Breve introdução ao python básica Foco apenas nos tipos de dados, built-ins, funções, estruturas de controle

Curso será feito usado Jupyter Notebook Na próxima aula falarei sobre as bibliotecas que utilizaremos

Python:

- Estrutura básica
- Estruturas de controle
- Loops
- Importanto módulos
- Tipos de dados

Antes, mostrar Jupyter

Estrutura básica

- Linguagem de tipagem dinâmica
 - Tipo de dado definido na atribuição
 - Interpretador que infere o tipo do dado
- · Tipagem forte
 - interpretador avalia as expressões e não faz coerções automáticas entre tipos não compatíveis
- Blocos de código definidos pelo aninhamento
- Built-in help()
 - operadores in, is ...
- Definição de função (lambda)

```
In [2]: | i, j, k = 10, "Rafael", "Pedro"
        print(i)
        print(j)
        print("O primeiro resultado é: ", j + k)
        print("0 segundo resultado é: ", i + j)
        10
        Rafael
        O primeiro resultado é: RafaelPedro
                                                   Traceback (most recent call last)
        <ipython-input-2-af20671790f7> in <module>()
              3 print(j)
              4 print("O primeiro resultado é: ", j + k)
         ----> 5 print("O segundo resultado é: ", i + j)
        TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'int' and 'str'
In [3]: print("O segundo resultado é: ", str(i) + j)
        O segundo resultado é: 10Rafael
In [4]:
        condicao = True
        if condicao:
            print('Bloco do if definido pelo aninhamento')
        print('Esse print está fora do if')
        Bloco do if definido pelo aninhamento
        Esse print está fora do if
```

```
In [5]: def funcao():
            print('Dentro da função')
        print('Fora da função')
        funcao()
        Fora da função
        Dentro da função
In [6]: def funcao():
            print('Dentro da função 1')
           print('Dentro da função 2')
        print('Fora da função')
        funcao()
          File "<ipython-input-6-40655b4eaecb>", line 3
            print('Dentro da função 2')
        IndentationError: unindent does not match any outer indentation level
In [7]: def funcao():
            print('Dentro da função 1')
            print('Dentro da função 2')
        print('Fora da função 1')
            print('Fora da função 2')
        funcao()
          File "<ipython-input-7-26ee16a04696>", line 5
            print('Fora da função 2')
        IndentationError: unexpected indent
```

Introducao	nython
muuuuu	Python

 $file: ///home/daniel/Downloads/Introducao_pytho...$

Tn	[8]•	help({})
T11	[0].	nech([])

```
Help on dict object:
class dict(object)
   dict() -> new empty dictionary
    dict(mapping) -> new dictionary initialized from a mapping object's
        (key, value) pairs
    dict(iterable) -> new dictionary initialized as if via:
        d = \{\}
        for k, v in iterable:
           d[k] = v
   dict(**kwargs) -> new dictionary initialized with the name=value pairs
        in the keyword argument list. For example: dict(one=1, two=2)
   Methods defined here:
    __contains__(self, key, /)
       True \overline{\mathsf{if}} D has a key k, else False.
    __delitem__(self, key, /)
       Delete self[key].
    __eq__(self, value, /)
       Return self==value.
    __ge__(self, value, /)
        Return self>=value.
    __getattribute__(self, name, /)
        Return getattr(self, name).
    \__{getitem}_{\_}(\dots)
       x. getitem (y) \iff x[y]
    __gt__(self, value, /)
        Return self>value.
    __init__(self, /, *args, **kwargs)
       Initialize self. See help(type(self)) for accurate signature.
    __iter__(self, /)
       Implement iter(self).
    __le__(self, value, /)
        Return self<=value.
    __len__(self, /)
       Return len(self).
    __lt__(self, value, /)
        Return self<value.
     ne (self, value, /)
       Return self!=value.
     new (*args, **kwargs) from builtins.type
        Create and return a new object. See help(type) for accurate signatur
e.
    __repr__(self, /)
       Return repr(self).
    __setitem__(self, key, value, /)
       Set self[key] to value.
   __sizeof__(...)
        D.__sizeof__() -> size of D in memory, in bytes
   clear(...)
                                   -- -
```

