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Basics

in



1 exercise



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About Basics

Python is a **dynamic and strongly typed** programming language. It employs both **duck typing** and **gradual typing**, via **type hints**. Imperative, declarative (e.g., functional), and object-oriented programming *styles* are all supported, but internally **everything in Python is an object**.

Python puts a strong emphasis on code readability and (*similar to Haskell*) uses **significant indentation** to denote function, method, and class definitions.

Python was created by Guido van Rossum and first released in 1991. The **Python Software Foundation** manages and directs resources for Python and CPython development and receives

proposals for changes to the language from [members](#) of the community via [Python Enhancement Proposals or PEPs](#).

Complete documentation for the current release can be found at docs.python.org.

- [Python Tutorial](#)
- [Python Library Reference](#)
- [Python Language Reference](#)
- [Python HOW TOs](#)
- [Python FAQs](#)
- [Python Glossary of Terms](#)

This first concept introduces 4 major Python language features:

1. Name Assignment (*variables and constants*),
2. Functions (*the `def` keyword and the `return` keyword*),
3. Comments, and
4. Docstrings.

Note

In general, content, tests, and analyzer tooling for the Python track follow the style conventions outlined in [PEP 8](#) and [PEP 257](#) for Python code style, with the additional

(strong) suggestion that there be no single letter variable names.

The [zen of Python \(PEP 20\)](#) and [What is Pythonic?](#) lay out additional philosophies.

On the Python track, **variables** are always written in **snake_case**, and constants in **SCREAMING_SNAKE_CASE**

Name Assignment (Variables & Constants)

In Python, there are no keywords used in creating variables or constants. Instead, programmers can bind **names** (also called *variables*) to any type of object using the assignment `=` operator: `<name> = <value>`. A name can be reassigned (or re-bound) to different values (different object types) over its lifetime.

For example, `my_first_variable` can be re-assigned many times using `=`, and can refer to different object types with each re-assignment:

```
>>> my_first_variable = 1 # my_first_variable bound to an integer object of value 1
>>> my_first_variable = 2 # my_first_variable re-assigned to integer value 2.

>>> print(type(my_first_variable))
<class 'int'>

>>> print(my_first_variable)
2
```

```
>>> my_first_variable = "Now, I'm a string." # You may re-bind a name to a different value
>>> print(type(my_first_variable))
<class 'str'>

>>> print(my_first_variable)
"Now, I'm a string." # Strings can be declared using single or double quote marks

import collections
>>> my_first_variable = collections.Counter([1,1,2,3,3,3,4,5,6,7]) # Now my_first_variable is a Counter
>>> print(type(my_first_variable))
<class 'collections.Counter'>

>>> print(my_first_variable)
>>> Counter({3: 3, 1: 2, 2: 1, 4: 1, 5: 1, 6: 1, 7: 1})
```

Constants

Constants are names meant to be assigned only once in a program. They should be defined at a **module** (file) level, and are typically visible to all functions and classes in the program. Using **SCREAMING_SNAKE_CASE** signals that the name should not be re-assigned, or its value mutated.

```
# All caps signal that this is intended as a constant.
MY_FIRST_CONSTANT = 16
```

```
# Re-assignment will be allowed by the compiler & interpreter,  
# but this is VERY strongly discouraged.  
# Please don't do this, it could create problems in your program!  
MY_FIRST_CONSTANT = "Some other value"
```

Functions

In Python, units of functionality are encapsulated in *functions*, which are themselves *objects* (*it's turtles all the way down*).

Functions can be executed by themselves, passed as arguments to other functions, nested, or bound to a class. When functions are bound to a *class* name, they're referred to as *methods*. Related functions and classes (*with their methods*) can be grouped together in the same file or module, and imported in part or in whole for use in other programs.

The `def` keyword begins a *function definition*. Each function can have zero or more formal *parameters* in `()` parenthesis, followed by a `:` colon. Statements for the *body* of the function begin on the line following `def` and must be *indented in a block*.

```
# The body of a function is indented by 2 spaces, & prints the sum of the numbers  
def add_two_numbers(number_one, number_two):  
    total = number_one + number_two  
    print(total)  
  
>>> add_two_numbers(3, 4)  
7
```

```
# Inconsistent indentation in your code blocks will raise an error.
>>> def add_three_numbers_misformatted(number_one, number_two, number_three):
...     result = number_one + number_two + number_three    # This was indented b
...     print(result)    #this was only indented by 3 spaces
...
...
File "<stdin>", line 3
    print(result)
    ^
IndentationError: unindent does not match any outer indentation level
```

