Installing Python for Windows

Installation of Python for Windows

To install Python software into our laptop or desktop, we need to visit their official website by typing 'python.org' in the web browser. The following screen as shown in Figure 1.4 will appear. Select 'Downloads' and then click on 'Windows' to see various versions of Python available.

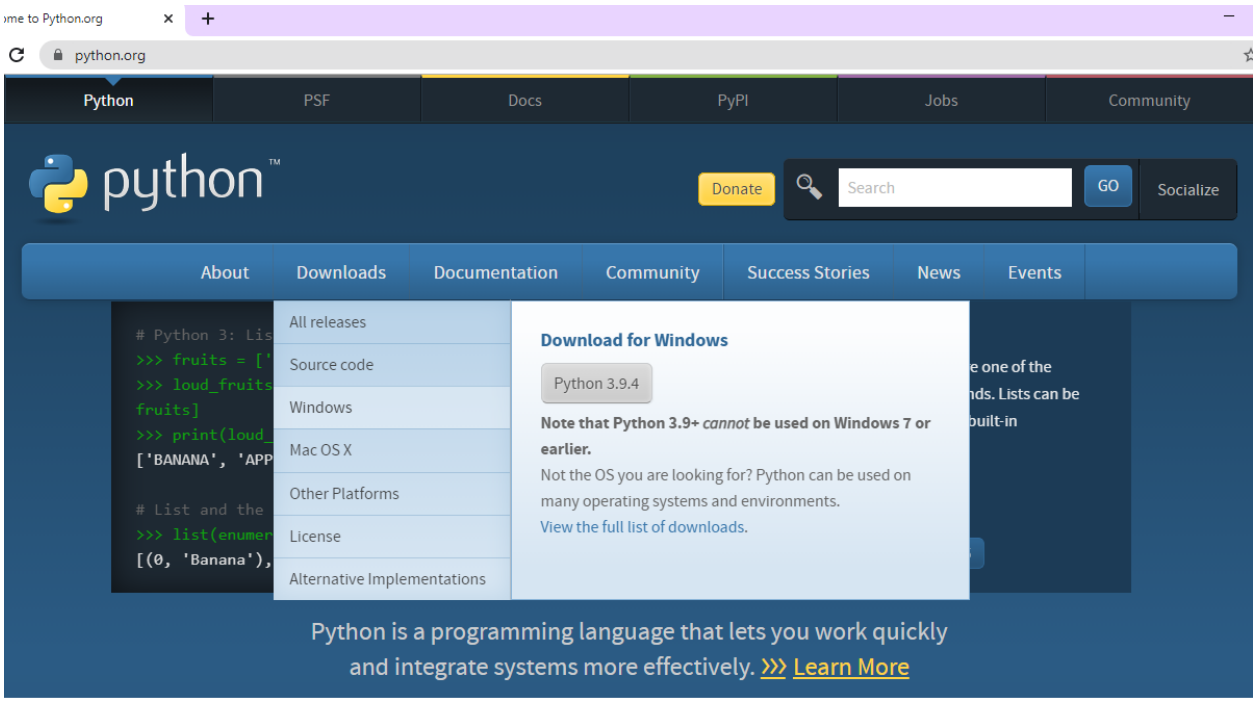


Figure 1.4: Python software download

The latest version of Python (during April of 2021) is Python 3.9.4. This version has again got two variations, a 32-bit version and a 64-bit version. Depending upon our operating system, we can choose a version. Nowadays most people use 64-bit operating system and hence we can use the 64-bit version of Python. For Machine learning and Data Science related tasks, it is better to go for 64-bit version. Hence click on 'Download Windows installer (64-bit)' . See Figure 1.5.

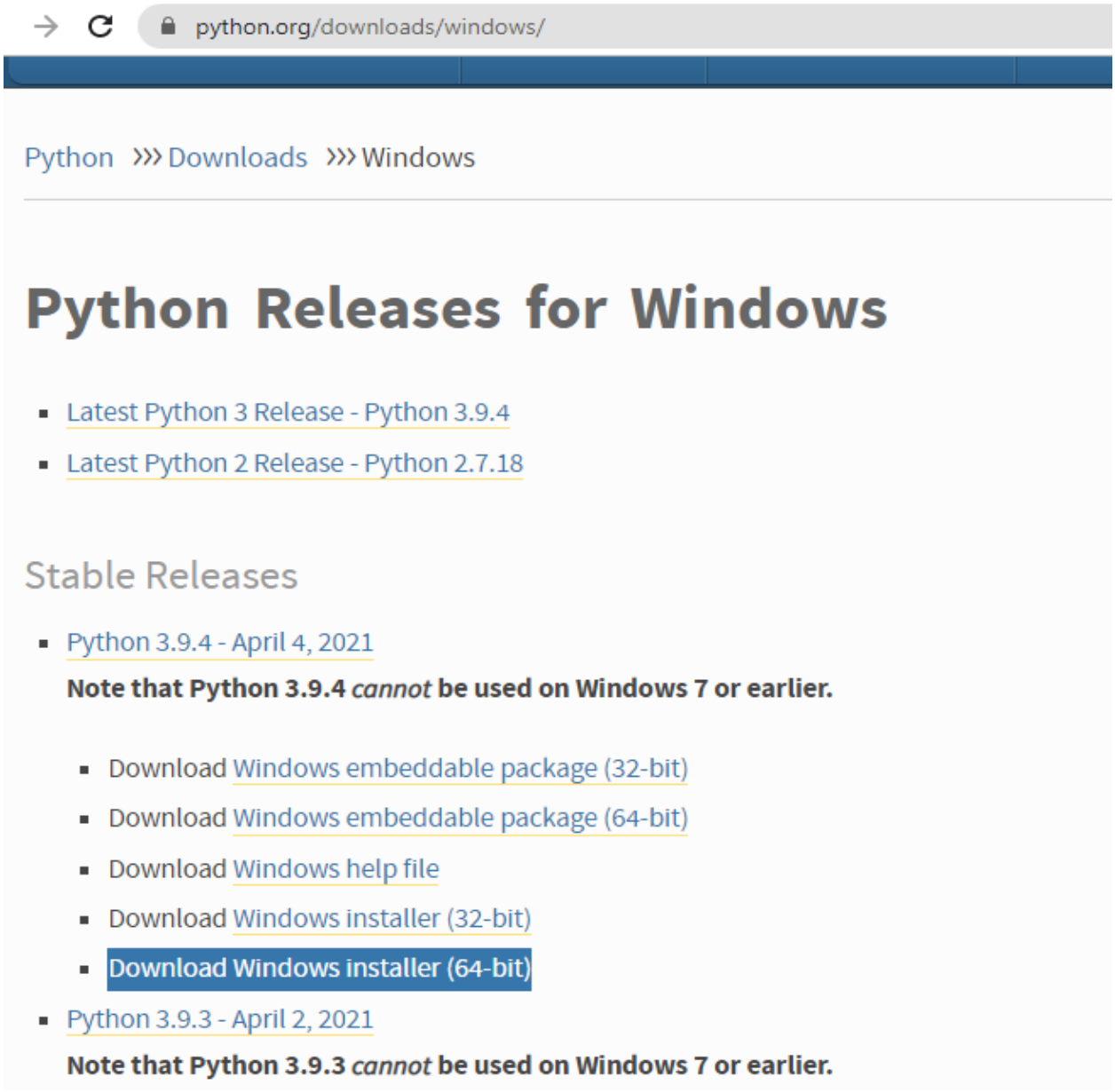


Figure 1.5: Selecting Windows installer to install Python.

This will download Windows installer by the name 'python-3.9.4-amd64.exe' file into our computer. Double click on this file and the installer will run and display 'Setup' window. Go to the bottom of the screen and select the check box at 'Add Python 3.9 to PATH'. A tick mark will appear in that checkbox. Then come up and click on 'Install Now'. See Figure 1.6.

Figure 1.6: Starting screen of Installation of Python

Installation Progress bar will appear as shown in Figure 1.7 and we have to wait for a few minutes.

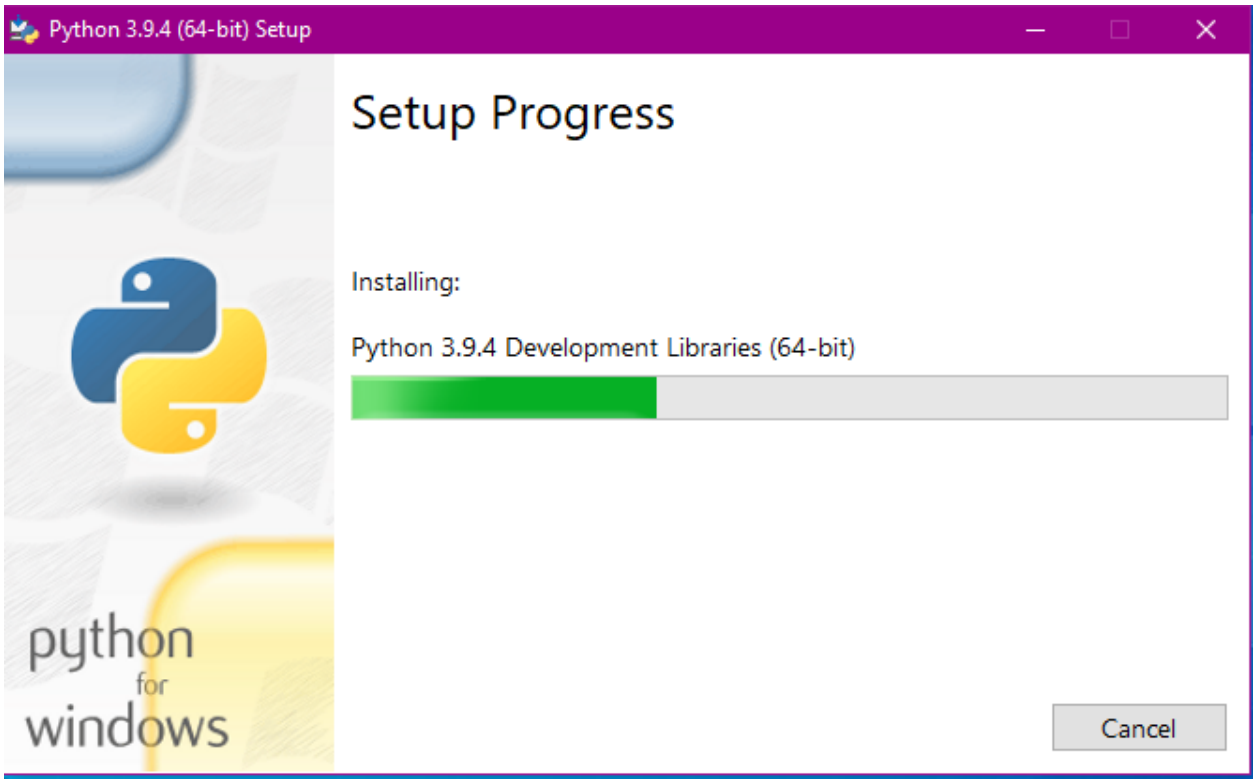


Figure 1.7: Installation of Python is going on.

After completion, ‘Setup was successful’ message can be seen. Click on ‘Close’ button as shown in Figure 1.8. This completes installation of Python in our System.

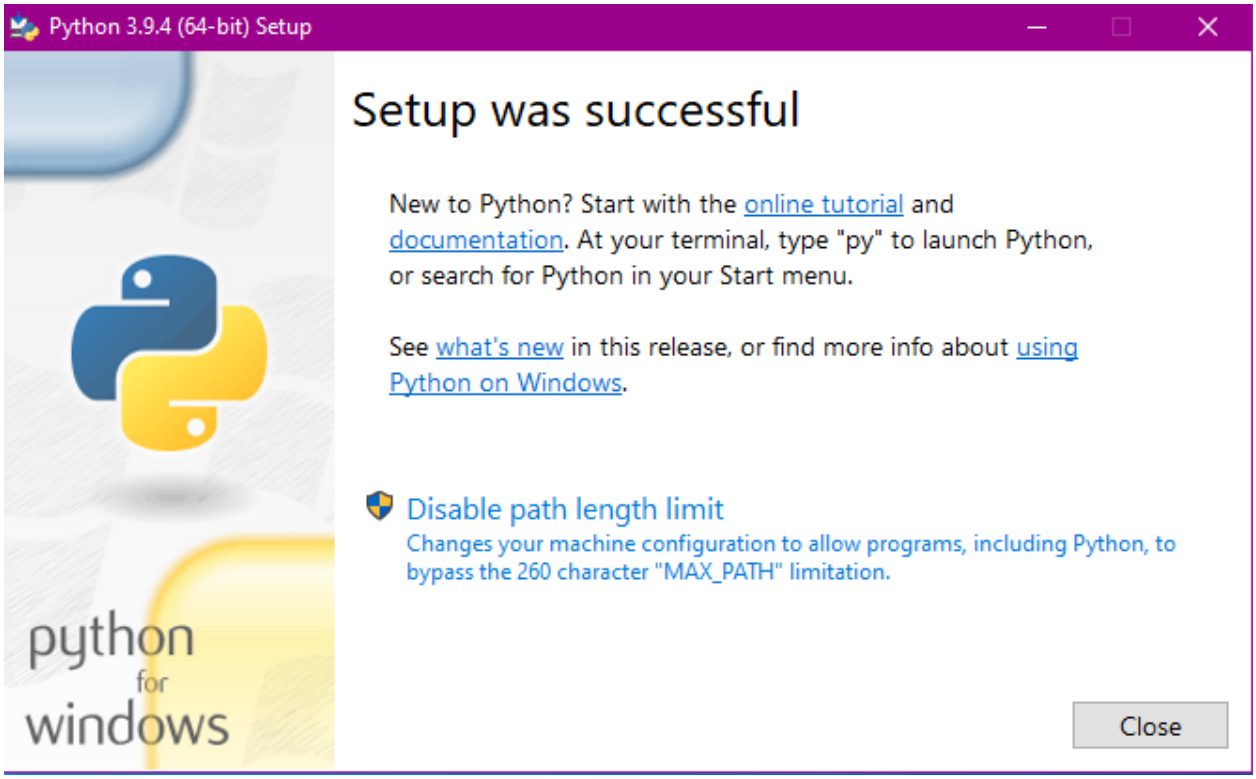


Figure 1.8: Installation of Python completed.

Installing additional packages

Along with basic Python software, we need to install additional packages developed by other companies. These additional packages are nothing but additional libraries (or code) which can be imported and used in our Python programs. We may require to install the following packages: numpy, pandas, xlrd, matplotlib and seaborn. These packages can be installed by going to DOS prompt (or System prompt or command prompt). To go to DOS prompt, we can Right click on Windows ‘Start’ button and then click on ‘Run’. Then type ‘cmd’ or ‘command’ to go to System prompt. This is shown in Figure 1.9.

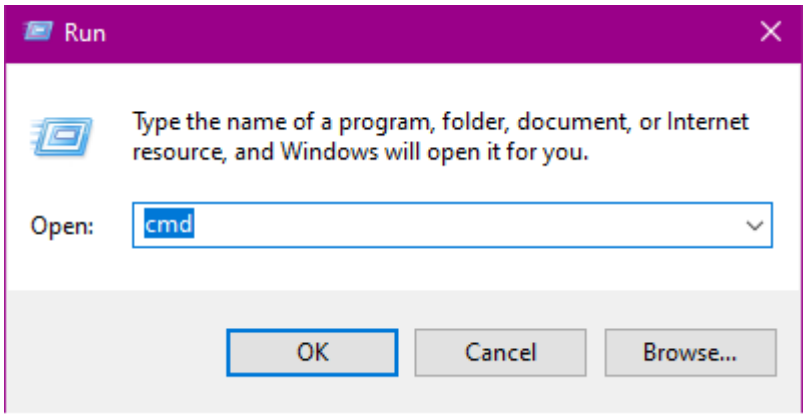


Figure 1.9: Going to DOS System prompt

Installing numpy

Python supports only single dimensional arrays. To create multi-dimensional arrays, we need a special package called Numerical Python package or *numpy*. To download and install this package, first we should go to System prompt and then use 'pip' (Python Installation of Packages) command as shown below:

```
C:\> pip install numpy
```

'pip' program comes with Python software by default. When this command is given, it searches the latest version of the numpy package on the Internet, downloads it and installs it, as shown in Figure 1.10:

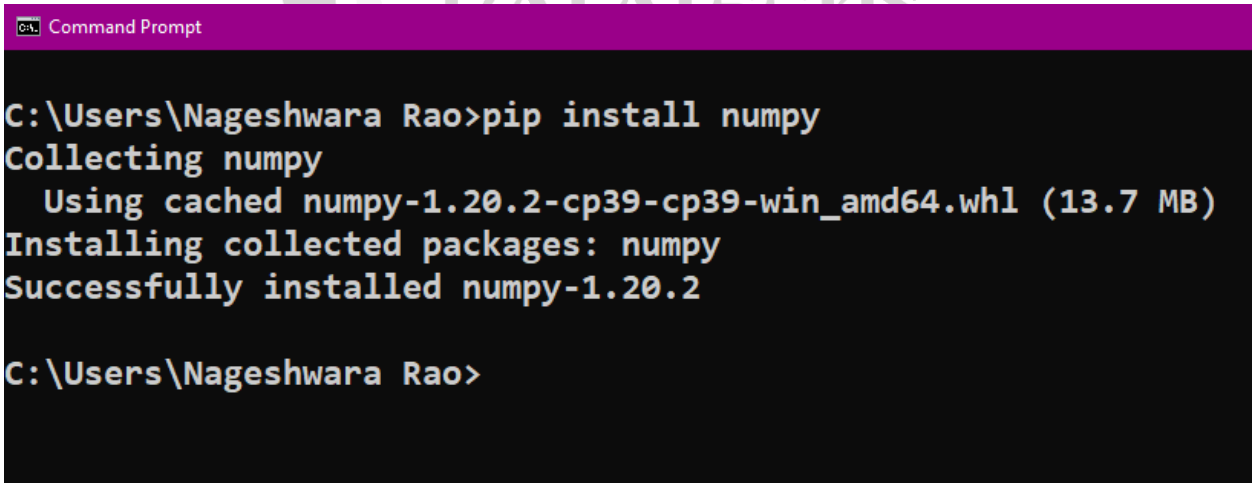


Figure 1.10: Installation of numpy package

Of course, our computer would have been connected to the Internet while using this command.

