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TABLE OF CONTENTS

1	Getting started with PythonLanguage
2	Getting started with PythonLanguage
3	Python Data Types
4	Python Data Types
5	Indentation
6	Indentation
7	Comments and Documentation
8	Comments and Documentation
9	Python Anti-Patterns
10	Python Anti-Patterns

GETTING STARTED WITH PYTHON LANGUAGE

Computing

Written by : EL BAROUDI Marouane

Section 1.1: Getting Started Python is a widely used high-level programming language for general-purpose programming, created by Guido van Rossum and first released in 1991. Python features a dynamic type system and automatic memory management and supports multiple programming paradigms, including object-oriented, imperative, functional programming, and procedural styles. It has a large and comprehensive standard library. Two major versions of Python are currently in active use: Python 3.x is the current version and is under active development. Python 2.x is the legacy version and will receive only security updates until 2020. No new features will be implemented. Note that many projects still use Python 2, although migrating to Python 3 is getting easier. You can download and install either version of Python here. See Python 3 vs. Python 2 for a comparison between them. In addition, some third-parties offer re-packaged versions of Python that add commonly used libraries and other features to ease setup for common use cases, such as math, data analysis or scientific use. See the list at the official site. Verify if Python is installed To confirm that Python was installed correctly, you can verify that by running the following command in your favorite terminal (If you are using Windows OS, you need to add path of python to the environment variable before using it in command prompt):

```
$ python --version
```

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Python 3.x Version ? 3.0

If you have Python 3 installed, and it is your default version (see Troubleshooting for more details) you should see something like this:

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Python 3.6.0

Python 2.x Version ? 2.7

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Hello, World in Python using IDLE

IDLE is a simple editor for Python, that comes bundled with Python.

How to create Hello, World program in

IDLEOpen IDLE on your system of choice.In older versions of Windows, it can be found at All Programs under the Windows menu.In Windows 8+, search for IDLE or find it in the apps that are present in your system.On Unix-based (including Mac) systems you can open it from the shell by typing `$ idlepython_file.py`.It will open a shell with options along the top.In the shell, there is a prompt of three right angle brackets:`>>>`Now write the following code in the prompt:`>>>print("Hello, World")`Hit Enter `.>>>print("Hello, World")`Hello, WorldHello World Python fileCreate a new file `hello.py` that contains the following line:`Python 3.xVersion ? 3.0print('Hello, World')`Python 2.xVersion ? 2.6You can use the Python 3 print function in Python 2 with the following import statement: GoalKicker.com – Python® Notes for Professionals4from__future__import print_functionPython 2 has a number of functionalities that can be optionally imported from Python 3 using the `__future__` module, as discussed here.Python 2.xVersion ? 2.7If using Python 2, you may also type the line below. Note that this is not valid in Python 3 and thus notrecommended because it reduces cross-version code compatibility.`print'Hello, World'`In your terminal, navigate to the directory containing the file `hello.py`.Type `python hello.py`, then hit the Enter key.`$ python hello.py`Hello, WorldYou should see Hello, World printed to the console.You can also substitute `hello.py` with the path to your file. For example, if you have the file in your home directoryand your user is "user" on Linux, you can type `python /home/user/hello.py`.Launch an interactive Python shell

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PYTHON DATA TYPES

Computing

Written by : EL BAROUDI Marouane

Data types are nothing but variables you use to reserve some space in memory. Python variables do not need an explicit declaration to reserve memory space. The declaration happens automatically when you assign a value to a variable.

Section 2.1: String Data Type Strings are identified as a contiguous set of characters represented in the quotation marks. Python allows for either pairs of single or double quotes. Strings are immutable sequence data type, i.e. each time one makes any change to a string, a completely new string object is created.
`a_str = 'Hello World'`
`print(a_str)` #output will be whole string. Hello World
`print(a_str[0])` #output will be first character. H
`print(a_str[0:5])` #output will be first five characters. Hello

Section 2.2: Set Data Types Sets are unordered collections of unique objects, there are two types of set: Sets - They are mutable and new elements can be added once sets are defined

`1.basket = {'apple', 'orange', 'apple', 'pear', 'orange', 'banana'}`
`print(basket)` # duplicates will be removed
`>{'orange', 'banana', 'pear', 'apple'}`
`a = set('abracadabra')`
`print(a)` # unique letters in a
`>{'a', 'r', 'b', 'c', 'd'}`
`a.add('z')`
`print(a)`
`>{'a', 'c', 'r', 'b', 'z', 'd'}`
Frozen Sets - They are immutable and new elements cannot be added after its defined.

