

PYTHON PROGRAMMING

A STEP BY STEP GUIDE FROM BEGINNER TO ADVANCED
(BEGINNER & ADVANCED)



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**A Step By Step Guide from Beginner to Advanced
(Beginner & Advanced)**

**By
Anthony Aline**

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INTRODUCTION

Note that, the beginning in coding can be annoying. It is possible to have seen a couple of the most familiar coding languages, such as Java or C++. Several people are scared of programming and are of the opinion that it was illogically difficult for them. In either case, using Python programming language, will help you discover that it is simpler than ever in recent time to know more about coding and to make attempts in analyzing it like an expert.

This gradual help is going to provide you a part of the rudimentary that you have to begin with python programming. We will commence with explaining what Python programming entails and also some of the stages that you should adhere to in order to understand the program. We will at that point move forward to certain code words that will be precious to you when parting with the program and also discussion about the pros and cons of making use of Python for every of your coding and programming demand.

Things that you can perform inside the Python program just as flawless sample of the way each of these would work. We speak concerning the inclusion of comments into the code, make do with strings and integers, and also dedicate some power collaborating with variables so they will come out good in the program. It is a great plan to put to trial a bit with the method. Python ensures that it is easy to try out your strings with the aim that you can deduce what's useful for business and what requires more attention.

The start in programming can seem to be difficult. You may be disturbed that you aren't going to have the alternative to make meaning of all and those stupid programming languages may have terrified you from it in any case. This book will put to application some energy discerning the Python language and finding out how easy it is, to start with, this fundamental but important program.

CHAPTER-1: DETAILS OF PYTHON PROGRAMMING?

In this section, there will be discovery about the history of Python, what it is mainly used for, its advantages, and what makes it higher ranking to other languages

History:

During the late ‘80s, a Dutch programmer Guido van Rossum at CWI (Centrum Wiskunde & Informatica) intellectualized Python programming. Its application started in December 1989 in the Christmas week for fun. The initial version of this program first officially showed in 1991(0.09 version). So, how about its name “Python”: majority of people give thoughts about snakes, and even the symbol shows two snakes, but its birth was coincidentally named after the popular British sketch comedy series “Monty Python’s Flying Circus ” as the establishing father was a big admirer. In the course of the next year, the language was welcomed by the group of the Amoeba project (Amoeba is a scattered operating system designed by Andrew S. and their group in Holland Amsterdam at the Vrije Universiteit. Amoeba project’s major tool was to develop a time-sharing design that makes a total network of computers seem to the operator as a single machine. This development stopped here at 5.3 version, on 07/30/1996. It was the platform where the Python programming language firstly evolved while Guido went after its improvement majorly in his leisure

Recently it has turned out to be one of the most intriguing programming languages of our time. This deviant program showed like an easy pastime “quoting”; by Guido van Rossum. In a TV conference, Guido van Rossum said: “In the early 1980s, I toiled as a facilitator on a group developing a language called ABC at (CWI). I made an attempt to reference ABC’s influence due to the fact that I’m committed to the total thing I learned during that development and to those who toiled on it

Subsequently in the same conference, Guido van Rossum stated: “I look back on all adventure and some of my hindrance with ABC. I was clear to attempt to develop an easy scripting language that preoccupy part of ABC’s better properties but disadvantaged of its challenges. So I started

composing. I designed an easy effective device, parser and runtime. I created my kind of the number of ABC portions that I desired. I made a fundamental syntax, used a gouge for statement teaming instead of wavy braces or begin-end blocks and created a little number of strong data varieties: a hash table (or dictionary, as it is called), a list, numbers and strings.

Like other languages, Python, has evolved through various versions. Python 0.9.0 was initially announced in 1991(as stated before) along with exclusion handling, Python involved strings, lists and classes. Most importantly, it comprises of filter, lambda, map and reduce, which lined it up critically regarding practical programming

Earlier in 2000, 2.0 version of Python was produced. This version was majorly of a free source project from participants of the National Research Institute of Mathematics and Computer Science. This particular version of Python comprises of full trash amassed, it reinforced Unicode and list comprehensions

The 3.0 version was produced in Dec 2008. As much as Python 2 and 3 are alike, there underrated distinction. Probably most extremely is the method the print statement functions, as in Python 3.0 the print statement has been changed with a print () function. It is necessary you download and install the newest version of Python. The most recent (as of winter 2019) is Python 3.7.2

Syntax Quick Guide

The design in which words and sentences are arranged to develop sentences is known as syntax. A parser reads a Python program. Python was created to be an extremely readable language. The “syntax” of the Python programming language is the array of order which shows the way to write in Python Programming language.

Similarly, to normal languages, a computer programming language comprises a set of pre-established words which are named code words. A predetermined rule of usage for every code word is called syntax.

Python 3.x interpreter has 33 keywords explained in it. Since they have a predetermined definition attached, it cannot be used for any other reason. The list of Python code words can be gotten by making use of the below help command in Python shell.

Syntax discuss about the design of the language (i.e., what begins a correctly- made program). For now, we will not focus on the meanings- the definition of the symbols and words within the syntax but will go back to this eventually.

See the following code example:

```
# set the midpoint
midpoint = 5

# make two empty lists
lower = []; upper = []

# split the numbers into lower and upper
for i in range(10):
    if (i < midpoint):
        lower.append(i)
    else:
        upper.append(i)

print("lower:", lower)
print("upper:", upper)
```

lower: [0, 1, 2, 3, 4]

upper: [5, 6, 7, 8, 9]

This given script looks a little bit cautious, although it competently shows lots of the important aspects of Python syntax. Let's go through it and explain some of the syntactical characteristics of Python

Comments mark by sign, #

The content starts with a clarification:

```
# set the midpoint
```

Comments in Python are stated by a pound sign (#) and the translator miss whatsoever thing on the line after the pound sign. For instance, it is possible to have separated comments like the one just shown, plus inline comments that is after a statement.

For instance:

```
x += 5 # զարգացնելու x = x + 5
```

Python has no syntax for multi-line comments, like `/*`. The `/* */` language applied in C++ and C, though they are multi-line strings, you can use them instead of multi-line comments. More will be shown on this in string Manipulation

End-of-Line ends a Statement

The next line in the script is

```
midpoint = 5
```

It is a task operation, in which we have designed a variable called midpoint and given it the value 5. Take note that the end of this statement is just put aside prior the stopping point. It is in disparity to languages such as C++ and C, in which all “statement” should stop with a semicolon (;).

In python, in case you would love a statement to proceed to the following line, it is possible to make use of the “`\`” to show this:

In Python, if you would like a statement to continue to the next line, it is possible to use the “`\`” marker to indicate this:

```
2 + e + \ + 8  
x = \ + s + 3 + t + /
```

It is furthermore conceivable to move with expressions on the next line inside parentheses without the use of the “`\`” marker

```
2 + e + \ + 8)  
x = (\ + s + 3 + t +
```

Most of Python technique helps suggest the following version of line continuation “within parentheses” to the initial (use of the “`\`”marker).

Semicolon Can Alternatively ends a Statement

Sometimes it can be useful to insert several statements on a single line. The next segment of the script is:

```
TOMEL = []: nbbel = []
```

It provides the sample of the way the semicolon (;) familiar in C can be made use of willingly in Python to join two statements on a single line. Practically, this is totally alike to writing

```
lower = []
upper = []
```

Making use of a semicolon to put several “statements” on a different line is generally downcast by majority Python technique guides, though occasionally it proves easy

Indentation: Whitespace Matters

Following, we get to the major block of code: Here next

```
for i in range(10):
    if i < midpoint:
        lower.append(i)
    else:
        upper.append(i)
```

It is a combination control-flow statement also a loop and a conditional- we will check out these kinds of “statements” in a bit. Presently, put into consideration that this proves what possibly the most interesting characteristics of Python’s syntax: whitespace is relevant!

When dealing with programming languages, a block of code is a group of statements that should be taken care of as one. In C, for instance, code blocks are indicated by curly braces:

```
// C code
for(int i=0; i<100; i++)
{
    // curly braces indicate code block
    total += i;
}
```

Majorly, in Python, code blocks are specified by indentation:

```
for i in range(100):
    # indentation indicates code block
    total += i
```

Where in Python, colon (:) always come before organized code blocks on the former line.

The application of indentation assists to enforce the consistent, exceptional technique that many find attractive in Python code. But it might be inexplicit to the ignorant; for instance, the next two snippets will bring about contrasting results:

```
>>> if x < 4:           >>> if x < 4:  
...     y = x * 2       ...     y = x * 2  
...     print(x)         ...     print(x)
```

In the particle on the left, print (x) is in the indented block and will be carried out “only” if x is not up to 4. In the snippet on the right print (x) is not within the “block” and will be carried out not minding the value of x!

The use of Python’s expressive whitespace time and also is occasionally unpredicted to programmers who are used to other languages, but in routine, it can result to better reliable and readable code than words that does not put a rule indentation of code blocks.

If you do not find Python use of whitespace agreeable, I will encourage you to give it an attempt: just the way I did, you might discover that you come to value it.

Finally, you should be aware of the number of whitespace used for indenting code blocks depends on the user, as long as it is uniform throughout the script. By agreement, majority technique guides suggest to indent code blocks by spaces of 4, and that is the agreement we will adhere to in this report. Put in mind that most text editors such as Vim and Emacs contain Python modes that carry out four-space indentation spontaneously

Whitespace within lines are not relevant

Though the mantra of important whitespace holds “true” for whitespace preceding lines (which shows a code block), white space within lines of Python code are not relevant. For instance, the total of these three are equal:

```
x=1+2  
x = 1 + 2  
x           =      1    +      2
```

Using this compliance can result to problems with code legibility- actually, misusing white space is regularly one of the basic ways of purposely

confusing code (which several people do for fun) making use of whitespace productively can result to better legible code, particularly in instances where operator go after each other- study the next two expressions for exponentiation by negative number:

```
x=10**-2
```

to

```
x = 10 ** -2
```

I observe the subsequent version that has spaces are better easily legible at a single glance. Majority of Python techniques suggest making use of a special space around binary operators, and region around unary operator. We will talk about Python's operators in depth in Python semantics:

Braces Are for Grouping or Calling

In the previous code particle, we notice two uses of parentheses. Initially , they can use in a classic way to categorize statements or mathematical writings:

```
2 * (3 + 4)
```

They can as well function in symbolizing that a function “is call”. In the following snippet, the print () function is used to show the contents of a variable (check the sidebar). The function call is specified by a pair of beginning and ending braces, also the arguments to the function present within:

```
print('second value:', 2)
```

```
second value: 2
```

```
print('second value:', 2)
```

```
second value: 2
```

Any functions can be named with no arguments at all, in whatever case the beginning and ending braces still compulsorily be made use to specify a function assessment. An instance of this type way of lists:

```
L = [4,2,3,1]
L.sort()
print(L)
```

```
[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

) after description recommends that the function should be carried out, and is required even if no arguments are not compulsory

Aside:

A Note on the print() Function

Before we made use of the example of the print () function. The print () function is a piece that has transformed between Python 2.x and Python 3.x. In Python 2,print acted as a statement: in other words, you could write

```
# Python 2 only!
>> print "first value:", 1
first value: 1
```

For various purposes, the language maintainers dictate that in Python 3 “print ()” should become a function, therefore we write.

```
# Python 3 only!
>>> print("first value:", 1)
first value: 1
```

It is one of the different backward-incompatible structures inside Python 2 and 3. For the writing of this book, it is clear to find instances dribbled in the two versions of Python, and the appearance of the print statement ideally than the print () function is regularly one of the initial indications that you are searching for at Python 2 code

Semantics: Variables and Objects

In this section we will go into the basics “semantics” of the Python language. As revealed to the syntax gone through before time, the semantics of a language impacts the comprehension of the statements. As regards our breakdown of “syntax”, in this case we’ll show a few of the fundamental semantic designs in Python to give you a much more organized reference for assessing the code in the next sections

This part will demonstrate the semantics of objects and variables, which are the easy methods you reference, store and operate on a data within a Python script.

Python Variables Are Pointers

Giving variables in Python is as easy as putting a variable name to the opposite of the equals (=) sign:

```
# assign 4 to the variable x
x = 4
```

It may look direct, but if you have the wrong intellectual model of what this operation organizes, the method in which Python works may seem difficult. We'll briefly go into that here.

In different programming languages, variables are totally thought of as vessels or containers into which you place data. So in C, for example, when you write

```
// C code
int x = 4;
```

You are deciding a “memory bucket” called x, and putting the value four in it. In Python, by differences, variables are the finest idea of not as vessels but as indicators. So in Python, when you write

```
x = 4
```

You are describing an indicator named x that locates to some other vessels containing the value 4. See an outcome of this: due to the fact that Python variables results to various objects, it is not necessary to “state” the variable or constant expect the variable to forever result to fact of the similar kind! It is the perception in which people say Python is uniquely-typed: variable names can result to objects of whichever type. So in Python, you can carry out things like this:

```
x = 1          # x is an integer
x = 'hello'    # now x is a string
x = [1, 2, 3] # now x is a list
```

In the meantime, users of unchanged-typed languages might leave the type-safety that shows with statement such as those found in C,

```
int x = 4;
```

This captivating type is one the subject that enables Python to fast to write and convenient to read

There is a result of the effort of this variable as an “indicator” approach that you need to be aware. As long as, we have dual variables names indicating to the similar mutable object, then altering one will take the place of the other also! For instance, let's make and edit a list:

```
x = [1, 2, 3]
y = x
```

We've prepared two variables x and y, which the two point at the same object. Due to this, if we alter the list through one of its names , we'll notice that the “other” list will be replaced also:

```
print(y)
[1, 2, 3]
```

```
x.append(4) # append 4 to the list pointed to by x
print(y) # y's list is modified as well!
```

```
[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

This method might look difficult if you're not fairly taking thought of variables as vessels that consist data. But if you're accurately thinking of variables as indicators to objects, that means this attitude is reasonable.

Put in mind also that if we make use of “=” to give a different value to x, this will not change the “value” of y- the task is just a replacement of what object the variable indicates:

```
x = 'something else'  
print(y) # y is unchanged  
  
[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

Anon, it is totally reasonable if you think of x and y as indicators and the “=” operator as an operation that alters what the name indicates.

You probably inquire if this indicator idea carries out mathematics operations in Python delicate to follow, however Python system is such a way that this is not a problem. Strings figures, and other mere kinds are unchanging: you can't alter their value- the only thing you can alter is what is useful to the variable point. So, for instance, it's perfectly secure to carry out operations like the following:

```
x = 10  
y = x  
x += 5 # add 5 to x's value, and assign it to x  
print("x =", x)  
print("y =", y)  
  
x = 15  
y = 10
```

Whether we call `x+=5`, we are not altering the value of the “10” objects indicated to by x; we are a bit varying the variable x so that it helps to a new singular “object” with value 15. Because of this, the value of y will not be altered by the operation.

Every Symbol Is an Object

Being an object-oriented programming language, in Python entire stuff is an object.

Due to the fact that it is an object- based programming language, in Python total stuff is an object and the variables calls themselves does not have joint type fact. It leads some to stand “erroneously” that Python is a kind-easy language. But this is not so! Assume the following

```
In [7]: x = 4  
type(x)
```

```
Out[7]: int
```

```
In [8]: x = 'hello'  
type(x)
```

```
Out[8]: str
```

```
In [9]: x = 3.14159  
type(x)
```

```
Out[9]: float
```

Python has categories; nonetheless, the kinds are joined not to the variables names but the object themselves

During object-oriented programming language such as Python, an object is an object that involves data in conjunction with joint metadata or functionality. In Python, all is an object, which shows all unit has some metadata (named attributes) and related feature (named methods). These attributes and program can go through the dot syntax.

For instance, here we could see that lists have an append method, which adjoins an object to the “list” and is read though the dot (.) syntax:

```
L = [1, 2, 3]  
L.append(100)  
print(L)
```

```
[1, 2, 3, 100]
```

In as much as it probably be intended for compound item like lists to have qualities and styles, what is rarely astonishing is that in Python, even the fundamental kinds have joined features and tactics.

For example, arithmetical sorts have original and image standard that shows the actual and unreal part of the value, if seen as a complex figure:

```
x = 4.5  
print(x.real, "+", x.imag, 'i')
```

```
4.5 + 0.0 i
```

Methods are similar to attributes, as well they are functions that you can name making use of beginning and ending braces. For instance, unstable

point figures have a style named is-integer and shows if the value is a whole number:

```
In [12]: x = 4.5  
x.is_integer()
```

```
Out[12]: False
```

```
In [13]: x = 4.0  
x.is_integer()
```

```
Out[13]: True
```

We all are aware that all in Python is an item, we expect that all is an item-in spite of the attributes and methods of objects are themselves objects with their kind facts:

```
In [14]: type(x.is_integer)
```

```
Out[14]: builtin_function_or_method
```

We'll notice that all is object design choice of Python supply for some easy language creation.

Libraries

Group of functions and methods are named Python library that gives you room to carry out a great deal of actions that does not require you to write your code. For instance, are you working with data? scipy, pandas, numpy and lots more are the libraries you must know

Some Python Libraries you should have

1. matplotlib

It is a valuable figure scheme library for any data analyst or data researcher.

2. Requests

The most well-known HTTP library authored by Kenneth Reitz. It's compulsory for all Python developer.

3. SQLAlchemy

A data collection library. Many love it, and lots of people hate it. It's left for you to decide.

4. wxPython

A GUI toolset for Python. I have basically used it instead of Tkinter. You will doubtlessly love it.

5. pywin32

A Python library which gives some valuable methods and tutorial for communicating with windows.

6. Twisted

The strongest tool for any network application developer. It has a very stylish API and it's uses by many important every python programmer.

7. NumPy

It is the main library that is used for arithmetic functionalities to python.

8. Pillow

A useful turn of PIL (Python Imaging Library). It is an extreme user-friendly than PIL and it is compulsory for anyone who works with pictures.

9. Pygame

This library will help you in achieving the aim of 2d game development.

10. Pyglet

It is a 3d animation and game production machine. It is the machine in which the conventional python port of Minecraft.

11. pyQT

A GUI toolset for python.

12. Scrapy

Are you interested in web-scraping? if yes, then this library is a must-have for you. After making use of it, you won't use another one.

13. BeautifulSoup

As much as I know that it's lazy, this HTML and XML parsing library is useful for amateurs.

14. nltk

Normal language, Toolset. It is a useful library if you are interested in handling strings, although it is capable to do more than that.

15. nose

It is a trial structure for python and can be used by lots of python developers, accurate for trial development.

16. IPython

It is a python prompt on steroids. It has a history, shell inclination, end and more. Be sure to check it out

17. Scapy

A packet sniffer and analyzer for python made in python.

18. PyGTK

It is also a python GUI library. The well-known BitTorrent client designed by using this library.

19. SciPy

SciPy is a library of function and arithmetical tools for python and has encouraged many scientists to change from ruby to python.

20. SymPy

It can carry out mathematical valuation, extension, complex numbers, differentiation and lots more. It increases in a plain Python distribution.

Development Environments Fast Guide

A development environment is an order of a word processor and a Python runtime environment. The content kit strengthens you to create the code. The runtime environment application like PyPy or CPython, gives the ways for carrying out your code.

A word processor can be as empty as Notepad on Windows or more compound as a total integrate development environment (IDE) like PyCharm which runs on any elementary operating system

```

97 Install the appropriate dependencies after your virtualenv is activated.
98 Use the pip command to install Pelican and Markdown, which will also
91 install Jinja2 because Pelican specifies it as a dependency.
92
93
94 ````bash
95 pip install pelican==3.7.1 markdown==2.6.3
96 ````

97 Run the `pip` command and after everything is installed you should see output
99 similar to the following "Successfully installed" message.
100
101 ````bash
102 Installing collected packages: pygments, pytz, six, feedgenerator, blinker, unidecode, MarkupSafe, jinja2, python-dateutil, docutils, pelican, markdown
103   Running setup.py install for feedgenerator ... done
104   Running setup.py install for blinker ... done
105   Running setup.py install for MarkupSafe ... done
106   Running setup.py install for markdown ... done
107 Successfully installed MarkupSafe-1.0 blinker-1.4 docutils-0.13.1 feedgenerator-1.9 jinja2-2.9.6 markdown-2.6.8 pelican-3.7.1 pygments-2.2.0 python-dateutil-2.6.0 pytz-2017.2 six-1.10.0 unidecode-0.4.20
108 ````pelican-maps-mapbox.markdown" 541, 21636C written
109
110 rm -rf generated/updated_site/pages/
111 sed -i '' '$~s/<!-->/<span class="highlight"><!-->/g' generated/updated_site/blog/*.html
112 sed -i '' '$~s/<!-->/<span class="highlight"><!-->/g' generated/updated_site/blog/*.html
113 (fsp)~/devel/py/fsp$
```

Python code should be written, carried out and given a trial in order to create applications. The word processor gives a method to write code. The translator ensures it to perform. Making sure that the “code” carry out what you want either manually or by single and practical tests.

Top Development Environments

Making a list of development environments for data science with Python is a difficult work, but you will notice how convenient a definite environment is to get along with others.

You’ll notice this option will transform even all of these things and the “finest” development environment for you will be the one which carries out your life more reachable and your work more content. It shows that you might also interchange between IDE, word processor and notebook in accordance with anything is more of assistance for you!

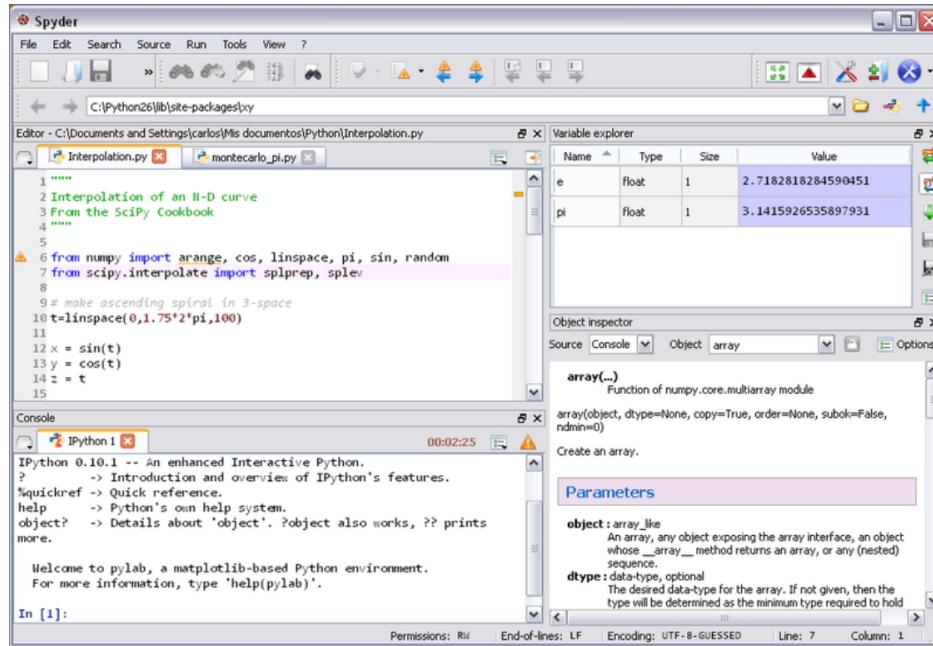
Spyder



It’s a free source cross-platform IDE (integrated development environment) for data science. Have you acted with an IDE? If no, Spyder could perfectly be your initial approach. It merges the important libraries for data science,

like SciPy, Matplotlib, IPython and NumPy, aside that, it can be extended with plugins.

Are you an amateur? you'll like to make use of features such as online help, which allows you to look for certain fact about libraries. You will notice the way this interface is closely the same to R Studio; that's the reason, if you're changing between Matlab or R to Python, you can always go this way.

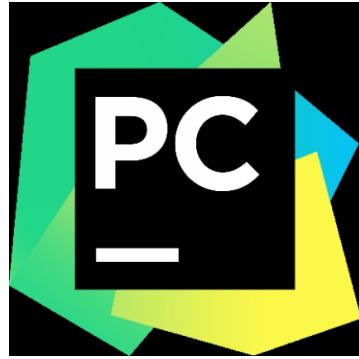


Highlights:

Spyder involves features closer to a word processor with variable exploring, code completion, syntax highlighting, which you can change making use of a Graphical User Interface (GUI).

“Are you changing from Rstudio or Matlab to Python; Spyder is the plan to proceed, it’s fast for scientific computing”. Spyder is largely accessible for MacoS, windows and major Linux distributions such as Debian, Fedora, and Ubuntu.

PyCharm



PyCharm created for expert in Python developing, and it is an IDE for Python designed by JetBrains. PyCharm comes with several features to tackle with big code bases: automatic refactoring, code navigation and different productivity tools, in a one jointed interface. Also, Python, PyCharm provides assistance for HTML/CSS, JavaScript, Node.js, Angular JS and lots more, what does it is a wonderful alternative for web development.

A screenshot of the PyCharm IDE interface. The main window displays a Python test script named `test_index_view.py`. The code contains several test methods for a `QuestionView` class, including `test_index_view_with_a_past_question`, `test_index_view_with_a_future_question`, `test_index_view_with_no_questions`, and `test_index_view_with_two_past_questions`. The code uses the `assertContains` and `assertQuerysetEqual` methods from the `unittest` framework. The PyCharm interface includes toolbars, a sidebar with project files, and a status bar at the bottom.

Highlights:

PyCharm is the most stylish IDE that can be used for Python development. The main thing is its large group of plugins which work for developing the application faster and in a particular way. Debugging the application is also very easy and fast. The most outstanding thing is its assistance for version control system such as Git. It has the gracious assistance of Git, and you can effectively carry out Git commands via this IDE alone which is very helpful for people who do not have to make use of a different software/Git client tool to carry it out. Besides, there is outstanding support of single testing frameworks. It has the considerable support of the SQLite data

collection, which is extremely useful during the development of the application. PyCharm IDE for Python and scientific development accessible for no amount for macOS, Windows and Linux

Thonny

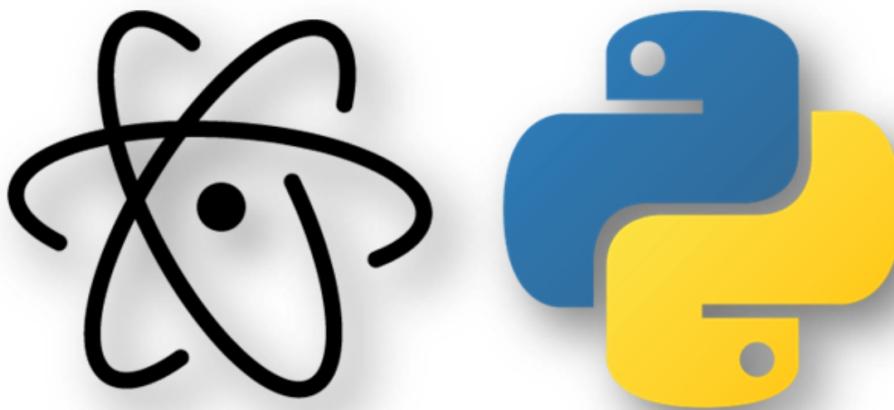


It is an advanced development environment for Python that was designed for amateurs. It motivates several methods of moving through the code, gradual expression rating, extensive understanding of the call stack, and a way for defining the concepts of store and references. It is of great assistance to new comers, as they can move inside expressions and statements.

Highlights:

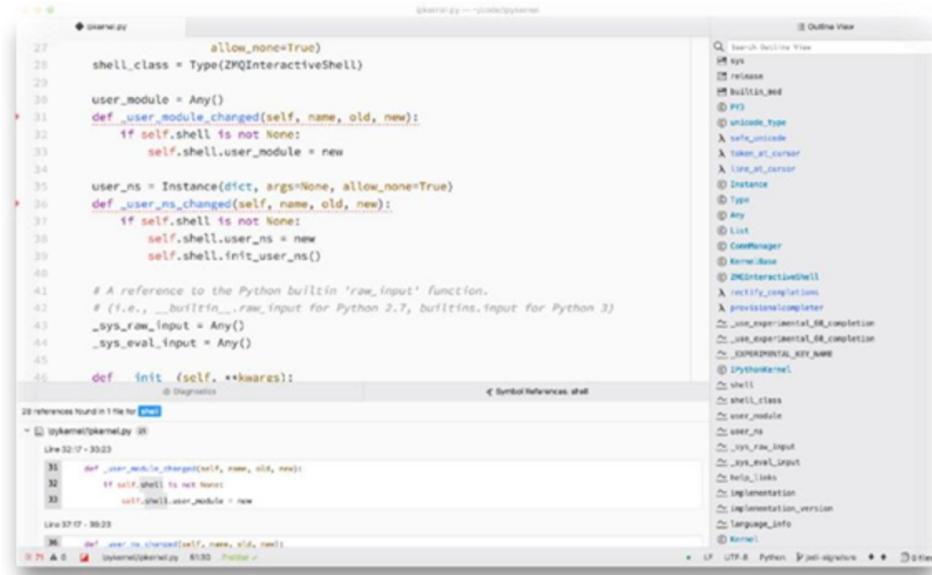
It is an IDE used for teaching and learning programming. It's a product designed at the University of Tartu, which is cheaply accessible on the “Bit bucket Vault” for Linux, Mac and Windows.

Atom-Python



Atom-IDE supporters by Python language, running by the Python language server.it is a free source word processor created by Github. You might notice that this word processor is likewise accessible for other programming

languages such as Java, Ruby on Rails, PHP and lots more. Atom has intriguing characteristics that create a good sense for Python developers.