Installing pandas

pandas is a package used in data analysis. This package is mostly used by data scientists and data analysts. To download and install this package, we should go to System prompt and then use 'pip' (Python Installation of Packages) command as shown below:

```
C:\> pip install pandas
```

This command downloads pandas package from the Internet and installs it, as shown in Figure 1.11:

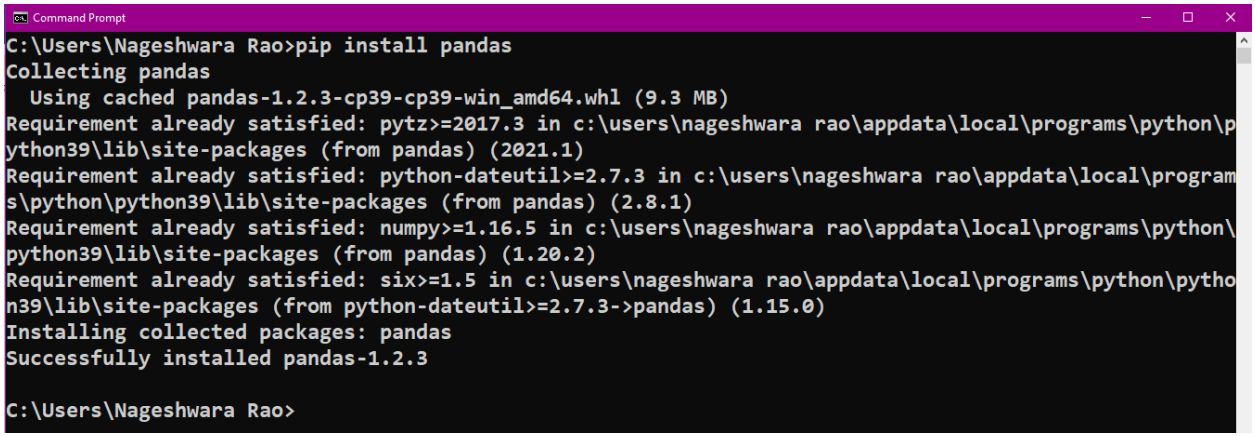


Figure 1.11: Installation of pandas package

Installing xlrd

xlrd is a package that is useful to retrieve data from Microsoft Excel spreadsheet files. Hence, it is useful in data analysis. To download and install this package, we should go to System prompt and then use 'pip' (Python Installation of Packages) command as shown below:

```
C:\> pip install xlrd
```

This command downloads xlrd package from the Internet and installs it, as shown in Figure 1.12:

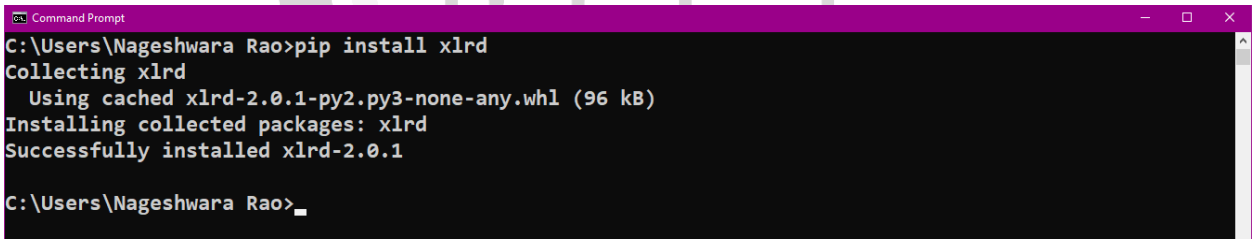


Figure 1.12: Installation of xlrd package

Installing matplotlib

matplotlib is another important package in Python that is useful to produce good quality 2D graphics. It is mostly used for the purpose of showing data in the form of graphs and also for designing electronic circuits, machinery parts, etc. To download and install this package, we should go to System prompt and then use 'pip' (Python Installation of Packages) command as shown below:

```
C:\> pip install matplotlib
```

This command downloads the matplotlib package from the Internet and installs it as shown in Figure 1.13:

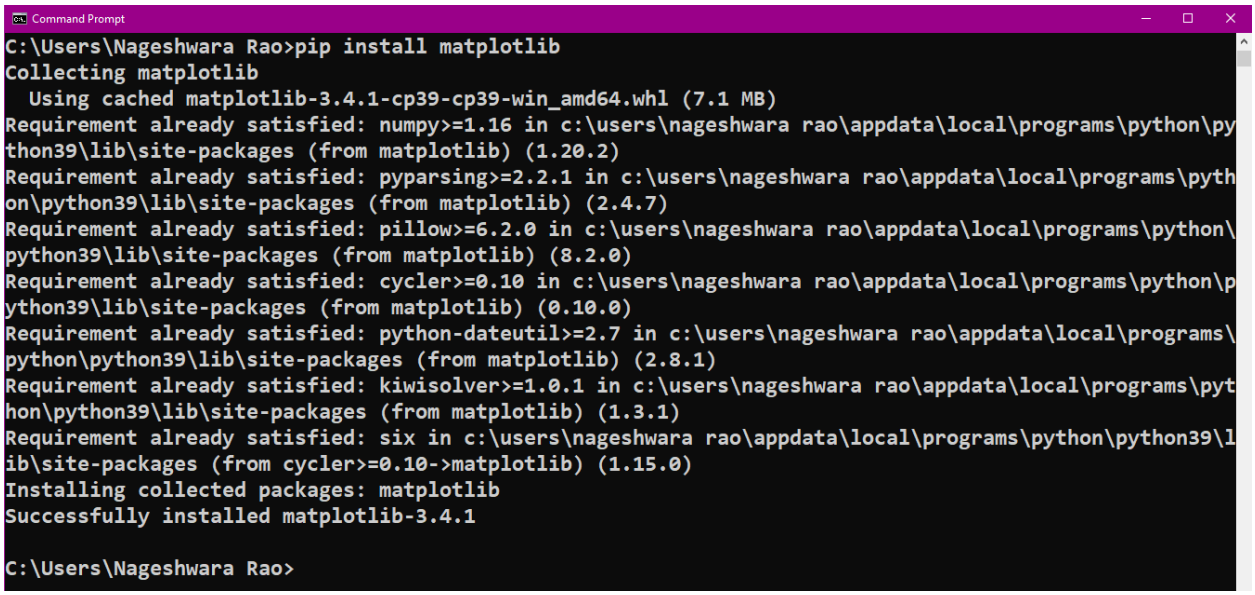


Figure 1.13: Installation of matplotlib package

Verifying Installed Packages

We can verify whether the installed packages are added to our Python software properly or not by going into Python and typing the following command at Python prompt (triple greater than symbol) as:

>>> help('modules')

For this purpose, first click on the Python IDLE Window pinned at the taskbar and then type the preceding command as shown in the Figure 2.12.

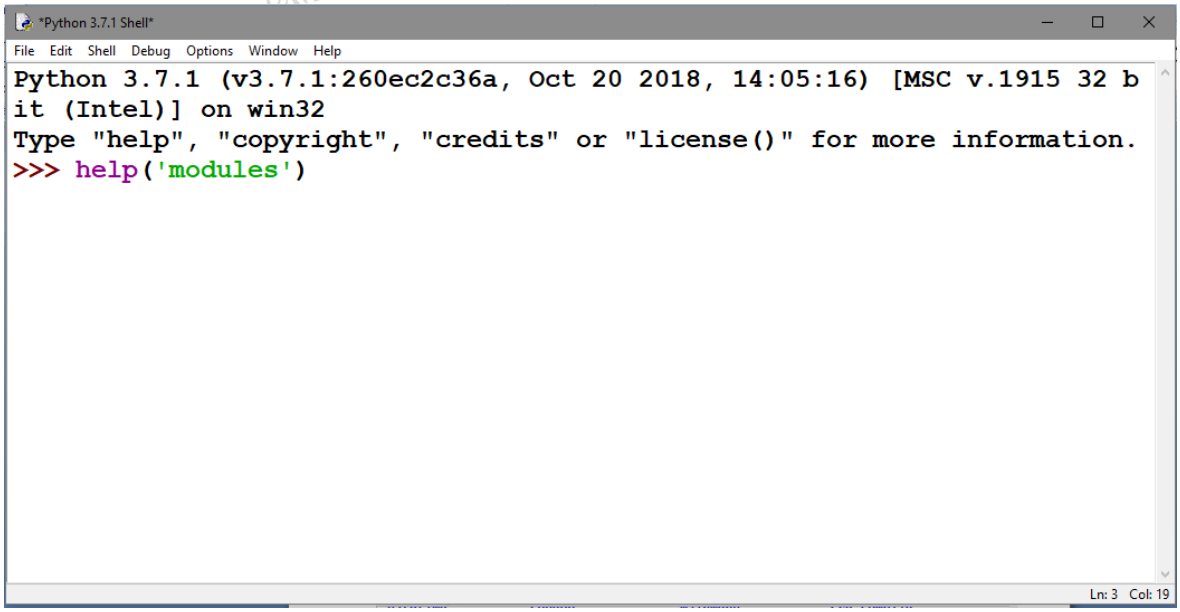


Figure 2.12: To view the modules available in Python

It will display all the module names available currently in your Python software as shown in the Figure 2.13. You can verify that your Python software now has the packages like: numpy, xlrd, pandas, and matplotlib available as modules.

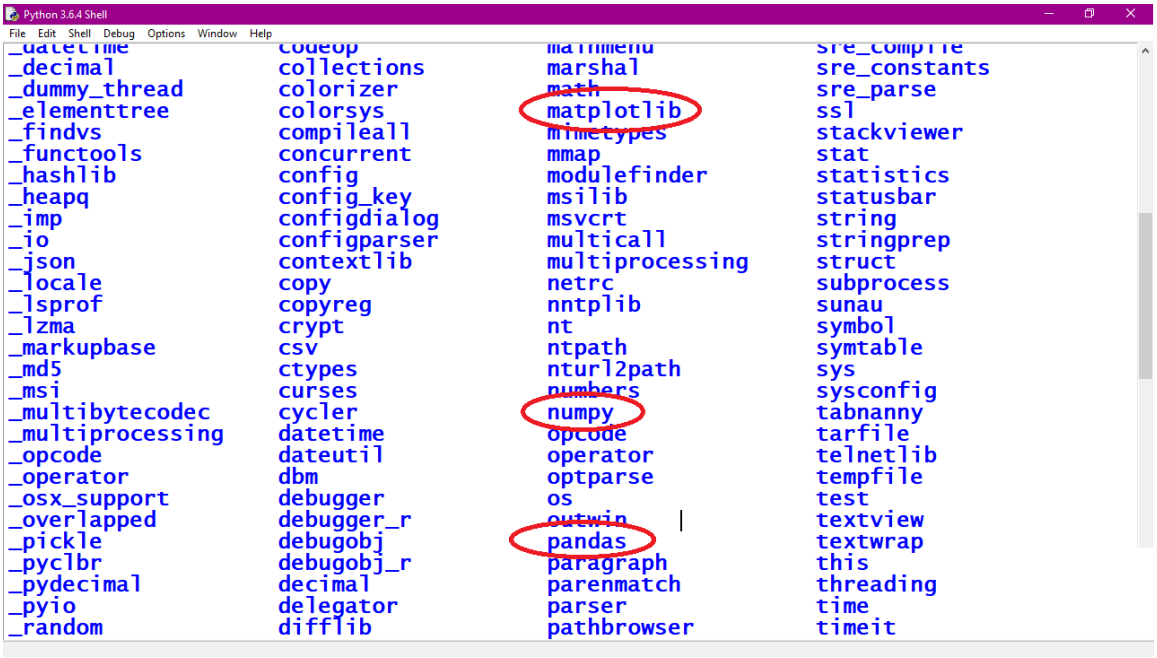


Figure 2.13: To verify installed packages in Python

Getting Help in Python

When a programmer faces some doubt about how to use a particular feature of the Python language, he can view the help. To get help, one can enter help mode by typing help() at Python prompt (i.e. >>> prompt). We can see the help utility appearing as shown in Figure 2.14.

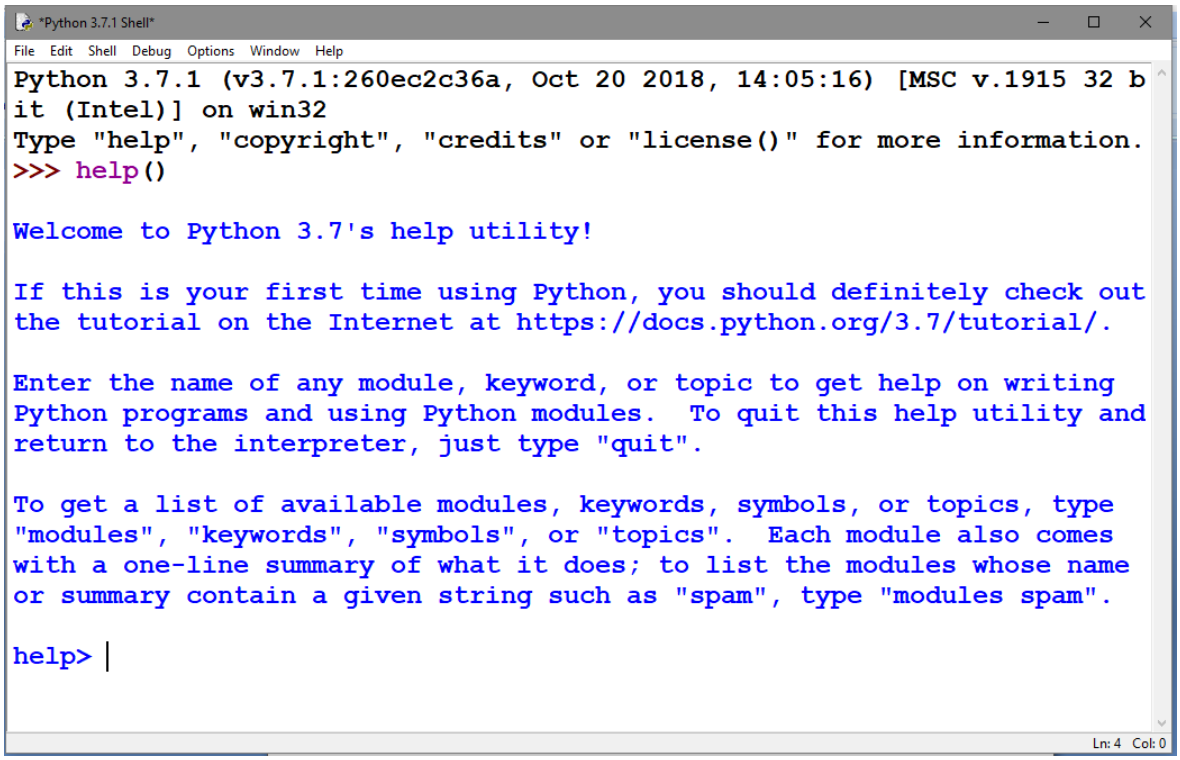


Figure 2.14: Entering Help Mode in Python

Now, we can type 'modules' to see which modules are available in Python. We can type 'topics' to know about topics in Python. Let's enter topics at the help prompt, as shown in Figure 2.15.

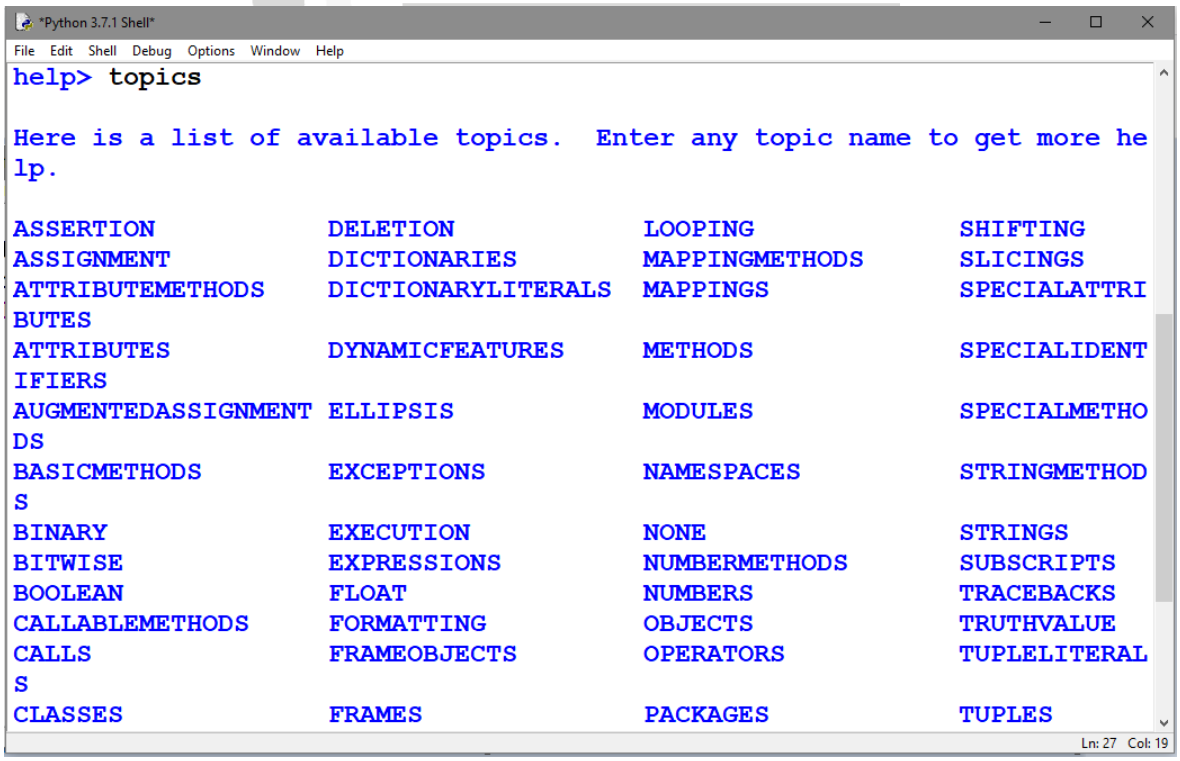


Figure 2.15: Getting Help on Topics

In the topics, suppose we want to know about functions, we should enter 'FUNCTIONS' in capital letters since the FUNCTIONS topic is shown in capital letters in the help window, as shown in Figure 2.16.