In [9]: a = 10 help(a)

```
Help on int object:
class int(object)
  int(x=0) \rightarrow integer
   int(x, base=10) -> integer
   Convert a number or string to an integer, or return 0 if no arguments
   are given. If x is a number, return x.__int__(). For floating point
   numbers, this truncates towards zero.
   If x is not a number or if base is given, then x must be a string,
   bytes, or bytearray instance representing an integer literal in the
   given base. The literal can be preceded by '+' or '-' and be surrounded
   by whitespace. The base defaults to 10. Valid bases are 0 and 2-36.
   Base 0 means to interpret the base from the string as an integer literal.
   >>> int('0b100', base=0)
   Methods defined here:
    __abs__(self, /)
       abs(self)
    __add__(self, value, /)
       Return self+value.
    and (self, value, /)
       Return self&value.
   __bool__(self, /)
self != 0
    ceil (...)
       Ceiling of an Integral returns itself.
    __divmod__(self, value, /)
       Return divmod(self, value).
     _eq__(self, value, /)
        Return self==value.
   __float__(self, /)
    float(self)
   __floor__(...)
        Flooring an Integral returns itself.
    __floordiv__(self, value, /)
        Return self//value.
    __format__(...)
        default object formatter
    __ge__(self, value, /)
        Return self>=value.
    getattribute (self, name, /)
        Return getattr(self, name).
    __getnewargs__(...)
     _gt__(self, value, /)
        Return self>value.
   __hash__(self, /)
        Return hash(self).
    __index__(self, /)
                                                  _ _ .
```

6 of 31

Definição de função

```
In [10]: def nome funcao():
             pass
In [11]: def f1(p1, p2, p3=10):
              print(p1, p2, p3)
In [12]: f1()
         TypeError
                                                    Traceback (most recent call last)
         <ipython-input-12-b27bf7c7aafe> in <module>()
         ----> 1 f1()
         TypeError: f1() missing 2 required positional arguments: 'p1' and 'p2'
In [13]: | f1(1,2)
         1 2 10
In [14]: f1(p2=100, p1=30)
         30 100 10
In [15]: f1(p2=100, p1=30, p3=1)
         30 100 1
In [16]:
         x = 3
         def func(x):
             x = 7 # defining a local x, not changing the global one
             print(x)
         func(x)
         print(x)
         7
         3
In [17]:
         x = 1
         del x
         def func(x):
             x = 7  # defining a local x
             print(x)
         func(x=3)
         print(x)
         7
         NameError
                                                    Traceback (most recent call last)
         <ipython-input-17-68673fd165ef> in <module>()
               5
                     print(x)
               6 func(x=3)
         ----> 7 print(x)
         NameError: name 'x' is not defined
```

"Assigning an object to an argument name within a function doesn't affect the caller"

Avoid the trap! Mutable defaults One thing to be very aware of with Python is that default values are created at def time, therefore, subsequent calls to the same function will possibly behave differently according to the mutability of their default values. Let's look at an example:

```
In [20]:
         def func(a=[], b={}):
              print(a)
              print(b)
              print('#' * 12)
              a.append(len(a)) # this will affect a's default value
              b[len(a)] = len(a) # and this will affect b's one
          func()
          func()
          func()
         []
         {}
         ############
         [0]
          {1: 1}
         ############
         [0, 1]
         {1: 1, 2: 2}
         ############
```

Procurar por memoization techniques

Retornando valores de funções

Você pode retornar qualquer coisa de uma função. Um objeto, dois objetos, uma lista, uma tupla ou nenhum

```
In [21]: def func():
    pass
func() # the return of this call won't be collected. It's lost.
```

```
In [22]: a = func() # the return of this one instead is collected into `a`
print(a)
None
```

```
In [23]: def moddiv(a, b):
    return a // b, a % b
print(moddiv(20, 7))
(2, 6)
```

Funções também são objetos, logo também têm atributos

```
In [24]: def multiplication(a, b=1):
    """Return a multiplied by b. """
    return a * b

special_attributes = [
        "__doc__", __name__", "__qualname__", "__module__",
        "__defaults__", "__code__", "__globals__", "__dict__",
        "__closure__", "__annotations__", "__kwdefaults__",
]

for attribute in special_attributes[:6]:
    print(attribute, '->', getattr(multiplication, attribute))

__doc__ -> Return a multiplied by b.
    __name__ -> multiplication
    __qualname__ -> multiplication
    __defaults__ -> (1,)
    __code__ -> <code object multiplication at 0x7fbec771a780, file "<ipython-input-24-9e085e33ac57>", line 1>
```