Functions *explicitly* return a value or object via the **return** keyword. Functions that do not have an *explicit* `return` expression will *implicitly* return **None** .

```
# Function definition on first line.
def add_two_numbers(number_one, number_two):
    result = number_one + number_two
    return result    # Returns the sum of the numbers.

>>> add_two_numbers(3, 4)
7
```

```
# This function will return None.  
def add_two_numbers(number_one, number_two):  
    result = number_one + number_two  
  
>>> print(add_two_numbers(5, 7))  
None
```

Calling Functions

Functions are *called* or invoked using their name followed by `()`. Dot `(.)` notation is used for calling functions defined inside a class or module.

```
>>> def number_to_the_power_of(number_one, number_two):  
    return number_one ** number_two  
  
...  
  
>>> number_to_the_power_of(3,3) # Invoking the function with the arguments 3 and 3  
27  
  
# A mis-match between the number of parameters and the number of arguments will  
>>> number_to_the_power_of(4,)  
...  
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

```
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: number_to_the_power_of() missing 1 required positional argument: 'nu
```

```
# Calling methods or functions in classes and modules.
```

```
>>> start_text = "my silly sentence for examples."
```

```
>>> str.upper(start_text) # Calling the upper() method for the built-in str class
"MY SILLY SENTENCE FOR EXAMPLES."
```

```
# Importing the math module
```

```
import math
```

```
>>> math.pow(2,4) # Calling the pow() function from the math module
```

```
>>> 16.0
```

Comments

Comments in Python start with a `#` that is not part of a string, and end at line termination. Unlike many other programming languages, Python **does not support** multi-line comment marks. Each line of a comment block must start with the `#` character.

Comments are ignored by the interpreter:

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



```
x = "foo"  # This is an in-line comment.  
  
# This is a multi-line  
# comment block over multiple lines --  
# these should be used sparingly.
```

Docstrings

The first statement of a function body can optionally be a *docstring*, which concisely summarizes the function or object's purpose. Docstrings are declared using triple double quotes (""") indented at the same level as the code block:

```
# An example from PEP257 of a multi-line docstring.  
def complex(real=0.0, imag=0.0):  
    """Form a complex number.  
  
    Keyword arguments:  
    real -- the real part (default 0.0)  
    imag -- the imaginary part (default 0.0)  
    """  
  
    if imag == 0.0 and real == 0.0:
```

```
return complex_zero
```

Docstrings are read by automated documentation tools and are returned by calling the special attribute `.__doc__` on the function, method, or class name. They are recommended for programs of any size where documentation is needed, and their conventions are laid out in [PEP257](#).

Docstrings can also function as [lightweight unit tests](#), which can be read and run by PyTest, or by importing the `doctest` module. Testing and `doctest` will be covered in a later concept.

```
# An example on a user-defined function.
>>> def number_to_the_power_of(number_one, number_two):
    """Raise a number to an arbitrary power.

    :param number_one: int the base number.
    :param number_two: int the power to raise the base number to.
    :return: int - number raised to power of second number

    Takes number_one and raises it to the power of number_two, returning the
    result.

    """

    return number_one ** number_two

...

```

Calling the `__doc__` attribute of the function and printing the result.

```
>>> print(number_to_the_power_of.__doc__)
```

Raise a number to an arbitrary power.

:param number_one: `int` the base number.

:param number_two: `int` the power to `raise` the base number to.

:return: `int` - number raised to power of second number

Takes `number_one` `and` raises it to the power of `number_two`, returning the re

Printing the `__doc__` attribute for the built-in type: `str`.

```
>>> print(str.__doc__)
```

```
str(object='') -> str
```

```
str(bytes_or_buffer[, encoding[, errors]]) -> str
```

Create a new string `object` from the given `object`. If encoding `or` errors `is` specified, then the `object` must expose a data buffer that will be decoded using the given encoding `and` error handler. Otherwise, returns the result of `object.__str__()` (`if` defined) `or` `repr(object)`.

```
encoding defaults to sys.getdefaultencoding().  
errors defaults to 'strict'.
```

Learn More

Reuven Lerner: Understanding Python Assignment [↗](#)

Sentdex (YouTube): Python 3 Programming Tutorial – Functions [↗](#)

Real Python: Commenting vs Documenting Code. [↗](#)

Python Morsels: Everything is an Object [↗](#)

Eli Bendersky: Python internals: how callables work [↗](#)

dynamic typing and strong typing [↗](#)

type hints [↗](#)

significant indentation [↗](#)

DigitalOcean: How to Write Doctests in Python. [↗](#)

Ned Batchelder: Is Python Interpreted or Compiled? Yes. [↗](#)

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