```
allow_none=True)
shell_class = Type(ZMQInteractiveShell)

user_module = Any()
def user_module_changed(self, name, old, new):
    if self.shell is not None:
        self.shell.user_module = new

user_ns = Instance(dict, args=None, allow_none=True)
def user_ns_changed(self, name, old, new):
    if self.shell is not None:
        self.shell.user_ns = new
        self.shell.init_user_ns()

# A reference to the Python builtin 'raw_input' function.
# (f.e., __builtin__.raw_input for Python 2.7, builtins.input for Python 3)
_sys_raw_input = Any()
_sys_eval_input = Any()

def __init__(self, **kwargs):
    pass
```

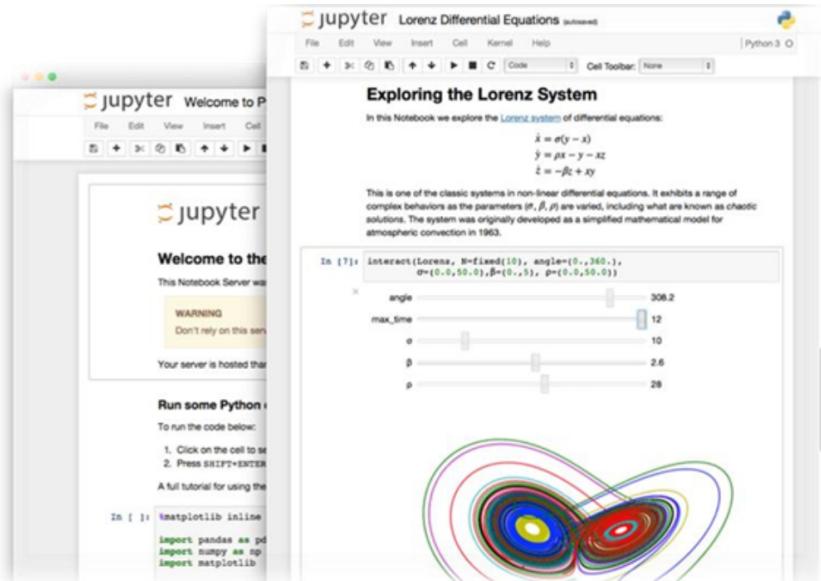
Highlights:

The Atom editor has a neat-looking plan; it's open and has several packages and themes. The pronounced thing you would love about this editor is you can divide your workspace with your group member, and can work jointly on the code in good time as well it possesses a great figure of packages which gives more improved functionalities and points that all can make use of for the development. A different finest pros of Atom is its environment, majorly because of the regular improvements and plugins that they create to modify your IDE and improve your workflow.

Jupyter Notebook



In the year 2014 Jupyter Notebook was implemented of IPython for the developers. It is a network application found on the server-client make up, and it helps you create and run notebook documents or ordinary “notebooks.” It is a free-source network application that give you room to develop and share documents that include equations, fictional text, live code and visualizations. It makes use of cover data cleaning and transformation, machine learning, data visualization, analytical modeling, numerical simulation and lots more.



Jupyter Notebook is perfect for people who are just beginning, with data science!

Highlights:

"Jupyter Notebook" is in support of markdowns, making you to convert HTML elements from images to video. You can speedily check and edit your code to work on captivating performances. Visualization libraries fact can as well be made use like Seaborn and Matplotlib and represent your graphs in the correlating document where your “code” is. Besides, you can assign your last work to HTML and PDF files, or you can convey it as a. py file. In addition, you can likewise create presentations and blogs from your notebooks.

Python Implementations Fast Guide

The question is being asked, reasons we in truth have several implementations. The clear method to elucidate it is to visualize Python as a

prerequisite for a programming language. There is no “Python” that you can carry out. Reason about Python like the plan to create an implementation of a programming language. Affirmatively, having just a word is not exceptionally active, in order to write our programs, we need an authentic programming language. You can check the Python.org and obtain it. The thing you will get is “CPython.” CPython is the default, several comprehensively used implementation of the Python programming language.

The name it bear is revealing itself, CPython is formed in C, and is helped by the environment, with those from the PSF (Python Software Foundation-Python.org) taking control.

Note that, CPython is not the sole implementation of Python. It is also not the finest one; there are many others. It’s only one of the many applications that exist out there. I am making a list of additional Python implementations:

Jython



Jython is one of a structure of the Python programming language planned to make use of the program of Java. Its principal attention is acknowledging a good interplay with legacy software and Java libraries. Do you have a computer programmer in a large company where he/she have access to all their systems written in Java? if yes, he/she can begin a new design by writing Python and in addition make use of the legacy libraries and services from the company. We are yet to check it widely, nevertheless people

consistently say that Jython is a little unenthusiastic than CPython.
Advantages: it is broadly in agreement with Java services and libraries

Disadvantages: Looks like it's a little slow. The JVM (Java virtual machine) makes use of the correct quantity of memory, and it requires some time to be prepared, (I think this is the only reason). Several libraries from CPython won't work by Jython (particularly those written in C language)

IronPython



IronPython is similar to Jython, despite the fact that it is an implementation of the Python programming language focusing the .NET Framework. It is one of the pros of ironPython that it can operate side by side with the .NET framework.

The language joins Python's flexible, thick, and high yielding syntax and design with the fundamental assistance and inclinations given by .NET. Another advantage is being permitted to make use of IronPython along with Silverlight in a network browser.

Advantages: IronPython is reconcilable with the .NET framework and Silverlight.

Disadvantages: It has less agreement with CPython libraries.

PyPy



PyPy is the uncomplicated and strong rules of Python which allows programmers to reveal ideas without writing the lengthy line of code. The goodness of PyPy is the JIT compiler (Just-in-time compilation) created in it. It's probably the finest compiler written for Python. PyPy is incredibly swift as programmers regularly examine methods to hasten Python source code translation and this PyPy is much faster than others.

Advantages: Outstanding express. Superb support of standard and community libraries.

Other implementation, keeps an eye on it.

- Mypy: Fixed typing for Python. Guido is diligently cooperating with it.
- Skulpt: Python to Javascript to put in a network browser.
- Pyjion: A JIT connection for CPython by Microsoft. It as well involves Guido
- Nuitka: A “transpiler” probably? picks your Python code and changes it into C++.
- Pyston: A JIT implementation by Dropbox.
- Cython: Write C additions along with a language associated with Python. It's an excellent set of Python assisting non moveable type declarations.

CHAPTER-2:

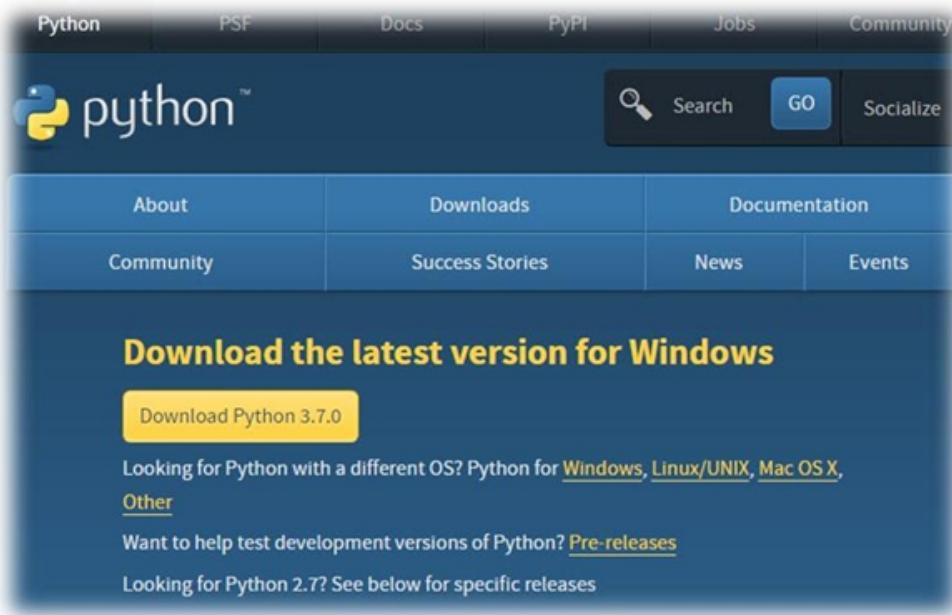
SETTING UP PYTHON ON YOUR COMPUTER

Windows

In this part, we will allow you know how convenient it is to begin with setting up and installing Python on windows. Windows systems generally do not move with Python that is already installed, and it is questionable. It includes many easy moves to enable you begin with Python for Windows promptly.

Installing Python on Windows is kind of a longer way when broken down to installing Python on Linux. In Linux, it is as easy as carrying out a command and should set it up, but as for windows, it takes an unimportant different route.

Transferring the Python installer from the python.org and running it. We can take a peek at a way to install Python 3 on Windows:



Step 1: Download the Python 3Installer

- I. As always go to any browser window and move to the download page for windows at the site python.org or anywhere you are making attempts to download Python 3.
- II. Under the heading at the top that shows Python Releases for Windows, tap on the network for the Latest Python 3 Release, Python 3.x.x. These days, the newest in Python 3.7.2
- III. Move to the end and chose either Windows x86 workable “installer” for 32-bit or Windows x86-64 workable installer for 64-bit
- IV. Scroll to the end and decide either Windows x86-64 executable installer for 64-bit or Windows x86 executable “installer” for 32-bit

Below are the explanations about it 32-bit or 64-bit Python?

Whenever you want to install Windows of any guide, you will notice two installers. You can pick either one 32-bit or 64-bit installer. You must possess some fundamental information about these if not, here are the differences within both comes down to:

- Does your windows system has a 32-bit processor? if yes, then you will opt for the 32-bit installer.
- At a 64-bit system, the two installers will authentically work for majority of objects, the 32-bit will always make use of restricted memory, nevertheless the 64-bit version works limitlessly for applications with swift calculation
- Are you unsure of the version to pick, I will encourage you to not stop using the 64-bit version.

Note: Just in case you realize this alternative INCORRECTLY and would rather switch to another version of Python, you will ensure to uninstall Python and re-install again by downloading another installer from Python.org.

Step 2: Run the Installer

When you have selected and downloaded an installer, completely run it by double-tapping (as always) on the downloaded folder. A conversation will come up which resembles something like this:



Related:

You must be certain to give the box that is showing Add Python 3.7.2. marking to PATH as displayed to guide that the translator will install in your execution path.

After that move to tap the Install Now link, and that will be all. In few minutes, there is assurance that there will be a working Python 3 installation on your system.

Windows Subsystem for Linux (WSL)

Maybe you are running Windows 10 Anniversary Updates or Creators, you, have another alternative for installing Python. These types of Windows 10 have a characteristic named the Windows Subsystem for Linux, which helps you to command a Linux area rightly in Windows, unaltered and not with the weight of a virtual machine.

After the completion of installing your choice, you can install Python 3 from a Bash console window, just the way you normally do if you were running that Linux distribution locally.

Linux

Are you running Linux on your system? If yes, you have an advantage because your Linux distribution has Python already installed, nevertheless it definitely won't be the latest version and it probably be Python 2 in place of Python 3.

To know the kind of version(s) present in your Linux, it is necessary to carry out the following in the final window.

Python --version Python2 --version Python3 --version

One or many of these commands ought to respond with a version, such as displayed below:

```
Shell  
$ python3 --version  
Python 3.6.5
```

Do you have your version presented in Python 2.x.x or Python 3? If yes, then it is not the newest (3.7.2 is the newest these days) you will need to install the latest version. The way for carrying out this will rely on the type of Linux distribution you are running.

Ubuntu

The python install directions varies depending on the version of the Ubuntu you run; You can discover your limited Ubuntu version by running the resulting command:

```
Shell  
$ lsb_release -a  
No LSB modules are available.  
Distributor ID: Ubuntu  
Description:    Ubuntu 16.04.4 LTS  
Release:        16.04  
Codename:       xenial
```

- 17.10 or 18.04 upward Ubuntu versions is accompanied with Python 3.6 (though it is not the newest version) by default. You ought to be able to excite it with command python 3. (newest version is 3.7.2)
- 16.10 or 17.04 Ubuntu versions does not come with Python 3.6 normally, nevertheless it is in the universe vessel. You ought to be able to install it with the following commands:

```
Shell  
$ sudo add-apt-repository ppa:deadsnakes/ppa  
$ sudo apt-get update  
$ sudo apt-get install python3.6
```

change this command to → Python 3.7.2

After that, you can entreat it with command 3.7.2

Whether you are working Ubuntu 14.04 or 16.04, Python 3.7.2 is not in the Universe container, and you need to obtain it from a Personal Package Archive (PPA). For instance, to install Python out of the “dead snakes” PPA, carry out the following:

Shell

```
$ sudo add-apt-repository ppa:deadsnakes/ppa  
$ sudo apt-get update  
$ sudo apt-get install python3.6 → Python 3.7.2
```

Named above, refer with the command python 3.7.2

Linux Mint

Each time you see Mint or Ubuntu, the two make use of the similar package operation system which commonly carry out life in an easy way. You can keep to the directions after for Ubuntu 14.04. The “dead snakes” PPA runs with Mint.

Debian

We discovered references that revealed that the Ubuntu 16.10 style would work for Debian, nevertheless we didn’t further notice a way to make it work on Debian 9. To a certain degree, we do not open up making Python from source as itemized below.

“1” point with Debian, however, is that it always doesn’t install the “sudo” command automatically. To install it, you will need to carry out the subsequent here, you remove the Compiling Python Source guides below:

Shell

```
$ su  
$ apt-get install sudo  
$ vi /etc/sudoers
```

After, access the /etc/sudoers folder making use of the “sudo” vim command (or any word processor you wish) Put the next line of text to the end of the “folder”, replacing your username with your real username:

Text

```
your_username ALL=(ALL) ALL
```

openSUSE

We discovered several sites describing ways to make “zypper” to install the newest version of Python, but they look complicated or outdated. We did not record any success in getting any of them to work, luckily, so we returned to designing Python from the source. In order to carry out that, you will require to install the development kits, which can be carried out in YaST(through the menus) or by making use of zypper:

```
Shell  
$ sudo zypper install -t pattern devel_C_C++
```

This singular activity took time and involved the installation of 154 packages, as soon as its completed, we were able to make the source as revealed in the Compiling Python from Source section above.

CentOS

The IUS Community carries out an outstanding work of implanting various versions of software for “Enterprise Linux” distros (that is, Red Hat Enterprise and Centos). You can make use of their work to assist you install Python 3 (Python 3.7.2)

In order to install, you must upgrade your system first with the newest yum package manager:

```
Shell  
$ sudo yum update  
$ sudo yum install yum-utils
```

You can then install the CentOS IUS package which will get you up to date with their site:

```
Shell  
$ sudo yum install https://centos7.iuscommunity.org/ius-release.rpm
```

Finally you can then install Python and Pip:

```
Shell  
$ sudo yum install python36u  
$ sudo yum install python36u-pip
```

Fedora Linux

Fedora has the organization to move to Python 3 as the default Python printed here. It represents that the recent version and the following few version, all move with Python 2 as the default, nevertheless Python 3 plus have to install. If the python 3 installed on your computer is not version 3.7.2; you can use the next command to fit it:

```
Shell
$ sudo dnf install python36
```

Arch Linux

Arch Linux is a bit dynamic about competing with Python releases. It is likely you then have the newest version 3.7.2. If not, you can make use of this command:

```
Shell
$ packman -S python
```

Compiling Python from Source

Occasionally it happened that your Linux distribution will not possess the newest version of Python, or maybe you need to be able to create the latest, well-known version yourself. Here are the steps you are required to take to develop Python from source:

1: Download the Source Code

Firstly, you are required to get the Python source code. Go to Python.org, and it carry this out reasonably fast. Here you would see, the newest source for Python 3.7.2) at the tip.

Ensure to obtain the necessary version and click the download link.

After picking the suitable version, at the base of the page, there is a folders section. Pick the “Gzipped” source “tarball” and download it to your gadget. Favoring a command line mode, you can conveniently make use of WGET (Computer program) to download it to your current catalogue:

```
Shell
$ wget https://www.python.org/ftp/python/3.7.2/Python-3.7.2.tgz
```

2: Make sure your system is ready

1. There aren't much distro-specific (it is a Linux Distribution system) plans included in constructing Python from the beginning. The aim of each move is same on every distro, nevertheless you might require to interpret to your distribution if it doesn't make use of apt-get (APT or Advanced Package Tool):

It is the first move you ought to utilize when carrying out an operation such as this is to upgrade the system packages on your gadget before you begin. On Debian, this is what that seems like:

Shell

```
$ sudo apt-get update  
$ sudo apt-get upgrade
```

2. Next, we are required to make certain that the system has the kits needed to create Python. There are lots of them, and it is possible you formerly have some, nevertheless that's fine. I made attempt to itemize them all in a command line, but you can reduce the list into shorter commands by only replicating the sudo apt-get install-y portion:

Shell

```
# For apt-based systems (like Debian, Ubuntu, and Mint)  
$ sudo apt-get install -y make build-essential libssl-dev zlib1g-dev libbz2-dev :  
  
# For yum-based systems (like CentOS)  
$ sudo yum -y groupinstall development  
$ sudo yum -y install zlib-devel
```

3: Build Python

1. In as much as you have the necessary things and the tar folder, you can unload the source into a catalogue.

Keep in mind that the next command will make a new list named Python-3.7.2 beneath the one you are in:

Shell

```
$ tar xvf Python-3.7.2.tgz  
$ cd Python - 3.7.2
```

2. Run the ./configure tool to make ready the build:

Shell

```
$ ./configure --enable-optimizations --with-ensurepip=install
```

3. In addition, you need to build the Python programs using make. The -j choice completely tells you to make to share the building into the same moves to hasten the compilation. Also, with the builds that are parallel, this move can take lots of time:

Shell

```
$ make -j 8
```

4. Eventually, you will need to install your recent version of Python. You will make use of the altinstall target in this place so as not to reverse the system's version of Python. In as much as you are installing Python into /usr/bin, you will be required to run as root:

Shell

```
$ sudo make altinstall
```

Warning: Please only use the altinstall target on make. Using the install target will overwrite the python binary. While this seems like it would be cool, there are big portions of the system that rely on the pre-installed version of Python.

4: Confirm Your Python Installation

Finally, you can check out your latest Python version:

Shell

```
$ python3.6 -V  
Python 3.7.2
```

macOS / Mac OS X

Despite the fact that the recent versions of macOS are “formerly known as “Mac OS X” comprises of a version of Python 2, it is probably outdated now. Also, this eBook series makes use of Python 3.7.2, so it’s needed to update your “version” to the newest version.

1: Part 1, Install Homebrew

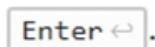
Install Homebrew so as to get started:

1. Here is the button for Homebrew, <http://brew.sh/> . Tap the Homebrew bootstrap code beneath “Install Homebrew.” Then click



And duplicate the stuff. Be certain you have captured the text of the full command, this because if you don’t do that, the installation will crash.

2. Open the last.app window and put the Homebrew bootstrap code and run



It will start the Homebrew installation.

3. You probably be installing the recent macOS, you see a notification show up requesting you to install Apple’s “command line developer tools.” So ensure you affirm the conversation box by taping on “Install”.

All you have to do is wait for developer tools to finish installing in some minutes.

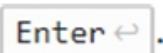
2: Part 2, Install Homebrew

Move to install Homebrew and then Python after the “command line” the installation of developer tools is complete: After you have installed it, confirm the conversation from the installer tools.

1. Back in the terminal, and click



1. Finish the installation, putting your user account password and click



2. Depending on the speed of your internet; Homebrew will require some minutes to download its necessary folder. After you might have finished installing, you will end up back at the command prompt in your final window. It's now time to install Python 3 on your device.

3. # 3: Installation of Python

When Homebrew has been installed, move to your terminal and run the following command:

Shell

```
$ brew install python3
```

Note: When you copy this command, be sure you don't include the \$ character at the beginning. That's just an indicator that this is a console command.

Python 3.7.2 will download, immediately the Homebrew brew installs command finishes, computers nowadays possess pre-installed Python 3.7.2

You can now check if Python can access from the terminal:

1. Unlock the terminal by starting Terminal.app.
2. Write pip3 and click

3. You will get the help message from Python's "Pip" package manager. In case you get a wrong message running pip3, scroll through the Python install moves also to ensure you have an active Python installation

 Enter ↵ .

Assuming all went well and you saw the output coming from Pip in your command prompt window..... that's awesome! You have installed Python on your system, and you are good to commence the next part.

iOS

If you install and start Pythonista, you are required to download it from the IOS app store. The Pythonista app for IOS is a totally designed Python App that you can conveniently run on your iPad or iPhone. It's basically a combination of a Python documentation, translator, and editor put into one single app. Pythonista is actually interesting to use. It's an incredible little tool when you're stuck with no laptop and need to work while moving. IOS emerge with the whole Python 3+ conventional library and as well covers all-encompassing documentation you can browse when not online.



Android

Python as well as several versions for Android phone or tablet. Do you need? If yes. There are lots of choices accessible. One that we discover most definitely supports than 3.7.2 is Pydroid 3. It has a translator you can make use for REPL sessions, it as well has the capacity to save, edit and perform Python code:

The image displays two side-by-side screenshots of a mobile application interface, likely for a Python development environment on an Android device.

Screenshot 1 (Left): Shows a code editor window with the following Python script:

```
1 print("Hello, world!")
2 for i in ("foo", "bar", "baz"):
3     print(i)
4 def f():
5     print("foo")
6 f()
7
8 ]
```

Screenshot 2 (Right): Shows the terminal window of the application displaying the output of the script:

```
Hello, world!
foo
bar
baz
Program finished!
```

CHAPTER-3: YOUR INITIAL BASE IN PYTHON PROGRAMMING

Come up with a convenient running python program

PYTHON DATA TYPES

At the moment you are conversant with Python environment so it's time to go further inside the Python language. Here is an analysis of the various data types designed into Python.

In this segment, I will discuss basic arithmetic, string, and Boolean types, these are designed into Python. I'll as well explain Python's integrated functions. I am aware that you are already familiar with the "built-in" print () function, but there are several others like this.

Data Types in Python

The datatype is there in each value of Python. Because all is an object in Python programming, data types are certainly classes and variables are an example (object) of these classes.

Python Numbers

Python figures classification consists, Complex numbers, floating point numbers and whole numbers. The float, int and intricate degree in Python.

To have an understanding about which class a value or variable refers to and the isinstance () function to ascertain if an object be in an obvious class, make use of the type () function.

```
script.py IPython Shell
5 is of type <class 'int'>
2.0 is of type <class 'float'>
(1+2j) is complex number? True
In [1]: |
```

Whole numbers can be of any length /range; it limits by the available memory.

A floating number is accurate up to 15 decimal places. Whole numbers and floating numbers can be divided by decimal points. “1” is a whole number, while 1.0 is floating number.

Complex numbers show in the pattern, $x + yj$, where x is the “real” part and y is the assumed part. Check examples.

```
>>> a = 1234567890123456789
>>> a
1234567890123456789
>>> b = 0.1234567890123456789
>>> b
0.12345678901234568
>>> c = 1+2j
>>> c
(1+2j)
```

Python List

It is a directed series of objects. It is one of the frequently used datatype in Python and is extremely flexible. It is not necessary that all the objects in a list should be of the same type.

Declaring a list is fairly convenient and uncomplicated to do or know. Objects divides by commas are encompassed within brackets [].

```
>>> a = [1, 2.2, 'python']
```

We can use the slicing operator [] to extract a diversity of “objects” from a list. Index begins from 0 in Python.

```
script.py IPython Shell
1 a = [5,10,15,20,25,30,35,40]
2
3 # a[2] = 15
4 print("a[2] = ", a[2])
5
6 # a[0:3] = [5, 10, 15]
7 print("a[0:3] = ", a[0:3])
8
9 # a[5:] = [30, 35, 40]
10 print("a[5:] = ", a[5:])
```

Lists are changeable, which means the value of elements of a “list” can be altered.

```
>>> a = [1,2,3]
>>> a[2]=4
>>> a
[1, 2, 4]
```

Python Tuple

Python Tuple is a directed series of objects just as a list. The only difference is that tuples are irreversible. Tuples, once they are generated, cannot be altered.

Python Tuples can be used to write-protect data always are faster than list because they cannot be altered forcefully.

It is defined within braces () in which objects are separated by commas.

```
>>> t = (5,'program', 1+3j)
```

Slicing Operator [] can be used to excerpt objects, but we can't alter its value.

```
script.py  IPython Shell
1  t = (5,'program', 1+3j)
2
3  # t[1] = 'program'
4  print("t[1] = ", t[1])
5
6  # t[0:3] = (5, 'program', (1+3j))
7  print("t[0:3] = ", t[0:3])
8
9  # Generates error
10 # Tuples are immutable
11 t[0] = 10
```

Python Strings

It contains Unicode characters, named string. We can make use of a quote or two quotes to denotes strings. Multi-line strings can be represented making use of triple quotes, “or.”

```
>>> s = "This is a string"
>>> s = '''a multiline
```

Like list and tuple, slicing operator [] can be used with string. Strings are immutable.

```
script.py  IPython Shell
1 s = 'Hello world!'
2
3 # s[4] = 'o'
4 print("s[4] = ", s[4])
5
6 # s[6:11] = 'world'
7 print("s[6:11] = ", s[6:11])
8
9 # Generates error
10 # Strings are immutable in Python
11 s[5] ='d'
```

Python Set

It is an unarranged set of distinctive objects. Set is defined by values differentiated by a comma within parenthesis {}.

```
script.py  IPython Shell
1 b = {5,2,3,1,4}
2
3 # printing set variable
4 print("a = ", a)
5
6 # data type of variable a
7 print(type(a))
```

You can make set operations such as union,intersection on two sets. Set possess distinct values. They remove identical numbers.

```
>>> a = {1,2,2,3,3,3}
>>> a
{1, 2, 3}
```

Since, set are unordered collection, indexing has no meaning. Hence the slicing operator [] does not work.

```
>>> a = {1,2,3}
>>> a[1]
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<string>", line 301, in runcode
  File "<interactive input>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: 'set' object does not support indexing
```

Python Dictionary

It is an unarranged group of key-value sets. You can make use of these normally when we have huge quantity of data. The dictionaries update for recovering data. We must have the understanding of the key to reclaim value.

Dictionaries are confirmed between these {} parentheses with each element being a duet in the form key: value, In Python. “key and esteem can come in any form.

```
>>> d = {1:'value', 'key':2}
>>> type(d)
<class 'dict'>
```

We use key to retrieve the respective value. But not the other way around.

```
script.py  IPython Shell
1  d = {1:'value', 'key':2}
2  print(type(d))
3
4  print("d[1] = ", d[1]);
5
6  print("d['key'] = ", d['key']);
7
8  # Generates error
9  print("d[2] = ", d[2]);
```

Changes between data kinds

We can change between several data kinds by making use of a different type of changing functions such as float(), str (), int and so on.

```
>>> float(5)
5.0
```

Changing from float to “int” will reduce the value “making it nearer to zero.”

```
>>> int(10.6)
10
>>> int(-10.6)
-10
```

Conversion to and from string must contain compatible values.

```
>>> float('2.5')
2.5
>>> str(25)
'25'
>>> int('1p')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<string>", line 301, in runcode
    File "<interactive input>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10: '1p'
```

We can even convert one sequence to another.

```
>>> set([1,2,3])
{1, 2, 3}
>>> tuple({5,6,7})
(5, 6, 7)
>>> list('hello')
['h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o']
```

To convert to dictionary, each element must be a pair

```
>>> dict([[1,2],[3,4]])
{1: 2, 3: 4}
>>> dict([(3,26),(4,44)])
{3: 26, 4: 44}
```

VARIABLES IN PYTHON

Variable Assignment

It is not necessary to determine or proclaim variables beforehand, in Python. As is the reality in several other programming languages. To create a variable, you give it a value and later begin to use it. The assignment gets with an equal sign (=):

Python

>>>

```
>>> n = 300
```

It is known or translated as “n is given the value 300”. Once this attains, n can be used in an expression or statement, and its value will be exchanged:

```
Python
```

```
>>>
```

```
>>> print(n)  
300
```

The same way a critical value can be carried out directly from the translator prompt during a REPL session without needing print (), so also a variable:

```
Python
```

```
>>>
```

```
>>> n  
300
```

After that, you alter the value of n and repeat it use, the recent value will be exchanged instead:

```
Python
```

```
>>>
```

```
>>> n = 1000  
>>> print(n)  
1000  
>>> n  
1000
```

Python also gives room for chained assignment, which makes it achievable to give the same value to several variables at once:

```
Python
```

```
>>>
```

```
>>> a = b = c = 300  
>>> print(a, b, c)  
300 300 300
```

The above chained assignment gives 300 to the variables a, b, and c simultaneously.

Variable Types in Python

In several programming languages, variables are classified in types. That shows a variable is declared at first to have a specific data type, and any value given to it all through its lifetime must all the time have that type.

Variables present in Python are not subject to this limitation. In Python, a variable probably be given a value of a type and thereafter given another amount of a different kind.

```
Python >>>
>>> var = 23.5
>>> print(var)
23.5

>>> var = "Now I'm a string"
>>> print(var)
Now I'm a string
```

Item References

What is originally happening when you create a variable assignment? It is an important question in python due to the fact that the outcome varies a little bit from what you'd discover in several other programming languages.

Python is greatly an object-oriented language. Virtually all item of data in a Python program is an item of a right kind or category.

Put into consideration this code:

```
Python >>>
>>> print(300)
300
```

When presented with the statement `print(300)`, the interpreter does the following:

- Creates an integer object
- Gives it the value 300
- Displays it to the console

You can see that an integer object is created using the built-in `type()` function:

```
Python >>>
>>> type(300)
<class 'int'>
```

A Python variable is a character name which is a clue or indicator to an item. As soon as an “item” assigns to a variable, you can call the “item” by that name. Nevertheless, the data itself is yet inserted inside the “item.”

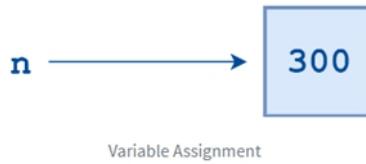
For instance:

The subsequent code shows that “n” indicates to an integer item:

```
Python
```

```
>>> n = 300
```

This assignment creates an integer object with the value 300 and assigns the variable `n` to point to that object.

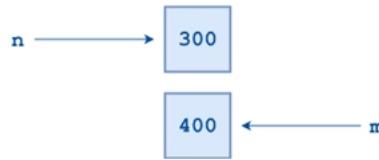


After that, imagine you doing this:

```
Python
```

```
>>> m = 400
```

Now Python creates a new integer object with the value 400, and `m` becomes a reference to it.

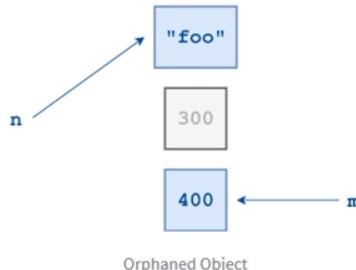


In conclusion, suppose this expression executes afterwards:

```
Python
```

```
>>> n = "foo"
```

Now Python creates a string object with the value `"foo"` and makes `n` reference that.



There is not at all again whatsoever references to the integer item 300. It has no parent, also no way to get it.

Models in this class will rarely talk about the lifespan of an item. An item's life starts working when it is designed, in which at least a reference to it builds. In an item's lifespan, aside references to it may be designed. As shown above, and references to it might be taken away also. An item stays active, as it is, so far there is minimum of one reference to it.

Each time the figure of references comes down to zero, it won't be accessible. At this level, its lifespan is up. Python will eventually take note that it is unavailable and recover the apportioned memory so it can be useful for another thing.

Identifying an object:

Every item, in Python, that is designed is given a figure that specially acknowledges it. It shows that no two objects will have identical identifier at any point in which their lifespan overlap.

Each time, any reference of the item count reduces to zero and it is waste collected, such as what occurred to the 300 objects before, then its identifying number has the possibility to be made use of again.

The `id()` which is an installed Python function give back an item's integer identifier. Making use of the `id()` function, you can show that two variables of a truth point to the same "item":



```
Python >>> n = 300
>>> m = n
>>> id(n)
60127840
>>> id(m)
60127840

>>> m = 400
>>> id(m)
60127872
```

Thereafter the work `m=n`, `m` and `n`, the two point to the same item, confirmed by the truth that `id(m)` and `id(n)` give back the identical figure. Before `m` is assigned again to 400, `m` and `n` point to several objects with distinct identities.

Variable Names

The examples that has been shown so far have made use of little, blunt variable names like `m` and `n`. nevertheless variable names can be better included. It is normally useful if they are due to the fact that it makes the aim of the variable deeply evident at the initial glance.

Accurately, in Python, variable names can be as long as anything and occasionally include both capital and small letters, figures. A deeper

limitation is that, as much as a variable name can consist of figures, the initial character of a variable name cannot be a number.

For example, most of the subsequent are significant variable names:

```
Python >>>
>>> name = "Bob"
>>> Age = 54
>>> has_W2 = True
>>> print(name, Age, has_W2)
Bob 54 True
```

Nevertheless, the subsequent example is not, due to the fact that you can't begin a variable with a number:

```
Python >>>
>>> 1099_filed = False
SyntaxError: invalid token
```

Keep in mind that “case” is important. When you carry it out, you will have a feeling that capital and small letters are not identical. The use of “_” (underscore) character is also important.

All of the following explains a different variable:

```
Python >>>
>>> age = 1
>>> Age = 2
>>> aGe = 3
>>> AGE = 4
>>> a_g_e = 5
>>> _age = 6
>>> age_ = 7
>>> _AGE_ = 8

>>> print(age, Age, aGe, AGE, a_g_e, _age, age_, _AGE_)
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
```

You can conveniently build two separate variables in the same program named Age and age, or agE. Nevertheless, it is not advisable. Because it would certainly kind of annoy anyone who attempts to read your code, you are also not excluded, especially if you have been away from it shortly.

It is important to present a name to a variable that is symbolic enough to understand. Imagine you are giving numbers to people who have graduated from college. You could perfectly pick any of the following:

Python

```
>>> numberofcollegegraduates = 2500
>>> NUMBEROFCOLLEGEGRADUATES = 2500
>>> numberOfCollegeGraduates = 2500
>>> NumberOfCollegeGraduates = 2500
>>> number_of_college_graduates = 2500

>>> print(numberofcollegegraduates, NUMBEROFCOLLEGEGRADUATES,
...     numberOfCollegeGraduates, NumberOfCollegeGraduates,
...     number_of_college_graduates)
2500 2500 2500 2500 2500
```

Each of them is possibly better options than n, or ncg, or similar ones. You can at least

easily say from the name the kind of value the variable is supposed to explain.

Nevertheless, they all are not perfectly equally well-defined. As with several other things, it depends on individual decision, but lots of people would find the initial two examples, where the letters were joined together difficult to read, particularly the one in all uppcases. The most frequently used style of creating a multi-word variable are the final three instances:

- Snake Case: Underscores different words.
- Example: number_of_college_graduates
- Camel Case: 2nd and the following words are in capital letters, to ensure word boundaries is more easy to see (Probably it occurred to someone at a particular time that the uppercase letters spread all through the variable name nearly look like camel humps.)
- Example: numberOfCollegeGraduates
- Pascal Case: Similar to Camel Case, apart from the first word.
- Example: NumberOfCollegeGraduates

Computer programmers argue seriously, with extraordinary warmth, which of these is the best. Moral arguments are applicable to all of it. Make use of any one out of the three which is common visually appealing to you, pick one and use it often. You will notice thereafter that, not only variables are the things that can be assigned names. You can as well name classes, modules and functions. The rules that guide variable names is applicable to identifiers, the more common term for names assigned to program objects.

There is a technique help for Python codes, known as PEP8. It involves giving names to Conventions that itemize approved standards for names of various object kinds. PEP 8 contains the following approved standards:

- Pascal Case can be used for names of the class
- Snake Case can be used for both variable names and function.

"CapWords" conventions are called PEP 8

Reserved Words (Keywords)

You would encounter another limitation on identifier names. The python language keeps a small set of important words that shows outstanding language functionality. No item can have identical name as a reserved word.

Itemized below are all the keywords in Python Programming

Keywords in Python programming language				
False	class	finally	is	return
None	continue	for	lambda	try
True	def	from	nonlocal	while
and	del	global	not	with
as	elif	if	or	yield
assert	else	import	pass	
break	except	in	raise	

You can check the list whenever by writing `help(keyword)` to the Python translator.

Reserved words are extremely sensitive to case used and must be put to use as shown. All of them are especially small letters, aside False, None, and True.

Making attempt to design a variable with similar name as any reserved word leads to error.

INDENTATION IN PYTHON

“There should be one way to do it.” — The Zen of Python —

Leading whitespace, or Indentation, is extraordinarily important in Python. The indentation degree of the lines of code in Python decides the way expressions are managed in a group

Check the subsequent example:

Python

```
x = 3
if x > 5:
    print('x is larger than 5')
```

The arranged publish statement enables Python aware that it can only carry out if the “if statement” comes back True. The same indentation reflects to tell Python the kind of code to run when there is function call or the meaning of “code” in a particular category.

The “major” indentation laws given by PEP 8 includes the following:

- Make use of four successive spaces to show indentation.
- Make use of spaces instead of tabs.

Spaces vs. Tabs

As explained before, make use of spaces instead of tabs whenever you are indenting code.

You can change the setting in your word processor to give four “spaces” rather than a tab character each time you tap the Tab key.

If you are making use of Python 2 and have used a combination of spaces and tabs to direct your code, you won’t notice any mistake when trying to run it. To help you in checking the agreement, you can put a `-t` flag when running Python 2code from the command line. The translator will give caution when your use of spaces and tabs are not in agreement:

Shell

```
$ python2 -t code.py
code.py: inconsistent use of tabs and spaces in indentation
```

If, on the other hand, you make use of the `-tt`flag, the translator will come out in errors instead of cautions, and your code won’t run. The pro of making use of this style is that the translator reveals the positions of the deviations:

Shell

```
$ python2 -tt code.py
  File "code.py", line 3
    print(i, j)
      ^
TabError: inconsistent use of tabs and spaces in indentation
```

Python 3 does not give room for the combination of spaces and tabs. Consequently, if you are making use of Python 3, then these errors are present automatically:

Shell

```
$ python3 code.py
  File "code.py", line 3
    print(i, j)
      ^
TabError: inconsistent use of tabs and spaces in indentation
```

You can write Python code with both spaces and tabs which means indentation. But, if you are making use of Python 3, you should be stable with what you pick lest your “code” won’t run. PEP 8 suggests that you should consistently make use of four successive spaces to show indentation.

Indentation Following Line Breaks

Whenever you are making use of line continuations to join lines under 79 characters, it is very useful to utilize indentation to make it very easy to read and understand. It gives room for reader to differentiate between a single line of code that crosses two “lines” and two lines of code.

We have two techniques of indentation you can make use of. The initial one is to modify the indented block with the opening delimiter:

Python

```
def function(arg_one, arg_two,
            arg_three, arg_four):
    return arg_one
```

In this case, PEP 8 gives two options to improve readability:

- Put a remark after the last condition. Because of syntax underlining in many editors, this will differentiate the “conditions” from the nested code:

Python

```
x = 5
if (x > 3 and
    x < 10):
    # Both conditions satisfied
    print(x)
```

- Add extra indentation on the line continuation:

Python

```
x = 5
if (x > 3 and
    x < 10):
    print(x)
```

CLEAR SCREEN IN PYTHON

Most of the time, during the course of using python interactive terminal/shell (definitely not a console), we eventually have an unorganized result and its necessary to clear the screen for certain reasons.

In a combined terminal/ shell we can basically use

ctrl+l

Nevertheless, what if it's necessary we clear the screen during the running of a python script. Unfortunately, to "clear" the "screen" there won't be any designed keyword and functions or methods to use. Through these lines, we carry it out alone.

ANSI rescue series is accessible to use, but these are not moveable and it probably won't give the required result.