Função anônima, lambda

Funções built-in

 $any\ , bin\ , bool\ , divmod\ , filter\ , float\ , getattr\ , id\ , int\ , len\ , list\ , min\ , print\ , set\ , tuple\ , type\ , e\ zip$

sads

Estrutura de controle

- if, elif, else
- operador ternário

```
In [230]:
             late = True
             if late:
                  print('Estou atrasado!')
             Estou atrasado!
   In [29]: late = False
             if late:
                  print('Estou atrasado!')
                  print('Ainda tenho tempo')
             Ainda tenho tempo
   In [30]: | income = 15000
             if income < 10000:
                  tax coefficient = 0.0
             elif income < 30000:
                  tax_coefficient = 0.2
             elif income < 100000:
                  tax_coefficient = 0.35
             else:
                  tax coefficient = 0.45
             print('\overline{\Implies} will pay:', income * tax_coefficient, 'in taxes')
             I will pay: 3000.0 in taxes
Operador ternário
```

```
In [31]: order total = 247 # GBP
         # classic if/else form
         if order_total > 100:
             discount = 25 # GBP
         else:
             discount = 0 # GBP
         print(order_total, discount)
         247 25
```

```
In [32]: discount = 25 if order_total > 100 else 0
         print(order_total, discount)
         247 25
```

asda

Loop

- · for, while
- break, continue

For

```
In [33]: for number in [1,2,3,4]:
             print(number)
         1
         2
         3
In [34]: for number in range(4):
             print(number)
         0
         1
         2
         3
In [35]: list(range(10)) # one value: from 0 to value (excluded)
Out[35]: [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
In [36]: list(range(3, 8)) # two values: from start to stop (excluded)
Out[36]: [3, 4, 5, 6, 7]
In [37]: list(range(-10, 10, 4)) # three values: step is added
Out[37]: [-10, -6, -2, 2, 6]
In [38]: range(5)
Out[38]: range(0, 5)
In [39]: print(range(5))
         range(0, 5)
In [40]: surnames = ['Rivest', 'Shamir', 'Adleman']
         for position in range(len(surnames)):
             print(position, surnames[position])
         0 Rivest
         1 Shamir
         2 Adleman
In [41]: surnames = ['Rivest', 'Shamir', 'Adleman']
         for position, surname in enumerate(surnames):
             print(position, surname)
         0 Rivest
         1 Shamir
         2 Adleman
In [42]: x = 3
         for i in range(5):
             x=i
         print(x)
```

While

Continue e break

Importanto módulos

There are many different ways to import objects into a namespace, but the most common ones are just two:

import module_name

and

from module_name import function_name

```
In [49]: factorial(120)
```

```
In [50]: import numpy as np
np.sqrt(10)
```

Out[50]: 3.1622776601683795

Relative imports

The imports we've seen until now are called absolute, that is to say they define the whole path of the module that we want to import, or from which we want to import an object. There is another way of importing objects into Python, which is called relative import. It's helpful in situations in which we want to rearrange the structure of large packages without having to edit sub-packages, or when we want to make a module inside a package able to import itself. Relative imports are done by adding as many leading dots in front of the module as the number of folders we need to backtrack, in order to find what we're searching for. Simply put, it is something like this:

from .mymodule import myfunc

Tipos de dados

- Todos os tipos de dados são objetos
 - Todos terão atributos e funções associados
- Mutáveis e imutáveis
- Numérico, int, float, complex (Numbers are immutable objects.)
- String
- list, tuple, set, dict, object, bool

Since everything in Python is an Object, every variable holds an object instance. When an object is initiated, it is assigned a unique object id. Its type is defined at runtime and once set can never change, however its state can be changed if it is mutable. Simple put, a mutable object can be changed after it is created, and an immutable object can't.

```
In [51]: a = [1,2,4,5,2]
# so atribuir não mostra nada na saída

In [52]: # mas se criar diretamente ou chamar o objeto será mostrado sua representaçã o em string
# chamada das funções __str__() ou __repr__()
a

Out[52]: [1, 2, 4, 5, 2]

In [53]: [46,6,3,3,5]

Out[53]: [46, 6, 3, 3, 5]

In [54]: # só funciona para o último objeto
[4,6,34,4,6]
a

Out[54]: [1, 2, 4, 5, 2]
```

```
In [55]: a.__str__()
Out[55]: '[1, 2, 4, 5, 2]'
In [56]: a.__repr__()
Out[56]: '[1, 2, 4, 5, 2]'
```