`2.b = frozenset('asdfagsa')`
`print(b)`
`>frozenset({'f', 'g', 'd', 'a', 's'})`

`cities = frozenset(["Frankfurt", "Basel", "Freiburg"])`
`print(cities)`
`>frozenset({'Frankfurt', 'Basel', 'Freiburg'})`

Section 2.3: Numbers data type Numbers have four types in Python. Int, float, complex, and long.
`int_num = 10` #int value
`float_num = 10.2` #float value
`complex_num = 3.14j` #complex value
`long_num = 1234567L` #long value

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Section 2.4: List Data Type A list contains items separated by commas and enclosed within square brackets [].

Lists are almost similar to arrays in C. One difference is that all the items belonging to a list can be of different data type.
`list = [123, 'abcd', 10.2, 'd']` #can be an array of any data type or single data type.
`list1 = ['hello', 'world']`
`print(list)` #will output whole list.

`[123, 'abcd', 10.2, 'd']`
`print(list[0:2])` #will output first two elements of list.

`[123, 'abcd']`
`print(list1 * 2)` #will give list1 two times.

`['hello', 'world', 'hello', 'world']`
`print(list + list1)` #will give concatenation of both the lists.

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Section 2.5: Dictionary Data Type Dictionary consists of key-value pairs. It is enclosed by curly braces {} and values can be

assigned and accessed using square

brackets []. dic={'name':'red','age':10} print(dic) #will output all the key-value pairs.

{'name':'red','age':10} print(dic['name']) #will output only value with 'name' key.

'red' print(dic.values()) #will output list of values in dic.

['red',10] print(dic.keys()) #will output list of keys. ['name','age']

Section 2.6: Tuple Data Type Lists are enclosed in brackets [] and their elements and size can be changed, while tuples are enclosed in parentheses () and cannot be updated.

Tuples are immutable. tuple=(123,'hello') tuple1=('world') print(tuple) #will output

whole tuple. (123,'hello') print(tuple[0]) #will output first value. (123) print(tuple +

tuple1) #will output (123,'hello','world') tuple[1]='update' #this will give you error.

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INDENTATION

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For Python, Guido van Rossum based the grouping of statements on indentation. The reasons for this are explained in the first section of the "Design and History Python FAQ". Colons, :, are used to declare an indented code block, such as the following example:

```
class ExampleClass:
    # Every function belonging to a class must be indented equally
    def __init__(self):
        name = "example"
    def someFunction(self, a):
        # Notice everything belonging to a function must be indented
        if a > 5:
            return True
        else:
            return False
    # If a function is not indented to the same level it will not be considered as part of the parent class
    def separateFunction(b):
        for i in b:
            # Loops are also indented and nested conditions start a new indentation
            if i
```

```
== 1:
    return True
return False
separateFunction([2,3,5,6,1])
```

Spaces or Tabs? The recommended indentation is 4 spaces but tabs or spaces can be used so long as they are consistent. Do not mix tabs and spaces in Python as this will cause an error in Python 3 and can cause errors in Python 2.

Section 3.2: How Indentation is Parsed Whitespace is handled by the lexical analyzer before being parsed. The lexical analyzer uses a stack to store indentation levels. At the beginning, the stack contains just the value 0, which is the leftmost position. Whenever a nested block begins, the new indentation level is pushed on the stack, and an "INDENT" token is inserted into the token stream which is passed to the parser. There can never be more than one "INDENT" token in a row (IndentationError). When a line is encountered with a smaller indentation level, values are popped from the stack until a value is on top which is equal to the new indentation level (if none is found, a syntax error occurs). For each value popped, a "DEDENT" token is generated. Obviously, there can be multiple "DEDENT" tokens in a row. The lexical analyzer skips empty lines (those containing only whitespace and possibly comments), and will never generate either "INDENT" or "DEDENT" tokens for them. At the end of the source code, "DEDENT" tokens are generated for each indentation level left on the stack, until just the 0 is left.