```
print(chr(27) + '[2J')
print('\033c')
print('\x1bc')
```

Consequently, in our script, this is what I am going to carry out:

- Bring in system from os.
- A function must be defined.
- Make use of 'cls' in Windows and 'clear' in Linux as a logic to make a system call with these.

- Never forget to use “_” (underscore) to keep the returned value.
- Call the function we featured.

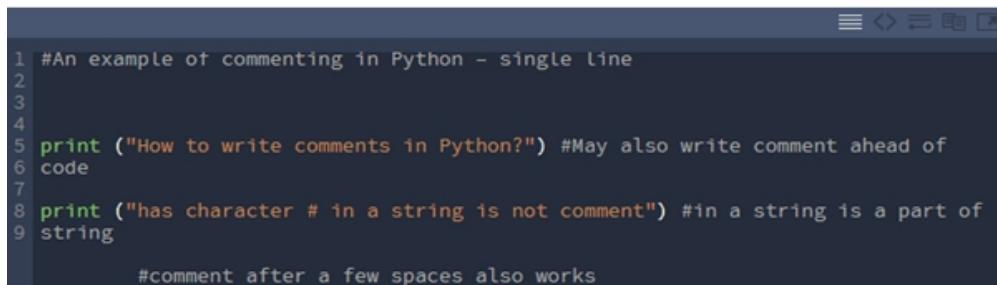
CHAPTER-4:

HOW TO COMMENT IN PYTHON

Whenever you are writing code in Python, it's essential to ensure that others can easily identify your code. Presenting the variable with well-defined names, indicating specific functions and arranging your "code" are all awesome methods to do this.

SINGLE LINE COMMENTS

For distinctive line comments, you can probably use the # (hash character) in the Python. Just start a string with a symbol hash and write a comment in one single line. Look at the example.



```
1 #An example of commenting in Python - single line
2
3
4
5 print ("How to write comments in Python?") #May also write comment ahead of
6 code
7
8 print ("has character # in a string is not comment") #in a string is a part of
9 string
      #comment after a few spaces also works
```

CHAPTER-5: PYTHON EXPRESSIONS

Expressions are signs of value. They are different from “statement” truthfully “statement” carry out something while “expressions” are a depiction of value. For instance, any string is as well an expression putting into consideration that it explains the value of the “string” also.

ARITHMETIC OPERATORS

The arithmetic operator has to do with total mathematical operations such as subtraction, multiplication, addition and so on.

Arithmetic operators in Python

Operator	Meaning	Example
+	Add two operands or unary plus	$x + y$ $+2$
-	Subtract right operand from the left or unary minus	$x - y$ -2
*	Multiply two operands	$x * y$
/	Divide left operand by the right one (always results into float)	x / y
%	Modulus - remainder of the division of left operand by the right	$x \% y$ (remainder of x/y)
//	Floor division - division that results into whole number adjusted to the left in the number line	$x // y$
**	Exponent - left operand raised to the power of right	$x**y$ (x to the power y)

Example #1: Arithmetic operators in Python

```
x = 15
y = 4

# Output: x + y = 19
print('x + y =',x+y)

# Output: x - y = 11
print('x - y =',x-y)

# Output: x * y = 60
print('x * y =',x*y)

# Output: x / y = 3.75
print('x / y =',x/y)

# Output: x // y = 3
print('x // y =',x//y)

# Output: x ** y = 50625
print('x ** y =',x**y)
```

When you run the program, the output will be:

```
x + y = 19
x - y = 11
x * y = 60
x / y = 3.75
x // y = 3
x ** y = 50625
```

OPERATOR PRECEDENCE

The series of operators, functions, variables, values and calls term as an expression. Python translator can analyze a solid translation.

See an easy example given below.

```
>>> 5 - 7
-2
```

It is possible to get more than a single operator in an expression. In this case, 5, 7 is an expression.

There is a rule of precedence in Python. It controls the arrangement in which operation are executed.

For instance, multiplication has greater precedence than subtraction.

```
script.py  IPython Shell
1 # Multiplication has higher precedence
2 # than subtraction
3 # Output: 2
4 10 - 4 * 2
```

Nevertheless, we can alter this arrangement making use of braces () as it has greater precedence.

```
script.py  IPython Shell
1 # Parentheses () has higher precedence
2 # Output: 12
3 (10 - 4) * 2
```

The operator precedence present in Python is shown in the list in the chart below. It is from the biggest to the smallest; the upper group possess greater priority than the lower ones.

Operator precedence rule in Python

Operators	Meaning
()	Parentheses
**	Exponent
+x, -x, ~x	Unary plus, Unary minus, Bitwise NOT
*, /, //, %	Multiplication, Division, Floor division, Modulus
+, -	Addition, Subtraction
<<, >>	Bitwise shift operators
&	Bitwise AND
^	Bitwise XOR
	Bitwise OR
==, !=, >, >=, <, <=, is, is not, in, not in	Comparisons, Identity, Membership operators
not	Logical NOT
and	Logical AND
or	Logical OR

COMPLEX ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS

Python program helps the user to input double numeric values of data kind float. After that, we are going to make use of those double values to carry out the Complex Arithmetic Operations like Modulus, Subtraction, Division, Exponent, Addition, and Multiplication.

Here I will describe to you the way to write a Python Program to carry out Complex Arithmetic Operations on numeric values with a real sample.

```
# Python Program to Perform Arithmetic Operations

num1 = float(input(" Please Enter the First Value Number 1: "))
num2 = float(input(" Please Enter the Second Value Number 2: "))

# Add Two Numbers
add = num1 + num2

# Subtracting num2 from num1
sub = num1 - num2

# Multiply num1 with num2
multi = num1 * num2

# Divide num1 by num2
div = num1 / num2

# Modulus of num1 and num2
mod = num1 % num2

# Exponent of num1 and num2
expo = num1 ** num2

print("The Sum of {0} and {1} = {2}".format(num1, num2, add))
print("The Subtraction of {0} from {1} = {2}".format(num2, num1, sub))
print("The Multiplication of {0} and {1} = {2}".format(num1, num2, multi))
print("The Division of {0} and {1} = {2}".format(num1, num2, div))
print("The Modulus of {0} and {1} = {2}".format(num1, num2, mod))
print("The Exponent Value of {0} and {1} = {2}".format(num1, num2, expo))
```

Here is the result.

For this Python Program of any complex Arithmetic operations sample, we gave num 1 as 10 also num2 as 3

BINARY NUMBER MANIPULATION

I will make attempt to make us familiar with binary figures here, it will help to a follow-up write up based on bit manipulation in Python. There is a designed function in python which will change a binary string, for instance, 111111111111, to the two's complement integer -1?

In python, the easy procedure to obtain this figure is using the designed bin() function.

Put in mind:

It brings back a binary string, not the binary bits, and making use of int () to change back from binary to a base “10” whole number.

```
bin(583)      # '0b1001000111'  
bin(583)[2:]  # If you just want the digits without the '0b' prefix, ie '10010001  
11'  
  
int('0b1001000111', 2) # ie second parameter (2) indicates the first parameter is  
# in base 2 format.  
int('1001000111', 2)   # dropping the '0b' prefix works too.  
  
0b1001000111 + 2 # 585. Python automatically converts binary numbers for mathemati  
cal operations.
```

CHAPTER-6:

DETAILS OF STRINGS

A series of characters is named string, while a “character” is just a sign. For instance, the English language has 26 characters.

We already have the knowledge that computer does not identify with characters. The only thing they know is binary. As much as you may notice characters on your screen, within it is saved and controlled as a mixture of 0's and 1's. This changing of “character” to a figure is named encoding, and the opposite procedure is decoding. Unicode and ASCII are some of the well-known encoding that is made use of

In Python, a string is a series of Unicode character. Unicode was initiated to consist of all aspect in every languages and show concurrence in encoding. If you want to know more about Unicode, feel free to learn here.

Creation of strings in Python

Strings can be created by encompassing characters within a quote or double quotes. As well, triple quotes can be made use of in Python but generally used to explain multiline “strings” and docstrings.

```
script.py  IPython Shell
1  # all of the following are equivalent
2  my_string = 'Hello'
3  print(my_string)
4
5  my_string = "Hello"
6  print(my_string)
7
8  my_string = """Hello"""
9  print(my_string)
10
11 # triple quotes string can extend multiple lines
12 my_string = """Hello, welcome to
13             the world of Python"""
14 print(my_string)
```

The result would be:

```
Hello
Hello
Hello
Hello, welcome to
    the world of Python
```

BASIC STRING MANIPULATION

A group of problems is known as Basic String Manipulation. In which a user is needed to operate a particular string and make use/alter its data. An example quiz would be an important method to identify the problems that fall into this category.

- Considering a string S of N length, move every character of the string by K positions not to the left, where $K \leq N$.

For instance: Let's S= "hacker" also K=2. Here N=6.

Shifting each character in S by two positions not to the left would result in erhack.

Put in mind that S [0], in other words, 'h' is shifted by two positions towards the S[5], i.e., r which happens to be the last character in S approaches round-about back to S[1] as there is no chance for 'r' to move above the restrictions of string length.

Given a string S of N length, move each character of the string by the K Approach:

- Show a different supplementary string shiftedS that has the same size as S.
- Replicate ith element of S to the $(K+i)$ th position in shifted. This shows, $\text{shifted}[i+K]=S[i]$ in which $0 \leq i < N$.
- Ensure that $i+K$ never outclass N, this is because that will make attempt to gain entrance to a memory location that is not present in shiftedS. There's an uncomplicated move to make sure that-use $(i+K) \bmod N$

IMPLEMENTATION: STRING FORMAT METHOD

Python format () method is used to carry out format procedures on a string. During the process of formatting string a delimiter {} (parentheses) is managed to take the place with the value. This delimiter can either consist of a positional argument or index.

For instance, you have a variable titled “name” having your username in it, and you would eventually like to publish (out a salutation to such user.)

script.py	IPython Shell
<pre>1 # This prints out "Hello, John!" 2 name = "John" 3 print("Hello, %s!" % name)</pre>	In [1]:

Are you using more than two argument specifiers? if yes, make use of a triple (braces):

script.py	IPython Shell
<pre>1 # This prints out "John is 23 years old." 2 name = "John" 3 age = 23 4 print("%s is %d years old." % (name, age))</pre>	In [1]:

Any item that is not a string can be deleted making use of the %s operator aside. The “string” that comes back from the “repr” procedure of that item format as the string. For instance:

script.py	IPython Shell
<pre>1 # This prints out: A list: [1, 2, 3] 2 mylist = [1,2,3] 3 print("A list: %s" % mylist)</pre>	In [1]:

CHAPTER-7: BRANCHING

A branch can be referred to as a command in a computer program that can make a computer to begin to carry out another instruction series and consequently distinct from its original behavior of carrying out instructions sequentially. Common branching statement includes continue, goto, break and return.

LOGICAL OPERATOR

Conditionals are a right method to arrive at conclusions by making enquiries about whether something is equal “True or not”. Nevertheless, frequently one condition is not enough. We probably need to take the contrary of our result. Or for example, if we want to pick turtle.ycor() and turtle.xcor() we need to join them. It would work with logical operators.

Logical operators are the and, or, in no way operators.

Logical operators in Python

Operator	Meaning	Example
and	True if both the operands are true	x and y
or	True if either of the operands is true	x or y
not	True if operand is false (complements the operand)	not x

Example: Logical Operators in Python

```
x = True
y = False

# Output: x and y is False
print('x and y is',x and y)

# Output: x or y is True
print('x or y is',x or y)

# Output: not x is False
print('not x is',not x)
```

THE USE OF IF STATEMENT

"if statement is an unavoidable tool which is used in making decision, In Python. IF statement is true only then will it run the body of the code.

Anytime you want to rationalize one condition while the second "condition" is not "true" that's when you can apply "if statement."

Syntax:

```
if expression  
    Statement  
else  
    Statement
```

```
Python11.1.py x  
1 #  
2 # Example file for working with conditional statement  
3 #  
4 def main():  
5     x, y = 2, 8  
6  
7     if (x < y):  
8         st = "x is less than y"  
9         print(st)  
10  
11 if __name__ == "__main__":  
12     main()  
13  
14
```

Run Python11.1

x is less than y

Here our condition is met, $2 < 8$, and hence it prints out x is less than y

```
#  
#Example file for working with conditional statement  
#  
def main():  
    x,y =2,8  
  
    if(x < y):  
        st= "x is less than y"  
    print(st)  
  
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    main()
```

Descriptions

- 5- We explain two variables x, y = 2, 8
- 7- The if statement check for condition x < y which is logical in this case
- 8- The variable st adjust to “x is less than y.”
- 9- The line publish st will depart the value of variable st which be “x is less than y,”

THE USE OF IF ELSE STATEMENT

In Python, “if else statement” is always made use of whenever you have to make decisions on a “statement” depending on others. Does one condition works incorrectly? If yes, there must be a different condition that describes the logic or statement.

```
Python* : # Example file for working with conditional statement
# 
def main():
    x, y = 8, 4

    if (x < y):
        st = "x is less than y"
    else:
        st = "x is greater than y"
    print(st)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()

Run Python11.2
C:\Users\DK\Desktop\Python code\Python Test
x is greater than y
```

Use "else condition", if there is any other outcomes you want to print out in case your "if condition" does not gives the expected result

```

#
#Example file for working with conditional statement
#
def main():
    x,y =8,4

    if(x < y):
        st= "x is less than y"
    else:
        st= "x is greater than y"
    print (st)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()

```

Descriptions

- 5- We give meaning to two variables x, y=8, 4
- 7- The if statement looks for condition $x < y$ which is False in this case
- 9- The move of program control goes to “condition”
- 10- The variable st adjust to "x is greater than y."
- 11- The line publish st will result the value of variable st which be "x is greater than y,"

THE USE OF IF ELIF STATEMENT

Have you made any mistake in “else statement”? if yes, “elif statement” will right your wrong. By making use of the “elif” condition, you are explaining the program to publish out the third condition or chance when the other “condition” does not go right or correct.

```

1  # Example file for working with conditional statement
2  #
3  #
4  def main():
5      x, y = 8, 8
6
7      if (x < y):
8          st = "x is less than y"
9
10     elif (x == y):
11         st = "x is same as y"  # Callout: When both coordinates(8,8) are same we have used "elif condition" to print out, "x is same as y"
12
13     else:
14         st = "x is greater than y"
15     print(st)
16
17
18 > if __name__ == "__main__":
19     main()
20

```

Run Python11.3
"C:\Users\DK\Desktop\python>x is same as y"

When both coordinates(8,8) are same we have used "elif condition" to print out, "x is same as y"

```

#
#Example file for working with conditional statement
#
def main():
    x,y =8,8

    if(x < y):
        st= "x is less than y"

    elif (x == y):
        st= "x is same as y"

    else:
        st="x is greater than y"
    print(st)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()

```

Descriptions

- 5- We give meaning to two variables x, y= 8,8
- 7- The if statement looks for condition x<y which is False in this case

- 10- The move of program control goes to the elseif “condition.” It checks if $x==y$ which is not false
 - 11- The variable st adjust to “ x is the same as y ”
 - 15- The move of program control leaves the “if statement” (it won’t reach the else statement). And publish the variable st. The result is “ x is the same as y ,” which is right.
-

TERNARY OPERATORS

In Python, Ternary operators are commonly referred to as conditional expressions. The above operators rate something depending on a condition if it’s true or false. In Python, Ternary operators are not too long conditional expressions. These are operators that check a condition and depending on that, rate a value. It is accessible since PEP 308 was endorsed is available ever since the version of 2.4. This operator, if used accurately, can reduce the code size and increase the ability to read and understand.

Check out the following blueprint and a sample of making use of conditional expressions.

Blueprint

condition_if_true if condition else condition_if_false

Sample

```
is_nice = True  
state = "nice" if is_nice else "not nice"
```

Chapter-8:

Loops

“For and While” loops are two major types of “loops.”

“ For ” Loop

For loops focus on a particular series. Check out the next example:

For loops can focus on a series of figures making use of “xrange” and “range” functions. The difference between xrange and range is that xrange gives back an iterator, which is way productive, while the range function gives back a new list with names of that stated range.

Put in mind that the range function is based on zero.

While" Loops

While loops occur over and over again so far a certain Boolean condition appears.

For instance:

"Break" And "Continue" Statements

"break" is made use to leave a while loop or for loop, wears continue is used to hop the present block and go back to the “while” or “for” statement.

Samples:

Chapter-9: Functions

A group of statements is known as a function that collects inputs, do some accurate calculations and gives result. The idea is to add some often or repeatedly done work together and create a function so that in place of writing the same code repeatedly for various inputs, we can call the “function” Python gives designed “functions” such as print (), and so on. Nevertheless we can as well design your own “functions.” The above functions are named user-defined functions.

In Python language, a function is known by making use of the def keyword:
Calling Function

Just giving meaning to a “function” is not useful until you name it. As long as the design of a “function” comes to conclusion, you can perform it by naming the “function” making use of the function name.

If we want to recognize the command “def func1 ():” and name the function. You would notice “I am learning Python function” as a result.

The screenshot shows a Python code editor with the following code:

```
#define a function
def func1():
    print ("I am learning Python Function")
func1() #Function Call
# print func1()
# print func1
```

The code is annotated with labels:

- Function definition:** Points to the line `def func1():`
- Function Call:** Points to the line `func1()`
- Function output:** Points to the line `I am learning Python Function`

The status bar at the bottom shows the file path: "C:\Users\DK\Desktop\Python code\Python Test\Python 10\Python10 10\Python10 Code\Python10.1.py"

If we want to recognize the command “def func1():” and name, the function. You would notice “I am learning Python function” as a result. Publish fun1() function names our def func1(): and the result would be “I’m learning Python function none.”

There are certain laws in Python used in giving meaning to a function.

- Any args or fact guideline use within these braces.
- The function initial statement can be an optional articulation documentation string of the function

- The code within every function starts with a colon (:) and should be indented.
- The return statement abandons a function, in substitute returning a value to the caller. A beginning statement with no args is equal to return None.

Returning Values

In Python, Return value or command gives meaning to what “value” to bring back to the caller of the function.

Let us identify this with the following sample

In this case, we could notice when a function is not “return.”

➤ For example, we need the square of 4, and it should represent “16” when the code runs. Which it provides when we make use of “print x*z” code, nevertheless when you name the “function,” duplication doesn’t happen and get off the end of the “function.” Python gives back “None” for getting off the end of the “function.”

➤ To make this clear, we switch the print command with assignment command.

Let’s take a look at the result.

In the process of running the command “print square (4)” it, in actuality, gives back the value of the item putting into consideration that we don’t have any specific function to run here it gives back “None.”

Passing Arguments

The argument is the value that is assigned to the function when it’s named. Put aside on the naming side, it is an argument, also on the function side, it is a guideline.

Let’s check the way Python Args operates.

➤ Argument state in the function explanation. Notwithstanding naming the function, it is possible to pass the values for that args in the diagram below:

➤ If you want to proclaim a default value of any argument, give it a value at function definition.

Default Parameters

Usually, parameters possess a positional attitude, and it’s necessary to let them know in the same arrangement that they explain.

Sample

The following function holds a string as process parameter and publishes it on a quality screen.

Recursive Functions

This function names self and consist of a leaving condition to put an end to periodic calls. Because of the factorial figure computation, the leaving condition is confidently equals to 1. Recursion functions by “stacking” calls till the exit “condition” is logical.

- We mention our recursive factorial function which allows an integer parameter and brings back the factorial of the same parameter. This function will name itself and decrease the figure until the intriguing, or the low state comes in. When the condition is right or logical, the previously created values will be multiplied by one another and the greatest factorial value comes back.
- We proclaim and start an integer variable with value of “6” and after that publish its factorial value by calling our factorial function.
- Check out the chart below to describe very well the recursive tool, which composed of calling the function by itself till the base case or stopping state is attained, and then, we gather the earlier values:

Lambda Functions

Python helps you to create unnamed function, i.e., “function” that has no names making use of a set up named lambda function. Lambda functions are small function usually not greater than a line. It can possess any figure of arguments similarly to a normal function. The component of lambda function is small and occurs in only a single expression.

Sample

To build a lambda function, firstly write keyword lambda resulted by a single or more argument differentiated by a comma, after that by colon sign (:), eventually by a one-line expression.

CHAPTER-10: EXCEPTION HANDLING

Handling of Exception gives you room to take care of your mistakes without any hindrance and do something useful about it. Such as showing a text to the user when the file to be used cannot be found. Python handles exception making use of:

Try

Except

Block. Syntax

```
try:  
    # write some code  
    # that might throw exception  
except <ExceptionType>:  
    # Exception handler, alert the user
```

As shown in the try block, it's necessary you write code that probably throw an exception.

When an exception shows “code” in the [...]

EXCEPTIONS AND ERRORS

An exception is an occurrence, which occurs during the running of a program that disrupts the usual movement of the program's instructions. Mainly, when a Python script comes across a situation that it can't deal with, it generates an exception. An exception is a Python item that signifies an error.

Whenever a Python script brings up an exception, it should handle the exception hurriedly lest it ends and exit.

HOW TO HANDLE EXCEPTIONS

If you have some distinctive code that may improve a restriction, you can support your program by putting the doubtful code in a try: block. After the trial: block, compose an except statement, accompanied by a block of code which takes care of the problem as cleanly as possible.

Below is the simple syntax of

- Try
- Except
- else blocks

```
try:  
    You do your operations here  
    .....  
except ExceptionI:  
    If there is ExceptionI, then execute this block.  
except ExceptionII:  
    If there is ExceptionII, then execute this block.  
    .....  
else:  
    If there is no exception then execute this block.
```

THROWING EXCEPTIONS

If a condition happens, one can attempt to throw an exception. The statement can be supplement with a designed exception.

Anytime you want to throw an error when a particular condition occurs making use of raise, you could carry it out like this:

```
x = 10  
if x > 5:  
    raise Exception('x should not exceed 5. The value of x was: {}'.format(x))
```

When you operate this code, the result will be the following:

```
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "<input>", line 4, in <module>  
    Exception: x should not exceed 5. The value of x was: 10
```

The program moves to a standstill and shows our exception to screen, giving rooms for hints about things that went wrong.

CHAPTER-11: DATA INPUT

INPUT FUNCTION AND DATA INPUT SETUP

In Python, there are two functions to take charge of input from the user and the system.

1. “*Input*” (*prompt*) to take “*input*” from a user.
2. *print()* to show output on the console.

Newest Python has a built-in function *input()* to take user input.

The function “*input()*” shows a line started on a console by an input gadget into a string brings it back. The above input string would be used in your Python code.

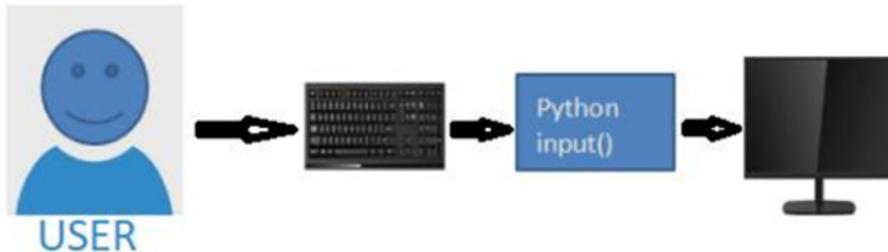
It is important to identify what *input* in Python is, specifically for amateurs

What is the *input*?

The *input* is elimination nevertheless some value from a user or system.

As a sample, if you want to process an addition of two figures on the calculator you need to give two figures to the calculator, those two numbers is an *input* given by the user to a calculator program.

Look at the way it operates.



Let's look at the way to accept employee data from the user making use of the *input* function and showing it making use of the *print* function.

See the working of an *input* function in Python

```
input([prompt])
```

In this case, the prompt argument is discretionary if it is there, it shows to normal result unless a trailing new line. For example, it's an output to the user. E.g. the instruction is, "please enter a value."

If input () function runs program movement halts till a user inputs some value.

The message or text show on the result screen to tell a user to put in input value is not necessary, meaning the prompt parameter is not important.

Learn this with a sample. Input:

```
number = input ("Enter number")
name    = input("Enter name")

print("Printing type of input value")

print ("type of number", type(number))
print ("type of name", type(name))
```

Output:

```
Enter number 22
Enter name Jessa
Printing type of input value
type of number <class 'str'>
type of name <class 'str'>
```

READING AND WRITING DATA TO FOLDERS

In Python, it is easy to understand and write data to folders.

So as to do this, the first step is to open folders in the normal mode, check the following sample of the way to open a text folder and read what's in it:

```
with open('data.txt', 'r') as f:
    data = f.read()
```

Pick a folder name open () and a mode as its arguments, "r" unlocks the folder in read-only mode. To create fact to a folder, put in "w" as an argument ideally:

```
with open('data.txt', 'w') as f:
    data = 'some data to be written to the file'
    f.write(data)
```

In the samples shown, open () unlocks folders for either writing or reading and brings back a folder handle (here, it is f) that shows methods that can be made use to write or read data to the folder.

CHAPTER-12:

MORE DATA STRUCTURES

TUPLES

Python gives an extra type which is an arranged group of objects, named a “tuple.”

Using and setting out of Tuples

Tuples are the same to lists in all aspects, apart from the following features:

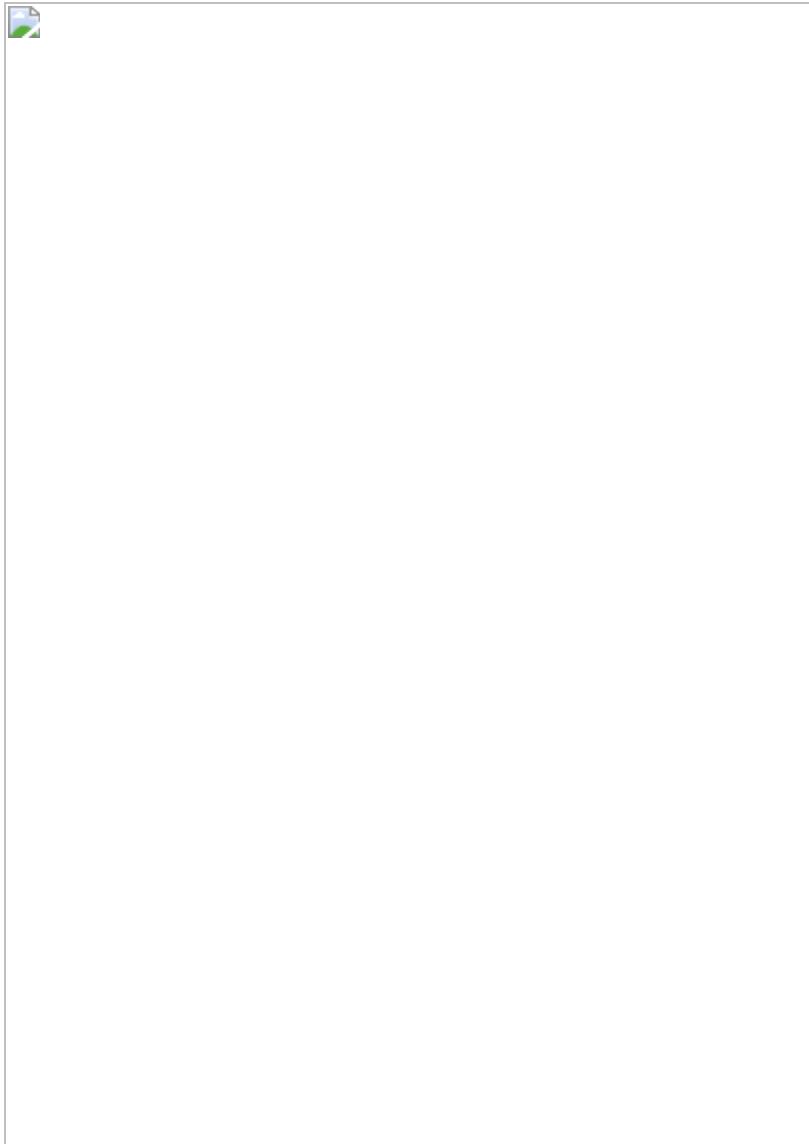
- Tuples are decided by the inclusion of the elements in braces ()() in place of square brackets ([]).
- Tuples are incontestable.

Below is a sample presenting a tuple indexing, slicing and definition:

```
>>> t = ('foo', 'bar', 'baz', 'qux', 'quux', 'corge')
>>> t
('foo', 'bar', 'baz', 'qux', 'quux', 'corge')

