int -> int
17 / 3.0    # int / float -> float
17 // 3.0   # explicit floor division discards the fractional part
17 % 3      # the % operator returns the remainder of the division
5 * 3 + 2
5 ** 2      # 5 squared
2 ** 7      # 2 to the power of 7
```

- Try the following methods (type **help**(method name) for help):
 - `abs(x)` # try it with a complex number
 - `divmod(x, y)`
 - `pow(x, y)`
 - `math.floor(x)` # import math to use
 - `math.ceil(x)` # import math to use



LAB – 2

NUMERIC TYPES

Sequence Types

Strings

- Python has a built-in string class named "**str**" with many handy features.
- String literals can be enclosed by either double or single quotes (**"Hello"** or **'Hello'**).
- Python strings are "**immutable**" which means they cannot be changed after they are created (Java strings also use this immutable style).
- Since strings can't be changed, we construct ***new*** strings as we go to represent computed values. So for example the expression (**'hello'** + **'there'**) takes in the **2** strings 'hello' and 'there' and builds a **new** string **'hellothere'**.

Sequence Types

Strings

- Python uses **zero-based** indexing, so if `mystr = 'hello'`, then `mystr[1]` is `'e'`. If the index is out of bounds for the string, Python raises an error.
- The `len(mystr)` function returns the length of a string.
- The `[]` syntax and the `len()` function actually work on any sequence type -- strings, lists, etc.
- The `'+'` operator can concatenate two strings and the `'*'` is the repeat operator.

```
s = 'hi'
print s + ' there' ## hi there
print '-' * 5 # -----
pi = 3.14
##text = 'The value of pi is ' + pi    ## NO, does not work
text = 'The value of pi is ' + str(pi) ## yes
```

Sequence Types

Strings

- The "**print**" operator prints out one or more python items followed by a newline (leave a trailing comma at the end of the items to inhibit the newline).
- A "**raw**" string literal is prefixed by an '**r**' and passes all the chars through without special treatment of backslashes

```
raw = r'this\n\t and that'
print raw    ## this\t\n and that
not_raw='this\n\t and that'
print not_raw ## this
               ##  and that
```

Sequence Types

Strings

- **String Slices:**

- The "slice" syntax is a handy way to refer to sub-parts of sequences -- typically strings and lists. The slice `s[start:end]` is the elements beginning at start and extending up to but not including end. Suppose we have `s = "Hello"`

 H e l l o
 0 1 2 3 4
 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1

- `s[1:4]` is 'ell' -- chars starting at index 1 and extending up to but not including index 4
- `s[1:]` is 'ello' -- omitting either index defaults to the start or end of the string

Sequence Types

Strings

- String Slices:

 H e l l o
 0 1 2 3 4
 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1

- `s[:]` is 'Hello' -- omitting both always gives us a copy of the whole thing (this is the pythonic way to copy a sequence like a string or list)
- `s[1:100]` is 'ello' -- an index that is too big is truncated down to the string length
- `s[-1]` is 'o' -- last char (1st from the end)
- `s[:-3]` is 'He' -- going up to but not including the last 3 chars.
- `s[-3:]` is 'llo' -- starting with the 3rd char from the end and extending to the end of the string.

Sequence Types

Strings

- String % :
 - Python has a **printf()-like** facility to put together a string. The **%** operator takes a printf-type format string on the left (**%d** int, **%s** string, **%f/%g** floating point), and the matching values in a tuple on the right (a tuple is made of values separated by commas, typically grouped inside parenthesis)