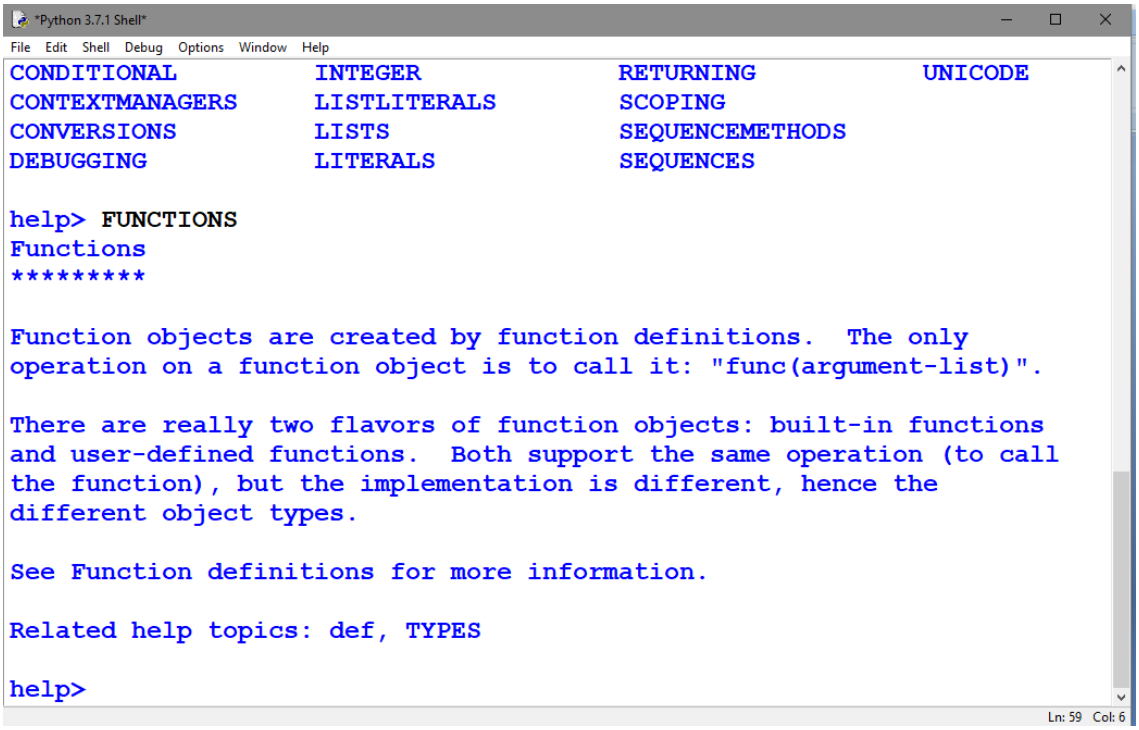


Figure 2.16: Getting Help on Functions

To get help on the print function, we can type 'print' at the help prompt, as shown in Figure 2.17.

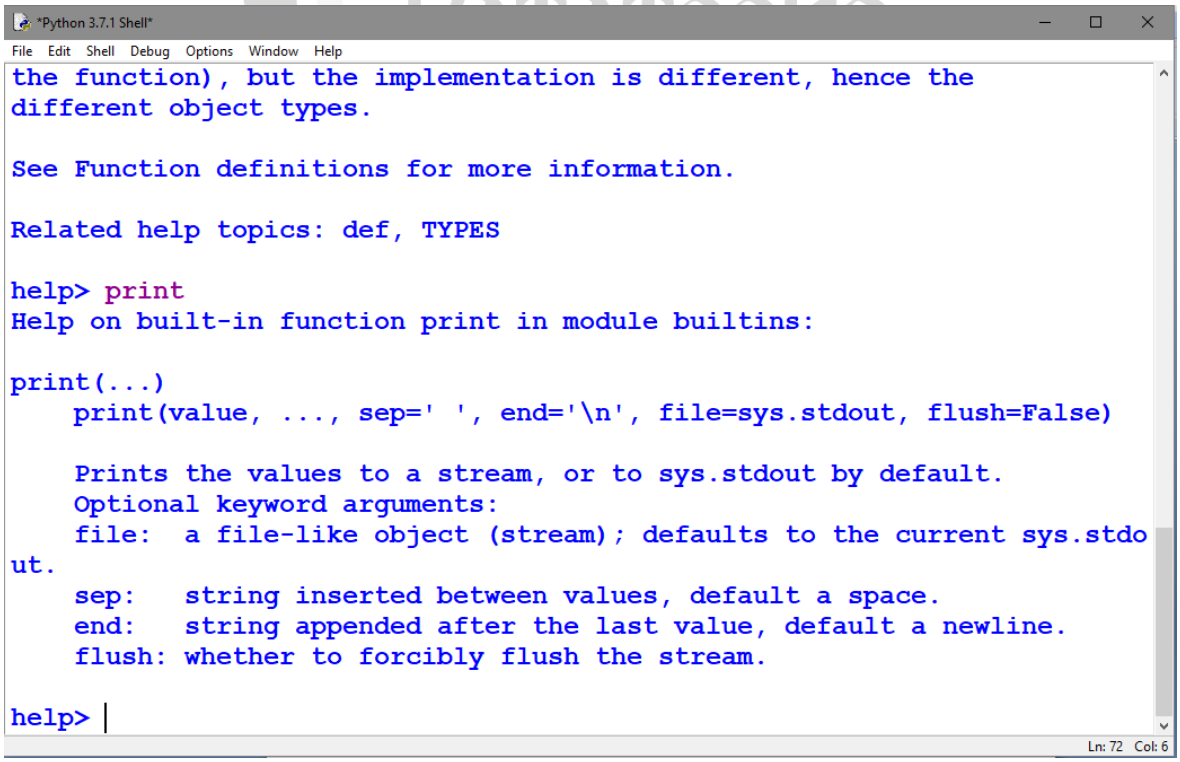


Figure 2.17: Getting Help on Print Function

To quit from the help mode, we should simply press the Enter button once again without typing anything. A message appears that we are leaving the help mode and then we arrive at the Python

prompt, i.e. >>>. To exit the Python interpreter (or PVM), we should type either exit() or quit(), as shown in Figure 2.18.

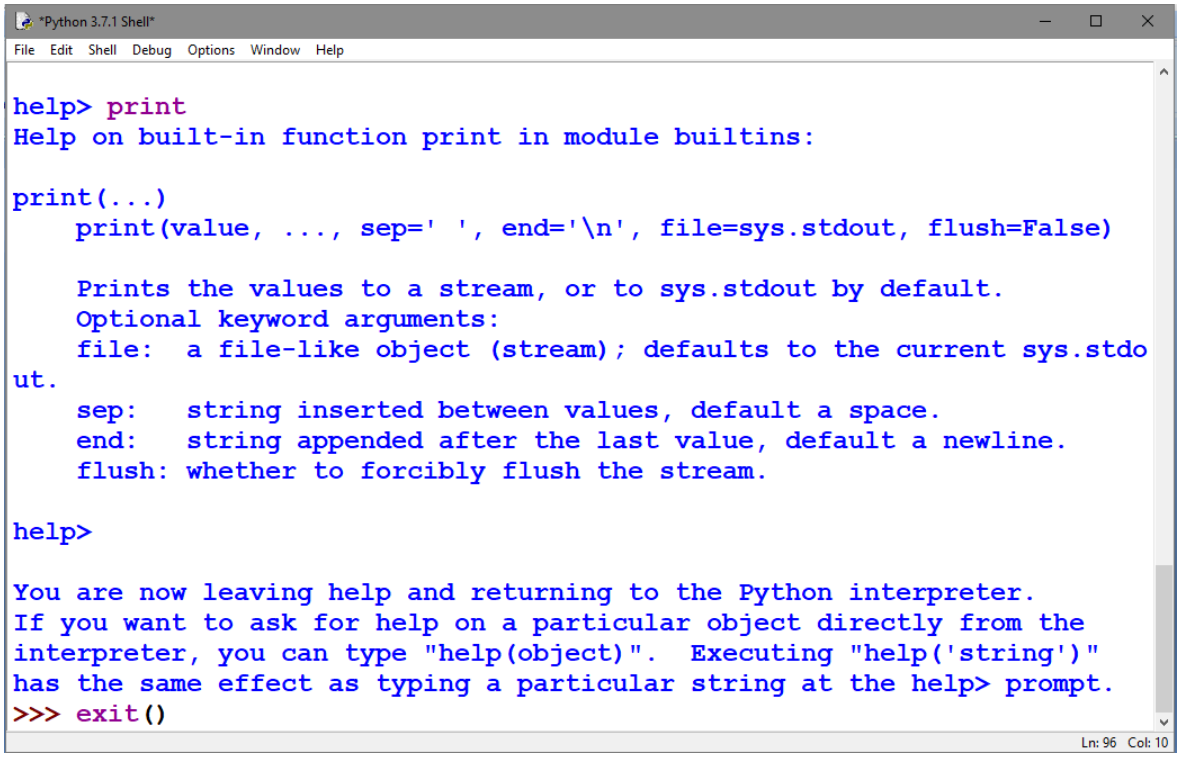


Figure 2.18: Exiting the Python IDLE Window

We can also view help without entering the help mode. Viewing help is possible at the Python prompt. We can use the help() command and inside the parentheses, type the item name in single quotes. For example, to get help on topics, we can type help ('topics') and to get help on the print function, we can type help('print'), as shown in Figure 2.19:

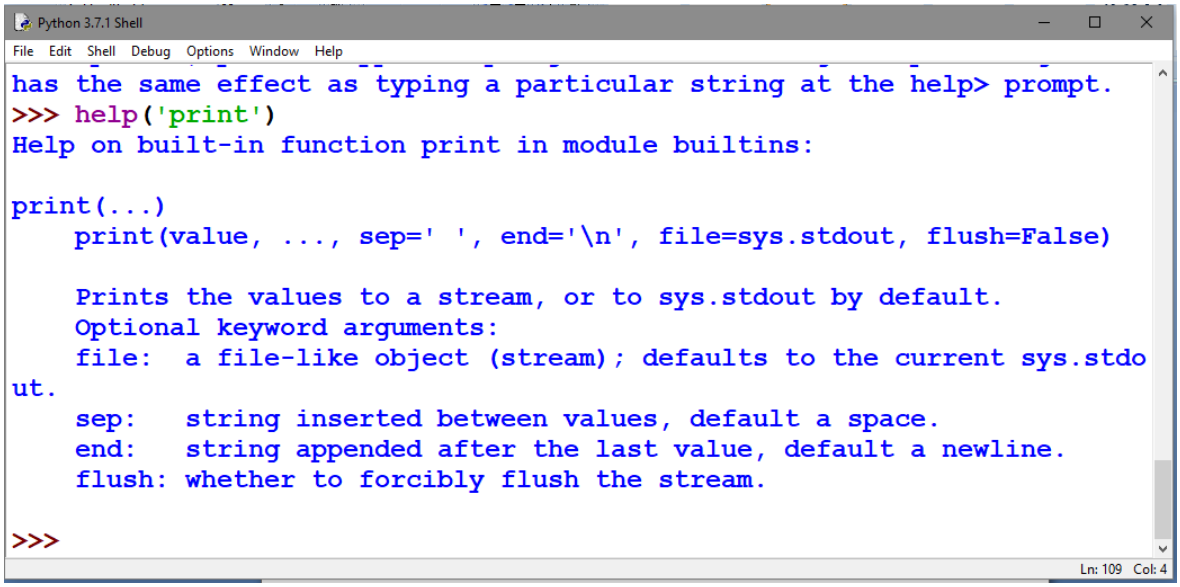


Figure 2.19: Using the help() function

Getting Python Documentation Help

Python developers have provided extensive description of all Python features in a document that is called 'Python documents'. This provides a great help for beginners and for professional programmers to understand all the features of Python. To see Python documentation help, we should open the IDLE window. Then select Help → Python Docs, as shown in Figure 2.20:

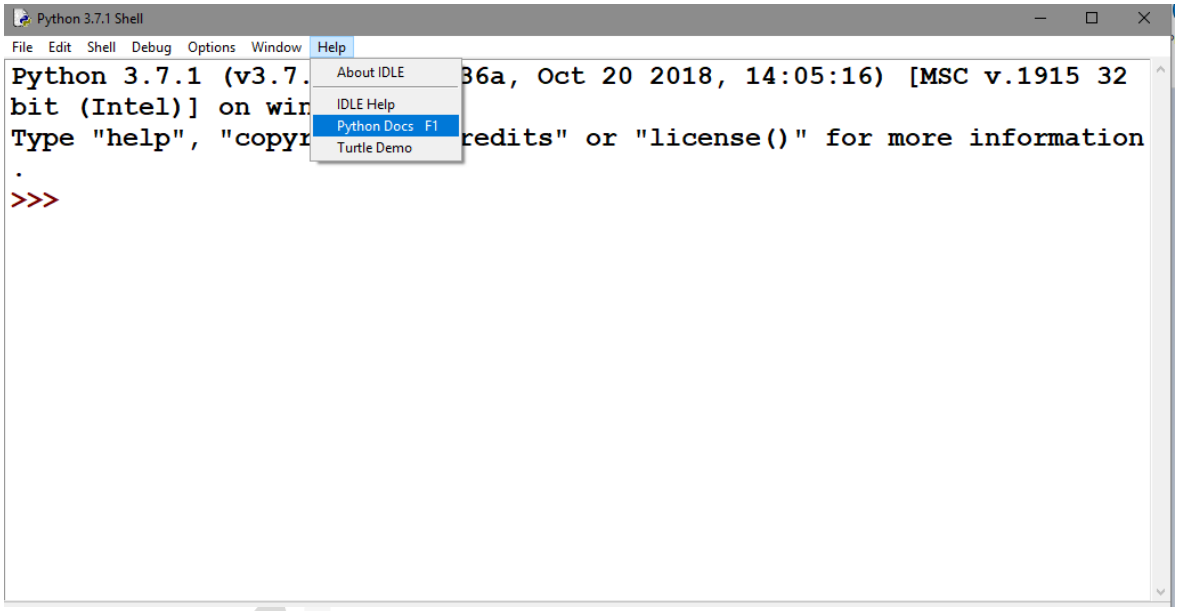


Figure 2.20: Getting Help from Python Documentation

It will display the Python 3.7.1 documentation help with all available features so that one can select any feature by clicking on it, as shown in Figure 2.21:

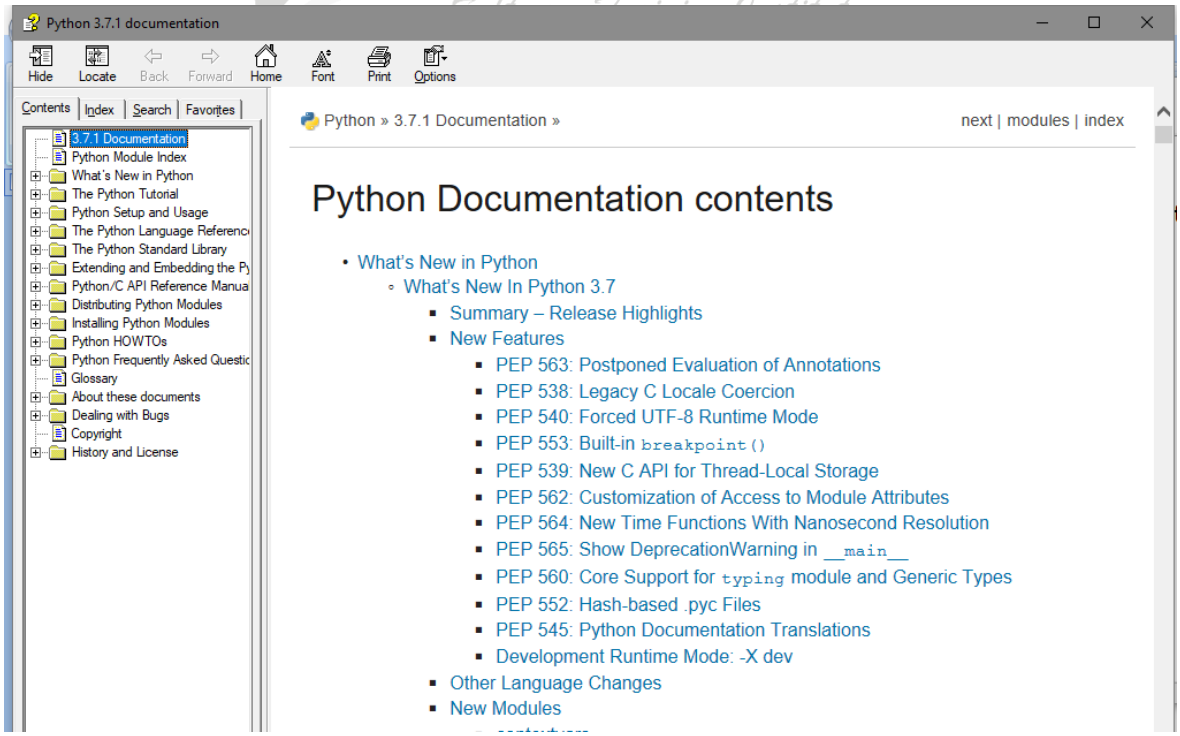


Figure 2.21: The Python documentation window

At the left side frame, we see contents out of which the following are very useful for us:

The Python Tutorial

The Python Language Reference

The Python Standard Library

For example, click 'The Python Standard Library' to see the topic-wise comprehensive help on Python Standard Library. We can click on the close button (X) to close this help window, as shown in Figure 2.22.