>>> t[0]
'foo'
>>> t[-1]
'corge'
>>> t[1::2]
('bar', 'qux', 'corge')
```

We have string, and list changing apparatus that also works for tuples:



As much as tuples are explained making use of parentheses, you nevertheless slice and index tuples making use of square brackets, as it is for lists and strings.

All that you've known about lists, they are arranged, they can include inconsistent objects, the above can indexed and sliced, and can be present in each other is also not false of tuples, nevertheless they can't be altered:



Why make use of a tuple preferably than a list?

- Program execution is faster when creating a tuple more than it is for the same list.
- Periodically, you wouldn't want data to be changed if the values in the group are required to proceed often for the life of the

program, making use of a tuple rather than a “list” protects against accidental alteration.

- There is an extra Python data type that you will soon encounter name a dictionary, which includes as one of its elements a value that is of consistent “type.” A tuple can be used for this reason, but a list can’t be.

LISTS AND ITS FUNCTIONS

Set, a “list” is a fine deal of autocratic objects, somewhat similar to the arrangement in several other programming languages but better managed. The list can be defined in Python by putting a comma-separated series of objects in square brackets ([]), check out an example:



The important properties of Python lists include the following:

“Lists” Are Ordered

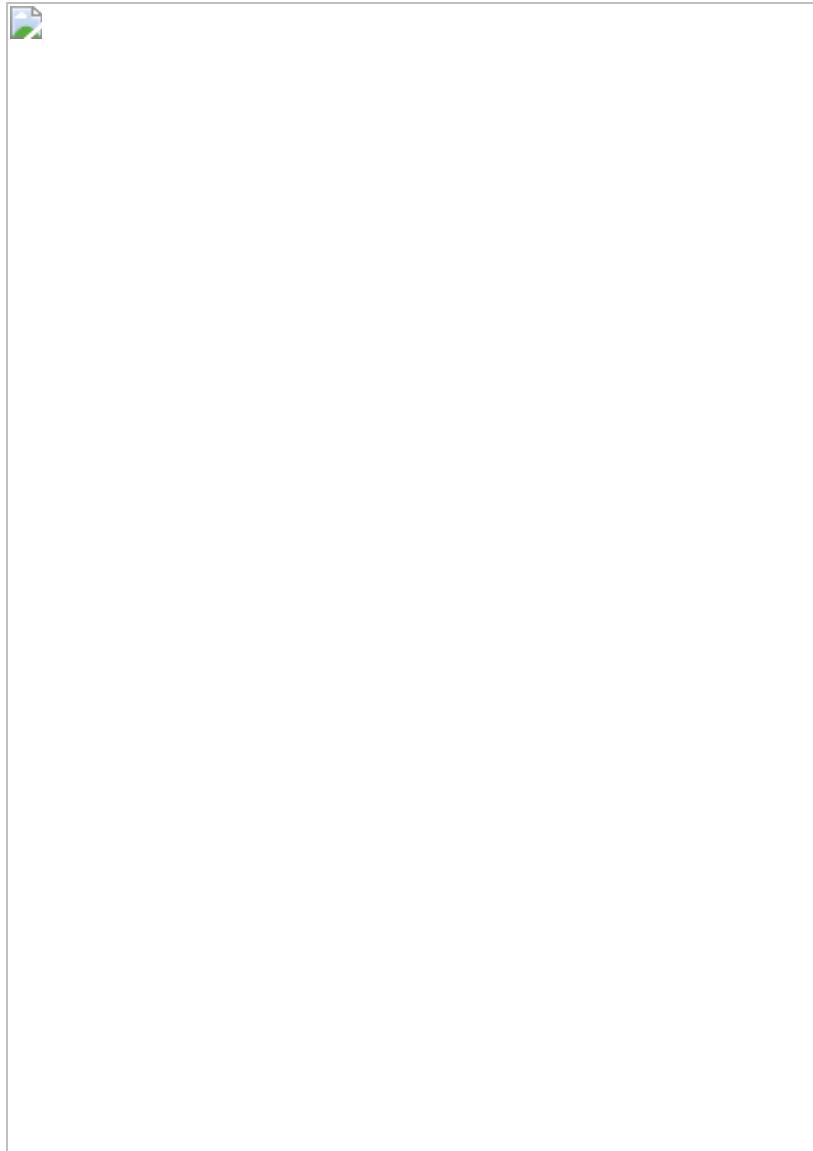
A list isn’t a series of something. It is an arranged group of objects. The arrangement in which you define the facts when you define a list is an intrinsic feature of that list, and it set aside for that list’s time of expiration.

Lists that have identical elements in another order are not the same:

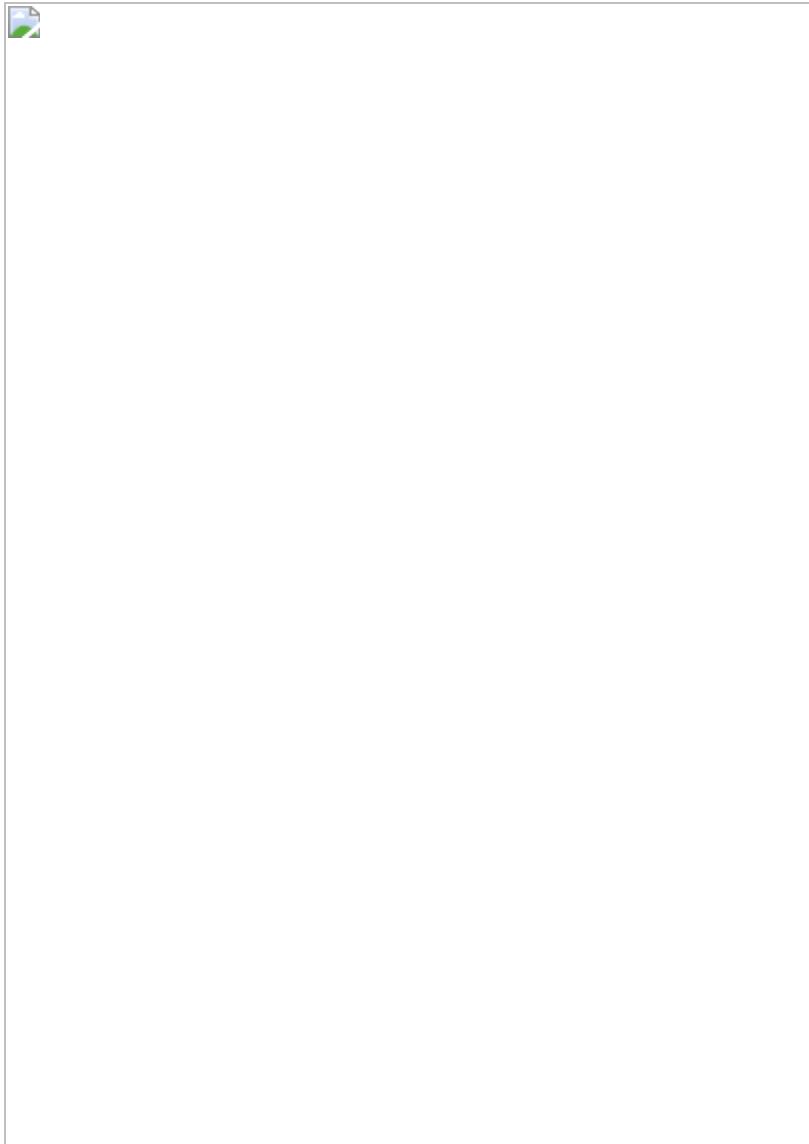
Arbitrary Objects Included in the List

A list can consist any union of objects. The components of a “list” can all as well be similar

Type:



Or the facts can be of various types:



Lists can also consist of several objects, such as modules, functions and classes, check the diagram below:



In addition, a “list” can limit any objects in figures, starting from zero to the largest size, depending on the support of your computer’s memory:



Access the list elements by Index

Certain items in a list can be gotten making use of an index enclosed in square parentheses. It is accurately the same as gaining access to each characters in a string. Indexing of list is zero-based as it is not without “strings.”

Check out the list below:



The lists for the elements is presenting here:



Check out the Python code to access certain areas of “a”:

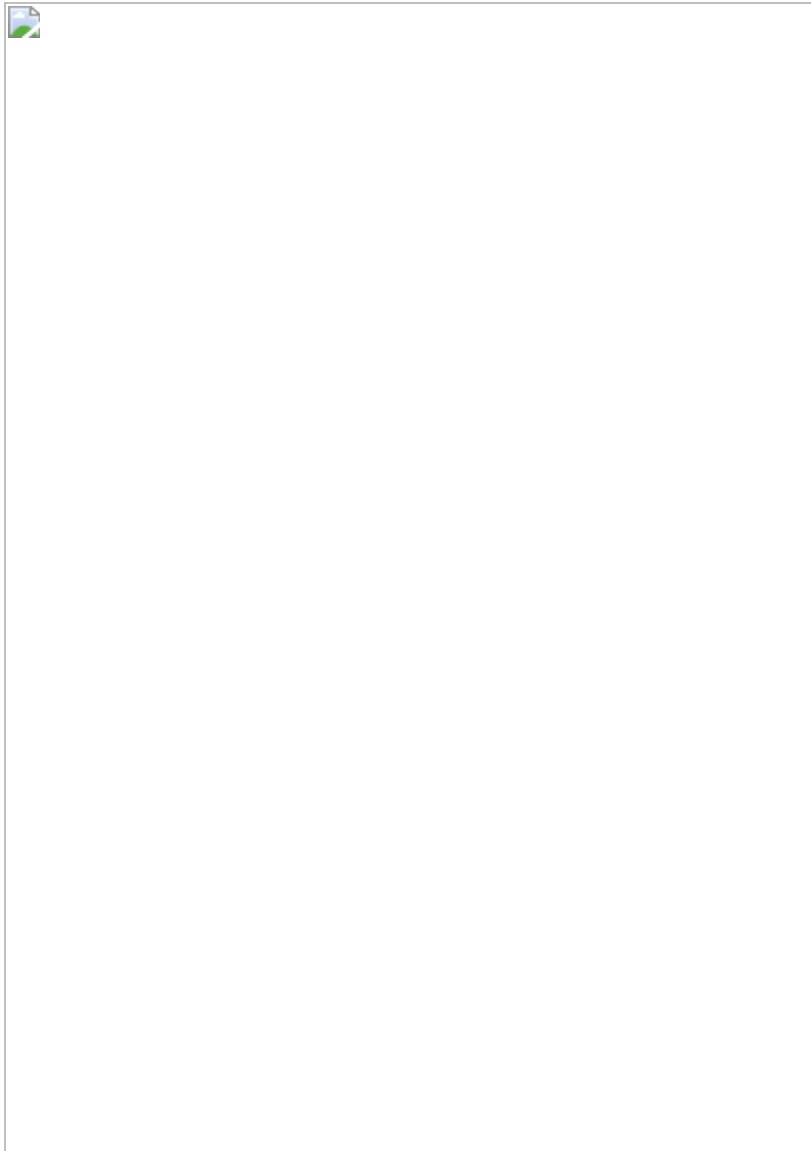


Actually all string indexing works the same as for lists. For instance, a negative list index starts reading from the bottom of the “list”:

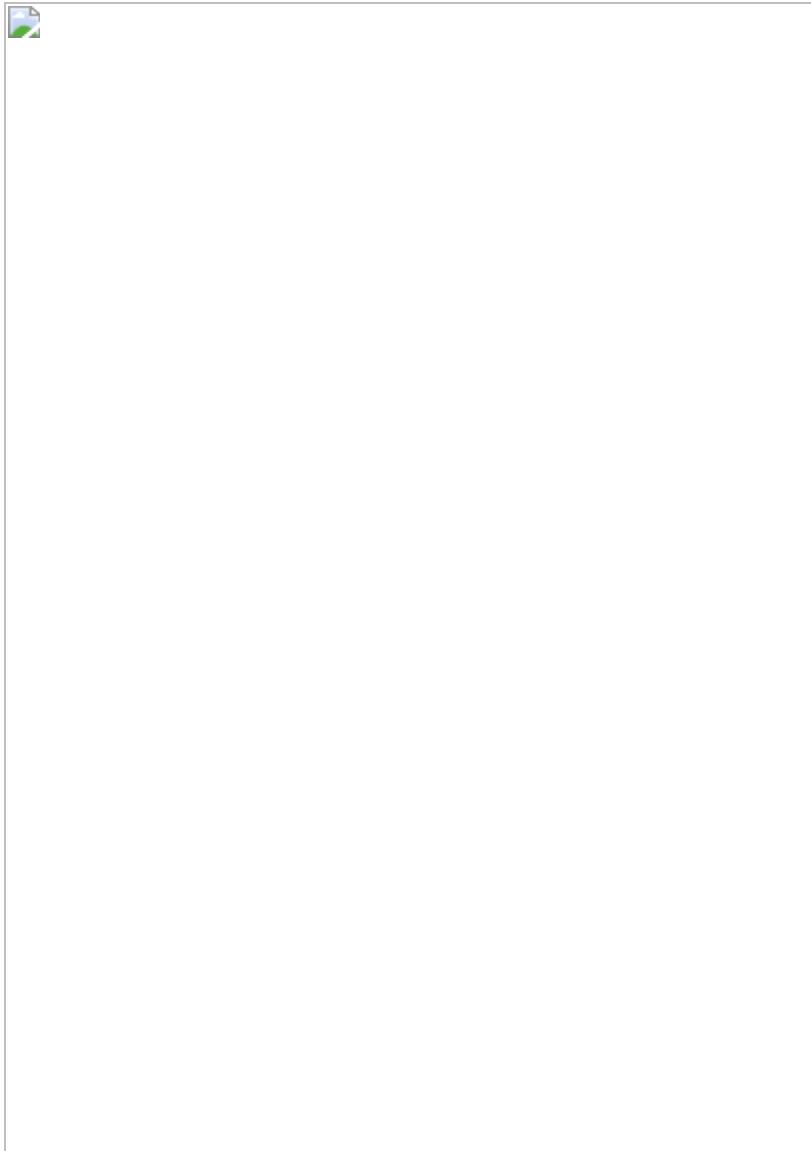




Splitting as well runs. If “a” is a list, the statement $a[m:n]$ brings back the portion of a from index “m” to, however not involving, index “n”:



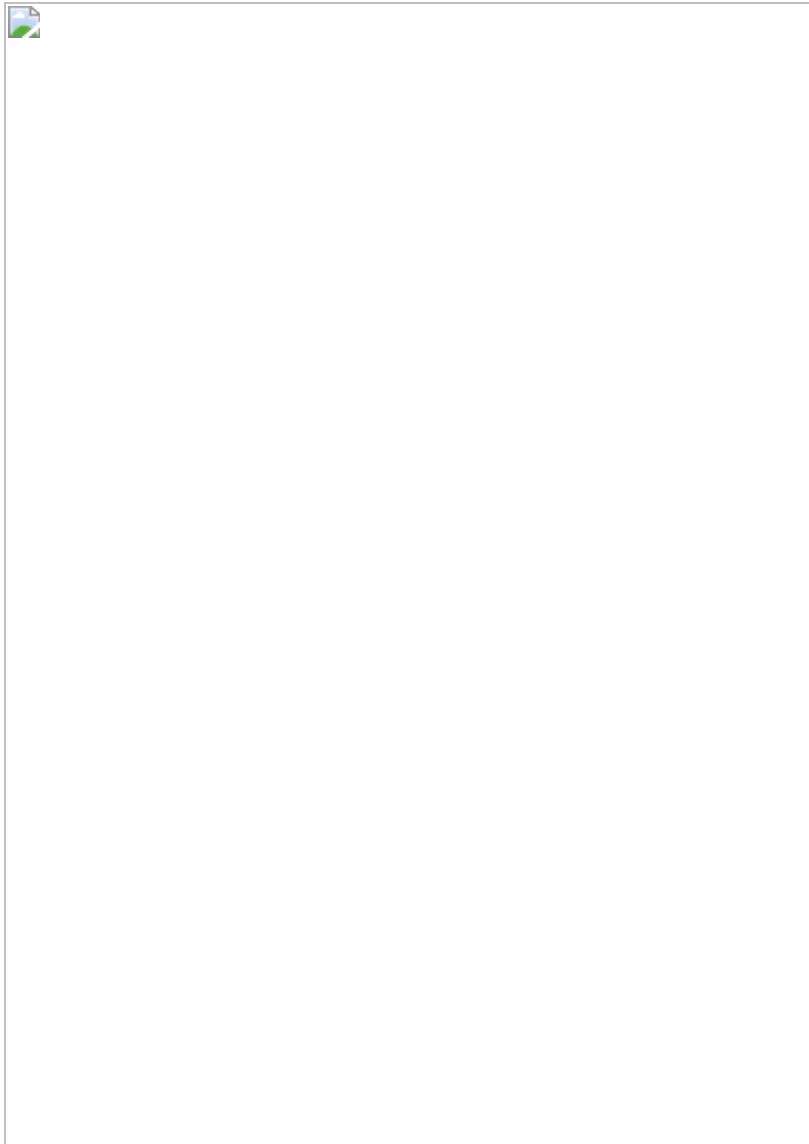
You probably see that in each example, the list is usually given to a variable prior to the execution of operation on it. Nevertheless, you can also operate on a list literal:



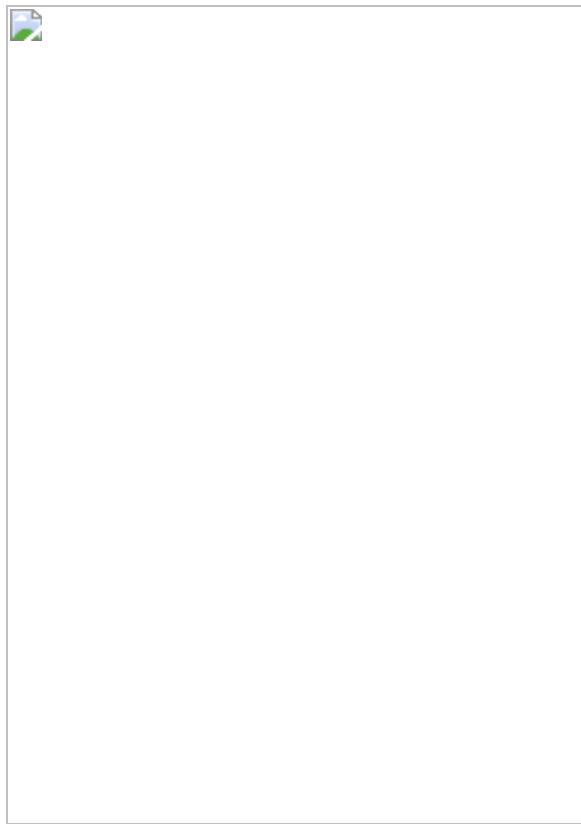
Lists Can Be Nested

You have known that an element present in a “list” can happen to be any object. That understands a different list. A list can consist of sublists, which also can include sublists themselves, and so on to inconsistent depth.

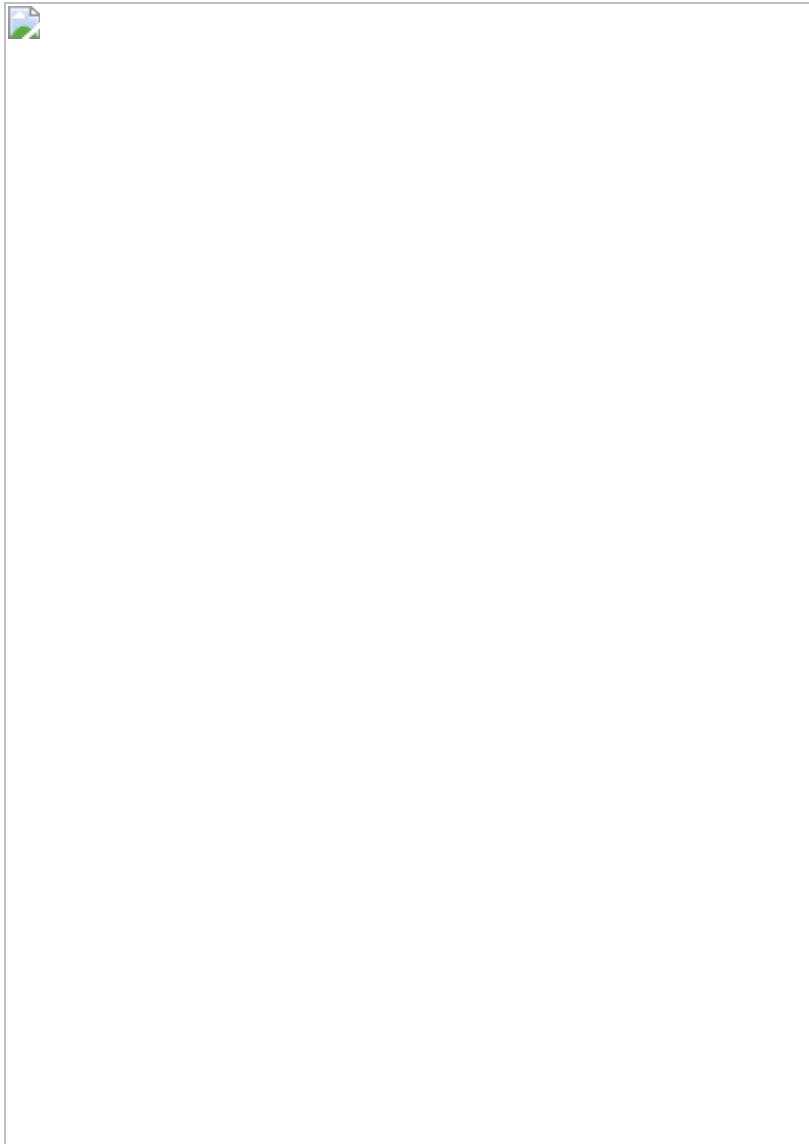
Sample:



Below is the diagram that shows the object formation that X references.



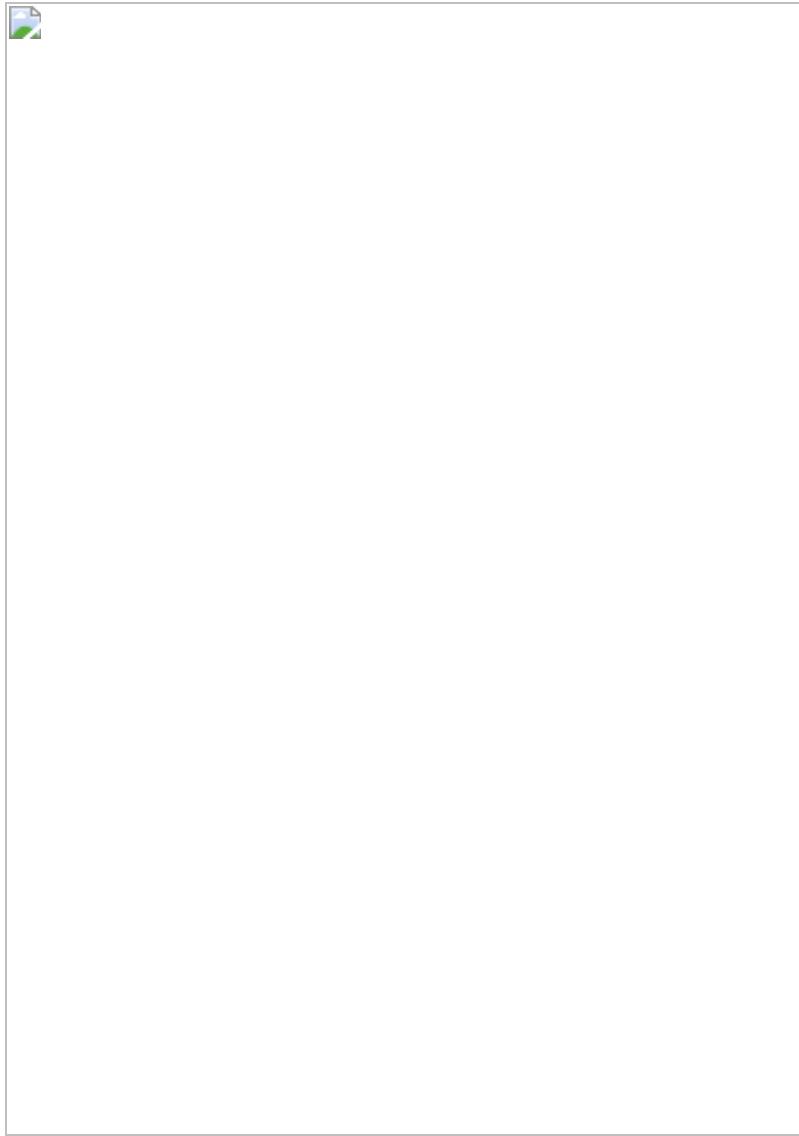
$x[0]$, $x[2]$, containing $x[4]$ are strings, each one has a length of character:



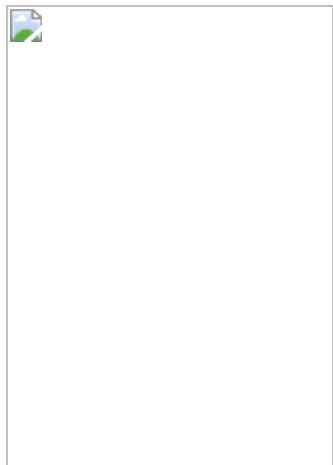
However, $x[1]$ and $x[3]$ are sublists:



To attain the items in a sublist, totally put new index:



$x[1][1]$ is also a different sublist, so putting one additional index accesses its elements:



Lists Are Mutable

Most of the data types you discovered as of this day have always been fragmentary types. Floating objects or integers, for instance, are basic unit that cannot be furtherly broken down. The above types are indefinite, hoping that they can't alter after they have been built. It is meaningless to think of modifying the value of an integer. If you want a different integer, you assign another one.

Conversely, the string type is a difficult type. Strings are capable of reducing to tiny parts of the component characters. It is probably reasonable to think of altering the attitudes in the “string.” Nevertheless, it is impossible. In Python, the strings also are unchangeable.

The list is the basic changing data type you have come across.

You can move around, shift, add, and delete the elements, so far a folder will create.

Python gives a broad range of ways to change “folders.”

Changing a Single List Value

You can return a single value back in a list by indexing and uncomplicated assignment:

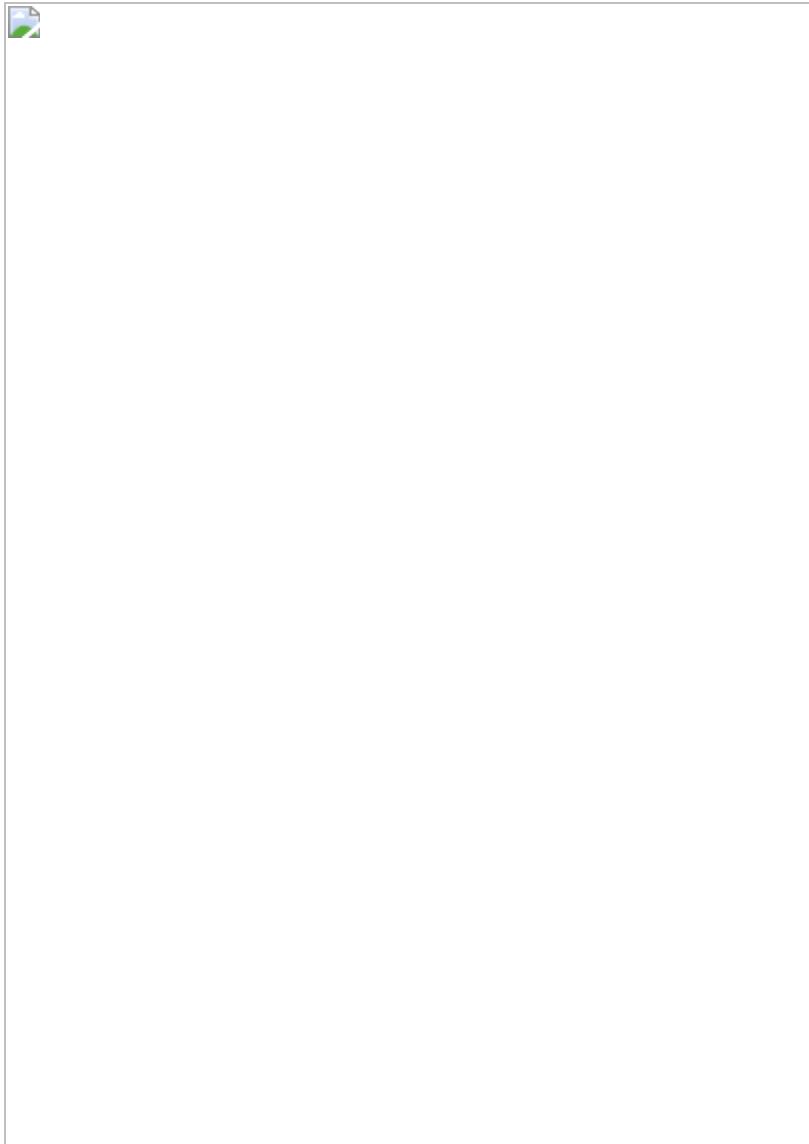


Del command can take away a list.



Changing several list Values

Incase it's necessary to change several adjoining elements in a list at once. Python gives this with a concrete assignment, which possess the following structure:

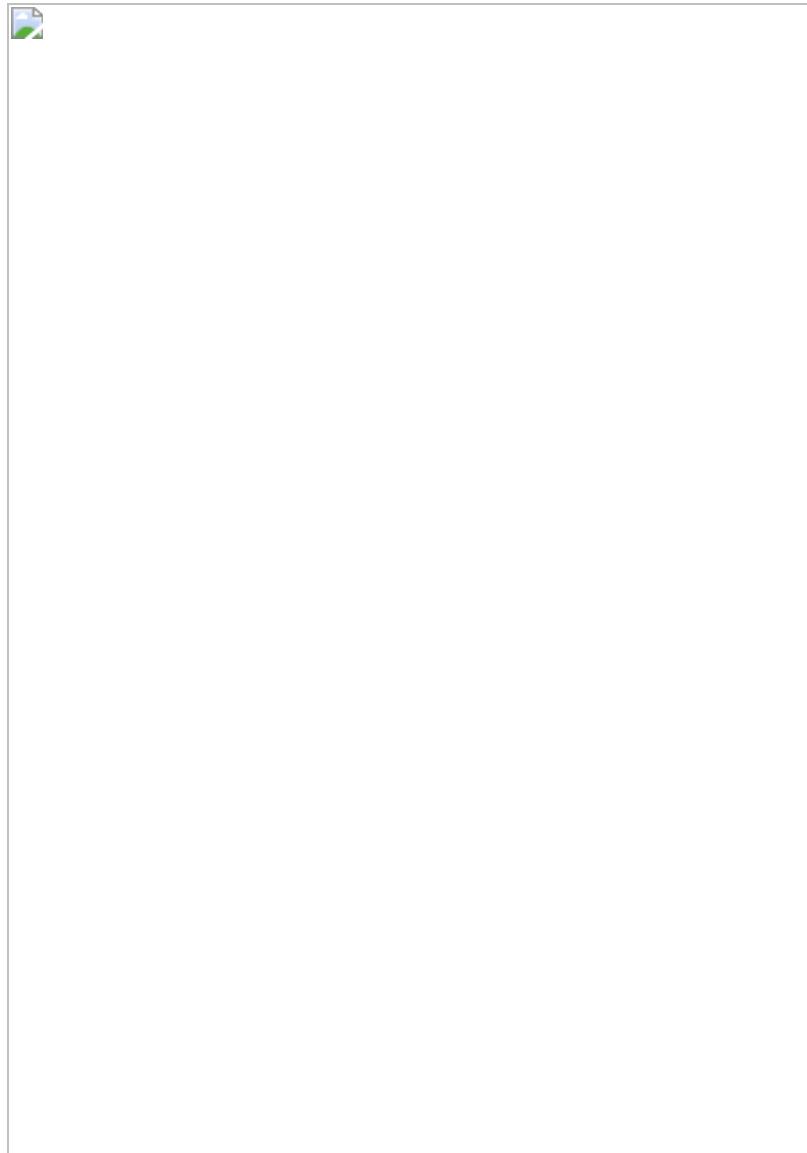


Besides, for sometime, imagine an iterable like a list. This assignment changes the specialized slice of a with <iterable>:

The diversity of elements included is not compulsory to be similar to the figure changed. Python broadens or limits the list as necessary.

Prefixing Items to a List

More items can be joined to the beginning or end of a list making use of the +joining operator or the += augmented assignment operator:



Note that a list should link with a different folder, in case you require to join only a single element, it's necessary to specialize it as a single-valued list:



Styles that modifies List

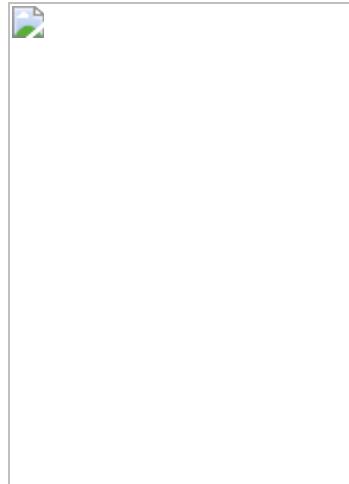
Typically, Python gives various built-in techniques that is being used as lists.

Fact on these techniques is explained below.

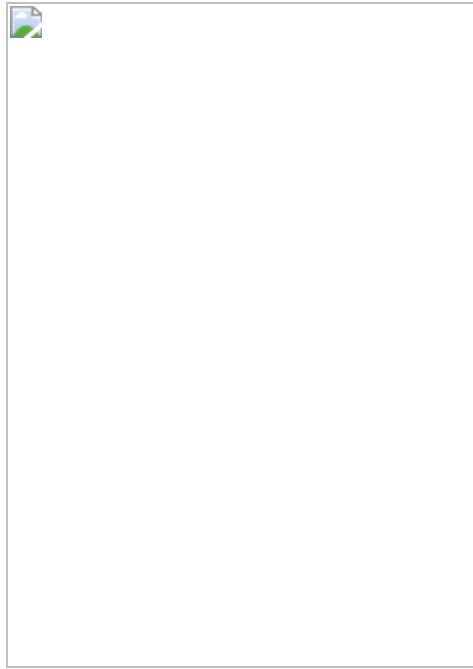
a.append(<obj>)

Adding objects to a specific list.

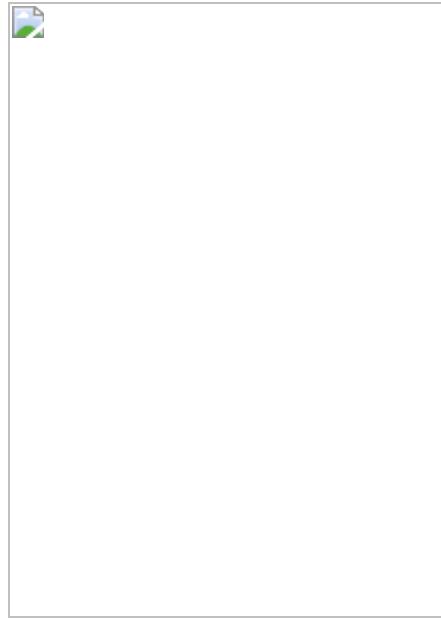
a.append(<obj>) appends object <obj> to the back of list a:



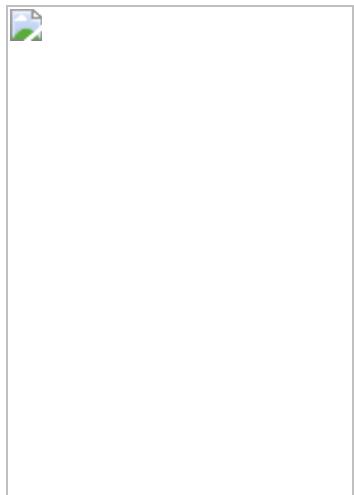
Note, and itemize methods to change the aimed lists. Don't give back a new folder:



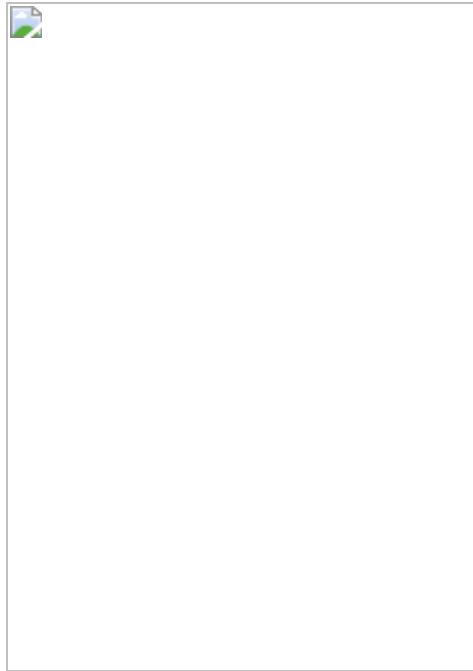
Put in mind that when an operator “+” is used to string to a list in case the target working is iterable, consequently its own elements are fragmented and added to list differently:



The .append () procedure do not operate in such way! If something is added to a list with a .append(), it joins as just an object:



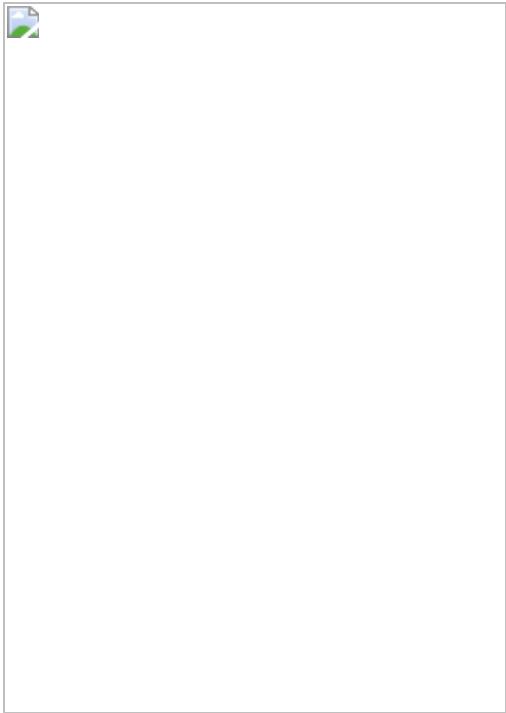
Therefore, with a `.append ()`, you will be able to add a string as just an object:



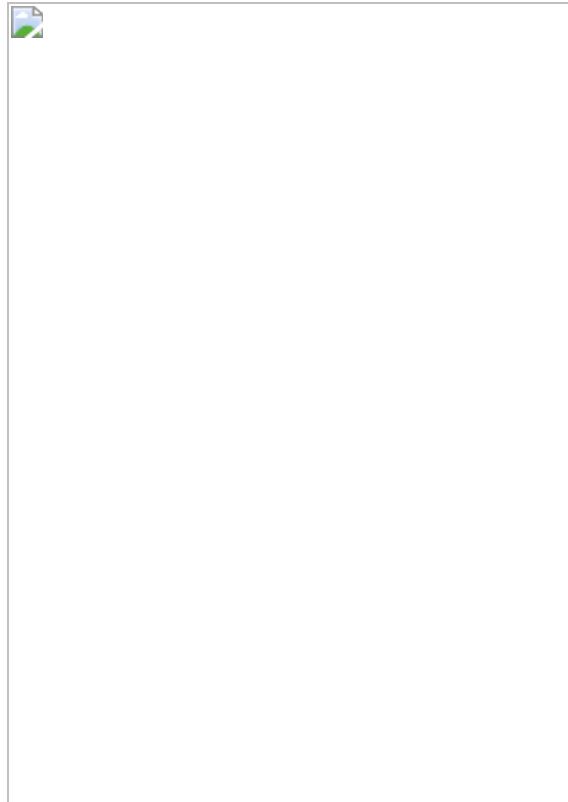
a.extend(<iterable>)

With the objects obtained iterable, it adds a list.

Certainly, this is what you are thinking a .extend() also appends to the bottom of any list, nevertheless the argument ought to be iterable. The item in <iterable> append singularly:



Otherwise stated, `.extend()` acts like a “`+`” operator. And More particularly, due to the fact that it amends list, it performs like the “`+ =`” operator:



a.insert(<index>, <obj>)

Puts an object in a list.

`a.insert(<index>, <obj>)` inserts object `<obj>` in the list at the particular`<index>`. After the procedure call, `a[<index>]` is `<obj>`, and the rest of the list in elements are moved right:



a.remove(<obj>)

From a list, get rid of an object: a.remove(<obj>) takes away object <obj> from the list a. If <obj> is not in a, exception is used:



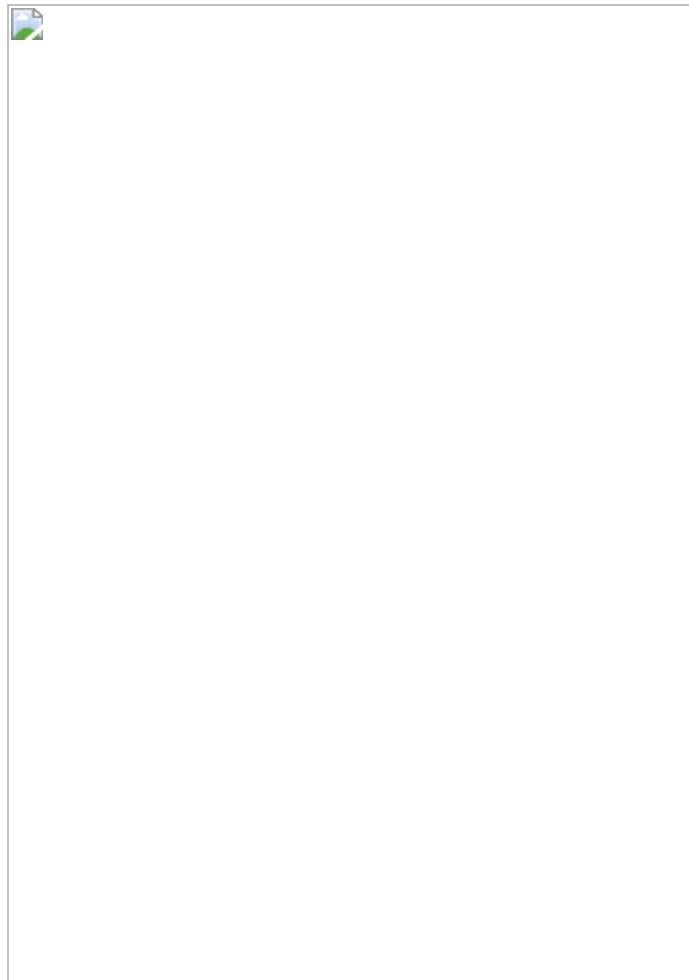
a.pop(index=-1)

From a list, takes away an object:

This procedure is different from .remove () in two ways:

- You indicate the index of the item to take away, instead of the object.

- The procedure gives back a value: the item that is taken away.
a.pop() completely takes away the final thing in the list:



If the non-compulsory <index> parameter is specific, the item included in index is taken away and brought back<index> would be damaging, just as that of string and its list indexing:

<Index> defaults to -1, so a.pop(-1) is similar to a.pop().

Lists Are Effectual

This informational began with the list of six disadvantaging properties of Python list. The final one is that folders are unique. It's possible to have noticed several instances of this in the parts earlier. When items join to a folder, it starts as necessary:



In the exact method, a list reduces to put into record the taking away of items:



DICTIONARIES

Python gives an extra compound data type named a dictionary, which is similar to a list because it is a group of objects.

Dictionaries and list has the following similar properties:

- The two are changing.
- They are effectual. It can broaden and lessen as necessary.
- They can be present in each other. Which means a list can consist of another list. A dictionary can include a different vocabulary. Dictionaries differs from folders that are necessary to look for the elements in it.
- List elements can be entered to by their place in the list, via indexing.
- Dictionary elements can be access through keys.

Meaning

Dictionaries can be defined as Python's initialization of a data structure which is better as a law referred to as a participative order. A dictionary is accompanied with a group of key-value couples. Each key-value pairs directs the key to its related value.

- You can indicate a dictionary by fixing a comma-differentiated list of key-value couples in curly parentheses ({}). A colon (:) differentiates every key from its related value:



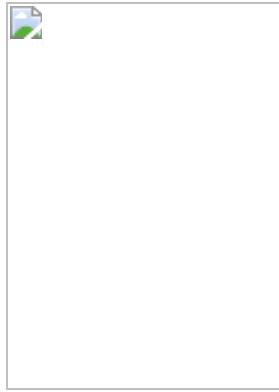
The below diagram explains a dictionary that indicates a part to the name of its similar Baseball team:



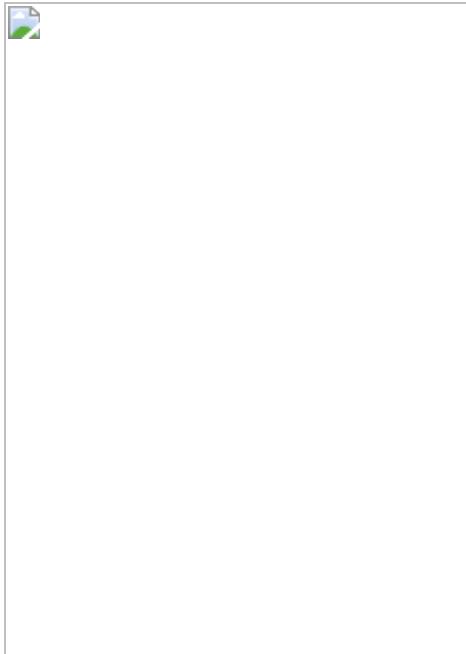


histogra

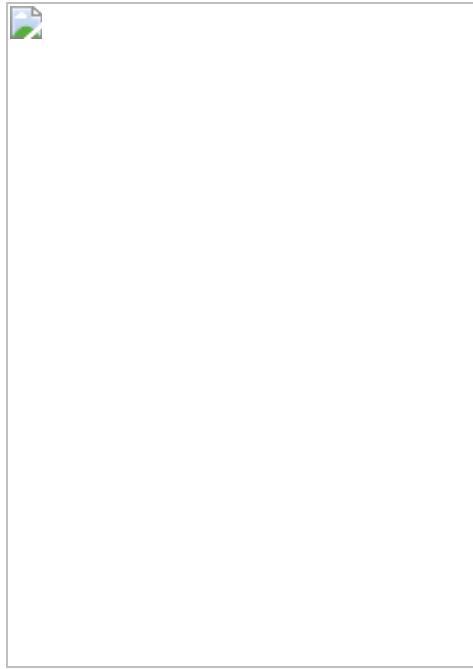
Using the aid of inherent dict() function, you also can create a dictionary too. The argument to dict () must be a series of key-value couples, you can make use of a list of tuples since it works well for this.



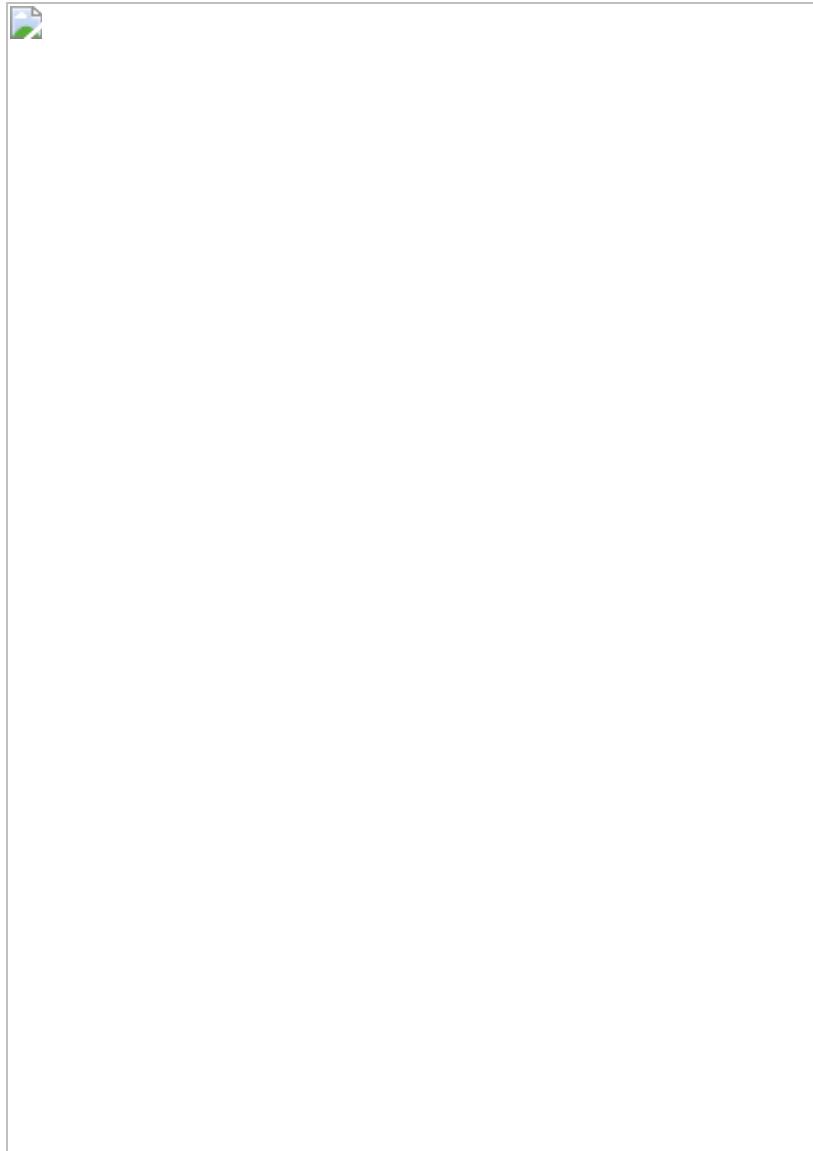
It is also possible to explain MLB team (baseball) in this manner:



On the uncertainty that the basic values are simple strings. Therefore, below is also another way to explain `MLB_team`:



Immediately you have created a dictionary, you can reveal its contents, just the way you would for a list. Every of the three explanations described above show as below whenever it displays:



The inputs in the dictionary show in the sequence they were created. Nevertheless, that is not compulsory once it is time to get them back. It is impossible to gain access to dictionary element by numerical index.



Dictionary Values

Beyond doubt, dictionary elements should be easy in certain way. If it's impossible to get them by index, in what way do you eventually get them?

You can search a value car from a dictionary by making known its correlating key in square braces ([])



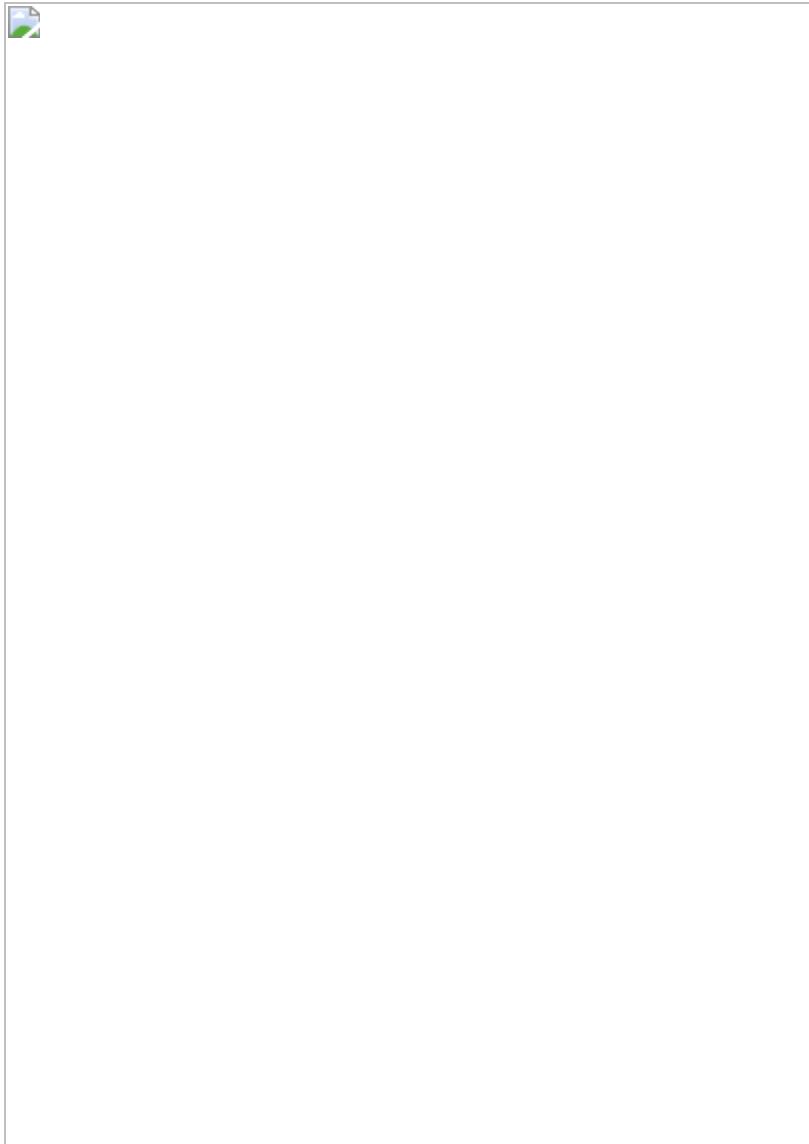
If you make reference to a key which is not present in the dictionary, Python is in support of an exception:



Addition of an entry to a new dictionary is completely a matter of giving an up to date key and value:



If it is necessary to upgrade an entry, you can give a distinct value to an actual key:



To take away an entry, make use of the `del` expression, enabling the key to remove:



Gradual way to design a dictionary.

Setting out a dictionary making use of curly parentheses {} and a file of key-value couples, is different that's if you are familiar with all the keys and values deeply. Nevertheless, see in the mind's eye a scenario in which it's necessary to create a dictionary secretly.

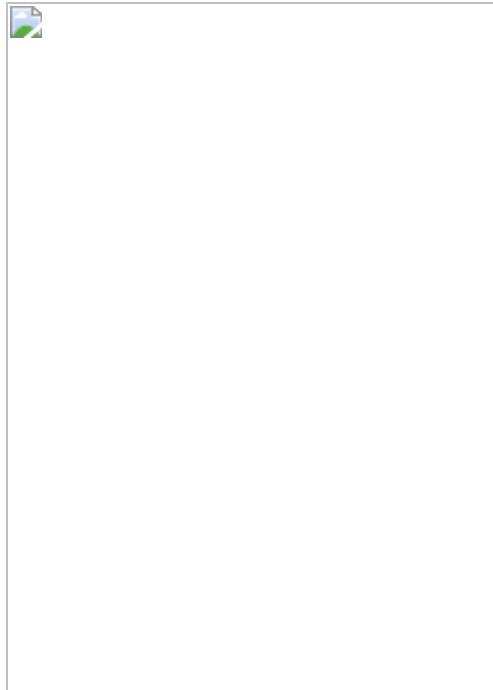
It is possible to start by creating a new dictionary, which is explained with empty wavy parenthesis {}. Immediately, you can add new keys and values one after the other:



Before, the dictionary is designed in this procedure; its goals are gotten exactly as any dictionary:

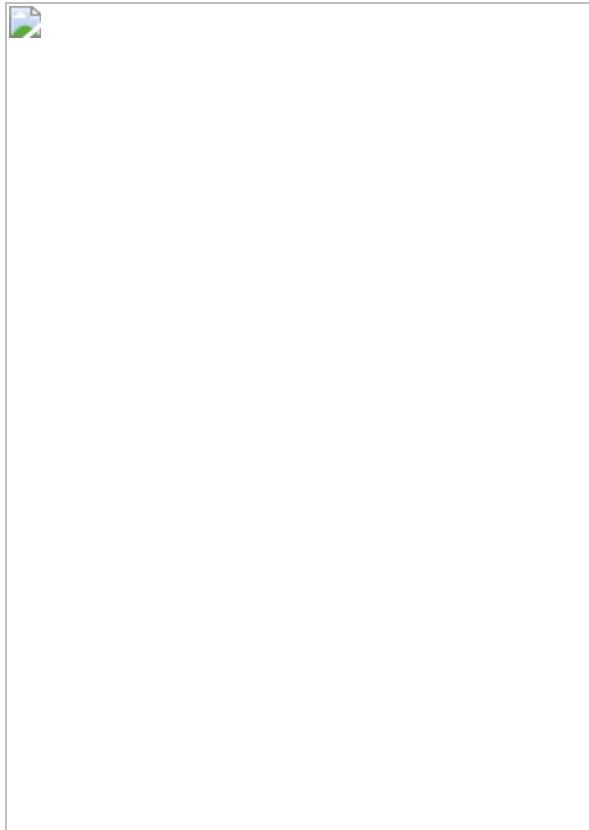


To obtain the values in the subdictionary or sublist, its necessary to get a new key or index:



The next sample shows a different direction of dictionaries: the values present in the dictionary doesn't need to be similar type. Personally, part of the “values” are strings, in which one is a list, one is a different dictionary and one is an integer.

As it is that the values in a dictionary is not compulsory to be similar type, neither the keys too:



In this case, one of the keys is a “Boolean”, one is an “integer,” and one is a “float”. It is however not visible ways this could be useful, nevertheless, you can’t tell.

You can see the way these dictionaries of Python are adjustable. In `MLB_team`, the same snippet of data “name of the team” is unchanged for every of several tellurian places. Each, contrastingly, keeps varying types of fact for just a person.

It is possible you make use of dictionaries for a wide arrangement of objects due to the fact that there are so little limitations on the values and keys. However, we have some.

Dictionary Keys Restrictions

In Python, nearly all kind of value can act as a dictionary key. You recently saw this instance, in which float, integer and Boolean objects were used as keys:

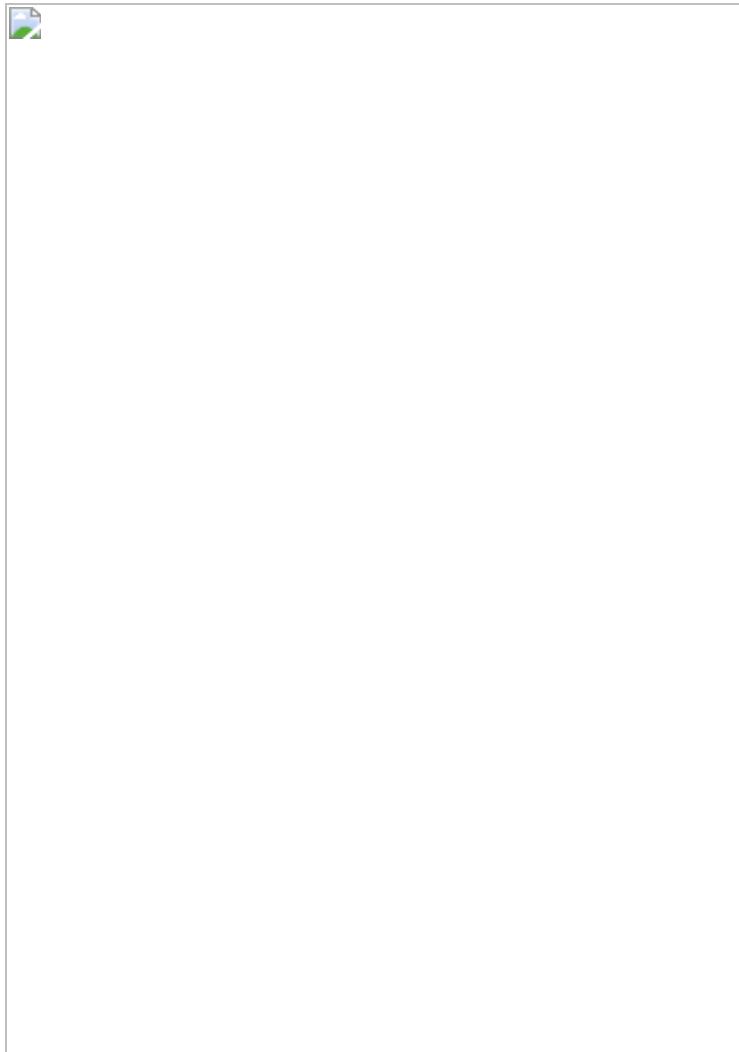


Notwithstanding, there are a pair of restrictions that dictionary keys have.

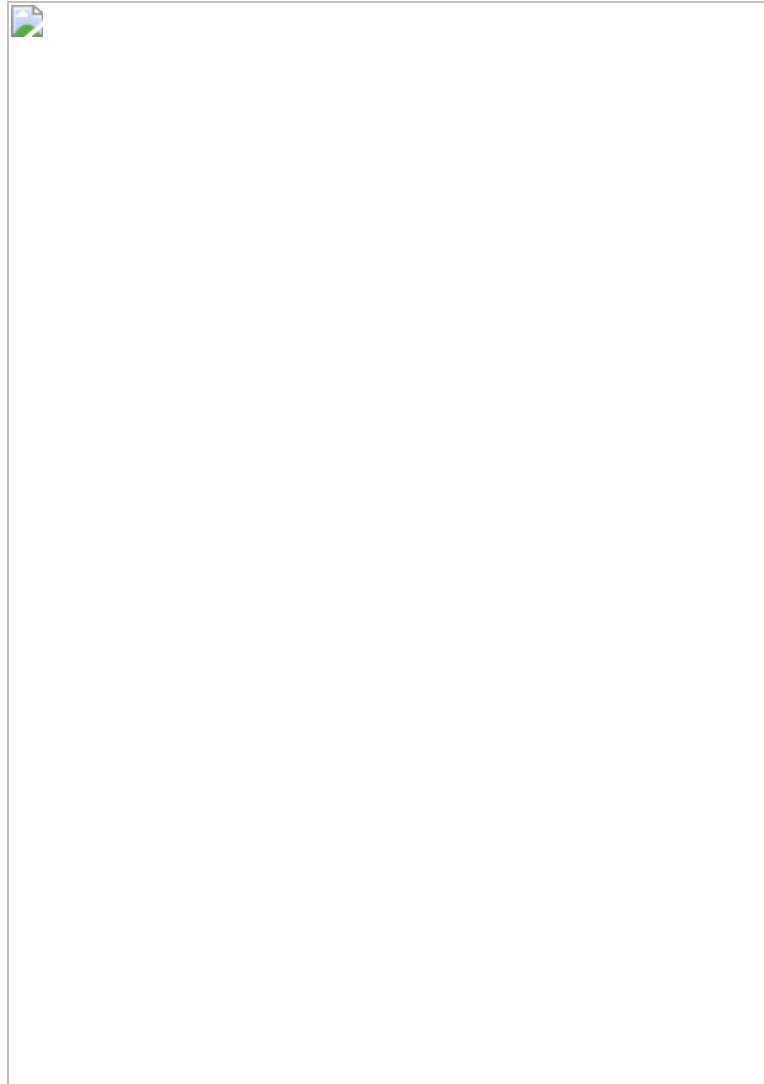
At first, a particular key can show in a dictionary just once. Replicated keys are not known.

A dictionary indicates each key to the same value, so it doesn't make mistakes to "map" a particular key twice.

You notice repeatedly that when you give value to a pre-existing dictionary key. It won't add the key another time, instead it takes the place of the existing value:



In addition, let's say you define a key twice during the first designing of a dictionary, the other appearance will overrule the initial one:



Asides that, a dictionary should be of an unchangeable type. You have formerly been shown samples in which lots of the unchangeable types are close with float, string, integer and Boolean have acted as dictionary keys.

A tuple can as well be a dictionary key due to the fact that tuples are unchangeable:



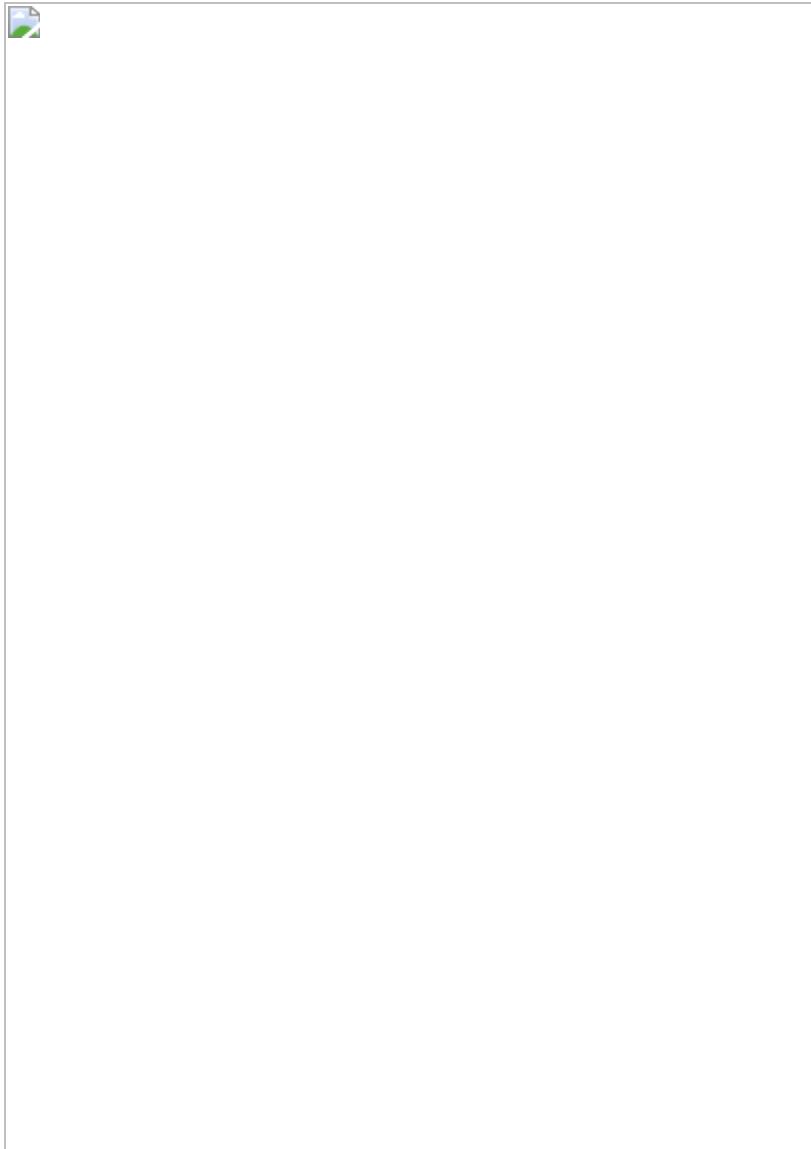
Recall from the episode on tuples that one argument for making use of a tuple instead of a list is that there are circumstances in which an unchangeable type is necessary. This is one of them.

Nonetheless, both a different dictionary and a list cannot act as a dictionary key, this is due to the fact that dictionaries and lists are changeable:

Restrictions on Dictionary Values

Contrastingly, there are no limitations on dictionary values. Absolutely none. A dictionary value could be whatever object Python supports, not excluding changeable types such as dictionaries and lists, and user-defined objects, which you would be educated about in the next teachings.

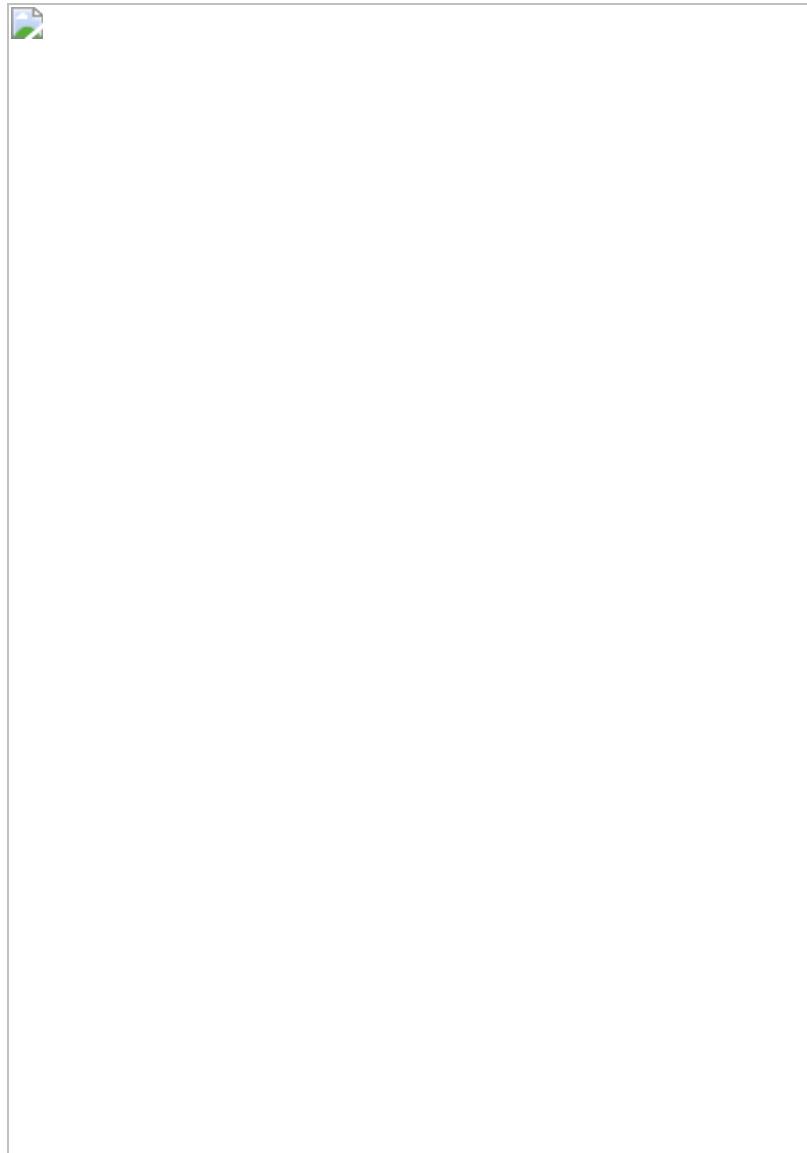
Also there is no limitation against a relevant value occurring in a dictionary several times:



Built-in Functions and Operators

You so far became close with various of the operators and built-in functions with lists, tuples and strings. Several of these as well works efficiently with dictionaries.

For instance, the input and not in operator comes back “True or False” as stated by it the specialized value acts as a key in the dictionary:



You can make use of the in operator as a group with limited evaluation to avoid coming up with an error when making attempts to access a key that is not present in the dictionary:



Built-in Dictionary Methods

Similarly, with lists and strings, several “built-in” techniques are present on dictionaries. Actually, in some situations, the dictionary and list techniques make use of the same name.

Below shows the summarization of methods that make use of dictionaries:

d.clear()

Way to empty a dictionary.

d.clear () wipes dictionary d of every key-value couples:



d.get(<key>[, <default>])

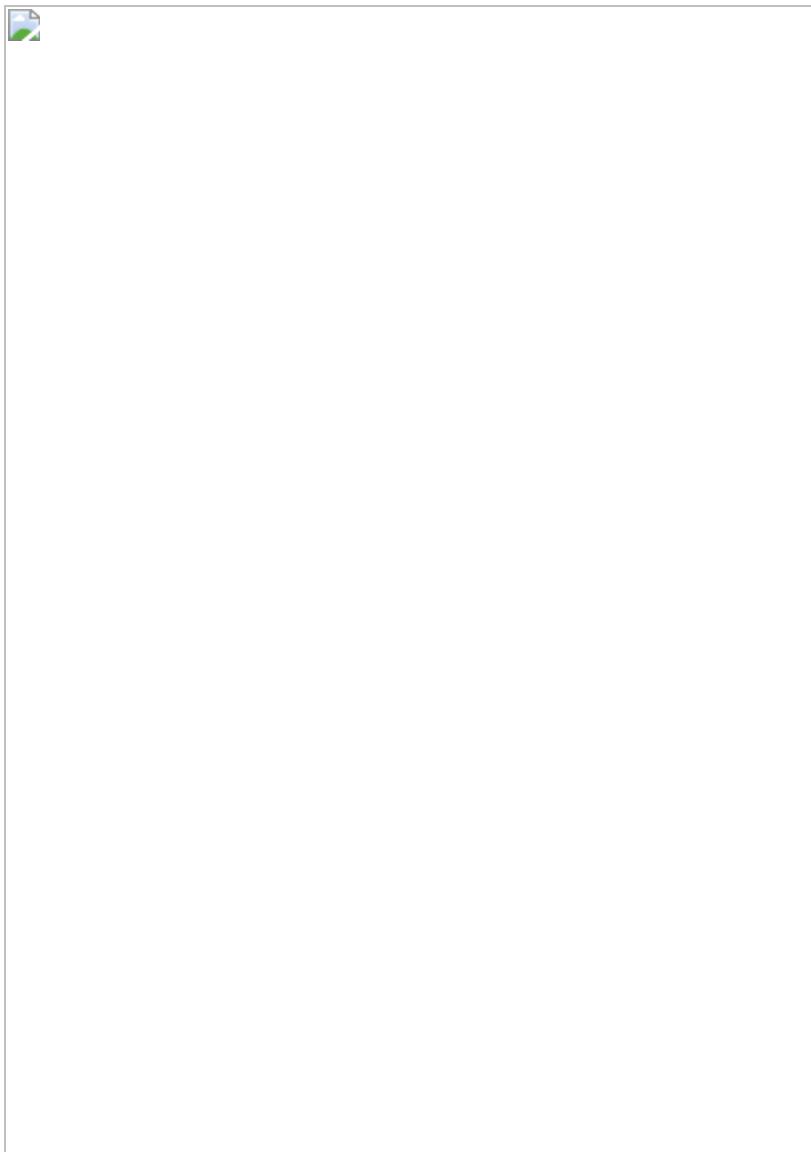
Brings back the value for a key if it shows in the dictionary.

The .get method provides a superior technique for obtaining the value of a key from a word compilation without formerly checking if the key is there, and without bringing up an error.

d.get(<key>) checks dictionary d for <key> and brings back the associated value if it is discovered. If you couldn't find <key>, it comes back None:



Provided that <key> couldn't be discovered and the optional <default> is known, that value comes back in place of None:



d.items()

It brings back a list of key-value couples in a dictionary.

`d.items()` brings back a list of tuples consisting the key-value couple present in `d`. The initial item in every tuple is the key and the item that follows is the key's value:



d.keys()

It brings back a list of keys in dictionary.

d.keys() brings back a list of every key in d:



d.values()

Brings back a list of values in a dictionary.

d.values() brings back a list of every values in d:



Each copies values in “d” will be brought back as several times as they show:



Note:

The .item(), .values () and .keys techniques as a matter of fact bring back a bit called a view object. A dictionary view object is nearly similar to a window on the values and keys. For actual purpose, you can give thought about these techniques as returning lists of the dictionary's values and keys.

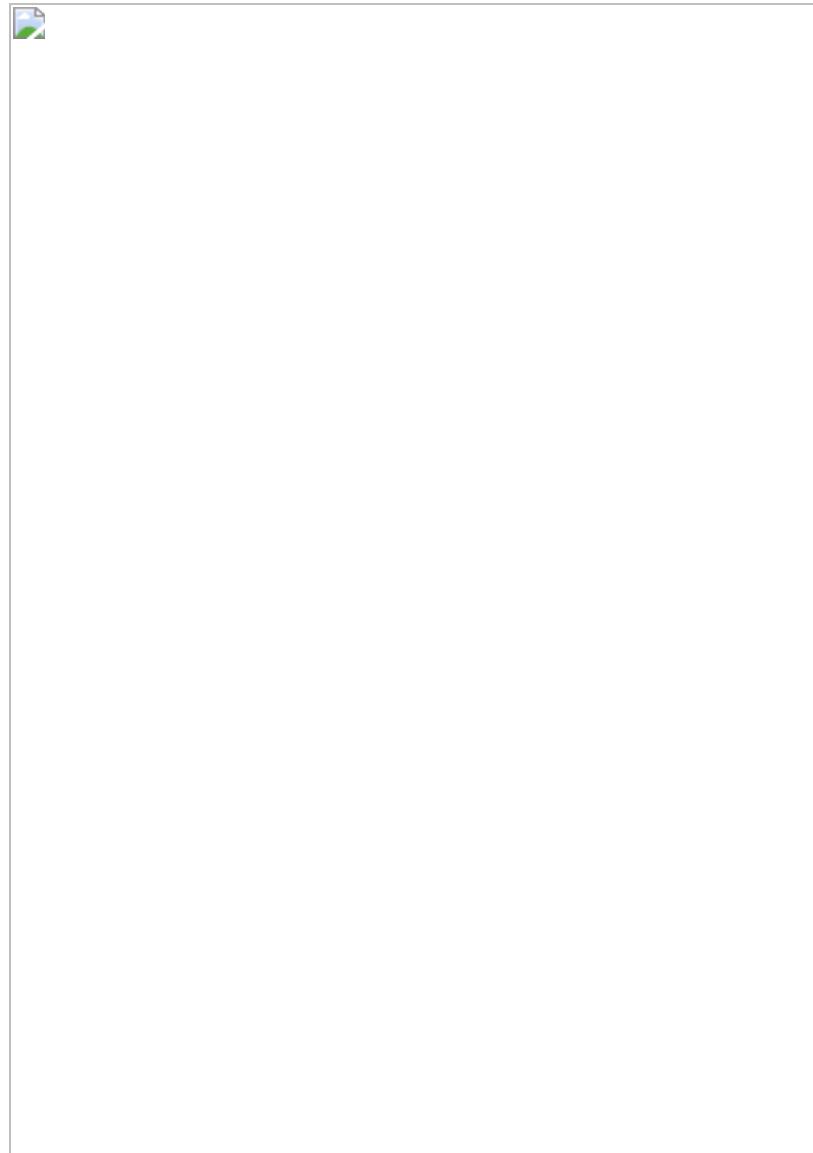
d.pop(<key>[,<default>])

Removes a key from a dictionary, that is present, and brings back its value.

If <key> is available in d, d.pop<key> removes <key> and brings back its connected value:



`d.pop<key>` brings up a `KeyError` exception in case `<key>` is not present in `d`:



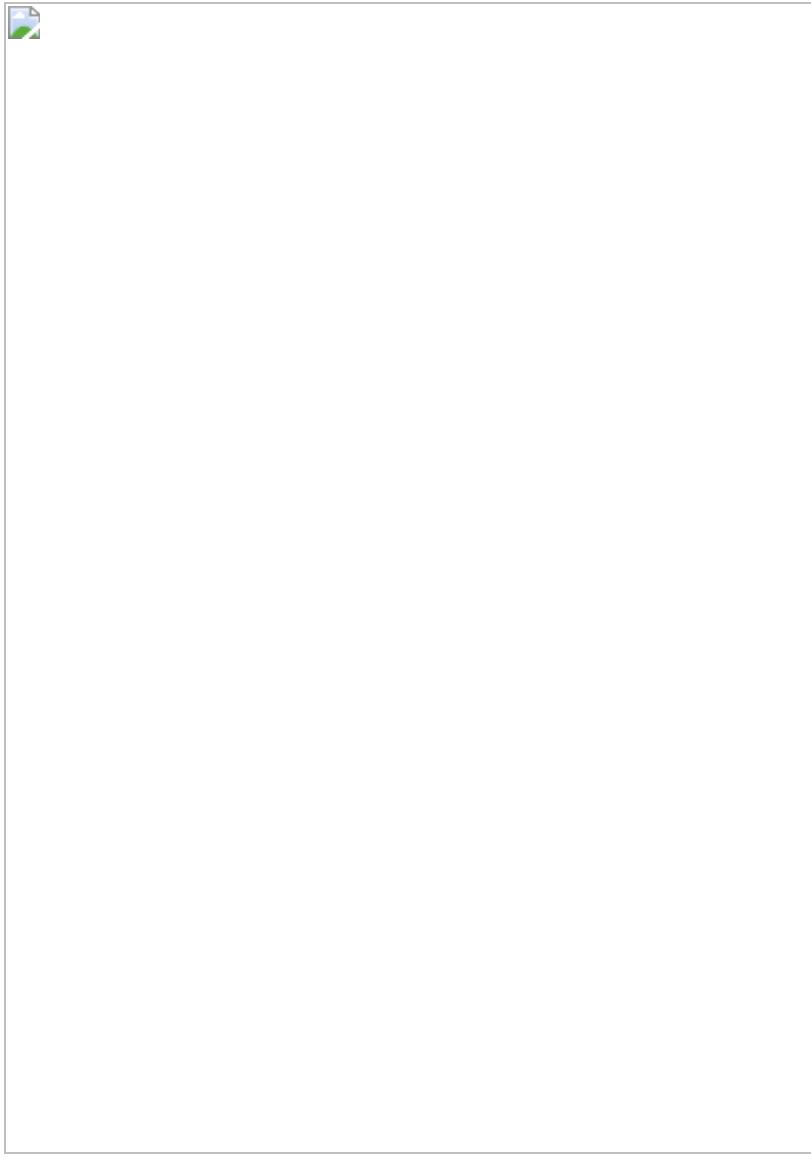
In case `<key>` is not in `d`, and the discretionary `<default>` argument is known, with that value is brought back. Anything more, there is lack of exemption here.



d.popitem()

Takes away a key-value couple from a dictionary

d.popitem() removes arbitrary, biased key-value couple from d and brings it back as a tuple:



If `d` is empty, `d.popitem()` raises up a `KeyError` exception:



d.update(<obj>)

It either combines a dictionary with a different dictionary or with an iterable of key-value sets.

In case <obj> is a dictionary, d.update(<obj>) combines the inputs from <obj> into d. For each key in <obj>:

On the uncertainty that the key is not present in d, the key-value couple from <obj> append to d.

On the uncertainty that the key is now not absent in d, the connecting a motive in d for such key to the inclination from <obj>

Check out the precedent explaining two dictionaries combined:

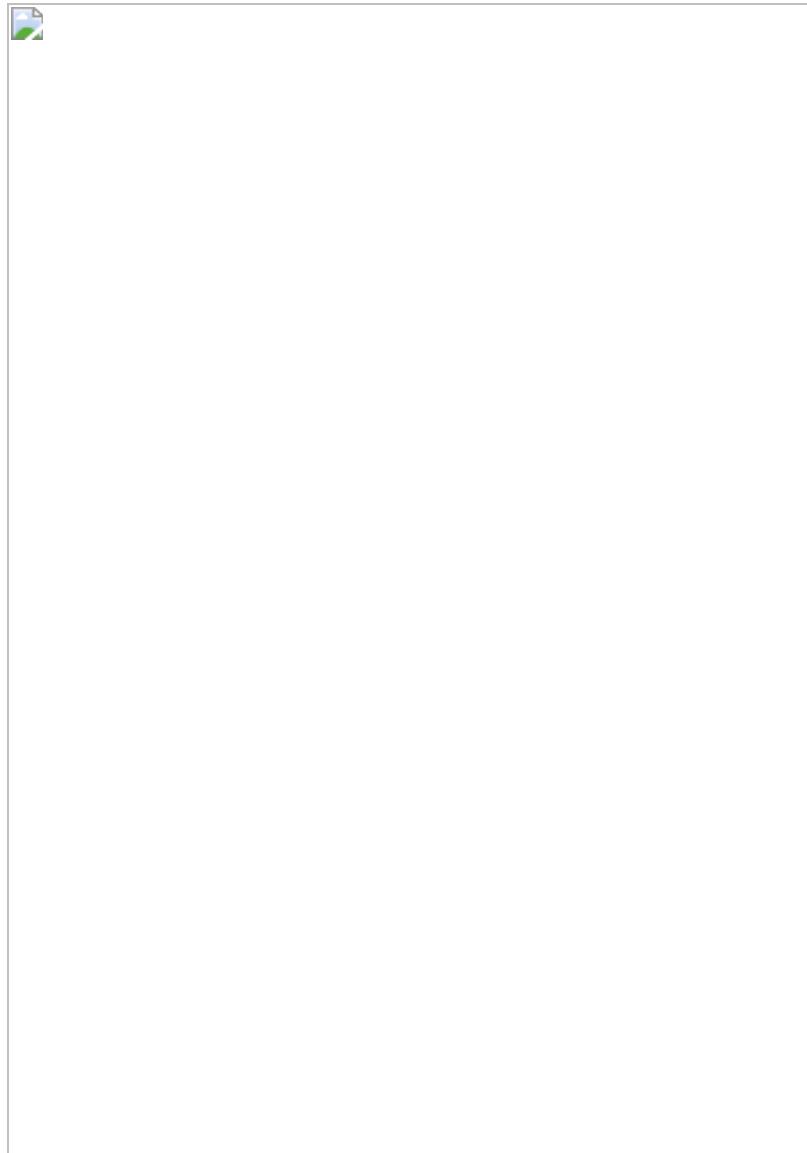


In this precedent, key ‘b’ formerly appears in d1, consequently its value is upgraded to 200, the value for that key from d2. In whatever case, there is absence of key in d1, with the aim that the key-value couple gotten from d2.

<obj> as well may be a series of key-value sets, similarly to when the dict() work is made use of to show a word compilation. For instance, <obj> can be known as a list of tuples:



Or the values to combine can be known as a list of keyword arguments:



SHALLOW COPIES

It means creating an exceptional line-up object and thereafter occupying it with compilation to the sub-objects discovered in the original. Actually, a

shallow copy is just a level further.

The imitating procedure does not periodically and therefore won't make replicas of the sub objects themselves.

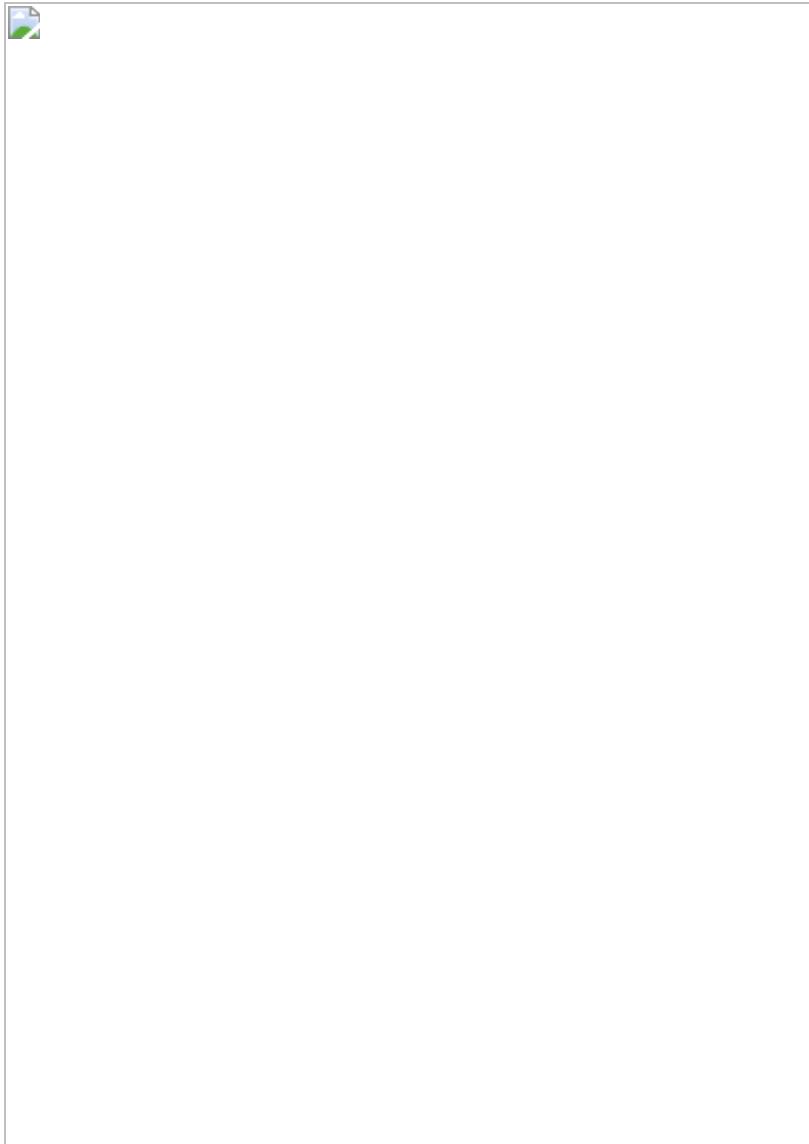
See the sample; we'll generate an up to date mixed list, after that, slightly imitate it with the "list()" factory function:



This process will eventually become a new and self-controlling object with similar capability as ys. It is possible to ascertain this by checking the two objects:



To confirm definitely is not dependent of the real, let's engineer a restricted practical. You could try and join another sublist to the initial (xs) and later look to make sure this change doesn't influence the copy (ys):



Noticeably, this had the expected result. Altering the copied list at a “slight” degree was never an issue.

But, due to the fact that we just designed a slight copy of the main list, affirmatively also involves compilation to the initial younger objects taken from xs.

These "children" were compiled repeatedly in the copied list.

Appropriately, whenever you alter one of the younger objects in xs, this alteration will also reflect in ys so far both lists make use of the same younger objects. The copy is only a slight, one degree deep further:



The sample explained above, there was only an alteration to xs. Nevertheless, it becomes out that the two sublists at index 1 in xs and xy

were altered. Again, this occurred due to the fact we had recently created a slight copy of the initial list.

If we had created a further copy of xs in the initial step, the two objects would have been totally independent. It is the practical variation between slight and further copies of objects.

It is evident you have the idea, the way to make slight copies of certain of the built-in group classes, and you are familiar with the difference between slight and further copying. The issues we yet need replies for are:

- How can you make further copies of built-in collections?
- How can you make copies “slight and further” of stray object, not excluding designed classes?

The answers to these questions is in the copy section in the Python quality library. This section applies a convenient link for making slight and further copies random Python objects.

SETS AND SETS FUNCTIONS

Python’s fundamental set type has the below properties:

- Sets are scattered
- The elements of set are exceptional. Replicated items are not allowed.
- A set itself may be altered, however, the elements present in the “set” should be of an everlasting type.

Allows you check, what every of that signifies, also in what way you can work with sets present in Python.

There include two ways to make these sets, one, you can give meaning to a “set” with the designed set () function:



In this case, the argument



Is again an iterable, for the main time, deliberate tuple or list that begins the list of objects will enter the set. It is parallel to the



Argument assigned to the .extend () list technique:



"Strings are further iterable" therefore a string can also be moved to set. You have actually noticed that list (s) gives a list of the keys in the strings. Likewise, set(s) creates a "set" of the keys in s:



You can see that the accompanying “set” are disorganized: the real arrangement, as given meaning in the explanation, is not importantly secured. In addition, replicated values are just identified in the “set” once, similarly with the string ‘foo’ in the initial two examples and the letter ‘u’ in the one that follows.

We can explain curly parentheses ({}) as below:



Whenever you explain a set in this mode, all <obj> turns to a particular element of the “set,” despite being iterable. This procedure is similar to that of the .append() list technique.

So, the sets shown above can as well explain this:



Note:

- The objects in curly parentheses are inserted into the set untouched, despite being iterable.
- The argument to set() is iterable. It makes a list of elements for the set.

Check out the distinction between the above two set explanation:



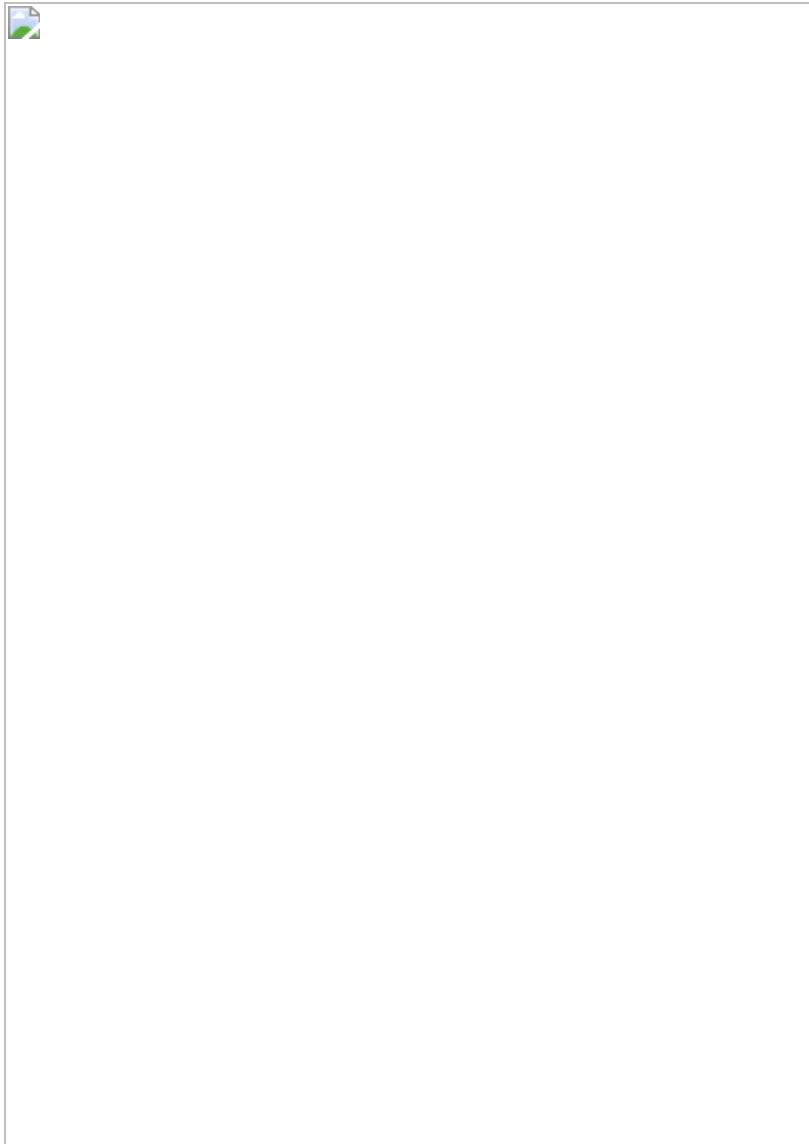
A set can be empty. Nevertheless, remember that Python translates vacant curly parentheses ({}) as an empty dictionary, therefore the one way to know a new set is by using the “set()” function:



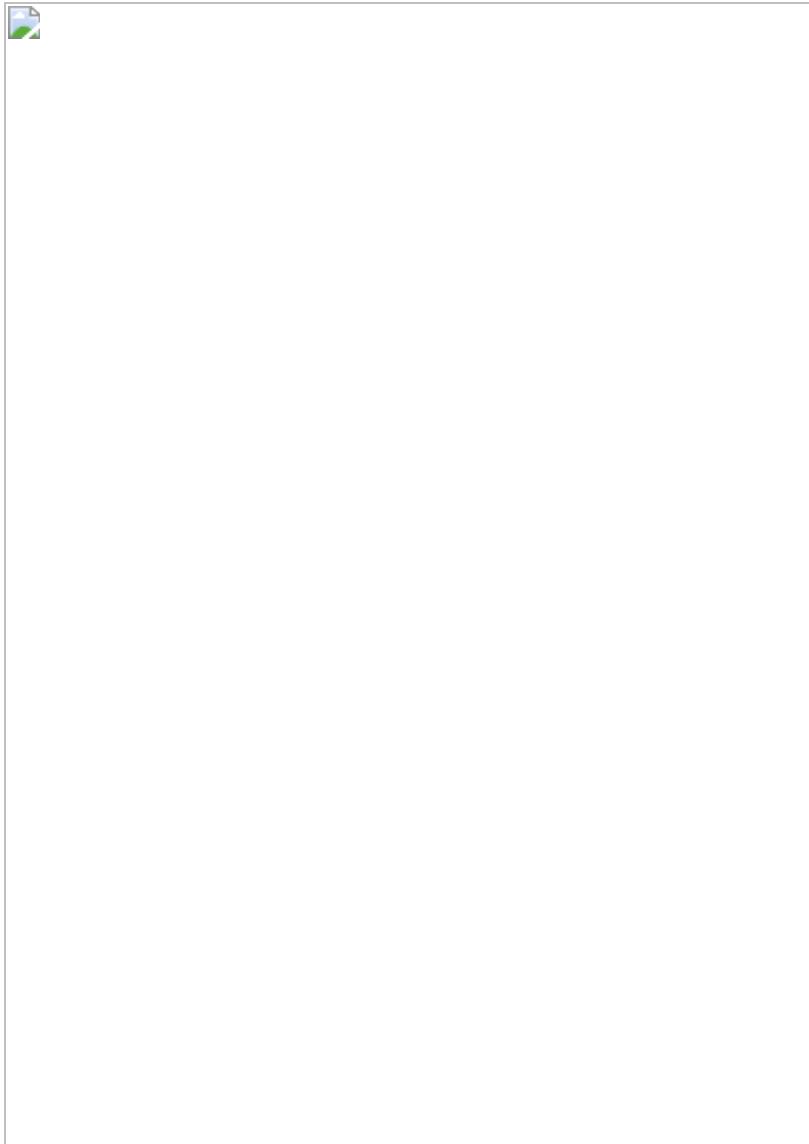
An empty set is falsy in the setting of Boolean:



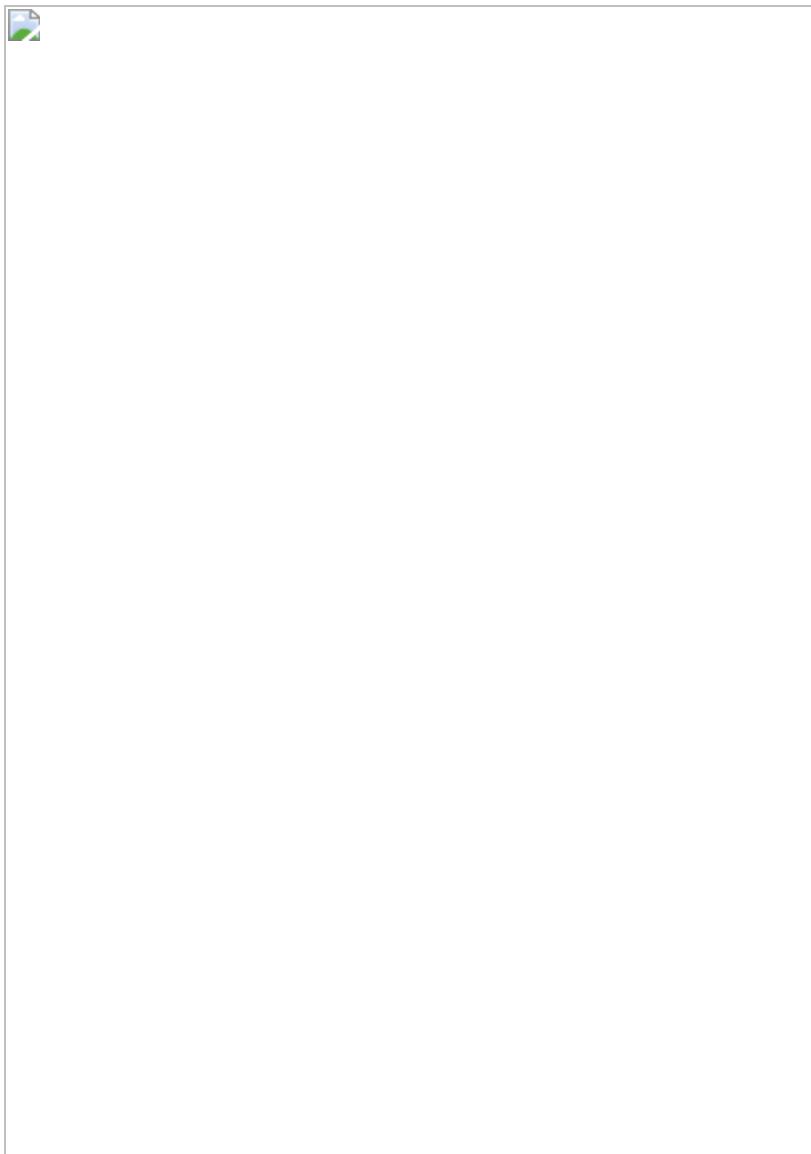
You probably have the thought that the best instinctive sets would consist of similar methods object, even figures or surnames:



Python needs not this, but, constituents in a “set” can be objects of various types:



Note that set elements should be unchangeable. For instance, a tuple may be whole in a “set”



Howbeit, dictionaries and lists compilation are changeable, therefore they can't be set constituent:



Set Size and Membership

The `len()` work gives back the number of constituent in a set, also the `in` that is not in operators can be useful to scrutinize for membership:



Working on a Set

You can carry out various operations for Python's other compound data types do not have definitions for sets. For instance, "set" cannot be sliced or indexed; Nevertheless, Python gives a total host of operation on set objects that always copy the procedures for arithmetical sets.

Changing a Set

Despite the fact that the element involved in a set requires to be of an unchangeable type, sets themselves such as the operations above, there is an interlace of operators and methods that can be made use of to alter what's present in a set.

Python Froszensets

A Python gives a different built-in kind named a “frozenset” which is in all aspect exactly like a set, aside that a “frozenset” is unchangeable. You can carry out non-altering operations on a “frozenset”:



However, ways that attempt to alter a “frozenset” cease to function:



SET FUNCTIONS

The set () function makes a set object.

The items present in a set list are scattered so this will come up in an arbitrary arrangement

Sample

Make a set consisting of fruit names:

```
x = set ('cherry', 'apple', 'banana'))
```

Built-in Functions with Set

Built- in functions such as sum (), sorted (), min (), max (), len (), enumerate (), any (), all () are usually made use with set to carry out various process.



CHAPTER-13:

MODULES AND PACKAGES IN PYTHON

MODULES

Modules imply to a folder consisting Python expressions and meanings. A folder including Python code, to demonstrate: example .py, is named a module and its name would be an instance.

We make use of modules to disintegrate big programs into little simple and structured folders. In addition, modules give reused of code.

We can describe our often used functions in a module and bring it in, instead of imitating their meanings into various programs.

There are, actually, three different ways to give meaning to a module in Python:

- We can speedily write a module Python.
- You can write a module in C and filled uniquely at run-time, similarly (normal statement) module.
- A built-in module is present in the translator, similarly to the “itertools” module.

You can get a module's content in a similar method for all the three cases: with the import expression.

In this case, the hub will automatically on modules in Python. The interesting thing about modules that are written in python is that they are east to build. The thing you need to carry out is build a folder that has real Python code and later allocate a name to the folder using a .py extension. Full stop! You need no unique voodoo or syntax.

Suppose you have designed a folder named mod.py having the following:

mod.py

```

s = "If Comrade Napoleon says it, it must be right."
a = [100, 200, 300]

def foo(arg):
    print(f'arg = {arg}')

class Foo:
    pass

```

Several objects will be known in mod.py:

- Foo (a class)
- foo() (a function)
- s (a string)

Assuming mod.py is in an appropriate position, which you will be exposed to more about it very soon; the above objects can attain by bringing in the module as shown below:

```

>>> import mod
>>> print(mod.s)
If Comrade Napoleon says it, it must be right.
>>> mod.a
[100, 200, 300]
>>> mod.foo(['quux', 'corge', 'grault'])
arg = ['quux', 'corge', 'grault']
>>> x = mod.Foo()
>>> x
<mod.Foo object at 0x03C181F0>

```

Search Path For Module

Sticking with the example above, let's check out the happenings when Python carries out the expression:

```
import mod
```

At that instant when the translator carries out the above import expression, it goes for mod.py in a run-down of catalogue collected from the associating sources:

The catalogue from which the information collection runs or the winning catalogue if the translator runs switch of views

The list of catalogue consisted in the PYTHONPATH condition variable. “The pattern for PYTHONPATH is dependent on OS, nevertheless, must

reflect the PATH condition variable.”

Whenever you begin the installation of Python, An installation- dep consensus list of indexes organized.

The outcome activity path is practical in the python variable sys.path, which was obtain from a module named reveals:

```
>>> import sys  
>>> sys.path  
['', 'C:\\\\Users\\\\john\\\\Documents\\\\Python\\\\doc', 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\Lib\\\\idlelib',  
'C:\\\\Python36\\\\python36.zip', 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\DLLs', 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\lib',  
'C:\\\\Python36', 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\lib\\\\site-packages']
```

Note:

The actual contents of sys.path are dependent on installation. The above will certainly nearly look a little bit unexpected on your computer.

As a result, to ensure you have discovered your module, it is necessary to do one of the following:

1. Insert mod.py in the catalogue in place the input script you noticed or recent list, if interchangeable

Alter the PYTHONPATH region variable to add the catalogue where mod.py is positioned formerly beginning the translator

2. Or: insert mod.py in one of the “lists” formerly added in the PYTHONPATH variable
3. Insert mod.py in one of the lists that is dependent on installation, which you probably can or cannot have access to write, based on the OS

There is, actually, one more alternative: you can insert the module folder in any catalogue of your choice and after that alter sys.path at run-time such that it involves that catalogue. For instance, in this example, it is possible to insert mod.py in the catalogue C:\\Users\\join and after that make the following expressions:

```
>>> sys.path.append(r'C:\\Users\\john')
>>> sys.path
 ['', 'C:\\\\Users\\\\john\\\\Documents\\\\Python\\\\doc', 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\Lib\\\\idlelib',
 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\python36.zip', 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\DLLs', 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\lib',
 'C:\\\\Python36', 'C:\\\\Python36\\\\lib\\\\site-packages', 'C:\\\\Users\\\\john']
>>> import mod
```

As soon as a module carries, you can find the position where it was discovered with the module's "folder" "property":

```
>>> import mod
>>> mod.__file__
'C:\\\\Users\\\\john\\\\mod.py'

>>> import re
>>> re.__file__
'C:\\\\Python36\\\\lib\\\\re.py'
```

The catalogue part of "folders" should be one of the catalogues in sys.path.

PACKAGES

Imagine you have created an application that consist of several modules. As the figure of modules rises, it starts getting difficult to keep up with them all in case they are into one position. It is in exceptional therefore if they possess same usefulness or name. it is possible to need a way of assembling and organizing them.

Packages allow for a series of command designing of the module namespace making use of dot notation. Likewise, that modules help keep away from impact between universal variable names, packages assist in avoiding intrusion between module names.

Building a package is quite straightforward so far it uses the operating system's built-in categorical folder structure. Check out the following arrangement:



In this case, there is a catalogue named pkg which consist two modules, mod1.py and mod2.py

Below is the list of content of the modules:

mod1.py

```
def foo():
    print('[mod1] foo()')

class Foo:
    pass
```

Mod2.py

```
def bar():
    print('[mod2] bar()')

class Bar:
    pass
```

Given this design, if the pkg catalogue stays in a position where it can be discovered “ in one of the catalogues involved in sys. Path”, you can put it into the two modules with dot notation (pkg.mod1, pkg.mod2) and carry them accompanying the syntax you are used to:

```
import <module_name>, <module_name> ...