Pode ser útil sobreescrever ou criar o seu método str() ou \repr ()

Números:

Python integers have unlimited range, subject only to the available virtual memory. This means that it doesn't really matter how big a number you want to store: as long as it can fit in your computer's memory, Python will take care of it. Integer numbers can be positive, negative, and 0 (zero). They support all the basic mathematical operations, as shown in the following example:

```
In [57]: a = 12
        b = 3
        a + b
        # addition
Out[57]: 15
In [58]: b - a # subtraction
Out[58]: -9
In [59]: a // b # integer division
Out[591: 4
In [60]: a / b # true division
Out[60]: 4.0
In [61]: a * b # multiplication
Out[61]: 36
In [62]: b ** a # power operator
Out[62]: 531441
In [63]: 2 ** 1024 # a very big number, Python handles it gracefully
09631327084773224075360211201138798713933576587897688144166224928474306394741
        24377767893424865485276302219601246094119453082952085005768838150682342462881
        47391311054082723716335051068458629823994724593847971630483535632962422413721
```

The preceding code should be easy to understand. Just notice one important thing: Python has two division operators, one performs the so-called true division (/), which returns the quotient of the operands, and the other one, the so-called integer division (//), which returns the floored quotient of the operands. See how that is different for positive and negative numbers:

```
In [64]:
         # true division
Out[64]: 1.75
In [65]:
         7 // 4
         # integer division, flooring returns 1
Out[65]: 1
In [66]: -7 / 4
         # true division again, result is opposite of previous
Out[66]: -1.75
In [67]: -7 // 4
         # integer div., result not the opposite of previous
Out[67]: -2
In [68]: 10 % 3
         # remainder of the division 10 // 3
Out[68]: 1
In [69]: 10 % 4
         # remainder of the division 10 // 4
Out[69]: 2
```

This is an interesting example. If you were expecting a -1 on the last line, don't feel bad, it's just the way Python works. The result of an integer division in Python is always rounded towards minus infinity. If instead of flooring you want to truncate a number to an integer, you can use the built-in int function, like shown in the following example:

```
In [70]: int(1.75)
Out[70]: 1
In [71]: int(-1.75)
Out[71]: -1
```

Reals Real numbers, or floating point numbers, are represented in Python according to the IEEE 754 double-precision binary floating-point format, which is stored in 64 bits of information divided into three sections: sign, exponent, and mantissa

```
In [72]: import sys
    sys.float_info
Out[72]: sys.float_info(max=1.7976931348623157e+308, max_exp=1024, max_10_exp=308, min
    =2.2250738585072014e-308, min_exp=-1021, min_10_exp=-307, dig=15, mant_dig=53
    , epsilon=2.220446049250313e-16, radix=2, rounds=1)
In [73]: 2**1024
Out[73]: 17976931348623159077293051907890247336179769789423065727343008115773267580550
    09631327084773224075360211201138798713933576587897688144166224928474306394741
    24377767893424865485276302219601246094119453082952085005768838150682342462881
    47391311054082723716335051068458629823994724593847971630483535632962422413721
```

Funções round, abs

```
In [75]: print(round(10.12345, 0))
    print(round(10.12345, 1))
    print(round(10.12345, 3))

10.0
    10.1
    10.123

In [76]: print(abs(-10))
    print(abs(-10 + 20j))

10
    22.360679774997898
```

Também tem o tipo para número complexo

Boleanos

- True e False
- Subclasse dos inteiros e se comportam como 0 e 1

```
In [83]: True
Out[83]: True
In [84]: False
Out[84]: False
In [85]: int(True)
Out[85]: 1
In [86]: int(False)
Out[86]: 0
In [87]: bool(1)
Out[87]: True
In [88]: bool(0)
Out[88]: False
In [89]: bool(-34)
Out[89]: True
In [90]: not True
Out[90]: False
In [91]: not False
Out[91]: True
In [92]: True and False
Out[92]: False
In [93]: True or False
Out[93]: True
```

