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EN19CS301110

Assignment 2

Ques1. Explain list, set, tuple, string?

Ans1. List: The simplest data structure in Python and is used to store a list of values. Lists are collections of items (strings, integers, or even other lists).

Each item in the list has an assigned index value. Lists are enclosed in [].

Each item in a list is separated by a comma. Unlike strings, lists are mutable, which means they can be changed. Lists hold a sequence of values (just like strings can hold a sequence of characters).

For example: list1 = ['one', 2, 3, 4, 'nishant']

Sets: Sets are unordered. Set elements are unique. Duplicate elements are not allowed.

A set itself may be modified, but the elements contained in the set must be of an immutable type. Sets can be used to perform mathematical set operations like union, intersection, symmetric difference etc.

For example: x = set(['foo', 'bar', 'baz', 'foo', 'qux'])

Tuples: A tuple is a sequence of values much like a list. Th

values stored in a tuple can be any type, and they are indexed by integers. The important difference is that tuples are immutable. That we can't change the elements of tuple once it is assigned whereas in the list, elements can be changed.

For example: `t = (1, 'raju', 28, 'abc')`

Strings: Strings in python are surrounded by either single quotation marks, or double quotation marks. 'hello' is the same as "hello". You can display a string literal with the `print()` function. Like many other popular programming languages, strings in Python are arrays of bytes representing unicode characters. However, Python does not have a character data type, a single character is simply a string with a length of 1. Square brackets can be used to access elements of the string.

For example: `a = "Hello, World!"`

Ques2. Explain all method of above mentioned data types?

Ans2.

List:

Method Description

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

Set:

Method Description

- add() Adds an element to the set
- clear() Removes all the elements from the set

`copy()` Returns a copy of the set

`difference()` Returns a set containing the difference between two or more sets

`difference_update()` Removes the items in this set that are also included in another, specified set

`discard()` Remove the specified item

`intersection()` Returns a set, that is the intersection of two other sets

`intersection_update()` Removes the items in this set that are not present in other, specified set(s)

`isdisjoint()` Returns whether two sets have a intersection or not

`issubset()` Returns whether another set contains this set or not

`issuperset()` Returns whether this set contains another set or not

`pop()` Removes an element from the set

`remove()` Removes the specified element

`Symmetric_difference()` Returns a set with the symmetric differences of two sets

`symmetric_difference_update()` inserts the symmetric differences from this set and another

`union()` Return a set containing the union of sets

`update()` Update the set with the union of this set and others

Tuples:

Method Description

`count()` Returns the number of times a specified value occurs in a tuple

`index()` Searches the tuple for a specified value and returns the position of where it was found

Strings:

Method Description

`capitalize()` Converts the first character to upper case

`casefold()` Converts string into lower case

`center()` Returns a centered string

`count()` Returns the number of times a specified value occurs in a string

`encode()` Returns an encoded version of the string

`endswith()` Returns true if the string ends with the specified value

`expandtabs()` Sets the tab size of the string

`find()` Searches the string for a specified value and returns the position of where it was found

`format()` Formats specified values in a string

`format_map()` Formats specified values in a string

`index()` Searches the string for a specified value and returns the position of where it was found

`isalnum()` Returns True if all characters in the string are alphanumeric

`isalpha()` Returns True if all characters in the string are in the alphabet

`isdecimal()` Returns True if all characters in the string are decimals

`isdigit()` Returns True if all characters in the string are digits

`isidentifier()` Returns True if the string is an identifier

`islower()` Returns True if all characters in the string are

lower case

isnumeric() Returns True if all characters in the string are numeric

isprintable() Returns True if all characters in the string are printable

isspace() Returns True if all characters in the string are whitespaces

istitle() Returns True if the string follows the rules of a title

isupper() Returns True if all characters in the string are upper case

join() Joins the elements of an iterable to the end of the string

ljust() Returns a left justified version of the string

lower() Converts a string into lower case

lstrip() Returns a left trim version of the string

maketrans() Returns a translation table to be used in translations

partition() Returns a tuple where the string is parted into three parts

`replace()` Returns a string where a specified value is replaced with a specified value