>>> import pkg.mod1, pkg.mod2
>>> pkg.mod1.foo()
[mod1] foo()
>>> x = pkg.mod2.Bar()
>>> x
<pkg.mod2.Bar object at 0x033F7290>
```

```
from <module_name> import <name(s)>

>>> from pkg.mod1 import foo
>>> foo()
[mod1] foo()

from <module_name> import <name> as <alt_name>

>>> from pkg.mod2 import Bar as Qux
>>> x = Qux()
>>> x
<pkg.mod2.Bar object at 0x036DFFD0>
```

You can as well import modules with these expressions:

```
from <package_name> import <modules_name>[, <module_name> ...]
from <package_name> import <module_name> as <alt_name>

>>> from pkg import mod1
>>> mod1.foo()
[mod1] foo()

>>> from pkg import mod2 as quux
>>> quux.bar()
[mod2] bar()
```

You can also accurately import the package:

```
>>> import pkg
>>> pkg
<module 'pkg' (namespace)>
```

In whatever case, this is of a small help. Although it is, discreetly, a semantically right Python expression, it is actually not very useful. Out of several things, it doesn't put none of the modules in `pkg` into the limited namespace:

```

>>> pkg.mod1
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#34>", line 1, in <module>
    pkg.mod1
AttributeError: module 'pkg' has no attribute 'mod1'
>>> pkg.mod1.foo()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#35>", line 1, in <module>
    pkg.mod1.foo()
AttributeError: module 'pkg' has no attribute 'mod1'
>>> pkg.mod2.Bar()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#36>", line 1, in <module>
    pkg.mod2.Bar()
AttributeError: module 'pkg' has no attribute 'mod2'

```

Bring in the module or their material, and it is necessary you make use of one of the patterns shown above.

Initialization of Package

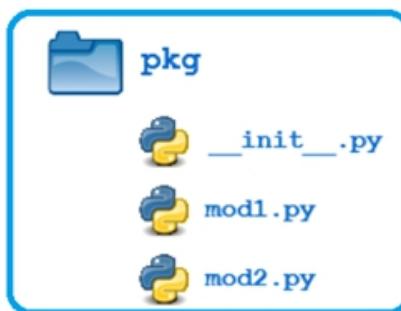
In the course, that a folder named “`__init__.py`” is present in a package catalogue, it is based upon when the module or package in the box. It can be used for the carrying out of package restarting code, for instance,

```

print(f'Invoking __init__.py for {__name__}')
A = ['quux', 'corge', 'grault']

```

Let's add this file to the `pkg` directory from the above example:



Immediately the package imports, universal list A restarts:

```

>>> import pkg
Invoking __init__.py for pkg
>>> pkg.A
['quux', 'corge', 'grault']

```

A module present in the package can attain the universal by importing it successively:

mod1.py

```
def foo():
    from pkg import A
    print('[mod1] foo() / A = ', A)

class Foo:
    pass

>>> from pkg import mod1
Invoking __init__.py for pkg
>>> mod1.foo()
[mod1] foo() / A =  ['quux', 'corge', 'grault']
```

"`__init__.py`" can as well be utilized to influence computerized importing of modules from a package. For instance, initially, you can look that the expression imports `pkg` puts the name `pkg` in the caller's limited symbol tables and does not bring in any modules.

Nevertheless, if "`__init__.py`" in the `pkg` directory consist of the following:

"`__init__.py`"

```
print(f'Invoking __init__.py for {__name__}')
import pkg.mod1, pkg.mod2
```

Immediately you carry out import `pkg`, modules `mod 1` and `mod 2` are brought in intentionally.

```
>>> import pkg
Invoking __init__.py for pkg
>>> pkg.mod1.foo()
[mod1] foo()
>>> pkg.mod2.bar()
[mod2] bar()
```

Note:

To a great extent, Python declaration states that an "`__init__.py`" folder must be presented in the package catalogue in the process of making a package. It was one time valid. It formerly be that the extreme closeness of "`__init__.py`" seemed to Python. The folder might contain starting code or even vacant; in whatever way, it should be reachable.

Starting with Python 3.3, Indirect Namespace Packages were absorbed. These put into consideration the creation of a package with no “`__init__.py`” folder. In every way, it can yet be available if starting of package is necessary. Nevertheless, it is absolutely not needed again:

CHAPTER-14: OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

DETAILS OF OOP? (OBJECT-ORIENTED PROGRAMMING)

OOP, when shortened, is referred to as Object-oriented Programming, is a programming style which gives a way of designing programs in such a way that characteristics and activities are into each object.

For instance, an object could give details of a person with a name property, address, age and so on., with functions such as running, breathing, talking and strolling. Or conversely an email with properties such as body, recipient list, subjects and lots more and processes such as including links and posting.

Stated otherwise; object-oriented programming is a way for designing great, real things such as vehicles similarly as relationship between things like firms and agents, students and teachers, and lots more. OOP designs demented elements as software objects, that possess limited information regarding to them and can apply some functions.

Another well-known programming style is procedural programming which designs a program like a system in that it gives a series of steps in the structure of code blocks and functions, which moves consecutively to conclude an assignment.

The major takeaways are that objects are at the position of meeting of the item organized programming model, also as being elected by the data, as in procedural programming, nevertheless, in the total design of the program also.

Put in mind:

Considering Python is a multi-model programming language, you can know the model that accurately will solve the present problem, combine several paradigms in one program, and change from one level to another as your schedule progresses.

DEFINING CLASSES AND INSTANTIATIONS

Information is the clue to focus, all or object is an example of certain class.

The basic data designs present in Python, like strings, lists and figures are built to explain straightforward things such as the name of a poem, favorite colors, value of something, consecutively.

Think of a situation where it is necessary to talk to something importantly more disoriented.

For example, assume it is necessary you follow the figures of several creatures. If you used a list, the fundamental element could be the creature's name while the next element could talk to its age.

In what way can you know which element should be which? Think of a situation in place you had 100 different creatures. It is secure to say that you are certain all "creature" possess both a name and an age, and so on? Think of a situation where it is necessary to add various qualities to the above creatures. It needs corporation, and it's a total prerequisite for classes.

Classes are used to create recent user-defined information designs that consist of arbitrary info about a certain thing. In view of an animal, we could create an Animal () class after features about the Animal such as name and age.

It's important to put in mind that a class provides design, it's a plan for the way somewhat should be known, nevertheless, it does not give any original content. The Animal () class might require that the name and age are important for giving meaning to an animal, however, it will not mention what a specific animal's name or age is.

It probably imagines about a class as a thought for a way certain thing is used.

Define a Class in Python

It is a direct procedure in Python.

```
class Dog:  
    pass
```

You start with the class important word to show that you are creating a class, immediately, you add the name of the subject, making use of

CamelCase notation, beginning with a uppercase.

Similarly, we made use of the Python important word to go here. It is always used as a spot container where the code will eventually go. It helps us to use this code without throwing an error.

Instantiations in Python

"Instantiations" is a higher-up term for making a recent, exceptional example of a class.

```
>>> class Dog:  
...     pass  
...  
>>> Dog()  
<__main__.Dog object at 0x1004ccc50>  
>>> Dog()  
<__main__.Dog object at 0x1004ccc90>  
>>> a = Dog()  
>>> b = Dog()  
>>> a == b  
False
```

We began by initiating a new dog () class, after that, made two new dogs, all given to different objects. In this sense, to create an instance of a subject, you make use of the class name, followed by braces. Immediately to demonstrate that each occasion is exceptional, we personified two more dogs, assigning each to a variable, immediately tested if those factors are equal.

Whatsoever thing do you think the type of a class event is?

```
>>> class Dog:  
...     pass  
...  
>>> a = Dog()  
>>> type(a)  
<class '__main__.Dog'>
```

Maybe we should take a look at a slightly raising difficult precedent

```

class Dog:

    # Class Attribute
    species = 'mammal'

    # Initializer / Instance Attributes
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age

    # Instantiate the Dog object
    philo = Dog("Philo", 5)
    mikey = Dog("Mikey", 6)

    # Access the instance attributes
    print("{} is {} and {} is {}".format(
        philo.name, philo.age, mikey.name, mikey.age))

    # Is Philo a mammal?
    if philo.species == "mammal":
        print("{} is a {}!".format(philo.name, philo.species))

```

METHODS

Methods, generally referred to as instance in between a class linked won't be able to get the content present in an instance. They can as well be made use of to carry out operations that have the properties of our objects. Such as the “`__init__` method,” the initial argument is usually `self`.

```

class Dog:

    # Class Attribute
    species = 'mammal'

    # Initializer / Instance Attributes
    def __init__(self, name, age):
        self.name = name
        self.age = age

    # instance method
    def description(self):
        return "{} is {} years old".format(self.name, self.age)

    # instance method
    def speak(self, sound):
        return "{} says {}".format(self.name, sound)

# Instantiate the Dog object
mikey = Dog("Mikey", 6)

# call our instance methods
print(mikey.description())
print(mikey.speak("Gruff Gruff"))

```

Store this as dog_instance_methods. Py, after that run it:

```

Mikey is 6 years old
Mikey says Gruff Gruff

```

In the last method, speak (), we are deciding attitude. What other optional behavior can you give to a dog? Recall to the initial paragraph to point out certain sample behaviors for more objects.

OPERATOR OVERLOADING

It is possible to alter which means of an operator consolidated Python built-in united upon the amount used. This process is called operating overloading.

Python operators function for built-in classes. Nevertheless, the same operator acts differently when combined with various types. For instance, the + operator will, perform mathematical addition on two figures, combine lists and chain two strings.

This characteristic in Python that gives room for the same administrator to have different significance depending on each setting is known as administrator over-burdening.

Allow us a room to think about the associating class, which attempts to multiply a point in the 2-D synchronize system.

```
import math

class Circle:

    def __init__(self, radius):
        self.__radius = radius

    def setRadius(self, radius):
        self.__radius = radius

    def getRadius(self):
        return self.__radius

    def area(self):
        return math.pi * self.__radius ** 2

    def __add__(self, another_circle):
        return Circle( self.__radius + another_circle.__radius )

c1 = Circle(4)
print(c1.getRadius())

c2 = Circle(5)
print(c2.getRadius())

c3 = c1 + c2 # This became possible because we have overloaded + operator
print(c3.getRadius())
```

The Result:

```
4
5
9
```

Built-in Functions in Overloading

Majority of the particular methods demonstrated in the Data Paradigm can be used to alter the attitude of functions like divmod, len, hash, abs and lots more. For this, the only thing necessary is to decide the matching distinctive plan in your class.

Built-in Operators in Overloading

Altering the attitude of operators is just as simple as modifying the attitude of function. You decide their corresponding unique styles in your class, and the operators function in line of the actions demonstrated in these procedure.

Those are complete from the above distinct methods within, the aspect that they need to take any different argument in the definition apart from self, generally named by method of the name changed.

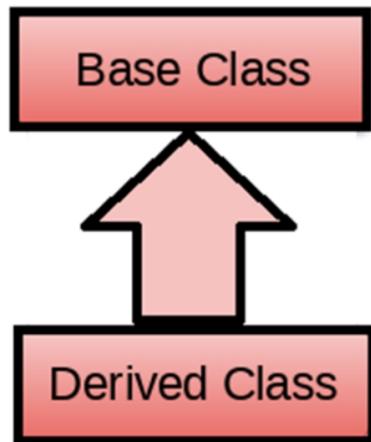
INHERITANCES

Inheritance is an important characteristic of the materialistic model. Inheritance gives code the ability to be reused in the program due to the fact that we make use of a recent class to create a new degree in place of building it from the beginning.

Heritage, the derived class gets the features and can access every data functions and members explained in the base class. A derived class can as well give its specific executions to the “functions” of the base class.

In python, a completed class can welcome parent class by simply putting into consideration the base in the braces after the child class name.

Take note of the following example showing how to inherit a parent class into the child “class”



Instance of Inheritance

```

class User:
    name = ""

    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    def printName(self):
        print("Name = " + self.name)

class Programmer(User):
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name

    def doPython(self):
        print("Programming Python")

brian = User("brian")
brian.printName()

diana = Programmer("Diana")
diana.printName()
diana.doPython()

```

The Result:

Name = brian

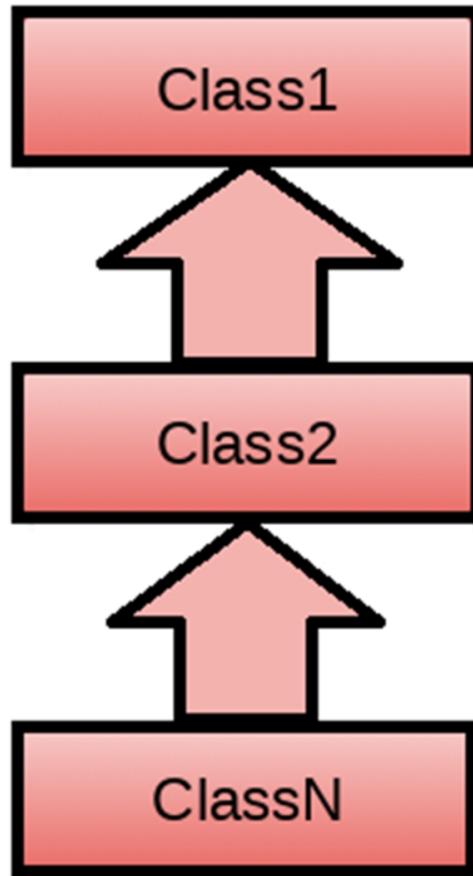
Name = Diana

Programming Python

"Brian" is an instance of User and can only gain entrance to the style printName. "Diana" is an example of a programmer, a class with heritage from User, and can get both the styles in programmer and User.

Multi-Level inheritance in Python

"Multi-Level inheritance" is practical similarly to other object-oriented languages. Multi-level inheritance happens whenever a subclass inherits another sub "class". There is no limitation on the figures of degrees up to which, the multi-level heritage in python.



Sample of Multi-Level inheritance in Python

```
class Animal:  
    def speak(self):  
        print("Animal Speaking")  
#The child class Dog inherits the base class Animal  
class Dog(Animal):  
    def bark(self):  
        print("dog barking")  
#The child class Dogchild inherits another child class Dog  
class DogChild(Dog):  
    def eat(self):  
        print("Eating bread...")  
d = DogChild()  
d.bark()  
d.speak()  
d.eat()
```

The Result:

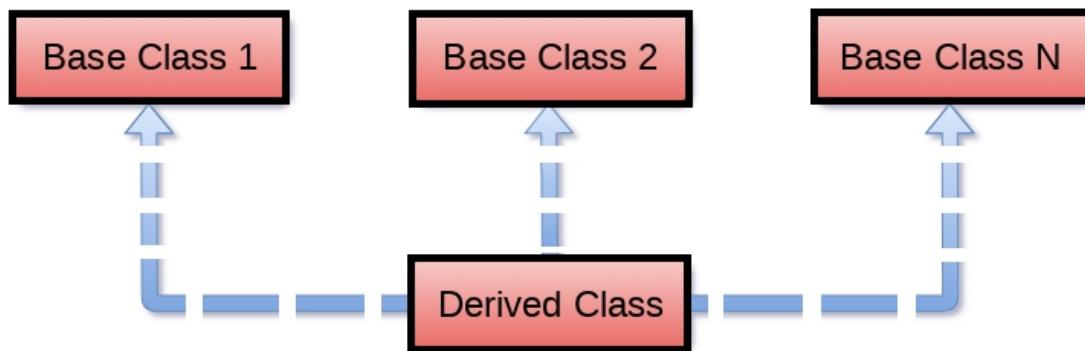
Animal Speaking

Dog Barking

Eating bread

Several inheritances in Python

Python gives us the concession to inherit several parent classes in the derived class.



Sample of Several “inheritances” in Python

```
class Calculation1:  
    def Summation(self,a,b):  
        return a+b;  
class Calculation2:  
    def Multiplication(self,a,b):  
        return a*b;  
class Derived(Calculation1,Calculation2):  
    def Divide(self,a,b):  
        return a/b;  
d = Derived()  
print(d.Summation(10,20))  
print(d.Multiplication(10,20))  
print(d.Divide(10,20))
```

The Result:

200
0.5
30

CHAPTER-15:

DATA VISUALIZATION

WHAT IS VISUALIZATION

Data visualization is an important capability in applied data and mechanized learning. Fact definitely concentrate on decimal statements and evaluations of data. Data visualization gives a large apartment of tools for getting a degree of quality understanding.

It can be important when checking and getting familiar with a dataset and can help with identifying styles, outliers, corrupt data and so on. With limited place occurrences, data visualization can be made use to direct and show major relationships in plans and diagram that are better instinctive to oneself and worried than estimate of association or importance. Data visualization and fundamental data break down are total fields on their own.

Let's check the fundamental charts and plots you can make use of for better comprehension of data

“ Key” plots/libraries to comprehend visualization

“Key” plots/libraries to understand visualization

1. Introduction to Matplotlib
2. Histogram plot
3. Bar chart
4. Line Chart
5. Scatter plot
6. Box and Whisker plot

1. Matplotlib

Matplotlib is the most popular python organizing library. It is a low-degree library that has a Matlab such like an associate which gives room for lots of alternatives at the price of having to write additional code.

We can make use of conda and pip for the installation of Matplotlib

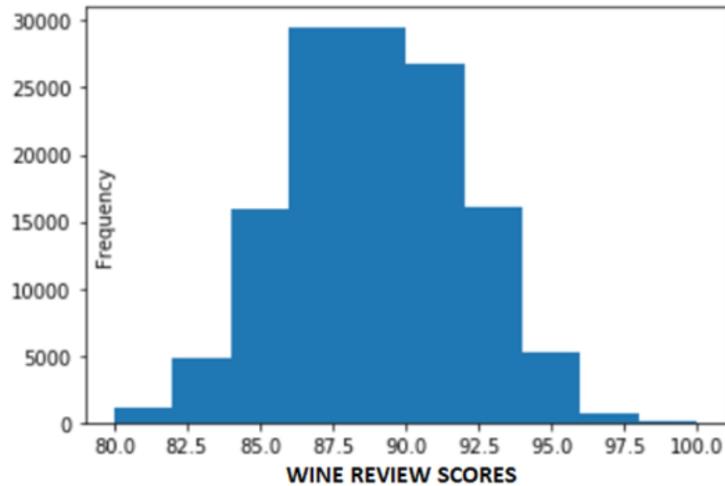
Matplotlib is especially beneficial for creating initial graphs such as bar charts, histograms, line charts and several others

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

2. Histogram Plot

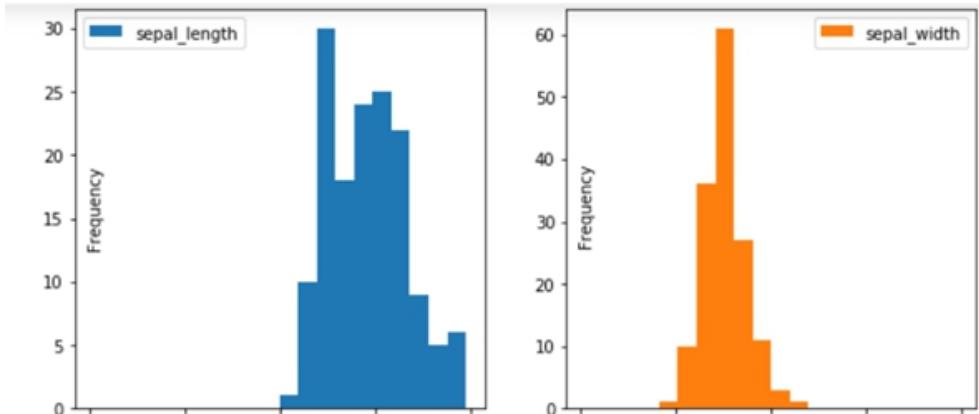
we can generate a histogram “plot. Hist” pattern. You do not need argument nevertheless we can where suitable pass some such as the size of bin.

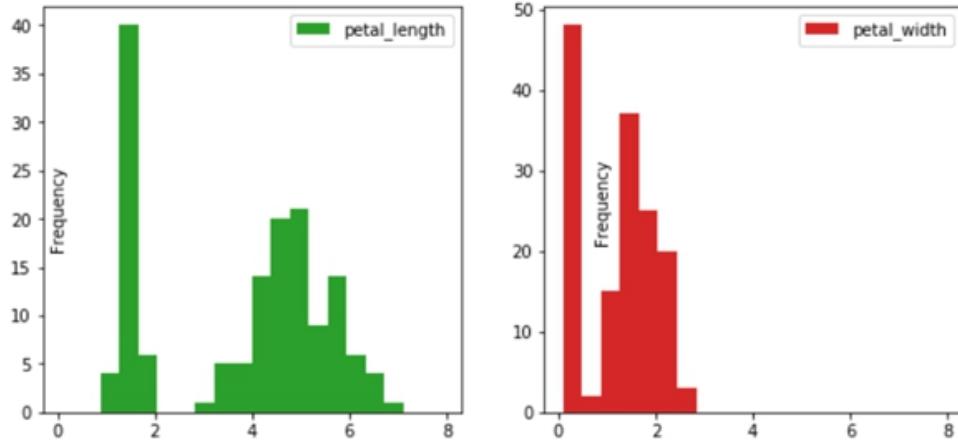
```
wine_reviews['points'].plot.hist()
```



It's as well of a truth easy creating different several histogram.

```
iris.plot.hist(subplots=True, layout=(2,2), figsize=(10, 10), bins=20)
```

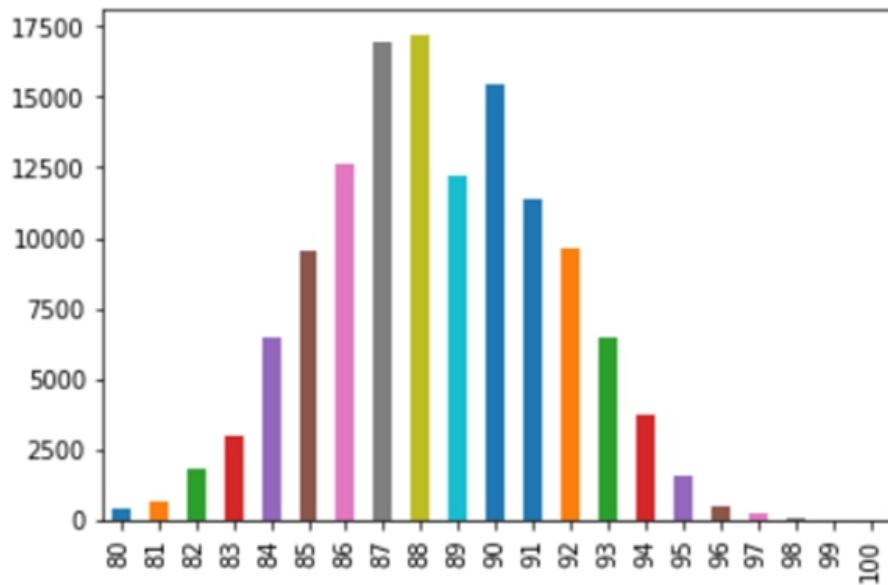




The sub argument defines that we desire a different plot for character, as well the layout indicates the figure of “plots” in a row and column.

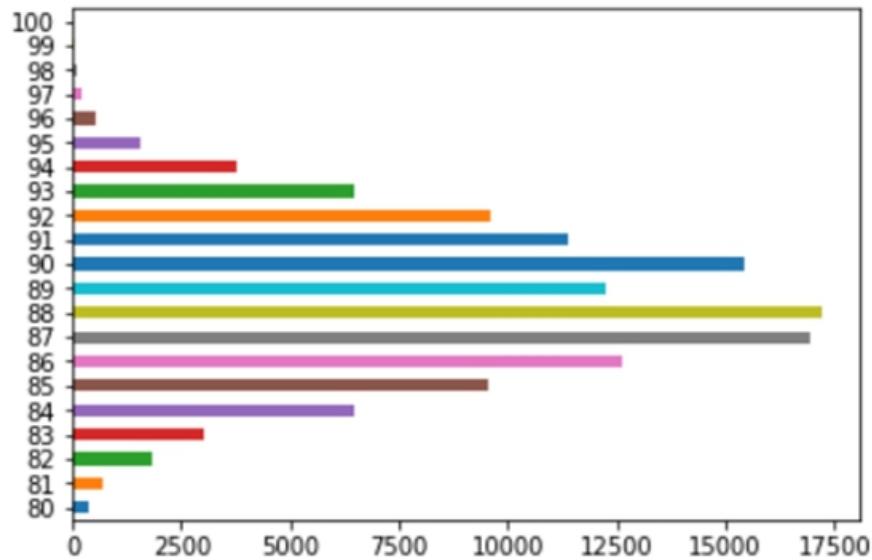
3. Bar Chart

To draw a bar-chart make use of the plot. Bar () technique, nevertheless prior to calling this, we have to obtain our data. initially compute the events making use of the value_count () technique and after that sort the occurrences from the smallest to the most important making use of the index() method.



VERTICAL BAR CHART

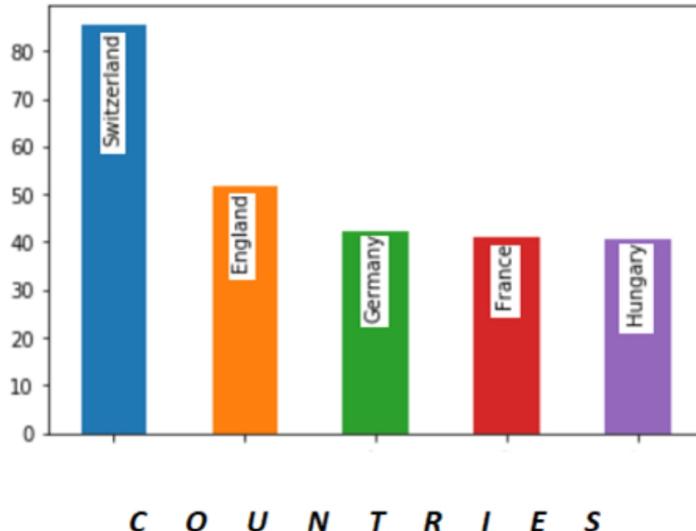
It's more direct to create a horizontal bar-chart making use of the plot.bahr() method.



HORIZONTAL BAR CHART

We can additionally plot data than the number of events.

```
wine_reviews.groupby("country").price.mean()  
.sort_values(ascending=False)[:5].plot.bar()
```



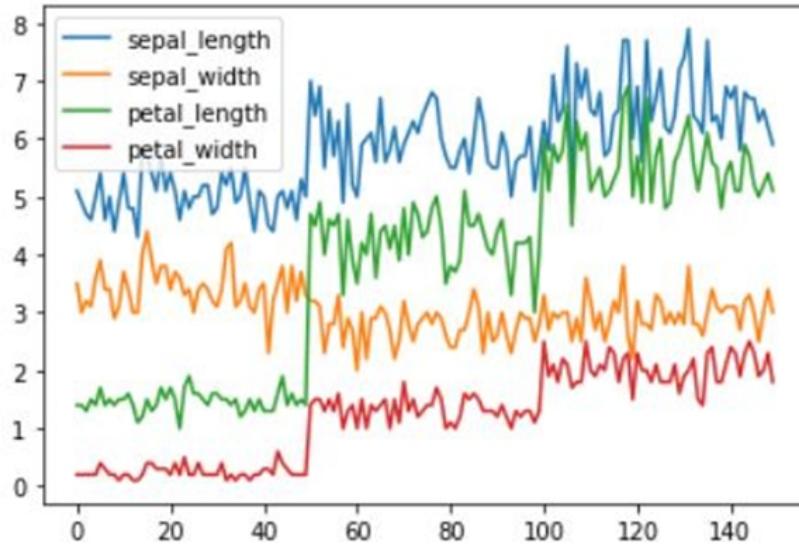
In the graph shown above, we organized the fact by country and later took the average of the wine price, arranged it and drew the five states with the largest average wine price

4. Line Chart

To create a line-graph in panda we can call `<dataframe>.plot.line ()`. At the same time in Matplotlib we anticipated to curve-through all column we

need to draw. In Pandas it's necessary not to do this so since it instinctively draw all present numeric column (in any occurrence if we don't decide a particular column/s).