Sequencias imutáveis: String, tuples

Strings

TypeError: 'str' object does not support item assignment

Indexing and slicing strings

· Mesmo mecanismo para lista

```
In [96]: s = "The trouble is you think you have time."
In [97]: s[:4] # slicing, we specify only the stop position
Out[97]: 'The '
In [98]: s[4:] # slicing, we specify only the start position
Out[98]: 'trouble is you think you have time.'
In [99]: s[2:14] # slicing, both start and stop positions
Out[99]: 'e trouble is'
In [100]: s[2:14:3] # slicing, start, stop and step (every 3 chars)
Out[100]: 'erb '
In [101]: s[:] # quick way of making a copy # usa valores default de start, stop e step
Out[101]: 'The trouble is you think you have time.'
```

Funções de string

```
In [102]: st = 'abcDefg'
                print(dir(s))
                                   add
                    _eq__',
                wargs
                    le
               reduce_', '__reduce_ex_', '__repr__', '__rmud__', '__rmul__', '__setattr__'
, '__sizeof__', '__str__', '__subclasshook__', 'capitalize', 'casefold', 'cen
ter', 'count', 'encode', 'endswith', 'expandtabs', 'find', 'format', 'format_
map', 'index', 'isalnum', 'isalpha', 'isdecimal', 'isdigit', 'isidentifier',
'islower', 'isnumeric', 'isprintable', 'isspace', 'istitle', 'isupper', 'join
                ', 'ljust', 'lower', 'lstrip', 'maketrans', 'partition', 'replace', 'rfind', 'rindex', 'rjust', 'rpartition', 'rsplit', 'rstrip', 'split', 'splitlines', startswith', 'strip', 'swapcase', 'title', 'translate', 'upper', 'zfill']
In [103]: print(st.capitalize())
                print(st)
                Abcdefg
                abcDefg
In [104]: print(st.find('f'))
                print(st.find('h'))
                -1
In [105]: | print(st.replace('b', 'TT'))
                aTTcDefg
In [106]: | print(st.split('c'))
                ['ab', 'Defg']
In [107]: print(st.join(['-', '_', '*']))
                -abcDefg_abcDefg*
In [108]: print(st.upper())
                ABCDEFG
In [109]: variavel_str = 'VaRiAvEl'
                variavel_int = 10
                variavel float = 0.12654
                print('%s %d %.3f'%(variavel_str, variavel_int, variavel_float))
                VaRiAvEl 10 0.127
```

Tuples

The last immutable sequence type we're going to see is the tuple. A tuple is a sequence of arbitrary Python objects. In a tuple, items are separated by commas. They are used everywhere in Python, because they allow for patterns that are hard to reproduce in other languages. Sometimes tuples are used implicitly, for example to set up multiple variables on one line, or to allow a function to return multiple different objects (usually a function returns one object only, in many other languages), and even in the Python console, you can use tuples implicitly to print multiple elements with one single instruction. We'll see examples for all these cases:

Notice that the membership operator *in* can also be used with lists, strings, dictionaries, and in general with collection and sequence objects.

Because they are immutable, tuples can be used as keys for dictionaries (we'll see this shortly). The dict objects need keys to be immutable because if they could change, then the value they reference wouldn't be found any more (because the path to it depends on the key). If you are into data structures, you know how nice a feature this one is to have. To me, tuples are Python's built-in data that most closely represent a mathematical vector. This doesn't mean that this was the reason for which they were created though. Tuples usually contain an heterogeneous sequence of elements, while on the other hand lists are most of the times homogeneous. Moreover, tuples are normally accessed via unpacking or indexing, while lists are usually iterated over.