```
# % operator
number = 1
string = "ITlans"
text = "Hello %s this is an integer %d" % (string, number)
```

Sequence Types

Strings

- **String Methods:**

- **s.lower()**, **s.upper()** -- returns the lowercase or uppercase version of the string
- **s.strip()** -- returns a string with whitespace removed from the start and end
- **s.isalpha()/s.isdigit()/s.isspace()...** -- tests if all the string chars are in the various character classes
- **s.startswith('other')**, **s.endswith('other')** -- tests if the string starts or ends with the given other string
- **s.find('other')** -- searches for the given other string (not a regular expression) within s, and returns the first index where it begins or -1 if not found

Sequence Types

Strings

- **String Methods:**

- **s.replace**('old', 'new') -- returns a string where all occurrences of 'old' have been replaced by 'new'
- **s.split**('delim') -- returns a list of substrings separated by the given delimiter. The delimiter is not a regular expression, it's just text. 'aaa,bbb,ccc'.split(',') -> ['aaa', 'bbb', 'ccc']. As a convenient special case s.split() (with no arguments) splits on all whitespace chars.
- **s.join**(list) -- opposite of split(), joins the elements in the given list together using the string as the delimiter. e.g. '---'.join(['aaa', 'bbb', 'ccc']) -> aaa---bbb---ccc



Self-Study

UNICODE & ENCODING

Sequence Types

Unicode Strings

- In 1968, the **A**merican **S**tandard **C**ode for Information Interchange, better known by its acronym **ASCII**, was standardized. ASCII defined numeric codes for various characters, with the numeric values running from 0 to 127. For example, the lowercase letter 'a' is assigned 97 as its code value.
- ASCII only defined unaccented characters. There was an 'e', but no 'é' or 'í'. This meant that languages which required accented characters couldn't be faithfully represented in ASCII.
- In the 1980s, almost all personal computers were **8-bit**, meaning that bytes could hold values ranging from **0** to **255**. Some machines assigned values between **128** and **255** to accented characters.`

ASCII TABLE

Decimal	Hex	Char	Decimal	Hex	Char	Decimal	Hex	Char	Decimal	Hex	Char
0	0	[NULL]	32	20	[SPACE]	64	40	@	96	60	`
1	1	[START OF HEADING]	33	21	!	65	41	A	97	61	a
2	2	[START OF TEXT]	34	22	"	66	42	B	98	62	b
3	3	[END OF TEXT]	35	23	#	67	43	C	99	63	c
4	4	[END OF TRANSMISSION]	36	24	\$	68	44	D	100	64	d
5	5	[ENQUIRY]	37	25	%	69	45	E	101	65	e
6	6	[ACKNOWLEDGE]	38	26	&	70	46	F	102	66	f
7	7	[BELL]	39	27	'	71	47	G	103	67	g
8	8	[BACKSPACE]	40	28	(72	48	H	104	68	h
9	9	[HORIZONTAL TAB]	41	29)	73	49	I	105	69	i
10	A	[LINE FEED]	42	2A	*	74	4A	J	106	6A	j
11	B	[VERTICAL TAB]	43	2B	+	75	4B	K	107	6B	k
12	C	[FORM FEED]	44	2C	,	76	4C	L	108	6C	l
13	D	[CARRIAGE RETURN]	45	2D	-	77	4D	M	109	6D	m
14	E	[SHIFT OUT]	46	2E	.	78	4E	N	110	6E	n
15	F	[SHIFT IN]	47	2F	/	79	4F	O	111	6F	o
16	10	[DATA LINK ESCAPE]	48	30	0	80	50	P	112	70	p
17	11	[DEVICE CONTROL 1]	49	31	1	81	51	Q	113	71	q
18	12	[DEVICE CONTROL 2]	50	32	2	82	52	R	114	72	r
19	13	[DEVICE CONTROL 3]	51	33	3	83	53	S	115	73	s
20	14	[DEVICE CONTROL 4]	52	34	4	84	54	T	116	74	t
21	15	[NEGATIVE ACKNOWLEDGE]	53	35	5	85	55	U	117	75	u
22	16	[SYNCHRONOUS IDLE]	54	36	6	86	56	V	118	76	v
23	17	[ENG OF TRANS. BLOCK]	55	37	7	87	57	W	119	77	w
24	18	[CANCEL]	56	38	8	88	58	X	120	78	x
25	19	[END OF MEDIUM]	57	39	9	89	59	Y	121	79	y
26	1A	[SUBSTITUTE]	58	3A	:	90	5A	Z	122	7A	z
27	1B	[ESCAPE]	59	3B	;	91	5B	[123	7B	{
28	1C	[FILE SEPARATOR]	60	3C	<	92	5C	\	124	7C	
29	1D	[GROUP SEPARATOR]	61	3D	=	93	5D]	125	7D	}
30	1E	[RECORD SEPARATOR]	62	3E	>	94	5E	^	126	7E	~
31	1F	[UNIT SEPARATOR]	63	3F	?	95	5F	_	127	7F	[DEL]

Sequence Types

Unicode Strings

- **Unicode** started out using **16-bit** characters instead of 8-bit characters. 16 bits means you have $2^{16} = 65,536$ distinct values available, making it possible to represent many different characters from many different alphabets.
- Modern Unicode specification uses a wider range of codes, **0x10ffff** in base-16 (=1114111 code).
- The Unicode standard describes how characters are represented by **code points**. A code point is an integer value, usually denoted in base 16. In the standard, a code point is written using the notation **U+12ca** to mean the character with value 0x12ca (4810 decimal).
- Unicode table:
 - <http://unicode-table.com/en/>

Sequence Types

Unicode Strings

- Unicode strings are expressed as instances of the **unicode** type.