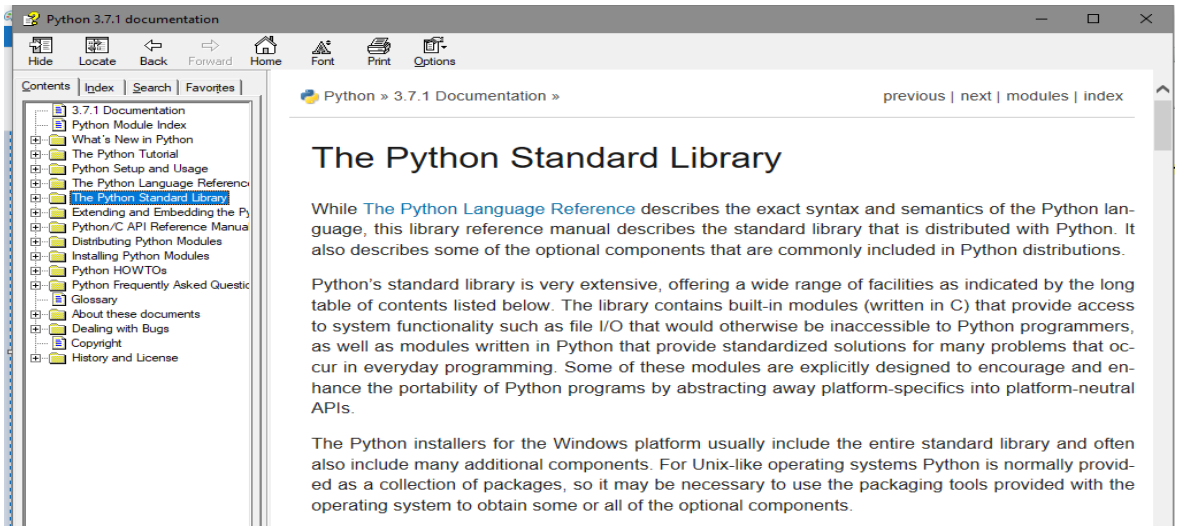


Figure 2.22: Going to Python Standard Library

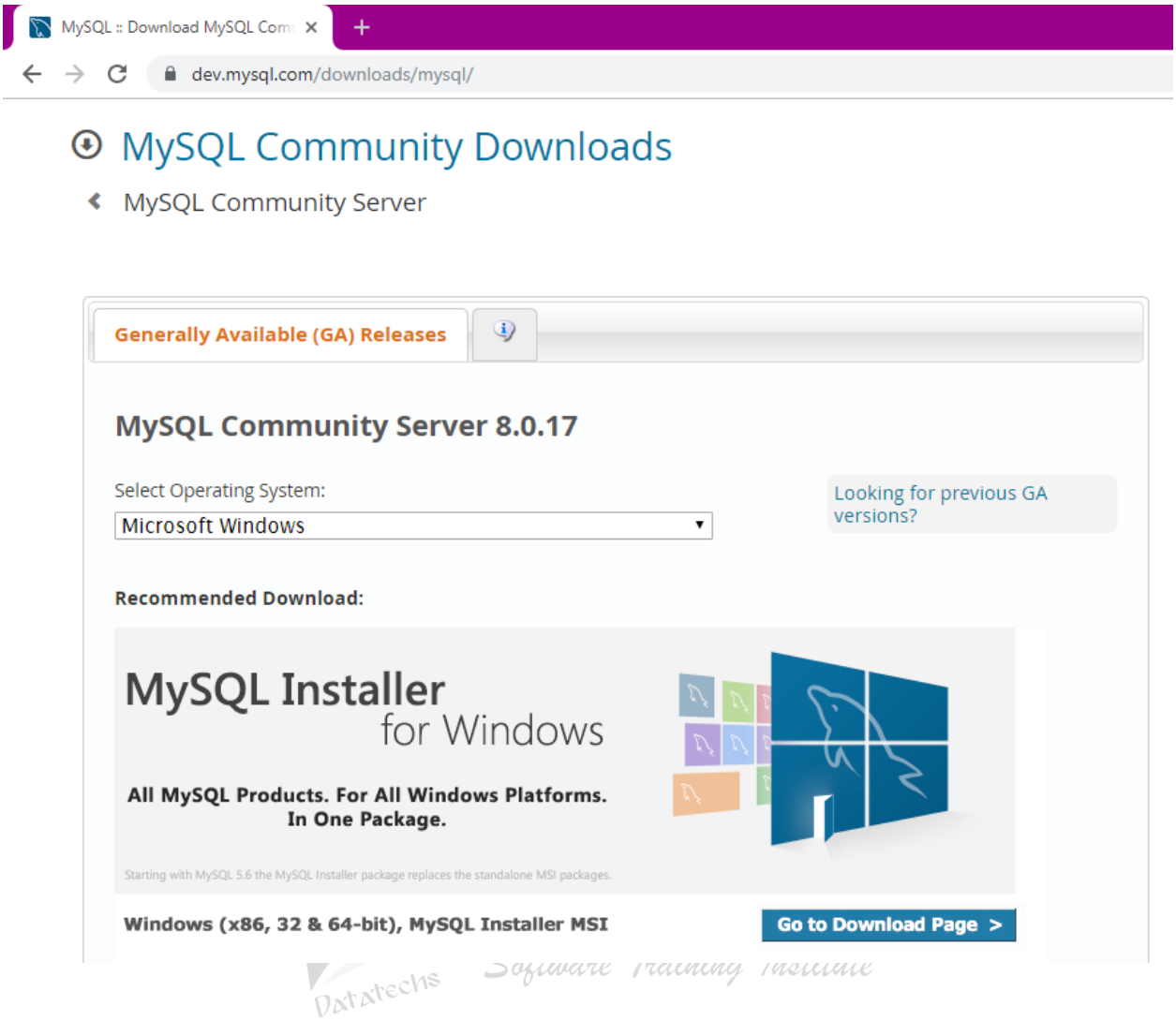
INSTALLATION OF DATABASES AND DRIVERS

Installation of MySQL database software

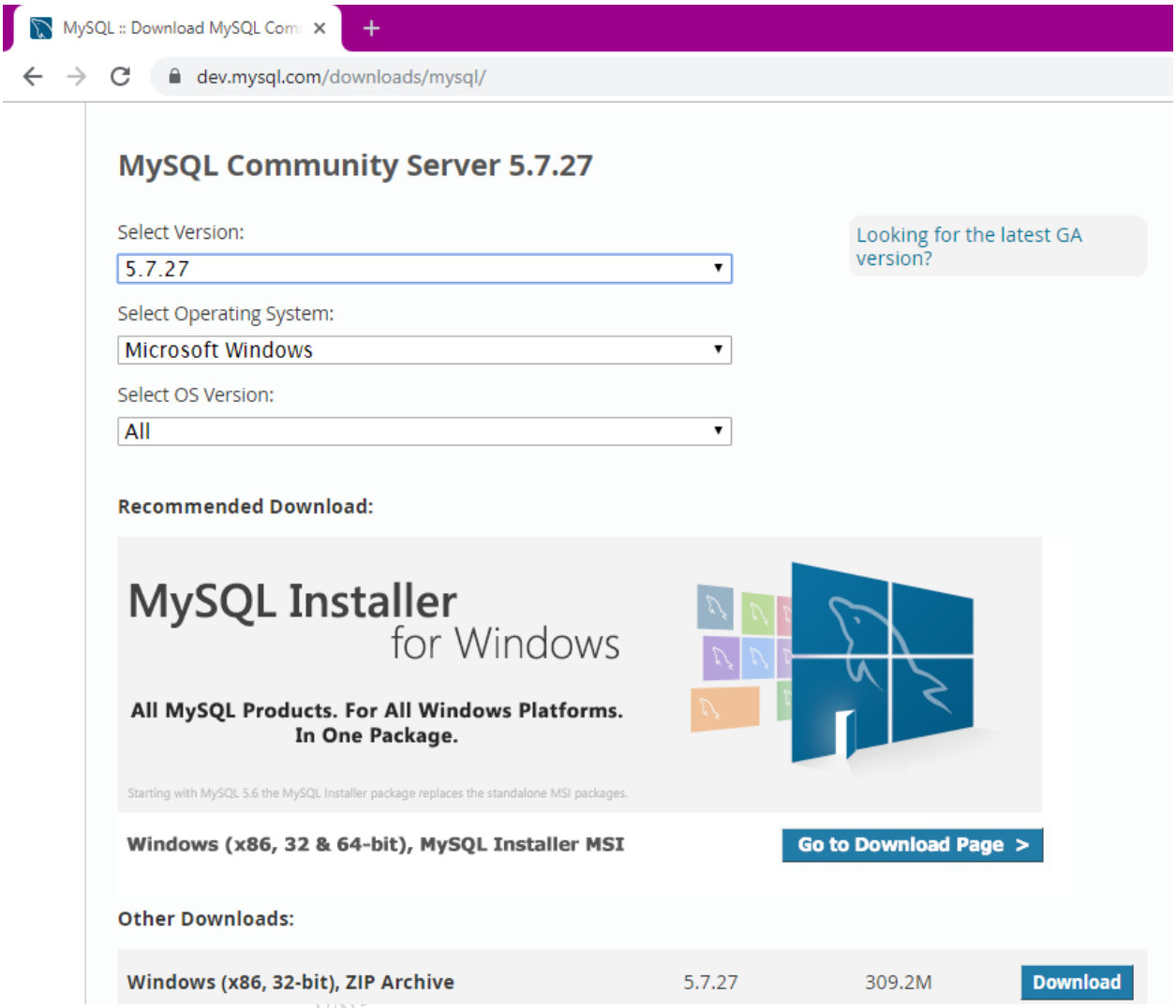
MySQL is an open source database software that is used by many top development companies to store and retrieve data. MySQL can manage several databases at a time. The data in a database is stored in the form of tables. A table contains several rows and columns of data. For example, we can store employee data like employee identification number, employee name, gender, salary etc. details in the form of a table. Once the data is stored in MySQL, it is possible to retrieve that data, process it and display the reports using Python programs.

Since we want to work with MySQL database in Python language, first of all we should have MySQL software installed on our computer system. The following steps will be helpful to you to install a copy of MySQL if you do not have one in your computer.

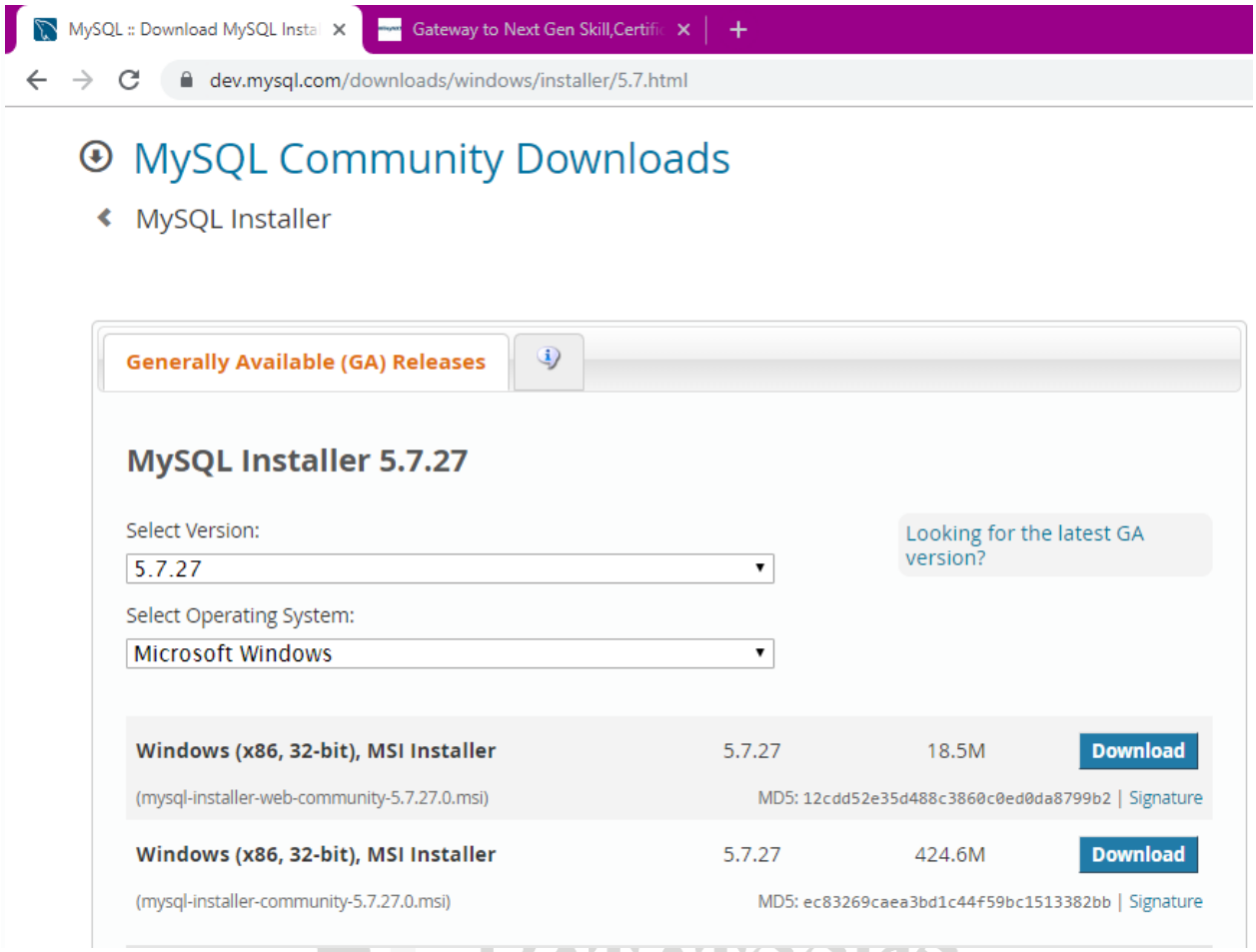
1. First, we should go to mysql.com website and to the following web page at the URL:
https://dev.mysql.com/downloads/mysql/



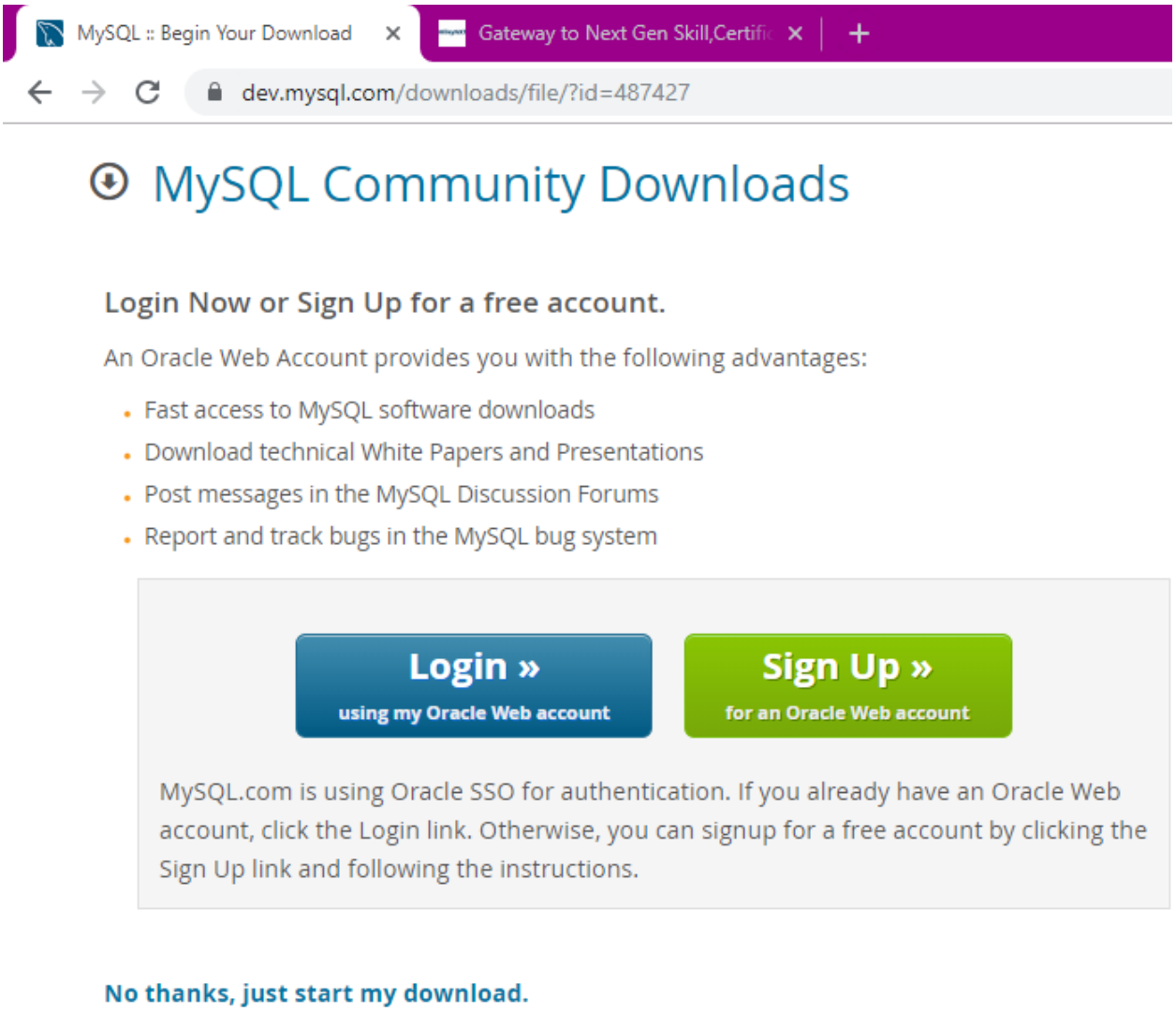
2. At the right of the same page, we can see 'Looking for previous GA versions?' Click there to go to another page as shown below.