Sequências mutáveis

- list
- set
- dict

Listas

Lists are commonly used to store collections of homogeneous objects, but there is nothing preventing you to store heterogeneous collections as well.

```
In [117]: [] # empty list
Out[117]: []
In [118]: list() # same as []
Out[118]: []
In [119]: [1, 2, 3] # as with tuples, items are comma separated
Out[119]: [1, 2, 3]
```

```
In [120]: [x + 5 for x in [2, 3, 4]] # list comprehension
  Out[120]: [7, 8, 9]
  In [121]: list((1, 3, 5, 7, 9))
  Out[121]: [1, 3, 5, 7, 9]
  In [122]: list('hello')
  Out[122]: ['h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o']
Funções de listas
  In [123]: a = [1, 2, 1, 3]
  In [124]: a.append(13) # we can append anything at the end
  In [125]: a
  Out[125]: [1, 2, 1, 3, 13]
  In [126]: a.count(1) # how many `1` are there in the list?
  Out[126]: 2
  In [127]: a.extend([5, 7]) # extend the list by another (or sequence)
  In [128]: a
  Out[128]: [1, 2, 1, 3, 13, 5, 7]
  In [129]: a.index(13) # position of `13` in the list (0-based indexing)
  Out[129]: 4
  In [130]: | a.insert(0, 17) # insert `17` at position 0
  In [131]: a
  Out[131]: [17, 1, 2, 1, 3, 13, 5, 7]
  In [132]: a.pop() # pop (remove and return) last element
  Out[132]: 7
  In [133]: a
  Out[133]: [17, 1, 2, 1, 3, 13, 5]
  In [134]: a.pop(3) # pop element at position 3
  Out[134]: 1
  In [135]: a
  Out[135]: [17, 1, 2, 3, 13, 5]
  In [136]: | a.remove(17) # remove `17` from the list
```

```
In [137]: a
Out[137]: [1, 2, 3, 13, 5]
In [138]: a.reverse() # reverse the order of the elements in the list

In [139]: a
Out[139]: [5, 13, 3, 2, 1]

In [140]: a.sort() # sort the list

In [141]: a
Out[141]: [1, 2, 3, 5, 13]

In [142]: a.clear() # remove all elements from the list

In [143]: a
Out[143]: []
In [144]: dir(a)[-8:]
Out[144]: ['count', 'extend', 'index', 'insert', 'pop', 'remove', 'reverse', 'sort']
```

Introducao	nython
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In [145]:	haln(a)
TIL [T40].	necp(a)

```
Help on list object:
class list(object)
   list() -> new empty list
   list(iterable) -> new list initialized from iterable's items
   Methods defined here:
   __add__(self, value, /)
       Return self+value.
     _contains__(self, key, /)
        Return key in self.
   __delitem__(self, key, /)
        Delete self[key].
    __eq__(self, value, /)
        Return self==value.
    __ge__(self, value, /)
        Return self>=value.
    __getattribute__(self, name, /)
        Return getattr(self, name).
    getitem (...)
       x.\underline{get}item\underline{(y)} \iff x[y]
    __gt__(self, value, /)
        Return self>value.
    iadd (self, value, /)
        Implement self+=value.
    __imul__(self, value, /)
       Implement self*=value.
     _init__(self, /, *args, **kwargs)
        Initialize self. See help(type(self)) for accurate signature.
   __iter__(self, /)
    Implement iter(self).
    __le__(self, value, /)
        Return self<=value.
    __len__(self, /)
        Return len(self).
    __lt__(self, value, /)
        Return self<value.
    __mul__(self, value, /)
        Return self*value.n
    ne (self, value, /)
        Return self!=value.
    __new__(*args, **kwargs) from builtins.type
        Create and return a new object. See help(type) for accurate signatur
e.
    __repr__(self, /)
       Return repr(self).
    __reversed__(...)
        L.__reversed__() -- return a reverse iterator over the list
```

```
In [146]: a = list('hello') # makes a list from a string
  In [147]: a
  Out[147]: ['h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o']
  In [148]: a.append(100) # append 100, heterogeneous type
  In [149]: a
  Out[149]: ['h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o', 100]
  In [150]: a.extend((1, 2, 3)) # extend using tuple
  In [151]: a
  Out[151]: ['h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o', 100, 1, 2, 3]
  In [152]: a.extend('...') # extend using string
  In [153]: a
  Out[153]: ['h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o', 100, 1, 2, 3, '.', '.', '.']
Outras funções aplicadas às listas
  In [154]: a = [1, 3, 5, 7]
  In [155]: min(a) # minimum value in the list
  Out[155]: 1
  In [156]: max(a) # maximum value in the list
  Out[156]: 7
  In [157]: sum(a) # sum of all values in the list
  Out[157]: 16
  In [158]: len(a) # number of elements in the list
  Out[158]: 4
Sobrecarga de operadores + e *
  In [159]: b = [6, 7, 8]
a + b # `+` with list means concatenation
  Out[159]: [1, 3, 5, 7, 6, 7, 8]
  In [160]: a * 2 # `*` has also a special meaning
  Out[160]: [1, 3, 5, 7, 1, 3, 5, 7]
```