`rfind()` Searches the string for a specified value and returns the last position of where it was found

`rindex()` Searches the string for a specified value and returns the last position of where it was found

`rjust()` Returns a right justified version of the string

`rpartition()` Returns a tuple where the string is parted into three parts

`rsplit()` Splits the string at the specified separator, and returns a list

`rstrip()` Returns a right trim version of the string

`split()` Splits the string at the specified separator, and returns a list

`splitlines()` Splits the string at line breaks and returns a list

`startswith()` Returns true if the string starts with the specified value

`strip()` Returns a trimmed version of the string

`swapcase()` Swaps cases, lower case becomes upper case an

Vice Versa

title() Converts the first character of each word to upper case

translate() Returns a translated string

upper() Converts a string into upper case

zfill() Fills the string with a specified number of 0 values at the beginning

Ques3. Explain indexing and slicing in each?

"Indexing" means referring to an element of an iterable by its position within the iterable. "Slicing" means getting a subset of elements from an iterable based on their indices.

For example:

```
my_list = [ _ for _ in 'abcdefghijkl']
```

```
my_list
```

```
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f', 'g', 'h', 'i']
```

Indexing

To retrieve an element of the list, we use the index operator

or ([]):

my_list[0]

3

Lists are "zero indexed", so [0] returns the zero-th (i.e. the left-most) item in the list, and [1] returns the one-th item (i.e. one item to the right of the zero-th item). Since there are 9 elements in our list ([0] through [8]), attempting to access my_list[9] throws an IndexError: list index out of range, since it is actually trying to get the tenth element, and there isn't one.

Python also allows you to index from the end of the list using a negative number, where [-1] returns the last element. This is super-useful since it means you don't have to programmatically find out the length of the iterable in order to work with elements at the end of it. The indices and reverse indices of my_list are as follows:

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

`'a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f', 'g', 'h', 'i'`

↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑
-9 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1

Slicing

A slice is a subset of list elements. In the case of lists, a single slice will always be of contiguous elements. Slice notation takes the form

`my_list[start:stop:stepover]`

where start is the index of the first element to include, and stop is the index of the item to stop at without including it in the slice. So `my_list[1:5]` returns `['b', 'c', 'd', 'e']`:

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
x ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ x x x x
`['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f', 'g', 'h', 'i']`

Ques4. Explain `str()`, `globals()`, `locals()`, `vars()`, `eval()`, `exec()`, `execfile()`, `repr()`, `ascii()`.

Ans4.

The `str()` function returns the string version of the give

object.

The syntax of str() is:

```
str(object, encoding='utf-8', errors='strict')
```

str() Parameters

The str() method takes three parameters:

object - The object whose string representation is to be returned. If not provided, returns the empty string

encoding - Encoding of the given object. Defaults to UTF-8 when not provided.

errors - Response when decoding fails. Defaults to 'strict'.

There are six types of errors:

strict - default response which raises a UnicodeDecodeError exception on failure

ignore - ignores the unencodable Unicode from the result

replace - replaces the unencodable Unicode to a question mark

xmlcharrefreplace - inserts XML character reference instead of unencodable Unicode

backslashreplace - inserts a \uNNNN escape sequence instead of unencodable Unicode

`amereplace` - inserts a `\N{...}` escape sequence instead of unencodable Unicode

Return value from `str()`

The `str()` method returns a string, which is considered an informal or nicely printable representation of the given object.

`globals()`

Return a dictionary representing the current global symbol table. This is always the dictionary of the current module (inside a function or method, this is the module where it is defined, not the module from which it is called).