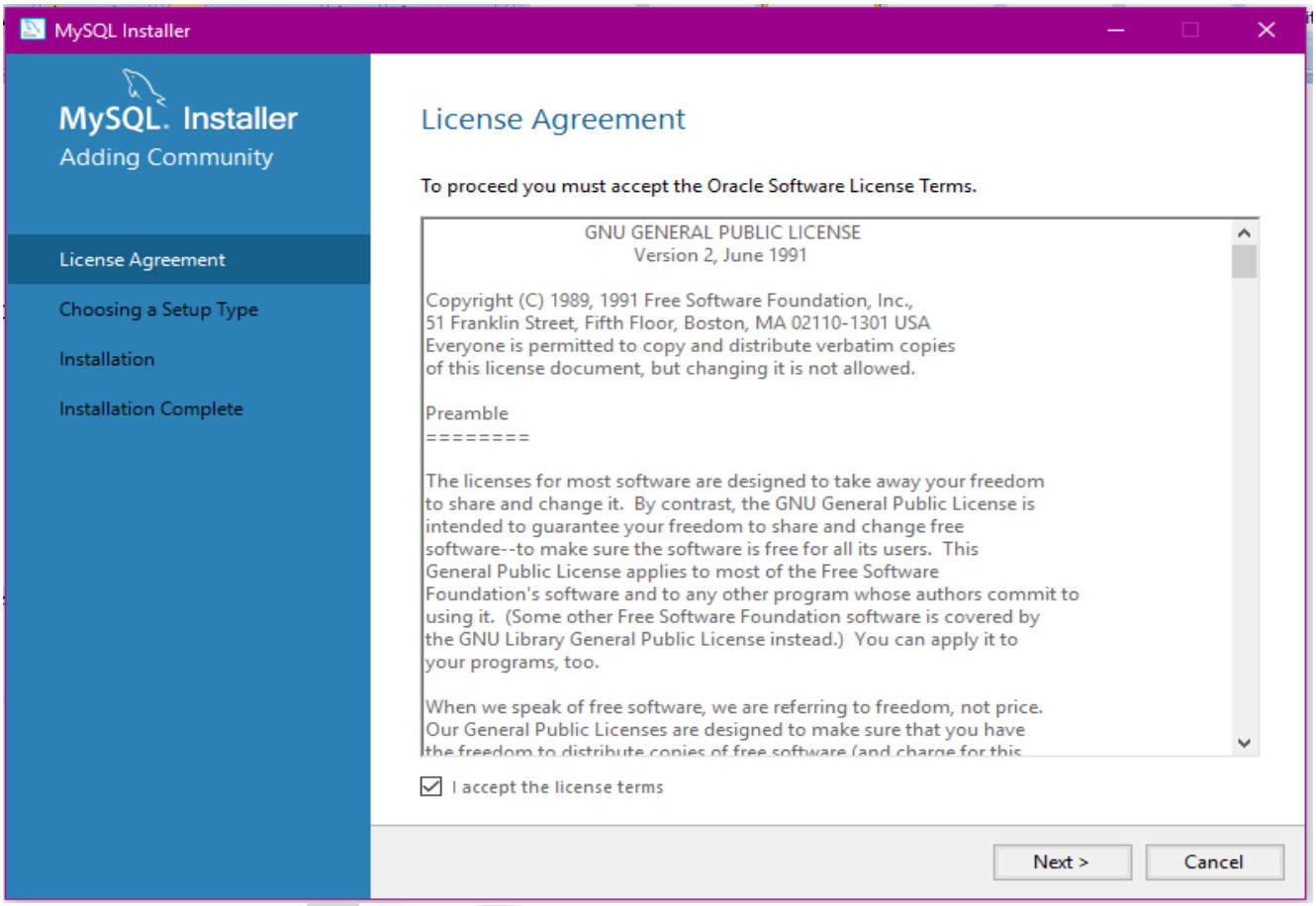
3. At the middle of the page, you can see 'Windows (x86, 32 & 64-bit), MySQL Installer MSI' and 'Go to download' button against it. Click on this button. We can see the following page:



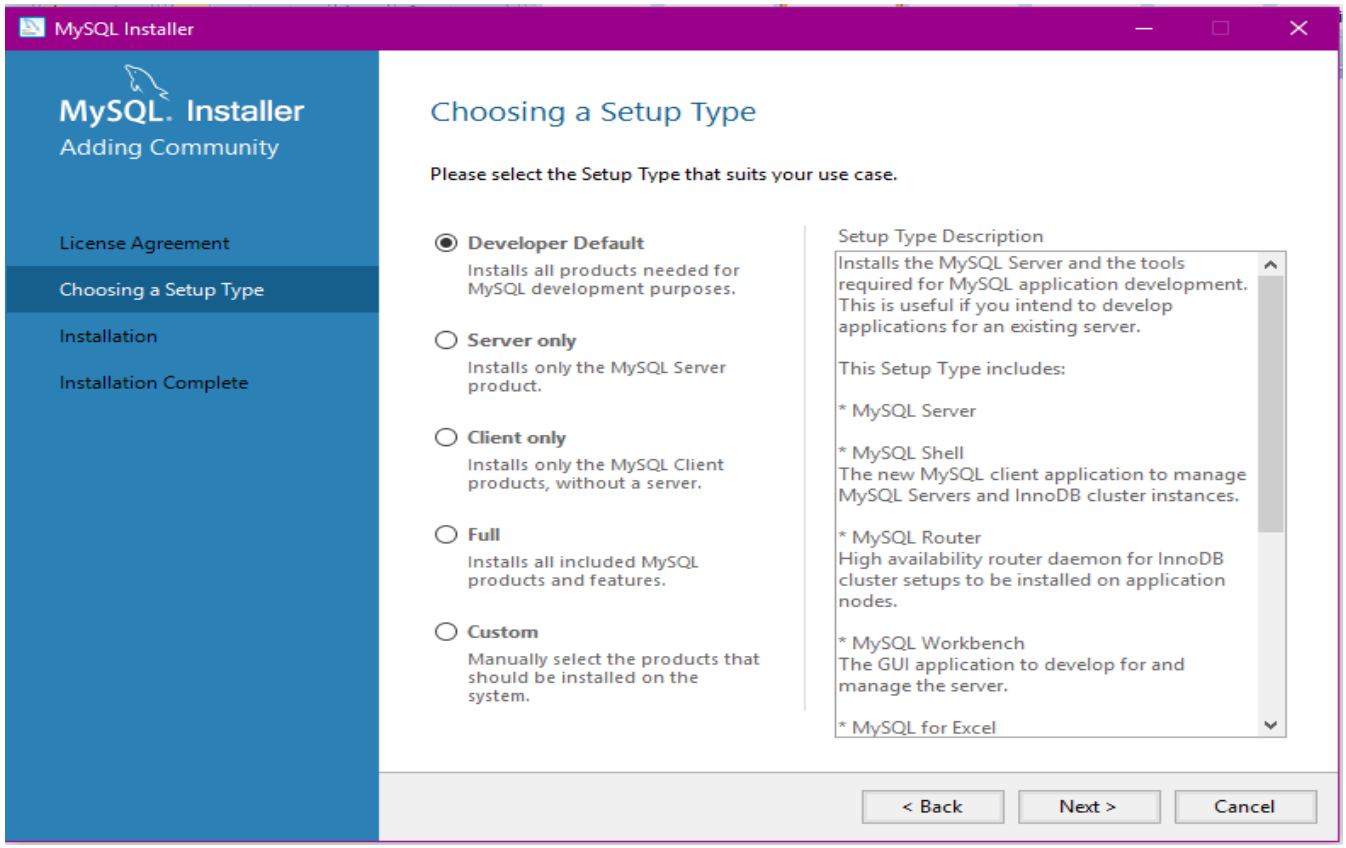
4. In this page, see the option 'Windows (x86, 32-bit), MSI Installer' showing a file size 424.6 M and click on corresponding 'Download' button. It will display another page with a heading: 'Login Now or Sign up for free account'. You can create an account or you can use an already existing account to download. If you do not want to create a new account, then we can click on the link: 'No thanks, just start my download'. Now the download will start and it takes some time to complete the download.



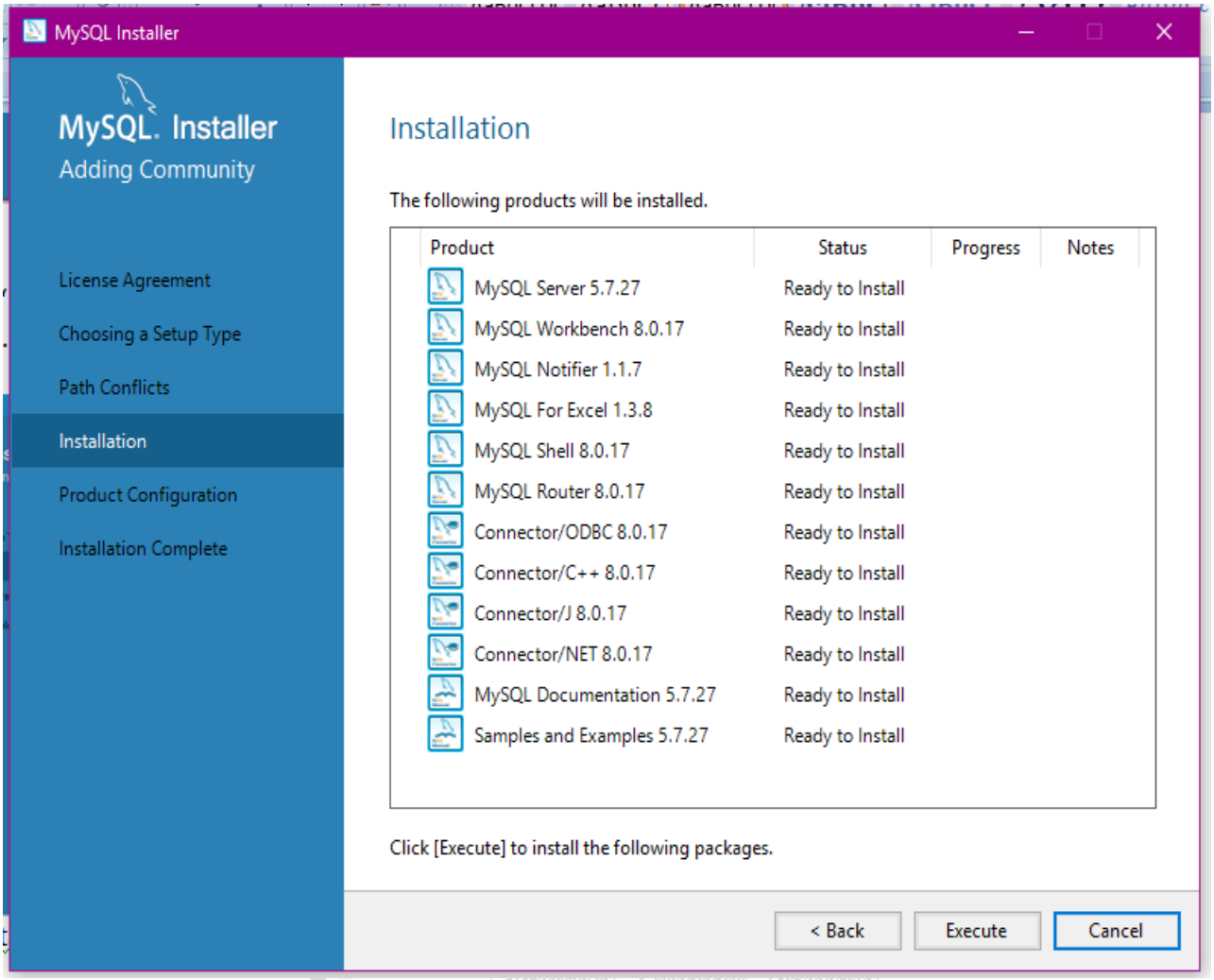
5. A file by the name 'mysql-installer-community-5.7.27.0.msi ' will be downloaded into our system. Double Click on the downloaded file to see the dialog box shown in Fig 5. Accept the licence terms and click on 'Next' button.



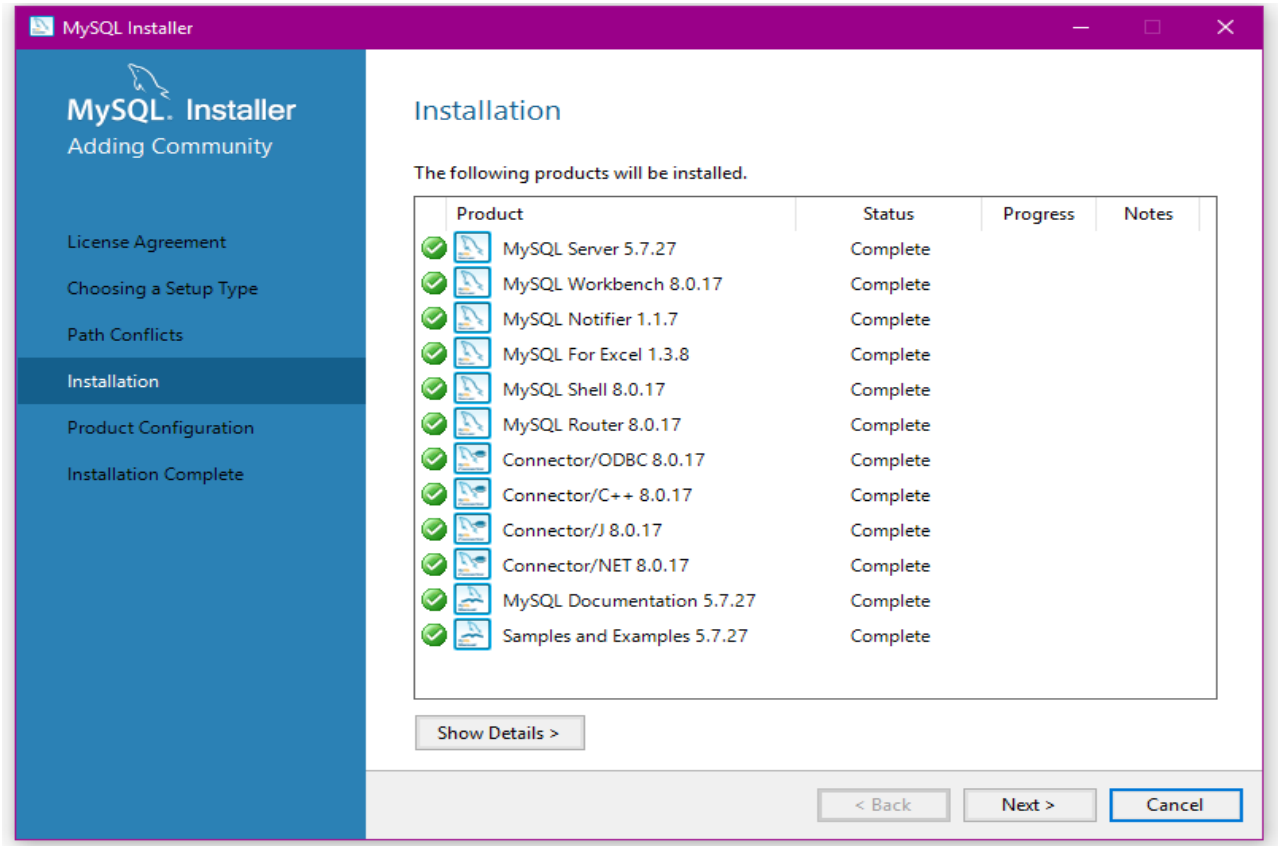
6. In the next screen, select 'Developer Default' and then click on 'Next' button. In case of any messages, click on 'Next' button.



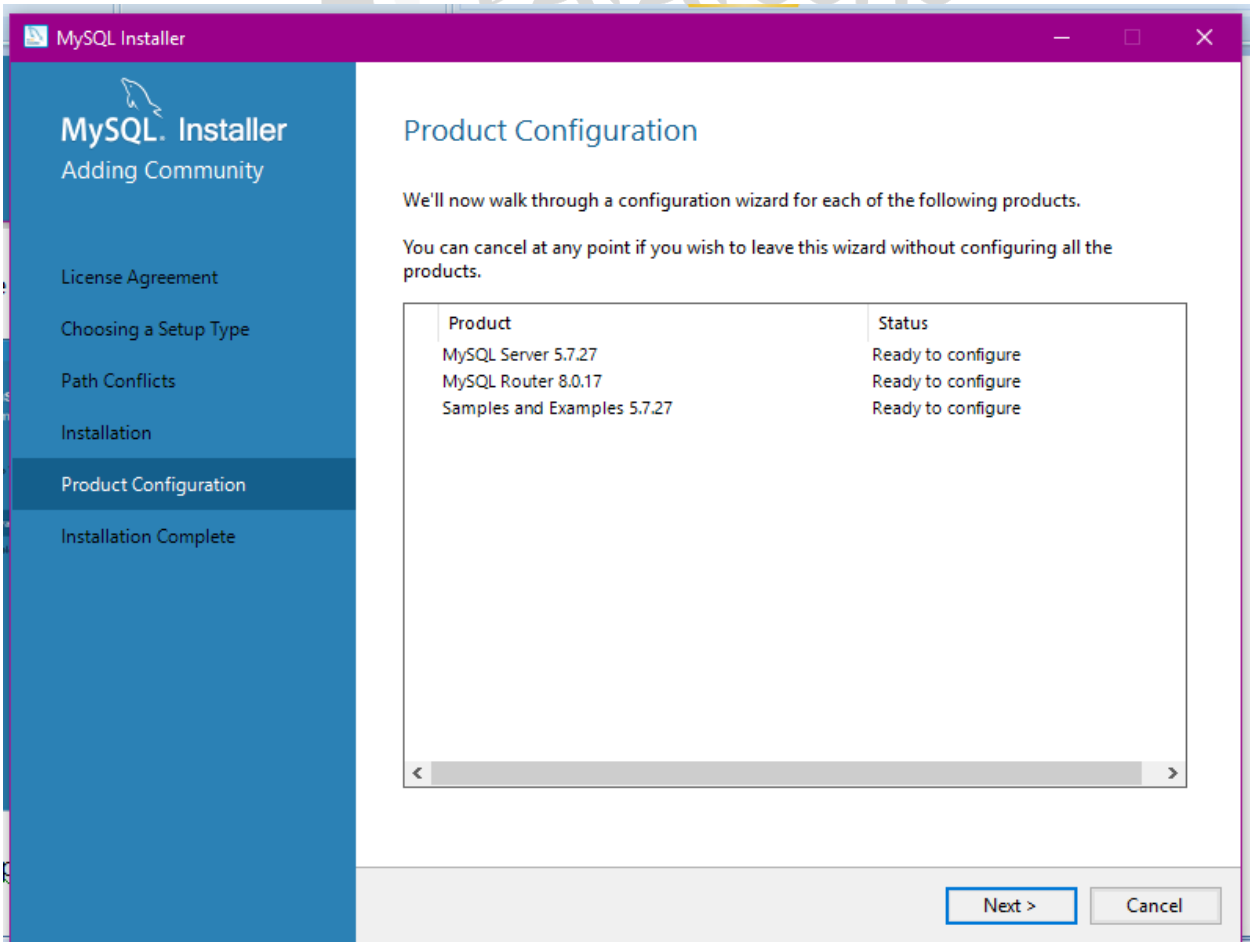
7. In the 'Installation' dialog box, click on 'Execute' button. It will install one by one all the components. It may take some time.