Exemplos mais complicados de manipulação em listas

```
In [161]: from operator import itemgetter
    a = [(5, 3), (1, 3), (1, 2), (2, -1), (4, 9)]
    sorted(a)

Out[161]: [(1, 2), (1, 3), (2, -1), (4, 9), (5, 3)]

In [162]: sorted(a, key=itemgetter(0))

Out[162]: [(1, 3), (1, 2), (2, -1), (4, 9), (5, 3)]

In [163]: sorted(a, key=itemgetter(1))

Out[163]: [(2, -1), (1, 2), (5, 3), (1, 3), (4, 9)]

In [164]: sorted(a, key=itemgetter(0, 1))

Out[164]: [(1, 2), (1, 3), (2, -1), (4, 9), (5, 3)]

In [165]: sorted(a, key=itemgetter(1), reverse=True)

Out[165]: [(4, 9), (5, 3), (1, 3), (1, 2), (2, -1)]
```

O método a.sort faz a mesma coisa mas a ordemanção é feita inplace

Ao invés de usar o método itemgetter, poderiamos utilizar uma função lambda Pode ser utilizada para fazer algum cálculo complexo

```
In [166]: sorted(a, key=lambda x:x[0]) # ordena pelo primeiro elemento de x, e x será
substituído por cada elemento da lista

Out[166]: [(1, 3), (1, 2), (2, -1), (4, 9), (5, 3)]

In [167]: sorted(a, key=lambda x:x[1])

Out[167]: [(2, -1), (1, 2), (5, 3), (1, 3), (4, 9)]
```

Conjuntos (set)

dois tipos de objetos, set (mutável) e frozenset (imutável)

Hashability is a characteristic that allows an object to be used as a set member as well as a key for a dictionary, as we'll see very soon.

```
In [168]: small_primes = set() # empty set
    small_primes.add(2) # adding one element at a time
    small_primes.add(3)
    small_primes.add(5)
    small_primes

Out[168]: {2, 3, 5}

In [169]: small_primes.add(1) # Look what I've done, 1 is not a prime!

In [170]: small_primes

Out[170]: {1, 2, 3, 5}

In [171]: small_primes.remove(1) # so let's remove it
```

```
In [172]: 3 in small primes
  Out[172]: True
  In [173]: 4 in small primes
  Out[173]: False
  In [174]: 4 not in small primes # negated membership test
  Out[174]: True
  In [175]: small_primes.add(3) # trying to add 3 again
             small_primes
  Out[175]: {2, 3, 5}
  In [176]: bigger primes = set([5, 7, 11, 13]) # faster creation
  In [177]: small primes | bigger primes # union operator `|`
  Out[177]: {2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13}
  In [178]: small_primes & bigger_primes # intersection operator `&`
  Out[178]: {5}
  In [179]: | small_primes - bigger_primes # difference operator `-`
  Out[179]: {2, 3}
  In [180]: {1,2,3}
  Out[180]: {1, 2, 3}
you can create a set from a list or tuple (or any iterable) and then you can add and remove members from the set as you
please.
  In [181]: small primes = frozenset([2, 3, 5, 7])
  In [182]: bigger_primes = frozenset([5, 7, 11])
  In [183]: small primes.add(11) # we cannot add to a frozenset
             AttributeError
                                                        Traceback (most recent call last)
             <ipython-input-183-97c9bb65a91e> in <module>()
             ----> 1 small_primes.add(11) # we cannot add to a frozenset
             AttributeError: 'frozenset' object has no attribute 'add'
  In [184]: small_primes.remove(2) # neither we can remove
             AttributeFrror
                                                        Traceback (most recent call last)
             <ipython-input-184-e8c2b586ad6c> in <module>()
             ----> 1 small primes.remove(2) # neither we can remove
             AttributeError: 'frozenset' object has no attribute 'remove'
```

```
In [185]: small_primes & bigger_primes # intersect, union, etc. allowed
  Out[185]: frozenset({5, 7})
Dicionários (dict)
  In [186]: a = dict(A=1, Z=-1)
              b = {'A': 1, 'Z': -1}

c = dict(zip(['A', 'Z'], [1, -1]))

d = dict([('A', 1), ('Z', -1)])

e = dict({'Z': -1, 'A': 1})
              a == b == c == d == e # are they all the same?
  Out[186]: True
  In [187]: a is b # podemos utilizar o operador is para comparar objetos também
  Out[187]: False
Mas esse operador checa se os objetos tem o mesmo id, não o mesmo valor. Por isso é melhor comparar usando ==
  In [188]: 10 is 10
  Out[188]: True
  In [189]: a = 10
              b = 10
              a is b
  Out[189]: True
  In [190]: a = 300
              b = 300
              a is b
  Out[190]: False
  In [191]: list(zip(['h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o'], [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]))
  Out[191]: [('h', 1), ('e', 2), ('l', 3), ('l', 4), ('o', 5)]
Mais funções de diconário
  In [192]: d = {}
              d['a'] = 1 # let's set a couple of (key, value) pairs
              d['b'] = 2
              len(d) # how many pairs?
  Out[192]: 2
  In [193]: d['a'] # what is the value of 'a'?
  Out[193]: 1
  In [194]: d # how does `d` look now?
  Out[194]: {'a': 1, 'b': 2}
```

```
In [195]: | del d['a'] # let's remove `a`
  In [196]: d
  Out[196]: {'b': 2}
  In [197]: d['c'] = 3
  In [198]: 'c' in d # let's add 'c': 3
             # membership is checked against the keys
  Out[198]: True
  In [199]: 3 in d # not the values
  Out[199]: False
  In [200]: 'e' in d
  Out[200]: False
  In [201]: d.clear()
  In [202]: d
  Out[202]: {}
Funções .keys(), .values() .items()
  In [203]: d = dict(zip('hello', range(5)))
  Out[203]: {'h': 0, 'e': 1, 'l': 3, 'o': 4}
  In [204]: d.keys()
  Out[204]: dict keys(['h', 'e', 'l', 'o'])
  In [205]: d.values()
  Out[205]: dict_values([0, 1, 3, 4])
  In [206]: d.items()
  Out[206]: dict_items([('h', 0), ('e', 1), ('l', 3), ('o', 4)])
  In [207]: d.items()[0]
             TypeError
                                                       Traceback (most recent call last)
             <ipython-input-207-62707639c934> in <module>()
             ----> 1 d.items()[0]
             TypeError: 'dict_items' object does not support indexing
  In [208]: list(d.items())
  Out[208]: [('h', 0), ('e', 1), ('l', 3), ('o', 4)]
```