```
unicode('abcdef') #u'abcdef'  
s = unicode('abcdef')  
type(s) #<type 'unicode'>
```

- Unicode literals are written as strings prefixed with the **'u'** or **'U'** character: **u'abcdefghijkl'**.
- Specific code points can be written using the **\u** escape sequence, which is followed by four hex digits giving the code point, **\U** escape sequence is similar, but expects 8 hex digits, not 4. The **\x** only takes two hex digits.

```
ustring = u'A unicode \u018e string \xf1'  
ustring #u'A unicode \u018e string \xf1'
```

Sequence Types

Unicode Strings

- The built-in **print** does not work fully with unicode strings. You can `encode()` first to print in utf-8.

```
>>> ustring=u"\u00c0" #code point for 'À'
>>> print(ustring)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "C:\Python27\lib\encodings\cp720.py", line 14, in encode
    return codecs.charmap_encode(input,errors,encoding_table)
UnicodeEncodeError: 'charmap' codec can't encode character u'\xc0'
in position 0
: character maps to <undefined>
```

Unicode & Encoding

- To summarize the previous section:
 - Unicode string is a sequence of code points, which are numbers from 0 to 0x10ffff.
 - This sequence needs to be represented as a set of bytes (meaning, values from 0-255) in memory. The rules for translating a Unicode string into a sequence of bytes are called an **encoding**.
 - Here is a list of encodings that python support:
 - <https://docs.python.org/2.7/library/codecs.html#standard-encodings>

Unicode & Encoding

- The first encoding you might think of is an **array** of **32-bit** integers. In this representation, the string “**Python**” would look like this:

P				y				t				h				o				n			
0x50	00	00	00	79	00	00	00	74	00	00	00	68	00	00	00	6f	00	00	00	6e	00	00	00
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23

- This representation is straightforward but using it presents a number of problems :
 - It's not portable; different processors order the bytes differently.
 - It's very wasteful of space. In most texts, the majority of the code points are less than 127, or less than 255. The above string takes 24 bytes compared to the 6 bytes needed for an ASCII representation.

Unicode & Encoding

- Encodings don't have to handle every possible Unicode character, and most encodings don't. For example, Python's **default** encoding is the '**ascii**' encoding. The rules for converting a Unicode string into the ASCII encoding are simple; for each code point:
 - If the code point is < 128 , each byte is the same as the value of the code point.
 - If the code point is 128 or greater, the Unicode string can't be represented in this encoding. (Python raises a **UnicodeEncodeError** exception in this case.)
- **UTF-8** is one of the most commonly used encodings. UTF stands for "**Unicode Transformation Format**", and the '**8**' means that **8-bit** numbers are used in the encoding. UTF-8 uses the following rules:
 - If the code point is < 128 , it's represented by the corresponding byte value.
 - If the code point is between 128 and $0x7ff$, it's turned into two byte values between 128 and 255.
 - Code points $> 0x7ff$ are turned into three- or four-byte sequences, where each byte of the sequence is between 128 and 255.

Unicode & Encoding

- To convert a unicode string to bytes with an encoding such as 'utf-8', call the `encode('utf-8')` method on the unicode string. Going the other direction, the `unicode(s, 'utf-8')` function converts encoded plain bytes to a unicode string.