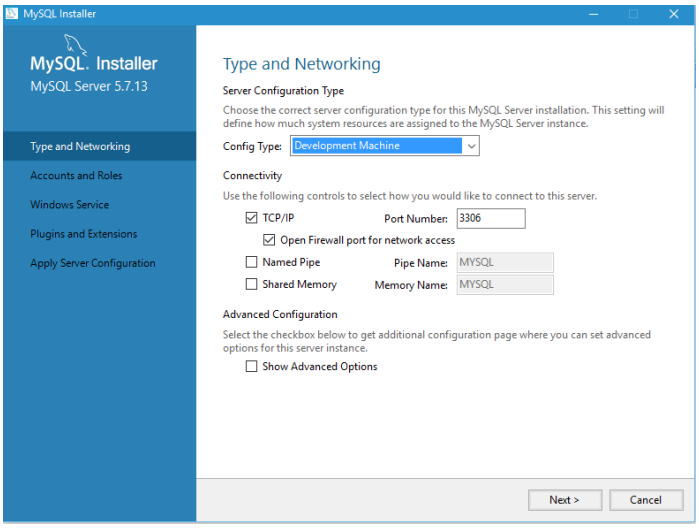
8. When the installation of the software is completed, we see the screen as shown below. Click on 'Next' button.



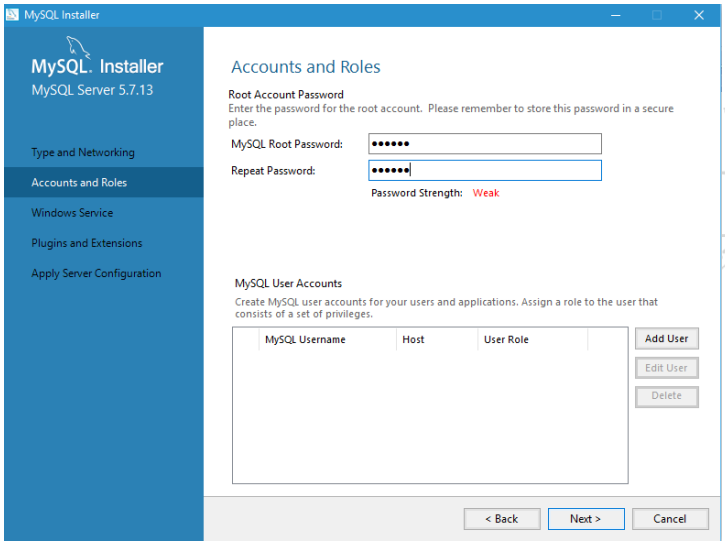
9. Now we get 'Product Configuration' page. Click on 'Next' button. This is shown in the screenshot below.



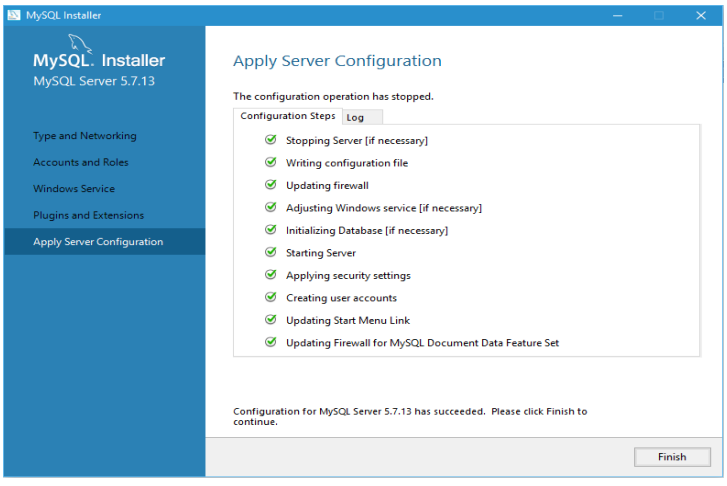
10. Click on ‘Next’ button in the ‘Type and Networking’ page.



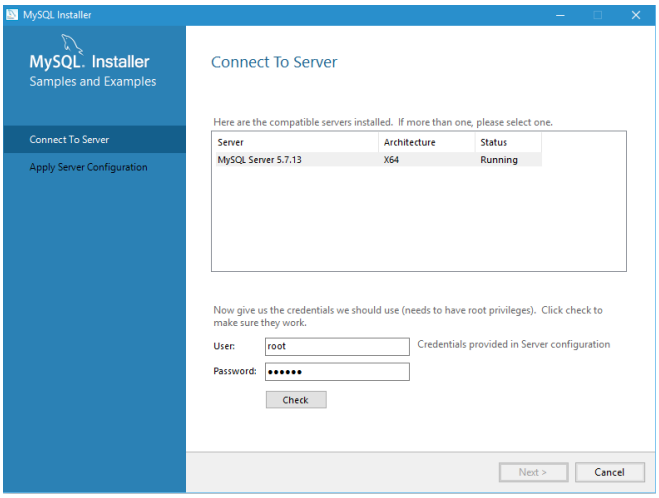
11. In the ‘Accounts and Roles’ page, we have to enter the MySQL root password 2 times. Enter your password and remember this password as we have to use this password every time to connect to MySQL database.



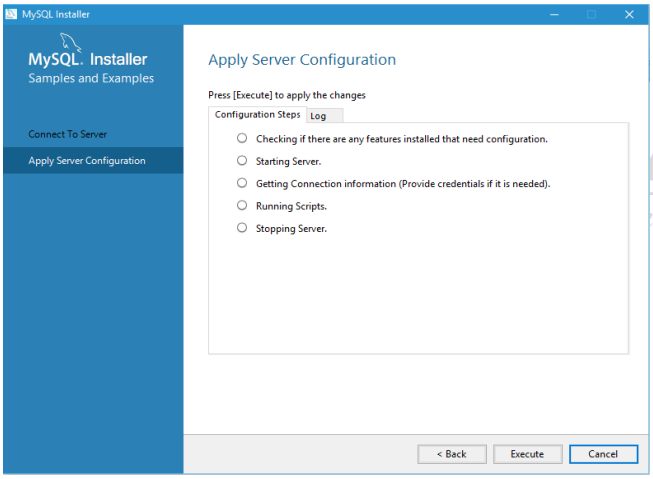
12. Click on ‘Next’ in the other pages. In the last page, we see ‘Apply Server Configuration’ and there click on ‘Finish’ button. This will complete our installation of MySQL database server.



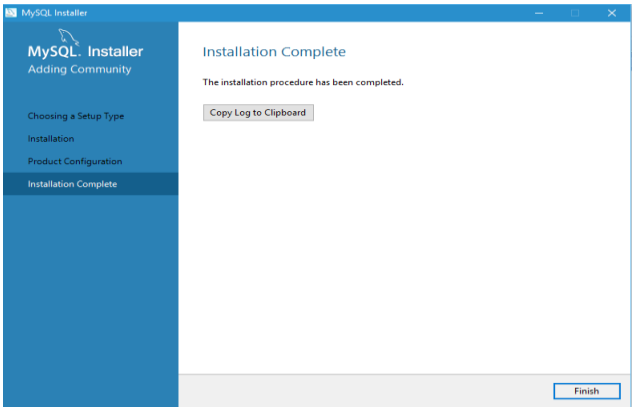
13. In the next page, click on 'Next' button. It will display 'Connect to Server' page where we can check whether the MySQL is properly installed or not by clicking on 'Check' button. If we do not want to check the software, we can simply click on 'Cancel' button. When we click on 'Check' button, it will display 'Connection successful'. Then click on the 'Next' button.



14. In the 'Apply Server Configuration' page, click on the 'Execute' button. Then click on 'Finish' button.



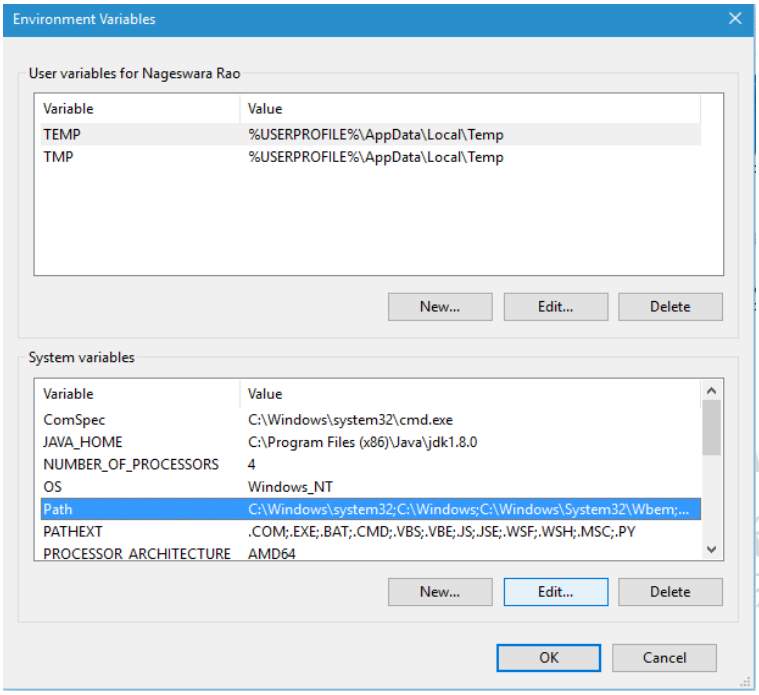
15. In the 'Product Configuration' page, click on the 'Next' button. It will display the final page with the heading 'Installation Complete'. Click on the 'Finish' button.



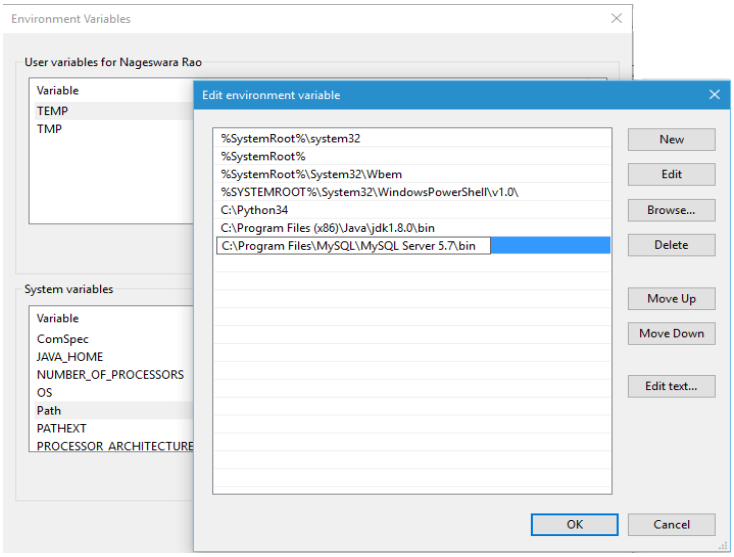
Setting the path to MySQL server

Once the installation is completed, we have to set the path variable to the 'bin' directory of MySQL server. Then only, MySQL will be available to any Python program in our computer system. First check that the MySQL directory is already created in the C:\Progam Files directory or not. You can see the path of 'bin' directory as: C:\Program Files\MySQL\MySQL Server 5.7\bin. This path should be added to PATH variable by following the steps given below:

Go to MyComputer -> Properties -> Advanced system settings -> Environment Variables. Click on the 'Environment Variables' button to see the screen as depicted below. Click on 'Path' variable and then 'Edit...' button.

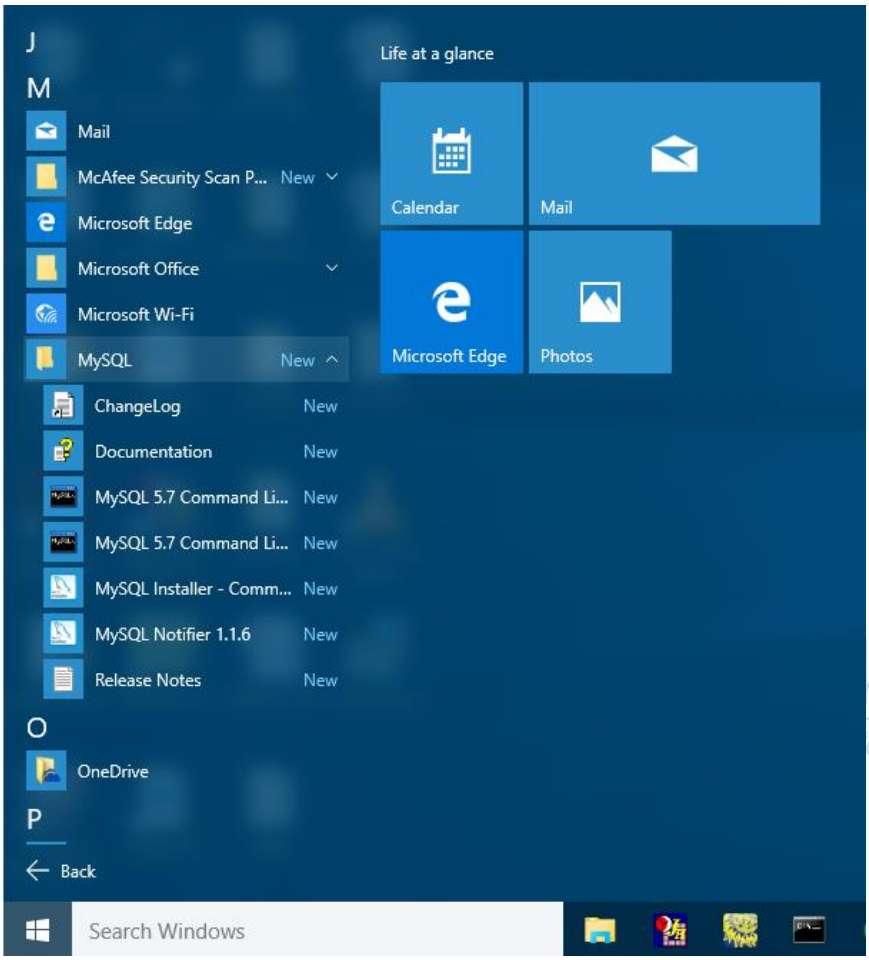


In the 'Edit environment variable' dialog box, add the line: C:\Program Files\MySQL\MySQL Server 5.7\bin. Then click on 'OK' button. See figure below. Then click on 'OK' button twice to close all opened dialog boxes.



Verifying MySQL in the Windows Operating system

We can verify that the MySQL database software has been properly installed in our Computer system by clicking on 'Start' button at the lower left corner on the desktop. In Windows 10, click on Start -> All apps. Then select 'M' to see all applications starting with the letter 'M'. We can see 'MySQL' there as shown below:



Installing PyMySQL package

To communicate with MySQL database from Python, we need a program that becomes an interface to the MySQL database server. 'PyMySQL' is an interface between the MySQL server and Python programs. Unless we install this interface, our Python programs cannot communicate with MySQL database.

To install PyMySQL package, we can use the following command at DOS prompt:

C:\> pip install PyMySQL

We will see 'Successfully installed' message after a while.

Verifying the PyMySQL Interface Installation

If the PyMySQL interface for Python has been installed successfully, we can see a new module by the name 'pymysql' is added to the existing modules in Python library. Go to Python IDLE shell window and type the following at Python prompt:

>>> help('modules')

As a result, it will display all the available modules of Python. We should be able to locate 'pymysql' module among them. This represents that the pymysql interface for Python has been successfully installed, as shown in Figure 18:

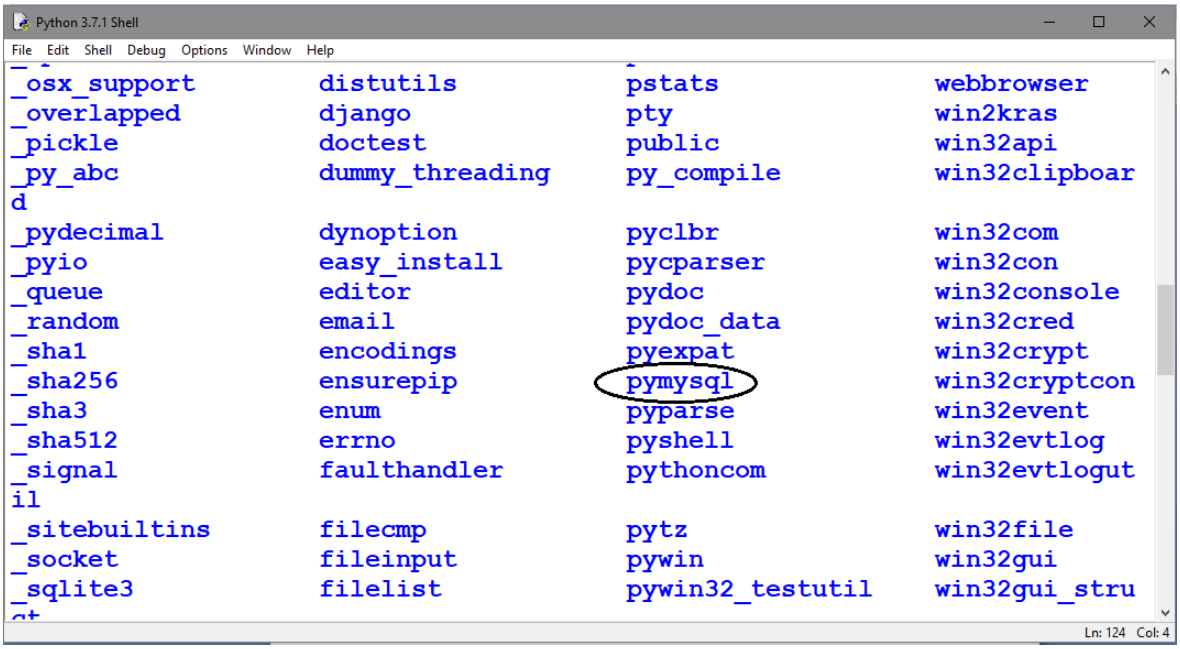


Figure 18: The Installed pymysql Module in Python

To use this pymysql module in our Python programs, we have to import it as:

import pymysql

Installation of Oracle 11g

The latest version of Oracle is 18 c. The problem with this version is that it is paid version. We need open source version which need not be purchased. If we have been using Python 3.7, 64 bit- version, we need to use 64-bit version of Oracle. This is nothing but Oracle 11g. Let us first install Oracle 11g express edition by going to oracle.com website, at the following link:

https://www.oracle.com/technetwork/database/database-technologies/express-edition/downloads/xe-prior-releases-5172097.html