```
iris.drop(['class'], axis=1).plot.line(title='Iris Dataset')
```

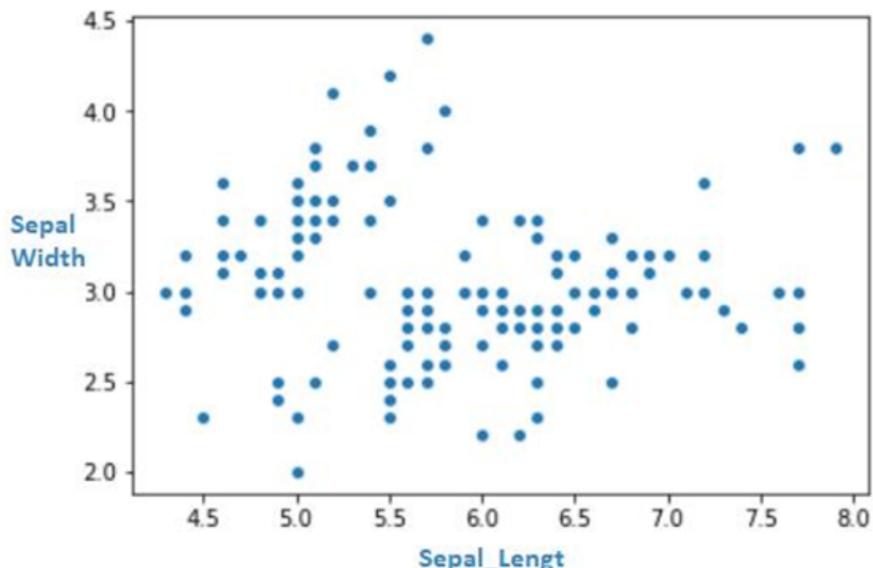


Possibly we have other than one element, Pandas originally create a myth for us, as can be seen in the diagram above.

5. Scatter Plot

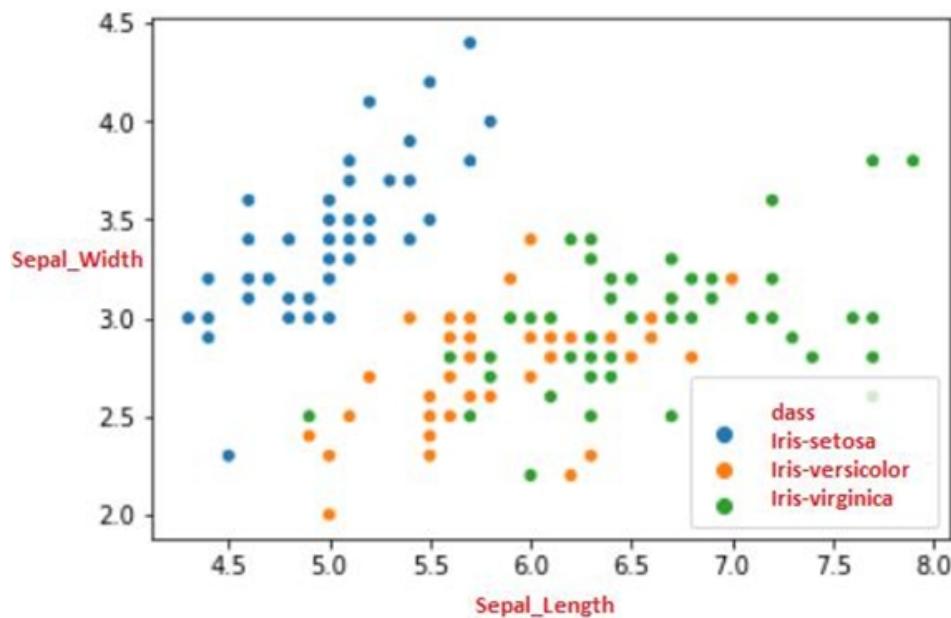
We can make use of the `.scatterplot` method for creating a scatterplot, likewise as in Pandas we have to move it to the part names of the "x" and "y" fact, regardless now we in similar way need to provide the data as more dispute so far we are not calling the capability on the fact accurately just like in Pandas.

```
sns.scatterplot(x='sepal_length', y='sepal_width', data=iris)
```



We can as well highlight the points by class making use of the color argument, which is way easier than in Matplotlib.

```
sns.scatterplot(x='sepal_length', y='sepal_width', hue='class', data=iris)
```



Certain Additional Graphs

Since you now have a fine understanding of Matplotlib, Seaborn structure, and Pandas visualization, I want to make known to you a limited additional graph types that are as well very useful for removing insides.

Several of them, Seaborn is the go-to library due to its superior-degree associates that gives room for the making of lovely graphs in just a limited lines of code.

Heatmap

A “Heatmap” is a different graphical showing of data in which the separate values involved in a matrix as shades. Heatmaps are perfect for surveying the correspondence of characteristics in a dataset.

To obtain the connection of the characteristics present in a dataset, we can call `<dataset>.corr()`, which is a pandas “dataframe” sequence. It will provide us with the connection matrix.

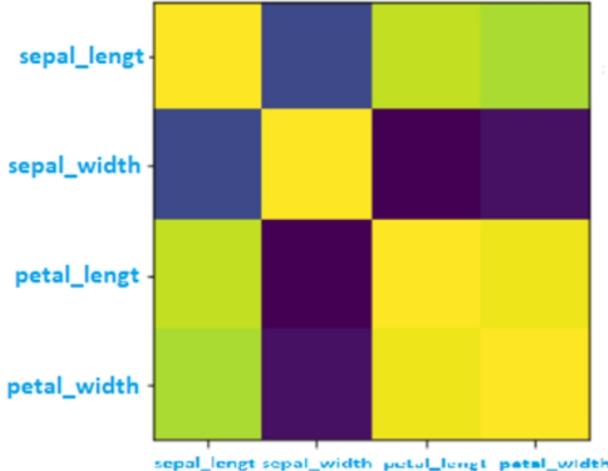
We can make use of Seaborn and Matplotlib to design the heatmap.

Matplotlib:

```
# get correlation matrix corr = iris.corr()
fig, ax = plt.subplots() # create heatmap
im = ax.imshow(corr.values)

#       set      labels      ax.set_xticks(np.arange(len(corr.columns)))
ax.set_yticks(np.arange(len(corr.columns)))
ax.set_xticklabels(corr.columns) ax.set_yticklabels(corr.columns)

# Rotate the tick labels and set their alignment.
plt.setp(ax.get_xticklabels(), rotation=45, ha="right",
rotation_mode="anchor")
```



HEATMAP WITHOUT ANNOTATIONS

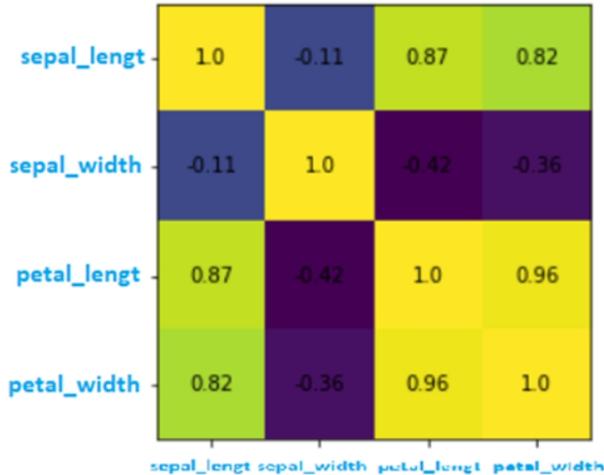
To adjoin annotations to the “heatmap” we need to add two for loops:

```
# get correlation matrix corr = iris.corr()
fig, ax = plt.subplots() # create heatmap
im = ax.imshow(corr.values)

# set labels ax.set_xticks(np.arange(len(corr.columns)))
ax.set_yticks(np.arange(len(corr.columns)))
ax.set_xticklabels(corr.columns) ax.set_yticklabels(corr.columns)

# Rotate the tick labels and set their alignment.
plt.setp(ax.get_xticklabels(), rotation=45, ha="right",
rotation_mode="anchor")

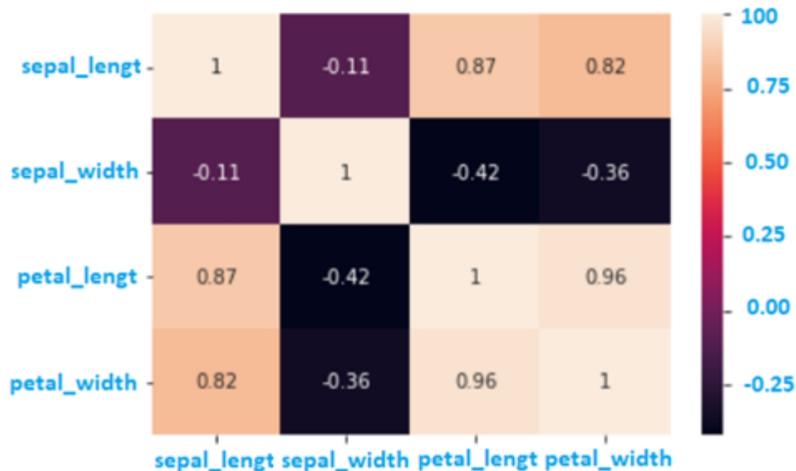
# Loop over data dimensions and make text annotations.
for i in range(len(corr.columns)): for j in range(len(corr.columns)):
text = ax.text(j, i, np.around(corr.iloc[i, j], decimals=2),
ha="center", va="center", color="black")
```



HEATMAP WITH ANNOTATIONS

Seaborn carries it out lots simpler to create a heatmap and append annotations:

```
sns.heatmap(iris.corr(), annot=True)
```



HEATMAP WITH ANNOTATIONS

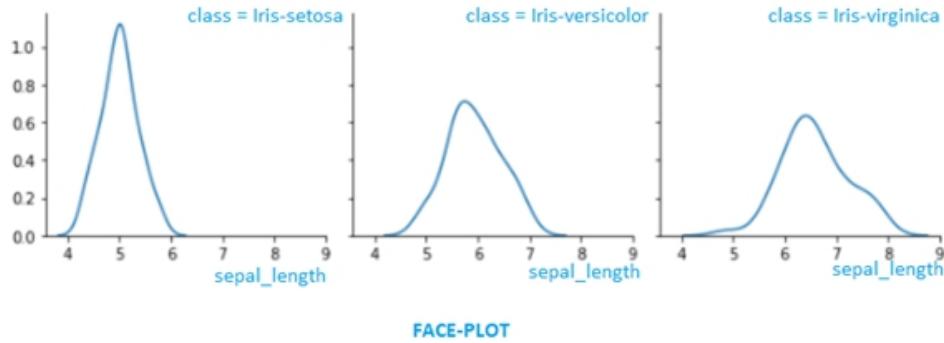
Faceting

"Faceting" is the representation of segregating information factors above difficult subplots and joining the above subplots into a lone number. "Faceting" is exceptionally important if you want to survey your dataset immediately.

To make use of one type of "faceting" in Seaborn, we can utilize the FacetGrid'. Regarding the initial significance, we have to mark the "FacetGrid" and move it to our data further to a row or column which will

be made use to separate the information and decide the plot we need to make use of as well with the column we want to draw.

```
g = sns.FacetGrid(iris, col='class')  
g = g.map(sns.kdeplot, 'sepal_length')
```



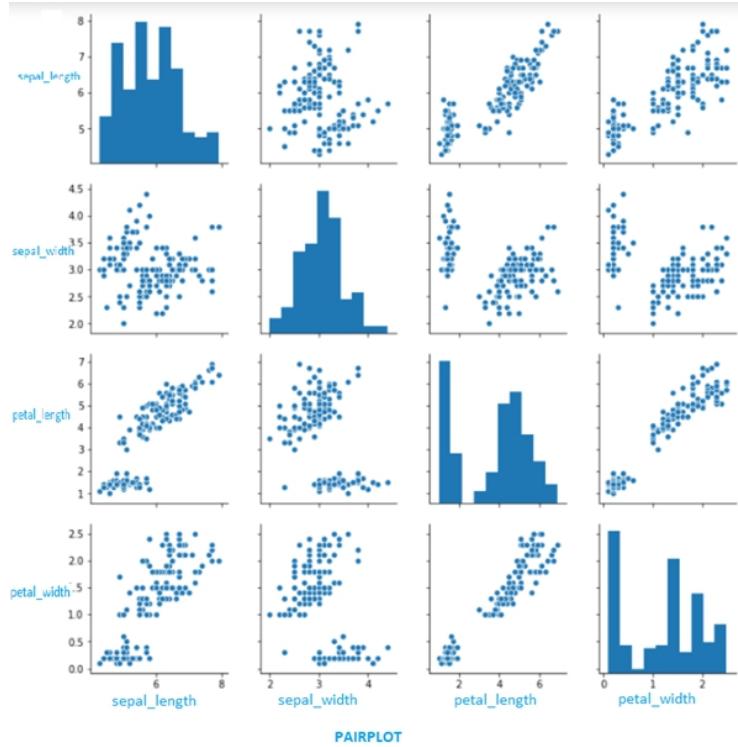
FACE-PLOT

You can generate plots a lot bigger and additionally difficult than the previous example. You can find some examples here:

Pairoplot

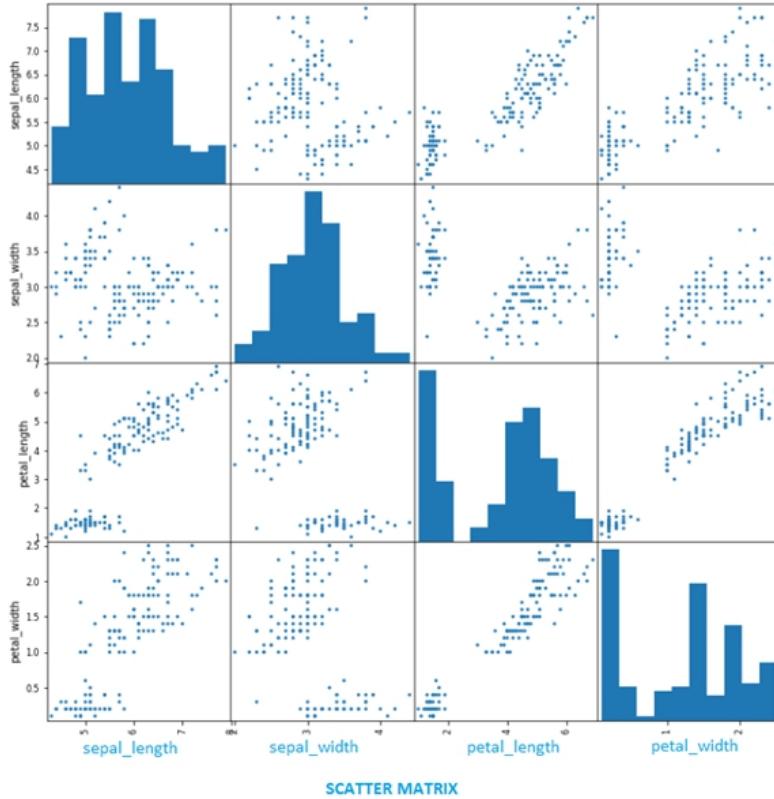
Sooner or later, I will make attempt to describe to you Seaborns couple plot and Pandas scatter_matrix, that kind of help you to draw a grid of couple wise connections in a dataset.

```
sns.pairplot(iris)
```



```
from pandas.plotting import scatter_matrix
```

```
fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(12,12))
scatter_matrix(iris, alpha=1, ax=ax)
```



As ought to be obvious in the images over these techniques are reliable, drawing two attributes with each other. The slope of the graph filled with histograms and the extra plots scatter plots.

Installation of Required Libraries for Data Visualization in Python

We will see the way Python's Plotly library can carry out interchange judgements plots. We are going to plot topological data making use of "plotly" and will explain the way a user can relate with those "plots"

Required Libraries

For the installation of the "Plotly library" making use of the "pip" value, it is necessary to carry out the below command:

Aside from Plotly, we will as well make use of Cufflinks, which stands as a link within the Plotly and Pandas library, also helps to "plot dependent graphs immediately making use of a Pandas data size"

For the installation of Cufflinks making use of pip, carry out the below script:

\$ pip install cufflinks

Importing Required Libraries

Plotly is importantly a networked library that organizes your data visualizations, still, it as well gives a disconnected data package that can be used to sketch dependent plots offline.

Before now, we can execute Plotly in Jupyter notebook, that I am making use to run scripts, it necessary I import one and another the Cufflinks and the Plotly libraries accompany with Pandas and Numpy as whole.

The below script imports the Pandas and Numpy libraries:

```
import pandas as pd  
import numpy as np  
%matplotlib inline
```

After that, we need to import the disconnected versions of the Plotly modules that we are going to make use of in this segment/ episode. The next script carries that out:

```
from plotly.offline import  
download_plotlyjs,  
init_notebook_mode, plot, iplot
```

Formerly, we can run our scripts and we require to link the JavaScript to our notebook. Due to the fact that Plotly plots are dependent, they use JavaScript in the setting. The scripts that we will execute in the Jupyter notebook. To join JavaScript with Jupyter notebook, it is necessary to run the below script:

```
init_notebook_mode(connected=True)
```

Eventually, we need to import the Cufflink library and be sure that we are going to be using it when disconnected. For this, execute the following script:

```
import cufflinks as cf  
cf.go_offline()
```

We now have everything that we need to sketch dependent Plotly graphs within our Jupyter notebooks.

PANDAS LIBRARY

Python has always been outstanding for data control and expansion, however, not precisely so for data examination and designing. Pandas support load this gap by giving you room to run your whole data examination workflow in Python when there is absence of being able to change to the additional domain-specific language such as R for data examination. Pandas do not attain relevant designing functionality outside of successive and control regression.

Important Points of Pandas

1. It gives the superior-presentation combining and linking of data.
2. There are functions in it that is concerned with Data adjustment and taking control of missing data.
3. It has Tag-based slicing, indexing and subsetting of different large datasets.
4. Panda library assists for inputting the data into in-memory data objects from different folder styles.
5. Time Sequence functionality.
6. Pandas can add or remove the columns from the data design.
7. We can make use of Pandas for data gathering and alterations.
8. Making use of Pandas, we can alter and turn around the data sets.
9. Pandas library is functional and systematic DataFrame object that has the default and customized indexing.

Pandas Data Structure

We have two data designs that is concerned with “Pandas.”

1. DataFrames
2. Series

The proposed method to explain these types of concrete dat is with a MultiIndex upon a DataFrame, through the Panel. To fram() method.

1. DataFrames in Pandas

DataFrames in Python are too similar as they emerge with the Pandas library, and as multidimensional tagged data designs with columns of maybe several types

DataFrames gives you room to save and control the horizontal data in rows of views and column of variables.

DataFrame's Features

1. Tagged axes (rows and columns)
2. Possibly columns are of different types
3. Can carry out mathematical activities on rows and columns
4. Size- Changeable

A pandas DataFrame can be created using the following erector.

Pandas.DataFrame allows you see the DataFrame sample.

```
# app.py
```

```
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np

data = [['Krunal', 21],['Rushikesh', 22],['Hardik',30]]
df = pd.DataFrame(data, columns=['Name', 'Enrollment Number'])
print(df)
```

Now, execute the “preceding file” and see the

Result.

```
pyt python3 app.py
```

	Name	Enrollment Number
0	Krunal	21
1	Rushikesh	22
2	Hardik	30

Pyt

In the model above, we have gotten the fact which is Name and Enrollment Number.

In the above model, we have taken the information which is Name and Enrollment Number. For that particular data, we have made use of the NumPy library.

After that, we have imposed that data to the DataFrame and make a horizontal data design.

Series in Pandas

Series is the superficial specified sequence available for containing data of any data kind such as python objects, float, string, integers and so on. The axis tags are in the collection named index.

Tags should not be necessarily distinct but must be a hashable type. The object assists both tag-based indexing and integer also gives a load of methods for carrying out operations pertaining to index.

The syntax of Series in Pandas is following.

pandas.Series(data, index, dtype, copy)

We should make a primary series.

#app.py

Import pandas as pd

Data = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7]

Df = pd.Series(data)

print(df)

Run the folder and see the result.

pyt python3 app.py

0	1
1	2
2	3
3	4
4	5
5	6
6	7

d type: int64

Pyt

CHAPTER-16:

NUMPY LIBRARY

NumPy is a minor-party python library that gives assistance for great multifaceted arrangement and grid along with a group of arithmetical functions to carry out operation on these elements.

- Beneficial linear algebra, discretionary number capacity, Fourier transform
- A strong N-dimensional arranged object [advanced (transmitting) functions
- instruments for merging C/C++ and Fortran code

The library is dependent on well-known packages applied in a different language (for example, Fortran or C) to carry out systematic calculations, giving the user both the importance of Python and a presentation identical to Fortran or Matlab.

In addition, its particular scientific uses, NumPy can as well be made use of as a beneficial multifaceted holder of collective data. Discretionary data-types can be decided. It gives NumPy to absence of problems and speedily merge with a broad diversity of databases.

INSTALLING NUMPY LIBRARY

NumPy is initially installed with Anaconda. In isolated case, NumPy not installed- prior to jumping out these NumPy arrangements for yourself, you initially have to ensure that you have it installed restrictedly (supposing that you are working on your computer). If you have the Python library readily present, continue and jump this part.

Do you yet need to create your environment? If yes, then you should be aware that there are two important ways of installing NumPy on your computer: with the aid of Anaconda Python distribution or Python wheels.

You can install NumPy making use of Anaconda:

```
conda install -c anaconda numpy
```

Check it out in Jupyter Notebook

```
import sys  
!conda install --yes --prefix {sys.prefix} numpy
```

Import NumPy and evaluate the version

The command to import numpy is

```
import numpy as np
```

The above given code renames the Numpy namespace to np. It allows you start Numpy, methods, function, and attributes with “np” as against to typing “numpy.” It is the normal alternate you will discover in the numpy literature.

To confirm your installed version of Numpy make use of the command

```
print (np.__version__)
```

Output (supposed)

```
1.18.0
```

You can install NumPy using Python Wheels

Firstly, ensure that you have Python installed. Are you working with Windows? If yes, make sure that you have joined Python to the PATH environment variable. After that, do not forget to install a package manager, like pip, which will guarantee that you are able to make use Python’s open-source libraries.

Put in mind that Python 3 comes with pip, therefore check twice if you have it and if yes, update it prior to installing NumPy:

pip install pip –upgrade
pip –version

After that, you can go anywhere to obtain your NumPy wheel. When you might have downloaded it move to the file on your computer that saves it via the terminal and installs it:

```
install "numpy-1.9.2rc1+mkl-cp34-none-
win_amd64.whl"

import numpy

numpy.__version__
```

Making Numpy objects

We have five natural ways for creating arrangements:

- i. I am making arrangements from unprocessed bytes making use of buffers or strings.
- ii. Alteration from several Python designs; such as tuples and lists.
- iii. I am looking through arrangements from disk, either from quality or designed formats.
- iv. Important numpy arrangement designing objects; such as ones, arrange,zeros and lots more.

This part will not explain techniques for adding, or normally extending, recreating, or switching surviving arrangements. Neither will it scatter object arrangements or designed arrangement--- both of those campaigned in their particular parts.

Numpy array of objects

In this place, I would make attempt to run a copy for a network model referred to as Boltzmann in Python. All site of the lattice has several means, and liaise with adjoining site in respect to particular laws. I concluded that it might be intelligent to create a class that has all the features and make a table of examples of that class.

Instance to comprehend better:

```
class site:
    def __init__(self,a,...):
        self.a = a
        .... other properties ...
    def set_a(self, new_a):
        self.a = new_a
```

Below is a 2D/3D lattice "grid" of such sites therefore I will make attempt to carry out the following to understand it very well.

```
lattice = np.empty( (3,3), dtype=object)
lattice[:, :] = site(3)
```

Right now, the complication is that all lattice point fits in to the same example, below is another sample to comprehend it.

```
lattice[0,0].set_a(5)
```

This will as well secure the value of lattice [0,2].a to 5. This attitude is unnecessary. To avoid the hindrance one can bend over each grid point and allocate the objects component by component, such as

```
for i in range(3):
    for j in range(3):
        lattice[i,j] = site(a)
```

Do you have a better method, if you won't involve the loops, to allocate objects to a multifaceted arrangement?

The easiest technique to create an arrangement in Numpy is to make use of Python List

```
myPythonList = [1,9,8,3]
```

To shift python list to a numpy arrangement by making use of the object:

*np.array.
numpy_array_from_list =
np.array(myPythonList)*

To view the contents of the list.

numpy_array_from_list

See the output:

```
array([1, 9, 8, 3])
```

As an actual situation, it is not necessary to proclaim a Python list. The operation can combine.

```
a = np.array([1,9,8,3])
```

Note: Numpy authentication affirm the use of np.ndarray to create an arrangement. Notwithstanding , this is the approved application.

BASIC OPERATIONS (ARITHMETIC)

NumPy is one of the most fundamental Python packages for carrying out any practical calculations in Python. NumPy's N-dimensional arrangement design gives awesome implement for numerical calculating with Python.

Allow us check ten most fundamental performances with NumPy library: we should initially fill the NumPy library:

```
# import NumPy
import numpy as np
```

Give us room to make two NumPy arrangements using NumPy's discretionary module. We will make use random.seed to replicate the same discretionary numbers in the two "arrays."

```
# set seed for random numbers
np.random.seed(42)
# create arrays using NumPy's random module
a = np.random.randint(1,3,5)
b = np.random.randint(0,10,5)
```

We have two numpy "arrays" a and b, and we will make use of them in our examples here.

```
>print(a)
[1 2 1 1 1]
>print(b)
[7 4 6 9 2]
```

1. Multiply two "arrays"?

```
np.multiply(a,b)
array([7, 8, 6, 9, 2])
```

2. Compute Sine/Cosine?

```
np.sin(a)
array([0.84147098, 0.90929743, 0.84147098, 0.84147098, 0.84147098])
```

3. Divide two "arrays"?

```
np.divide(a,b)
array([0.14285714, 0.5, 0.16666667, 0.11111111, 0.5])
```

4. Take Dot Product?

```
a.dot(b)
32
```

5. Compute Square Root of an “arrays”?

```
np.sqrt(a)
array([2., 4., 2., 2., 2.])
```

6. Subtract two “arrays”?

```
np.subtract(b,a)
array([-2, 2, 2, -2, 3])
```

7. Round an “arrays”?

```
np.random.seed(42)
a = np.random.rand(5)
print(a)
[0.37454012 0.95071431 0.73199394 0.59865848 0.15601864]
np.around(a)
array([0., 1., 1., 1., 0.])
```

8. Add two “arrays”?

```
np.add(b,a)
array([16, 6, 14, 12, 11])
```

9. Compute Exponent of an “arrays”?

```
np.exp(a)
array([2.71828183, 7.3890561 , 2.71828183, 2.71828183, 2.71828183])
```

10. Take Logarithm?

```
np.log(a)
array([0., 0.69314718, 0., 0., 0.])
np.log2(a)
array([0., 1., 0., 0., 0.])
```

NUMPY FUNCTIONS

Prior to the using of Python NumPy, it is necessary to become used to its “functions” and practices. One of the reasons Python creators outside school have doubts to do this is due to the fact there are lots of them. For extensive list, go to consult SciPy.org.

NumPy adds to sizes as axes. Note this in the process of familiarizing yourself with associating functions:

Function 1: ndarray.ndim suggests to the number of axes in the available array.

Function 2: ndarray.shape attributes the component of the array. As mentioned earlier, NumPy make use of the tuple of integers to reveal the quantity of “array” on all axis.

Function 3: ndarray.size takes note of the number of elements that constituent the array. It will be equal to the multiplication of the singular “elements” in ndarray.shape.

Function 4: ndarray.dtype shows the elements positioned in the array using standard NumPy's specific types or Python element types, for instance, numpy.float64. or numpy.int32

Function 5: ndarray.itemsize suggest to the dimensions of all element in the array, calculated in bytes. It is the way you determine the quantity NumPy has spared you additional space.

Making use of the above functions to give meaning to an array will seem a bit like this:

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> a = np.arange(15).reshape(3, 5)
>>> a

array([[ 0,  1,  2,  3,  4], [ 5,  6,  7,  8,  9], [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]])
>>> a.shape
(3, 5)
>>> a.ndim
2
>>> a.dtype.name
'int64'
>>> a.itemsize
8
>>> a.size
15
>>> type(a)

<type 'numpy.ndarray'>
>>> b = np.array([6, 7, 8])
>>> b
array([6, 7, 8])
>>> type(b)
<type 'numpy.ndarray'>
```

CHAPTER-17: DEBUGGING

Debugging

Developers always discover themselves in situations in which the code they have written is not functioning quite well. When this happens, a developer adjusts their “codes” by run-time instrumentation, examining and carrying out “code” to create solutions to which part of the implementation does not go along with the presumptions of the way the “code” must be accurately working. And due to the fact that debugging is so simple. All developers cherish it.

Debugging tools

There are several debugging implements, certain of which designed into IDEs such as PyCharm and different alone applications. The below list always involve nondependent implements that can be used in whatever development area.

- PDB is a debugger included within the Python Quality library and is the one majority of developers initially use when making attempts to look into their projects.
- Web-PDB provides a network-based UI for PDB to enable it to be more understandable what's happening in the process of checking your running code.
- Wdb make use of WebSockets to help you to eliminate running Python code from a network browser.
- Pyflame (source code) is a describing implement that gives flame graphs for running of Python program code.
- objgraph (source code) makes use of graphviz to plot the connections between Python objects running in an application.

PDB MODULE

The singular thing we are to talk about here is PDB. In software development language, the term debugging is usually made use to process positioning and correcting mistake in a program.

The PDB has a useful command line associate. It is inserted at the period of running of Phyton script by making use of –m switch.

In this initial instance, we will check at making use of PDB in its easy form:
Add the below code at the position where you want fragment into the debugger:

```
import pdb; pdb.set_trace()
```

At the stage when the above line runs, Python halts and hold on for you to instruct it after. You will notice a (PDB) message. It described you are currently halted in the instinctive debugger and can input a command.

Starting in Python 3.7, there is another method to gain entrance to the debugger. PEP 553 gives meaning to the designed function breakpoint (), which makes entering the debugger simple and steady:

```
breakpoint()
```

In addition, breakdown() will bring in PDB and call PDB .set_trace () as indicated above.

Nevertheless, making use of breakpoint () is adaptable and helps you to curb debugging attitude through its API and make use of the environment variable PYTHONBREAKPOINT. For instance, adjusting PYTHONBREAKPOINT=0 in your surrounding will totally disable breakpoint (), therefore stopping debugging. Are you using Python 3.7 or another ? if yes, I implore you to make use of breakpoint() in place of PDB.set_trace().

You can as well break into the debugger, lest altering the origin and making use of breakpoint() or PDB.set_trace, by executing Python directly from the command-line and moving the alternative –m PDB. In case your application gives room for command-line arguments, offer them as you often would after folder name.

For instance:

Shell:

```
$ python3 -m pdb app.py arg1 arg2
```

To additionally find the way debugger works, let's inscribe a Python module (fact.py) as below--

```
def fact(x):
    f = 1
    for i in range(1,x+1):
        print (i)
        f = f * i
    return f
if __name__=="__main__":
    print ("factorial of 3=",fact(3))
```

Start debugging this module from command line. In this example, the running stops at the initial line in the code by displaying (->) to its left and presenting debugger prompt (PDB)

```
C:\python36>python -m pdb fact.py
> c:\python36\fact.py(1)<module>()
-> def fact(x):
(Pdb)
```

DEBUGGING COMMANDS

Fundamentally, a debugger implement gives you a technique to, an instance, unlock the application in a particular place in order to be able to look at your variables, call stack or not considering what it is necessary to see, set limitation breakpoints, move via the origin code a line at each time and so on. It is similar to searching segment by segment to identify the problem

There is designed debugger in Python, named PDB. It is an important value with a command line combination that carries out the internal work. It possesses every debugger property that you will need, nevertheless if you wish to propel it a bit, you can expand it making use of ipdb, which will give the debugger with properties from IPython.

The very clear method to apply PDB is to call it the code you are running:

```
import pdb; pdb.set_trace()
```

As soon as the translator gets to this line, you will receive a command prompt on the end where you are executing the program. It is a normal Python prompt, however with certain recent commands.

list(l)

The command list (l) will describe to you the code line the Python translator is working on. On the uncertainty that it is necessary to check a different part of the code, this command has arguments for the initial and the final lines to display. If you give simply the figure of the original line, you will have the opportunity to see the code around the line you have assigned.

up(p) and down(d)

Up(p) and down(d) are the two commands needed to survey within the call stack. With the help of the above commands, you can see, the person calling the present function, for instance or why the translator is heading a particular way.

step(s) and next(n)

More important couple of commands, step (s) and next (n), help you to keep the running of the application step by step. The special distinct between the two is that next(n) will simply move to the following line of the present function, despite having a call for a different function, nevertheless, step (s) will go further in a situation as this.

break(b)

The command (b) helps you to structure several breakpoints without altering the code. It requires additional explanations; therefore, I will go further below.

In this image is a bright summary of other PDB commands:

Command	What it does
<code>args (a)</code>	Gets you the argument list of the current function
<code>continue (c) or (cont)</code>	Creates a breakpoint in the program execution (requires parameters)
<code>help (h)</code>	Provides a list of commands or help for a certain command
<code>jump (j)</code>	Jumps to the next line to be executed
<code>list (l)</code>	Prints the source code around the current line
<code>Expression (p)</code>	Evaluates the expression in the current context and prints its value
<code>pp (pp)</code>	Pretty-prints the value of the expression
<code>quit or exit (q)</code>	Aborts the program
<code>return (r)</code>	Continues the execution until the current function returns

CONCLUSION

Working within Python can be one of the finest programming languages for you to choose. It is very simple to use for even an amateur, however it possesses the original ability to make it a several programming language.

There are simply various things that you can execute with the Python program, and so far you can merge it in with certain of the different programming languages, there is absolutely nothing you cannot do with the use of Python. It shouldn't be an issue if you are restricted to your capability when making use of a programming language. Python is an awesome way to be able to proceed and carry out amazing things without the fear of the way the code will seem.

This book is ready to give you all the implements that is needed to deal with the more difficult segments of Python. Either you are checking this book out due to the fact that you have little encounter making use of Python and you are willing to do more, or you are commencing as an amateur, be certain to discover the solutions needed in short time.

Therefore, examine this book and discover all that is necessary to know to obtain some awesome code in the process of making use of Python programming.