```
ustring = u'A unicode \u018e string \xf1'  
s = ustring.encode('utf-8')  
s # 'A unicode \xc6\x8e string \xc3\xb1' # bytes of utf-8 encoding  
t = unicode(s, 'utf-8') # Convert bytes back to a unicode string  
t == ustring # It's the same as the original, yay!
```

Unicode & Encoding

- For more information about Unicode and Encoding:
 - <https://docs.python.org/2.7/howto/unicode.html?highlight=unicode>



Self-Study

UNICODE & ENCODING

Conditional Statements

If Elif Else

- Python does not use { } to enclose blocks of code for if/loops/function etc.. Instead, Python uses the colon (:) and indentation/whitespace to group statements.
- Python has the usual comparison operations: ==, !=, <, <=, >, >=, <>.



Conditional Statements

If Elif Else

- E.x. A policeman pulling over a speeder -- notice how each block of then/else statements starts with a **:** and the statements are grouped by their **indentation**:

```
if speed >= 80:
    print 'License and registration please'
    if mood == 'terrible' or speed >= 100:
        print 'You have the right to remain silent.'
    elif mood == 'bad' or speed >= 90:
        print "I'm going to have to write you a ticket."
        write_ticket()
    else:
        print "Let's try to keep it under 80 ok?"
```

Conditional Statements

If Elif Else

- If there will be an empty body for a condition it must be filled with the keyword **None**:

- **Not Correct:**

```
if institute != 'ITI':  
    #do nothing  
else:  
    print "Long Live ITI"
```

- **Correct:**

```
if institute != 'ITI':  
    None  
else:  
    print "Long Live ITI"
```


Truth Value

- Any object can be tested for truth value, for use in an **if** or **while** condition or as operand of the **Boolean operations** (and, or, not **instead of** &&, ||, !)
- The following values are considered False as a truthiness value:
 - None
 - False
 - zero of any numeric type, for example, 0, 0L, 0.0, 0j.
 - any empty sequence, for example, ' ', (), [].
 - any empty mapping, for example, {}.
- All other values are considered True as a truthiness value.

Truth Value

- Example on False truth value:

```
def foo():  
    x=None  
    if x:  
        print 'True'  
    else:  
        print 'False' #prints False
```

```
def foo():  
    x=[ ]  
    if x:  
        print 'True'  
    else:  
        print 'False' #prints False
```

- Example on True truth value:

```
def foo():  
    x=6  
    if x:  
        print 'True'  
    else:  
        print 'False' #prints True
```

```
def foo():  
    x=(1,2,3)  
    if x:  
        print 'True'  
    else:  
        print 'False' #prints True
```

Truth Value

- Example on False truth value (**Caution**):

```
def foo():  
    x=None  
    if x == False:  
        print 'True'  
    else:  
        print 'False' #prints False
```

```
def foo():  
    x=[ ]  
    if x == False:  
        print 'True'  
    else:  
        print 'False' #prints False
```

- Example on True truth value (**Caution**):

```
def foo():  
    x=6  
    if x == True:  
        print 'True'  
    else:  
        print 'False' #prints False
```