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    def separateFunction(b):
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            if i
```

```
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COMMENTS AND DOCUMENTATION

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Section 4.1: Single line, inline and multiline comments
Comments are used to explain code when the basic code itself isn't clear. Python ignores comments, and so will not execute code in there, or raise syntax errors for plain English sentences. Single-line comments begin with the hash character (#) and are terminated by the end of line. Single line comment: # This is a single line comment in Python
Inline comment: print("Hello World") # This line prints "Hello World"
Comments spanning multiple lines have """ or ''' on either end. This is the same as a multiline string, but they can be used as comments: """This type of comment spans multiple lines. These are mostly used for documentation of functions, classes and modules."""
Section 4.2: Programmatically accessing docstrings
Docstrings are - unlike regular comments - stored as an attribute of the function they document, meaning that you can access them programmatically. An example function: def func(): """This is a function that does nothing at all"""
return
The docstring can be accessed using the __doc__ attribute: print(func.__doc__)
This is a function that does nothing at all
help(func)
Help on function func in module __main__: func()
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Another example function
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function.__doc__ is just the actual docstring as a string, while the help function provides general information about a function, including the docstring. Here's a more helpful example: def greet(name, greeting="Hello"): """Print a greeting to the user `name` Optional parameter `greeting` can change what they're greeted with."""
print("{} {}".format(greeting, name))
help(greet)
Help on function greet in module __main__: greet(name, greeting='Hello')
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Optional parameter greeting can change what they're greeted with.
Advantages of docstrings over regular comments
Just putting no docstring or a regular comment in a function makes it a lot less helpful.
def greet(name, greeting="Hello"): # Print a greeting to the user `name`
Optional parameter `greeting` can change what they're greeted with.
print("{} {}".format(greeting, name))
print(greet.__doc__)
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help(greet)
Help on function greet in module main: greet(name, greeting='Hello')
Section 4.3: Write documentation using docstrings
A docstring is a multi-line comment used to

document modules, classes, functions and methods. It has to be the first statement of the component it describes.

```
def hello(name):  
    """Greet someone.  
    Print a greeting ("Hello") for the person with the given name.  
    """  
    print("Hello "+name)  
class Greeter:  
    """An object used to greet people.
```

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PYTHON ANTI-PATTERNS

Computing

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Section 199.1: Overzealous except clause Exceptions are powerful, but a single overzealous except clause can take it all away in a single line.

```
try: res = get_result()
res = res[0]
log('got result: %r' % res)
except: if not res: res = "print('got exception')"
```

This example demonstrates 3 symptoms of the antipattern: The except with no exception type (line 5) will catch even healthy exceptions, including KeyboardInterrupt. 1. That will prevent the program from exiting in some cases. The except block does not reraise the error, meaning that we won't be able to tell if the exception came from 2. within get_result or because res was an empty list. Worst of all, if we were worried about result being empty, we've caused something much worse. If 3. get_result fails, res will stay completely unset, and the reference to res in the except block, will raise NameError, completely masking the original error. Always think about the type of exception you're trying to handle. Give the exceptions page a read and get a feel for what basic exceptions exist. Here is a fixed version of the example above:

```
import traceback
try: res = get_result()
except Exception:
    log_exception(traceback.format_exc())
    raise
try: res = res[0]
except IndexError:
    res = "log('got result: %r' % res)"
```

We catch more specific exceptions, reraising where necessary. A few more lines, but infinitely more correct.

Section 199.2: Looking before you leap with processor-intensive function A program can easily waste time by calling a processor-intensive function multiple times. For example, take a function which looks like this: it returns an integer if the input value can produce one, else None:

```
def intensive_f(value):
    # int -> Optional[int]
    # complex, and time-consuming code
    if process_has_failed:
        return None
    return integer_output
```

And it could be used in the following way:

```
x = 5
if intensive_f(x) is not None:
    print(intensive_f(x) / 2)
else:
    print(x, "could not be processed")
print(x)
```

Whilst this will work, it has the problem of calling intensive_f, which doubles the length of time for the code to run. A better solution would be to get the return value of the function beforehand

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