`locals()`

Update and return a dictionary representing the current local symbol table. Free variables are returned by `locals()` when it is called in function blocks, but not in class blocks. Note that at the module level, `locals()` and `globals()` are the same dictionary.

`ars()`

Return the `__dict__` attribute for a module, class, instance, or any other object with a `__dict__` attribute. Objects such as modules and instances have an updateable `__dict__` attribute; however, other objects may have write restrictions on their `__dict__` attributes (for example, classes use a `types.MappingProxyType` to prevent direct dictionary updates).

Without an argument, `vars()` acts like `locals()`. Note, the `locals` dictionary is only useful for reads since updates to the `locals` dictionary are ignored. A `TypeError` exception is raised if an object is specified but it doesn't have a `__dict__` attribute (for example, if its class defines the `__slots__` attribute).

`eval()`

The arguments are a string and optional `globals` and `locals`. If provided, `globals` must be a dictionary. If provided, `locals` can be any mapping object. The `expression` argument is parsed and evaluated as a Python expression (technically

speaking, a condition list) using the `globals` and `locals` dictionaries as `global` and `local` namespace. If the `globals` dictionary is present and does not contain a value for the key `__builtins__`, a reference to the dictionary of the built-in module `builtins` is inserted under that key before expression is parsed. This means that expression normally has full access to the standard `builtins` module and restricted environments are propagated. If the `locals` dictionary is omitted it defaults to the `globals` dictionary. If both dictionaries are omitted, the expression is executed with the `globals` and `locals` in the environment where `eval()` is called. Note, `eval()` does not have access to the nested scopes (non-`locals`) in the enclosing environment. The return value is the result of the evaluated expression. Syntax errors are reported as exceptions. Example:

```
>>>  
x = 1  
eval('x+1')  
2
```

This function can also be used to execute arbitrary code objects (such as those created by `compile()`). In this case pass a code object instead of a string. If the code object has been compiled with 'exec' as the mode argument, `eval()`'s return value will be `None`.

Hints: dynamic execution of statements is supported by the `exec()` function. The `globals()` and `locals()` functions returns the current global and local dictionary, respectively, which may be useful to pass around for use by `eval()` or `exec()`. See `ast.literal_eval()` for a function that can safely evaluate strings with expressions containing only literals. Raises an auditing event `exec` with the code object as the argument. Code compilation events may also be raised.

`exec()`

This function supports dynamic execution of Python code. Object must be either a string or a code object. If it is a string, the string is parsed as a suite of Python statements which is then executed (unless a syntax error occurs)

1 If it is a code object, it is simply executed. In all cases, the code that's executed is expected to be valid as file input (see the section "File input" in the Reference Manual). Be aware that the nonlocal, yield, and return statements may not be used outside of function definitions even within the context of code passed to the exec() function. The return value is None. In all cases, if the optional parts are omitted, the code is executed in the current scope. If only globals is provided, it must be a dictionary (and not a subclass of dictionary), which will be used for both the global and the local variables. If globals and locals are given, they are used for the global and local variables, respectively. If provided, locals can be any mapping object. Remember that at module level, globals and locals are the same dictionary. If exec gets two separate objects as globals and locals, the code will be executed as if it were embedded in a class definition. If the globals dictionary does not contain a value for the key __builtins__, a reference to the dictionary of the builtin module builtins is inserted under that key. That way you can control what built

s are available to the executed code by inserting your own `__builtins__` dictionary into `globals` before passing it to `exec()`. Raises an auditing event `exec` with the `code` object as the argument. Code compilation events may also be raised.

`execfile()`

A file to be parsed and evaluated as a sequence of Python statements (similarly to a module). Any mapping object providing global namespace. Any mapping object providing local namespace.

`repr(object)`

Return a string containing a printable representation of an object. For many types, this function makes an attempt to return a string that would yield an object with the same value when passed to `eval()`, otherwise the representation is a string enclosed in angle brackets that contains the name of the type of the object together with additional information often including the name and address of

the object. A class can control what this function returns for its instances by defining a `__repr__()` method.