Out[220]: 177

```
In [209]: 3 in d.values()
  Out[209]: True
  In [210]: ('o', 4) in d.items()
  Out[210]: True
A ordem dos objetos do dicionário não é garantida.
Mais funções de dicionários
  In [211]: d
  Out[211]: {'h': 0, 'e': 1, 'l': 3, 'o': 4}
  In [212]: d.popitem() # removes a random item
  Out[212]: ('o', 4)
  In [213]: d
  Out[213]: {'h': 0, 'e': 1, 'l': 3}
  In [214]: d.pop('l') # remove item with key `l`
  Out[214]: 3
  In [215]: d.pop('not-a-key') # remove a key not in dictionary: KeyError
             ______
            KeyError
                                                     Traceback (most recent call last)
            <ipython-input-215-9cda3d027920> in <module>()
            ----> 1 d.pop('not-a-key') # remove a key not in dictionary: KeyError
            KeyError: 'not-a-key'
  In [216]: d.pop('not-a-key', 'default-value')
            # with a default value?
            # we get the default value
  Out[216]: 'default-value'
  In [217]: d.update({'another': 'value'})
            d.update(a=13)
            # we can update dict this way
            # or this way (like a function call)
  Out[217]: {'h': 0, 'e': 1, 'another': 'value', 'a': 13}
  In [218]: d.get('a') # same as d['a'] but if key is missing no KeyError
  Out[218]: 13
  In [219]: d.get('a', 177) # default value used if key is missing
  Out[219]: 13
  In [220]: d.get('b', 177) # like in this case
```

Out[229]: [10, 20, 30]

```
In [221]: d.get('b') # key is not there, so None is returned
Slices também podem ser usados para atribuição
  In [222]: a = list(range(10))
  Out[222]: [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]
  In [223]: len(a)
  Out[223]: 10
  In [224]: a[5:8]
  Out[224]: [5, 6, 7]
  In [225]: a[5:8] = [10,20,30]
  In [226]: a
  Out[226]: [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 20, 30, 8, 9]
Número negativos podem ser usados para indexar a lista
  In [227]: a[-1]
  Out[227]: 9
  In [228]: a[-2]
  Out[228]: 8
  In [229]: a[-5:-2]
```