1. In this page, first click on the 'Accept Licence Agreement' and then click on the following file. See Fig19.

Oracle Database 11gR2 Express Edition for Windows x64 Download

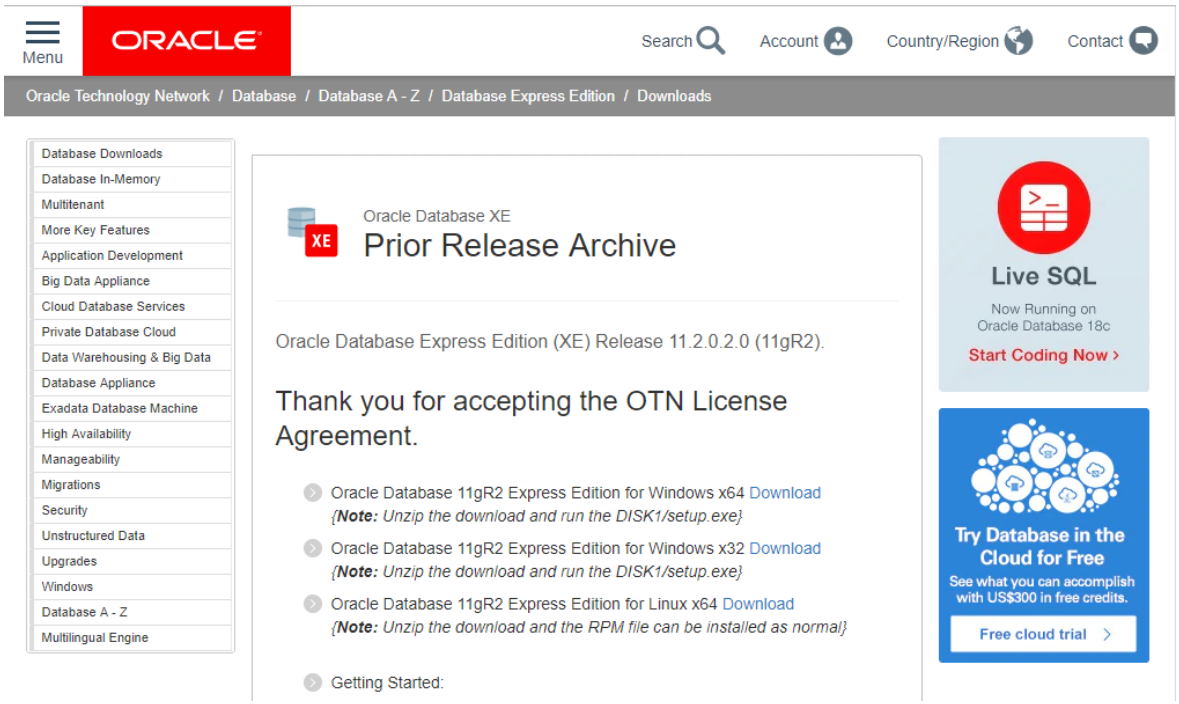


Fig 19. Installation of Oracle database expression edition.

2. In the next page, we have to provide our user name and password to down load this file. If you have already had an account in Oracle.com, then you can use it. Otherwise, you can create a new account and type that user name and password here. See Fig 20.

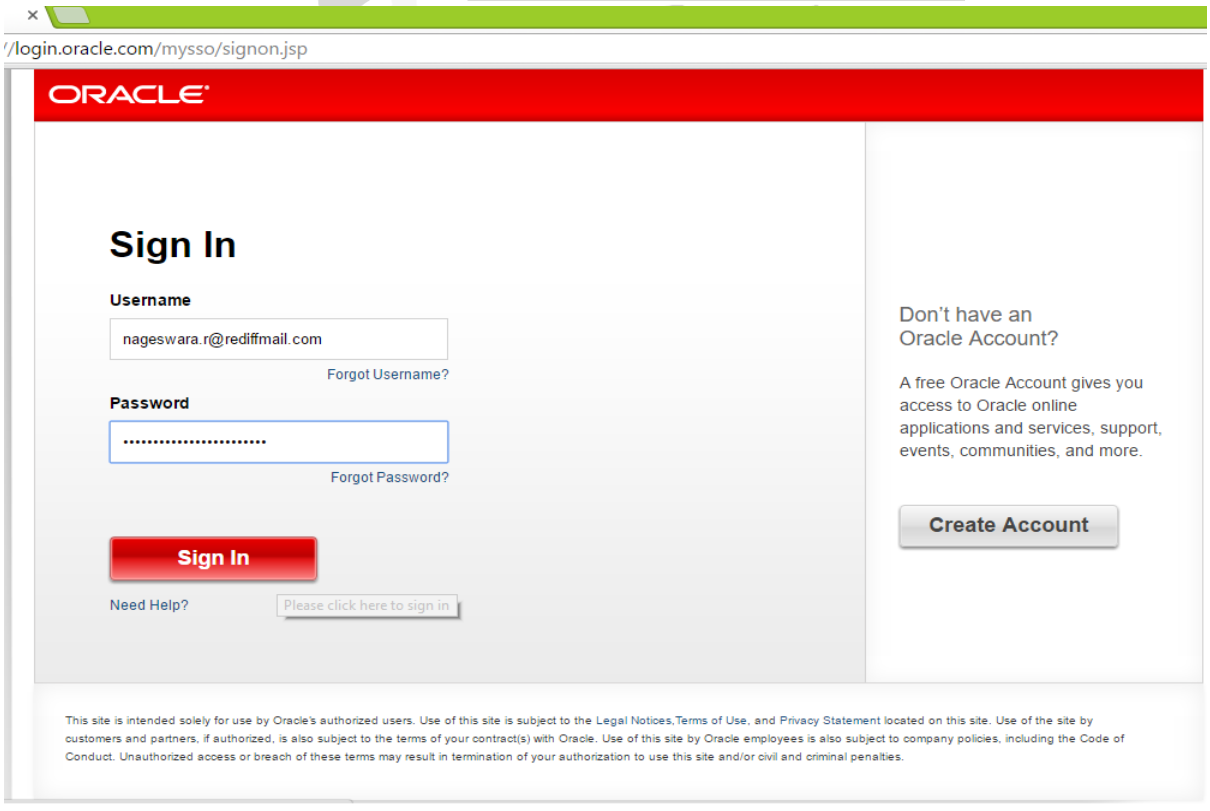


Fig 20. Using Oracle account details to down load the file.

3. The downloaded file is a zip file with the name OracleXE112_Win64. Right click and select ‘extract here’. This would extract all files into a separate directory by the name DISK1. See Fig 21.

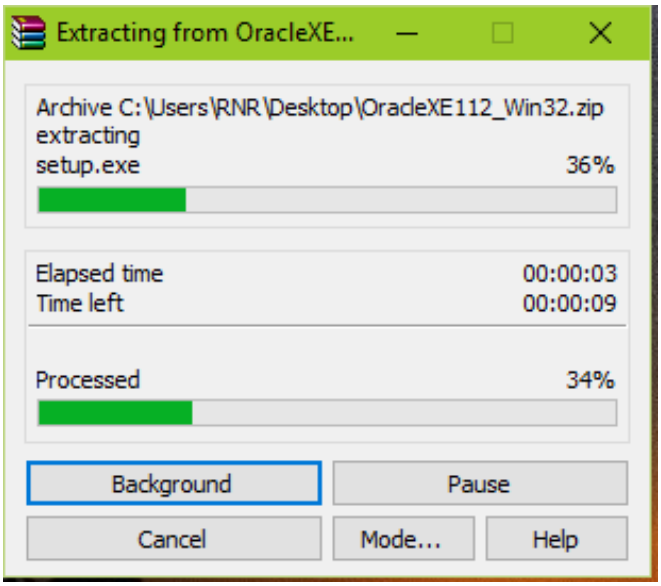


Fig 21. Extracting the files from the zipped file.

4. Open the DISK1 directory and we can see ‘setup’ icon. Double Click on ‘setup’ and then the Install Shield wizard will be initiated. See Fig 22.

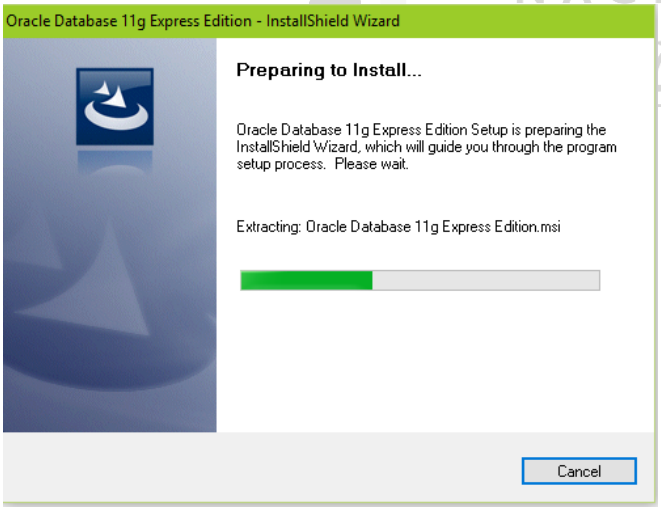


Fig 22. Starting the installation.

5. The Install Shield wizard will be ready to install Oracle database software. Click on ‘Next’ button. Fig 23.

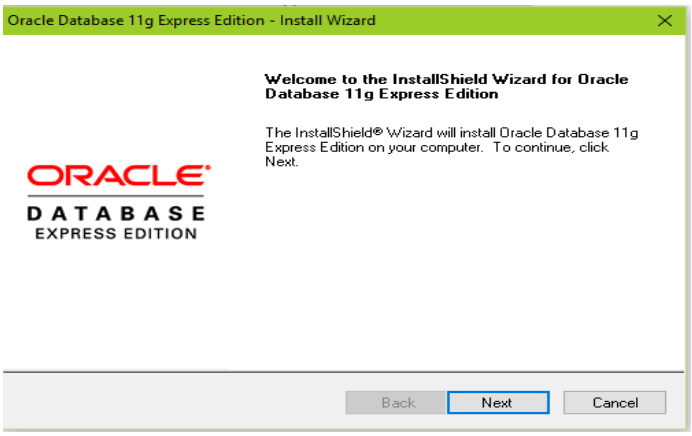


Fig 23. InstallShield wizard is ready to install Oracle database.

6. It will create a directory by the name oraclexe and install the software in this directory. Fig 24. Click on 'Next' button to proceed.

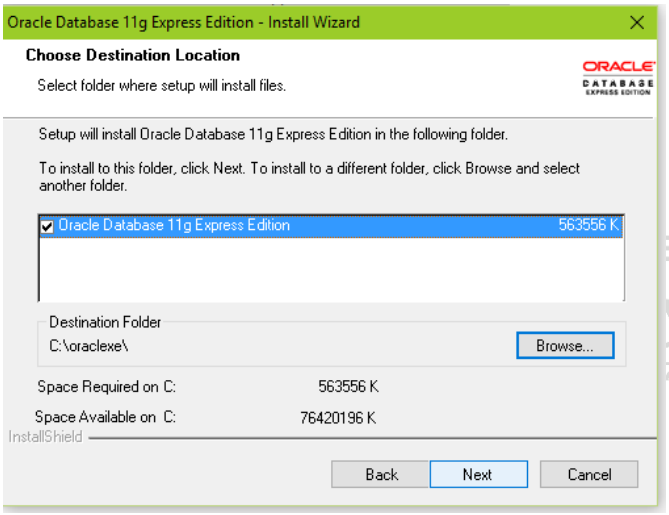


Fig 24. The destination directory for Oracle installation.

7. In the next page, enter password two times and remember the password since we will use this password in our Python programs in future. In this window, we entered 'Nagesh123' as password. Fig 25 shows this.

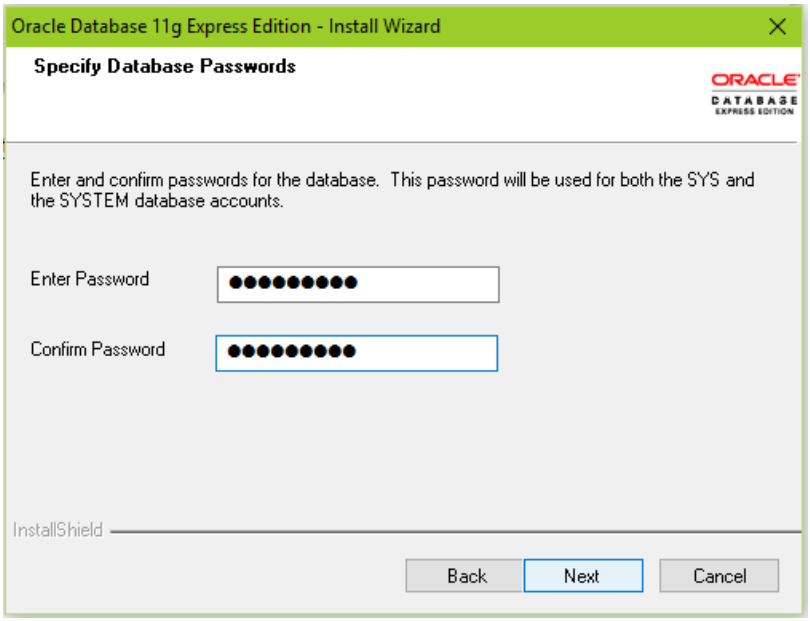


Fig 25. Entering password for Oracle database.

8. In the next page, click on 'Install' button and the InstallShield wizard will start installation of Oracle database. See Fig 26. This will take a few minutes.

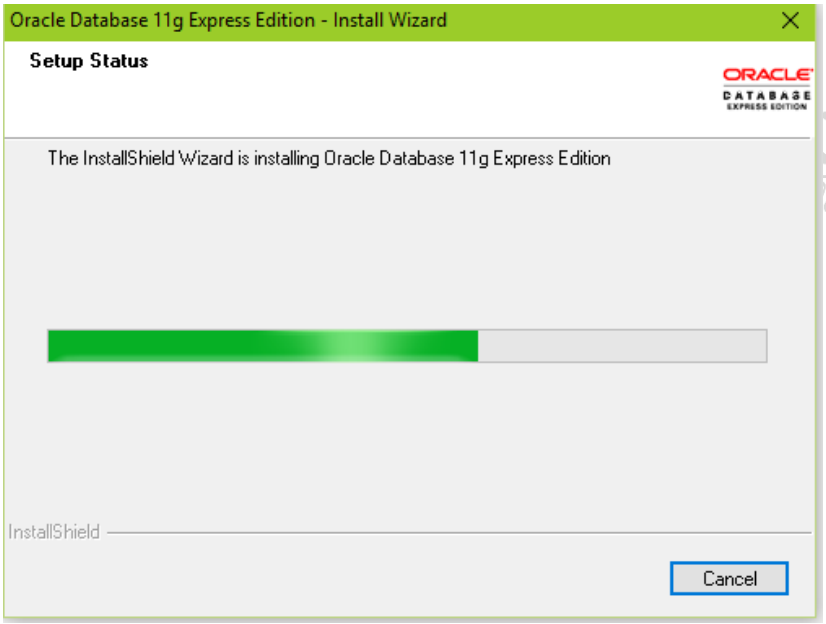


Fig 26. The Oracle database software is being installed.

9. Once the database software installation is completed, we should click on 'Finish' button. See Fig 27.

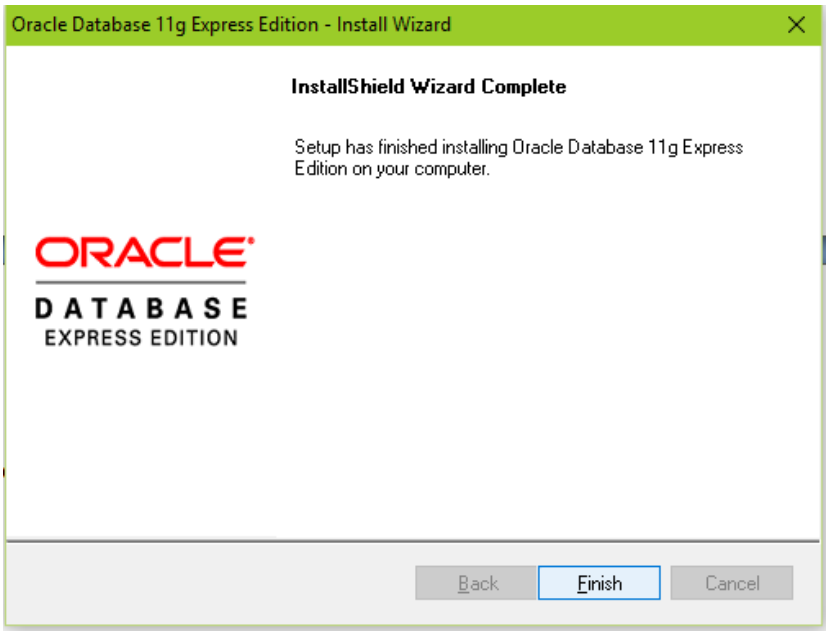


Fig 27. Oracle database installation completed screen.

Verifying Oracle installation in Windows Operating system

We can verify that the Oracle database software has been properly installed in our Computer system by clicking on 'Start' button at the lower left corner on the desktop. In Windows 10, click on Start -> All apps. Then select 'O' to see all applications starting with the letter 'O'. We can see 'Oracle Database 11g Express Edition' there as shown in Fig 28.