`ascii(object)`

As `repr()`, return a string containing a printable representation of an object, but escape the non-ASCII characters in the string returned by `repr()` using `\x`, `\u` or `\U` escapes. This generates a string similar to that returned by `repr()` in Python 2.

Ques5. Explain looping and control flow with program?

Ans5. Python programming language provides following types of loops to handle looping requirements.

While Loop

Syntax :

```
while expression:  
    statement(s)
```

In Python, all the statements indented by the same number

of character spaces after a programming construct are considered to be part of a single block of code. Python uses indentation as its method of grouping statements.

```
# prints Hello Geek 3 Times
count = 0
while (count < 3):
    count = count+1
    print("Hello Geek")
```

Output:

```
Hello Geek
Hello Geek
Hello Geek
```

See this for an example where while loop is used for iterators. As mentioned in the article, it is not recommended to use while loop for iterators in python.

For in Loop

In Python, there is no C style for loop, i.e., `for (i=0; i<n; i++)`. There is "for in" loop which is similar to for each loop in other languages.

Syntax:

```
for iterator_var in sequence:  
    statements(s)
```

It can be used to iterate over iterators and a range.

```
# Iterating over a list  
print("List Iteration")  
l = ["geeks", "for", "geeks"]  
for i in l:  
    print(i)
```

Iterating over a tuple (immutable)

```
print("\nTuple Iteration")
t = ("geeks", "for", "geeks")
for i in t:
    print(i)
```

Iterating over a String

```
print("\nString Iteration")
s = "Geeks"
for i in s:
    print(i)
```

Iterating over dictionary

```
print("\nDictionary Iteration")
d = dict()
d['xyz'] = 123
d['abc'] = 345
for i in d:
    print("%s %d" %(i, d[i]))
```

Output:

List Iteration

geeks
for
geeks

Tuple Iteration

geeks
for
geeks

String Iteration

G
e
e
k
s

Dictionary Iteration

xyz 123
abc 345

We can use `for` in `loop` for user defined iterators. See this for example.

Nested Loops

Python programming language allows to use one loop inside another loop. Following section shows few examples to illustrate the concept.

Syntax:

```
for iterator_var in sequence:  
    for iterator_var in sequence:  
        statements(s)  
        statements(s)
```

The syntax for a nested while loop statement in Python programming language is as follows:

```
while expression:
```

while expression:

 statement(s)

 statement(s)

A final note on loop nesting is that we can put any type of loop inside of any other type of loop. For example a for loop can be inside a while loop or vice versa.

```
from __future__ import print_function
```

```
for i in range(1, 5):
```

```
    for j in range(i):
```

```
        print(i, end=' ')
```

```
    print()
```

Output:

1

2 2

3 3 3

4 4 4 4

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.

Continue Statement

It returns the control to the beginning of the loop.

```
# Prints all letters except 'e' and 's'  
for letter in 'geeksforgeeks':
```

```
    if letter == 'e' or letter == 's':
```

```
        continue
```

```
        print 'Current Letter :', letter
```

```
var = 10
```

Output:

```
Current Letter : g
```

```
Current Letter : k
```

```
Current Letter : f
```

```
Current Letter : o
```

urrent Letter : r

Current Letter : g

Current Letter : k

Break Statement

It brings control out of the loop

for letter in 'geeksforgeeks':

```
# break the loop as soon it sees 'e'
```

```
# or 's'
```

```
if letter == 'e' or letter == 's':
```

```
    break
```

```
print 'Current Letter :', letter
```

Output:

Current Letter : e

Pass Statement

We use pass statement to write empty loops. Pass is also

ed for empty control statement, function and classes.

```
# An empty loop  
for letter in 'geeksforgeeks':  
    pass  
print 'Last Letter :', letter  
Output:
```

Last Letter : s