```
def foo():  
    x=(1,2,3)  
    if x == True:  
        print 'True'  
    else:  
        print 'False' #prints False
```

LAB – 3

STRINGS LAB

Strings Lab

- Please download the lab from the following link:
 - <https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/0B6Hf8UvSSqTXZDRHSVJuLVpkVmM?usp=sharing>
- Complete the script **string1.py** in **45** mins and send your solution on the following email:
 - Omar.Soliman@imtSchool.com with the following subject :
 - If you are from ITI-Smart track ES:
 - [ITI-SV-39] [PY-string1] yourfullname
 - If you are from ITI-Nasr City track ES:
 - [ITI-NC-39] [PY-string1] yourfullname
- Complete the script **string2.py** and send it after **2** days max from the session and send it.
 - Use the same subject header as above but replace [PY-string1] with [PY-string2]

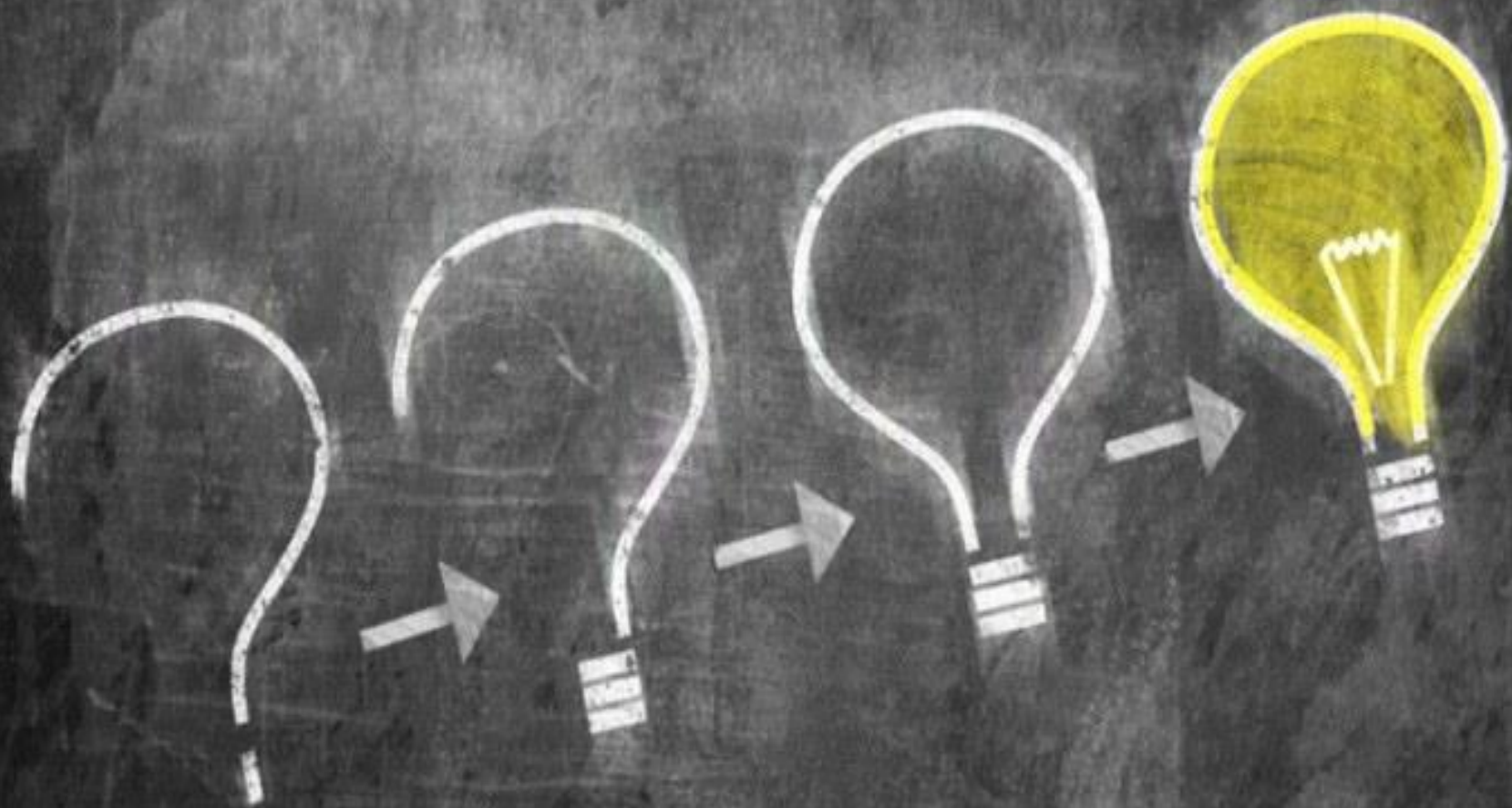


LAB – 3

STRINGS LAB

What's Next ?

- Get Certified With:
 - <https://www.edx.org/course/learn-program-using-python-utarlingtonx-cse1309x>
 - <https://www.coursera.org/course/interactivepython1>
 - <https://www.coursera.org/course/interactivepython2>
- More Interesting References:
 - Python Cookbook, 2nd Edition
 - <https://automatetheboringstuff.com/>
 - <http://code.activestate.com/recipes/langs/>





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