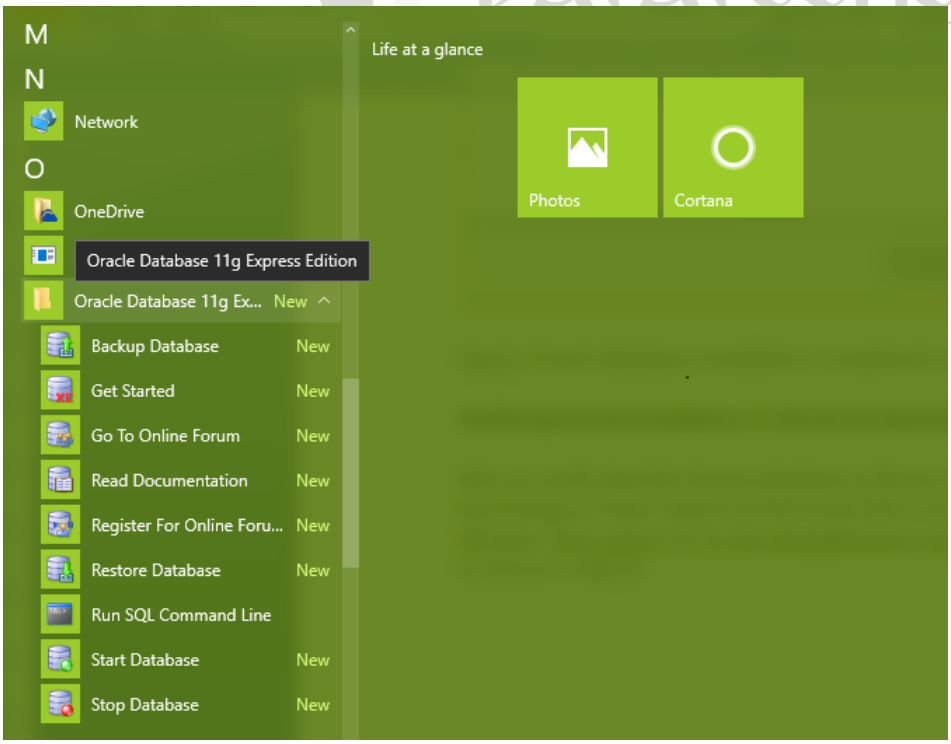


Fig 28. Verifying Oracle installation in Windows 10.

Installing Oracle database driver

We have to install a driver or connector software that connects the Oracle database with our Python programs. The name of the driver needed is cx_Oracle and it can be downloaded using pip command at DOS prompt as:

C:\> pip install cx_Oracle

When this command is typed, your computer searches in the Internet for cx_Oracle driver software and then downloads it and installs it.

Verifying the driver installation

If the Oracle driver (or connector) for Python has been installed successfully, we can see a new module by the name 'cx_Oracle' is added to the existing modules in Python library. Go to Python IDLE shell window and type the following at Python prompt:

>>> help ('modules')

As a result, it will display all available modules of Python. We should be able to locate 'cx_Oracle' module among them. This represents that the Oracle driver for Python has been successfully installed. See Fig 29.

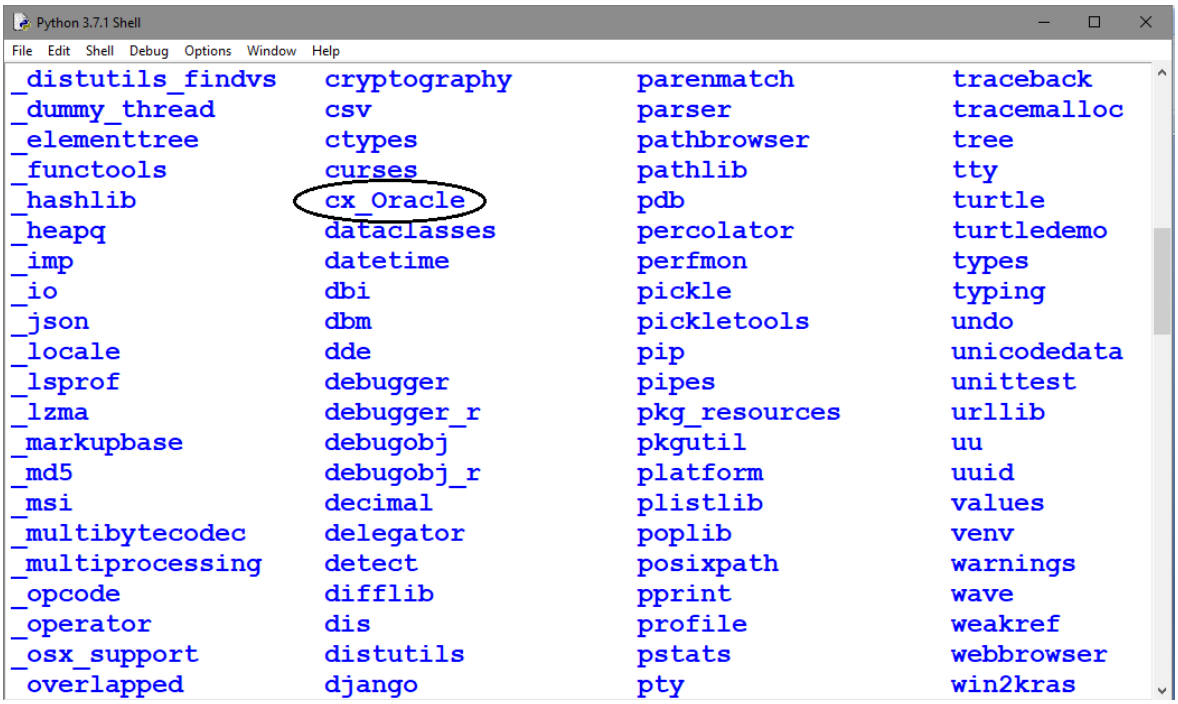


Fig 29. Verifying the newly added module cx_Oracle.

FUNDAMENTALS OF PYTHON

Python was developed by Guido Van Rossum in the year 1991.

Python is a high level programming language that contains features of functional programming language like C and object oriented programming language like Java.

FEATURES OF PYTHON

- **Simple**

Python is a simple programming language because it uses English like sentences in its programs.

- **Easy to learn**

Python uses very few keywords. Its programs use very simple structure.

- **Open source**

Python can be freely downloaded from www.python.org website. Its source code can be read, modified and can be used in programs as desired by the programmers.

- **High level language**

High level languages use English words to develop programs. These are easy to learn and use. Like COBOL, PHP or Java, Python also uses English words in its programs and hence it is called high level programming language.

- **Dynamically typed**

In Python, we need not declare the variables. Depending on the value stored in the variable, Python interpreter internally assumes the datatype.

- **Platform independent**

Hence, Python programs are not dependant on any computer with any operating system. We can use Python on Unix, Linux, Windows, Macintosh, Solaris, OS/2, Amiga, AROS, AS/400, etc. almost all operating systems. This will make Python an ideal programming language for any network or Internet.

- **Portable**

When a program yields same result on any computer in the world, then it is called a portable program. Python programs will give same result since they are platform independent.

- **Procedure and Object oriented**

Python is a procedure oriented as well as object oriented programming language. In procedure oriented programming languages (e.g. C and Pascal), the programs are built using functions and procedures. But in object oriented languages (e.g. C++ and Java), the programs use classes and objects.

An object is anything that exists physically in the real world. An object contains behavior. This behavior is represented by its properties (or attributes) and actions. Properties are represented by variables and actions are performed by methods. So, an object contains variables and methods.

A class represents common behavior of a group of objects. It also contains variables and methods. But a class does not exist physically.

A class can be imagined as a model for creating objects. An object is an instance (physical form) of a class.

- **Interpreted**

First, Python compiler translates the Python program into an intermediate code called *byte code*. This byte code is then executed by PVM. Inside the PVM, an interpreter converts the byte code instructions into machine code so that the processor will understand and run that machine code.

- **Extensible**

There are other flavors of Python where programs from other languages can be integrated into Python. For example, Jython is useful to integrate Java code into Python programs and run on JVM (Java Virtual Machine). Similarly IronPython is useful to integrate .NET programs and libraries into Python programs and run on CLR (Common Language Runtime).

- **Embeddable**

Several applications are already developed in Python which can be integrated into other programming languages like C, C++, Delphi, PHP, Java and .NET. It means programmers can use these applications for their advantage in various software projects.

- **Huge library**

Python has a big library that contains modules which can be used on any Operating system.

- **Scripting language**

A scripting language uses an interpreter to translate the source code into machine code on the fly (while running). Generally, scripting languages perform supporting tasks for a bigger application or software. Python is considered as a scripting language as it is interpreted and it is used on Internet to support other softwares.

- **Database connectivity**

A database represents software that stores and manipulates data. Python provides interfaces to connect its programs to all major databases like Oracle, Sybase, SQL Server or MySql.

- **Scalable**

A program would be scalable if it could be moved to another Operating system or hardware and take full advantage of the new environment in terms of performance.

- **Batteries included**

The huge library of Python contains several small applications (or small packages) which are already developed and immediately available to programmers. These libraries are called 'batteries included'. Some interesting batteries or packages are given here:

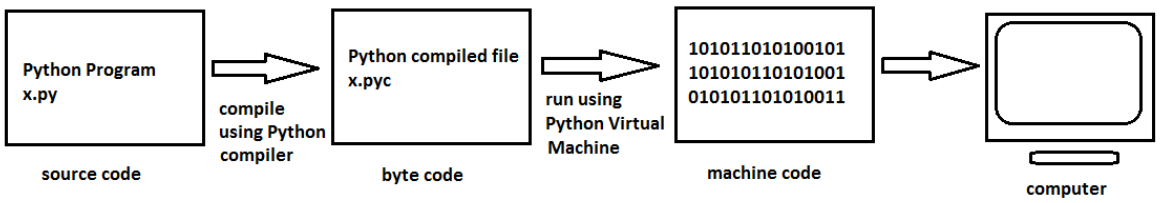
argparse is a package that represents command-line parsing library.
boto is Amazon web services library.
CherryPy is a Object-oriented HTTP framework.
cryptography offers cryptographic techniques for the programmers
Fiona reads and writes big data files
jellyfish is a library for doing approximate and phonetic matching of strings.
matplotlib is a library for electronics and electrical drawings.
mysql-connector-python is a driver written in Python to connect to MySQL database.

numpy is a package for processing arrays of single or multidimensional type.
pandas is a package for powerful data structures for data analysis, time series and statistics.
Pillow is a Python imaging library.
pyquery represents jquery-like library for Python.
scipy is the scientific library to do scientific and engineering calculations.
Sphinx is the Python documentation generator.
sympy is a package for Computer algebra system (CAS) in Python.
w3lib is a library of web related functions.
whoosh contains fast and pure Python full text indexing, search and spell checking library.

To know the entire list of packages included in Python, one can visit:
https://www.pythonanywhere.com/batteries_included/

PVM

A Python program contains source code (first.py) that is first compiled by Python compiler to produce byte code (first.pyc). This byte code is given to Python Virtual Machine (PVM) which converts the byte code to machine code. This machine code is run by the processor and finally the results are produced.



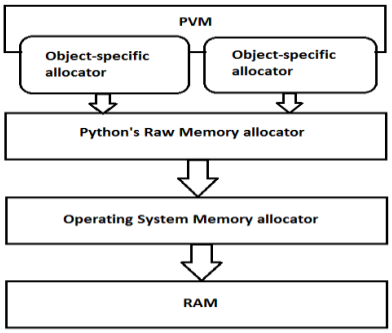
Python Virtual Machine (PVM) is a software that contains an interpreter that converts the byte code into machine code.

PVM is most often called Python interpreter. The PVM of PyPy contains a compiler in addition to the interpreter. This compiler is called Just In Time (JIT) compiler which is useful to speed up execution of the Python program.

Memory management by PVM

Memory allocation and deallocation are done by PVM during runtime. Entire memory is allocated on heap.

We know that the actual memory (RAM) for any program is allocated by the underlying Operating system. On the top of the Operating system, a raw memory allocator oversees whether enough memory is available to it for storing the objects (ex: integers, strings, functions, lists, modules etc). On the top of the raw memory allocator, there are several object-specific allocators operate on the same heap. These memory allocators will implement different types of memory management policies depending on the type of the objects. For example, an integer number should be stored in memory in one way and a string should be stored in a different way. Similarly, when we deal with tuples and dictionaries, they should be stored differently. These issues are taken care by object-specific memory allocators.



Garbage collection

A module represents Python code that performs specific task. Garbage collector is a module in Python that is useful to delete objects from memory which are not used in the program. The module that represents the garbage collector is named as *gc*. Garbage collector in the simplest way maintains a count for each object regarding how many times that object is referenced (or used). When an object is referenced twice, its reference count will be 2. When an object has some count, it is being used in the program and hence garbage collector will not remove it from memory. When an object is found with a reference count 0, garbage collector will understand that the object is not used by the program and hence it can be deleted from memory. Hence, the memory allocated for that object is deallocated or freed.

Frozen Binaries

When a software is developed in Python, there are two ways to provide the software to the end user. The first way is to provide the .pyc files to the user. The user will install PVM in his computer and run the byte code instructions of the .pyc files.

The other way is to provide the .pyc files, PVM along with necessary Python library. In this method, all the .pyc files, related Python library and PVM will be converted into a single executable file (generally with .exe extension) so that the user can directly execute that file by double clicking on it. In this way, converting the Python programs into true executables is called *frozen binaries*. But frozen binaries will have more size than that of simple .pyc files since they contain PVM and library files also.

For creating Frozen binaries, we need to use other party softwares. For example, py2exe is a software that produces frozen binaries for Windows operating system. We can use pyinstaller for UNIX or LINUX. Freeze is another program from Python organization to generate frozen binaries for UNIX.

RUNNING A PYTHON PROGRAM

Running a Python program can be done from 3 environments: 1. Command line window 2. IDLE graphics window 3. System prompt

Go get help, type help().
Type topics, FUNCTIONS, modules
Press <ENTER> to quit.

In IDLE window, click on help -> 'Python Docs' or F1 button to get documentation help.
Save a Python program in IDLE and reopen it and run it.

To see the .pyc file:
C:\>python –m py_compile first.py

To view byte code:
C:\> python –m dis first.py

PEP (Python Enhancement Proposal)

LEARNING RESOURCE ON INTERNET

www.tutorialspoint.com

COMMENTS (2 types)

single line comments
""" or ''' multi line comments

Docstrings

If we write strings inside """ or ''' and if these strings are written as first statements in a module, function, class or a method, then these strings are called *documentation strings* or *docstrings*. These docstrings are useful to create an API documentation file from a Python program. An API (Application Programming Interface) documentation file is a text file or html file that contains description of all the features of a software, language or a product.

DATATYPES

A datatype represents the type of data stored into a variable (or memory).

Built-in datatypes

The built-in datatypes are of 5 types:

- None Type
- Numeric types
- Sequences
- Sets
- Mappings

None type: an object that does not contain any value.
Numeric types: int, float, complex.
Boolean type: bool.

Sequences: str, bytes, bytearray, list, tuple, range.

int type: represents integers like 12, 100, -55.
float type: represents float numbers like 55.3, 25e3.
complex type: represents complex numbers like 3+5j or 3-10.5J. Complex numbers will be in the form of a+bj or a+bJ. Here 'a' is called real part and 'b' is called 'imaginary part' and 'j' or 'J' indicates √-1.

NOTE:
Binary numbers are represented by a prefix 0b or 0B. Ex: 0b10011001
Hexadecimal numbers are represented by a prefix 0x or 0X. Ex: 0X11f9c
Octal numbers are represented by a prefix 0o or 0O. Ex: 0o145.

bool type: represents any of the two boolean values, True or False.
Ex: a = 10>5 # here a is treated as bool type variable.
print(a) #displays True

NOTE:

1. To convert a float number into integer, we can use int() function. Ex: int(num)
2. To convert an integer into float, we can use float() function.
3. bin() converts a number into binary. Ex: bin(num)
4. oct() converts a number into octal.
5. hex() converts a number into hexadecimal.

STRINGS

str datatype: represents string datatype. A string is enclosed in single quotes or double quotes.
Ex: s1 = "Welcome"
s2 = 'Welcome'

A string occupying multiple lines can be inserted into triple single quotes or triple double quotes.
Ex: s1 = ''' This is a special training on
Python programming that
gives insights into Python language.
'''
To display a string with single quotes.
Ex: s2 = """This is a book 'on Core Python' programming"""

To find length of a string, use len() function.
Ex: s3 = 'Core Python'
n = len(s3)
print(n) -> 11

We can do indexing, slicing and repetition of strings.
Ex: s = "Welcome to Core Python"
print(s) -> Welcome to Core Python
print(s[0]) -> W
print(s[0:7]) -> Welcome

print(s[:7]) -> Welcome
print(s[1:7:2]) -> ecm
print(s[-1] -> n
print(s[-3:-1]) -> ho
print(s[1]*3) -> eee
print(s*2) ->Welcome to CorePython Welcome to CorePython

Remove spaces using rstrip(), lstrip(), strip() methods.
Ex: name = " Vijay Kumar "
print(name.strip())

We can find substring position in a string using find() method. It returns -1 if not found.
Ex: n = str.find(sub, 0, len(str))

We can count number of substrings in a string using count() method. Returns 0 if not found.
Ex: n = str.count(sub)

We can replace a string s1 with another string s2 in a main string using replace() method.
Ex: str.replace(s1, s2)

We can change the case of a string using upper(), lower(), title() methods.
Ex: str.upper()

CHARACTERS

There is no datatype to represent a single character in Python. Characters are part of **str** datatype.

Ex:
str = "Hello"
print(str[0])
H

for i in str: print(i)

H
e
l
l
o

BYTES AND BYTEARRAY

bytes datatype: represents a group of positive integers in the range of 0 to 255 just like an array. The elements of bytes type cannot be modified.
Ex: arr = [10, 20, 55, 100, 99]
x = bytes(arr)
for i in x:
  print(i)

10
20
55
100
99

bytearray datatype: same as bytes type but its elements can be modified.

```
arr = [10,20,55,100,99]
x=bytearray(arr)
x[0]=11
x[1]=21
for i in x: print(i)
```

11
21
55
100
99

NOTE:
We can do only indexing in case of bytes or bytearray datatypes. We cannot do slicing or repetitions.

LISTS

A **list** is similar to an array that can store a group of elements. A list can store different types of elements and can grow dynamically in memory. A list is represented by square braces [ ]. List elements can be modified.
Ex:

```
lst = [10, 20, 'Ajay', -99.5]
print(lst[2])
```

Ajay

To create an empty list.

```
lst = []    # then we can append elements to this list as lst.append('Vinay')
```

NOTE:
Indexing, slicing and repetition are possible on lists.

```
print(lst[1])
```

20

```
print(lst[-3:-1])
```

[20, 'Ajay']

```
lst = lst*2
print(lst)
```

[10, 20, 'Ajay', -99.5, 10, 20, 'Ajay', -99.5]

We can use len() function to find the no. of elements in the list.

n = len(lst) -> 4

del() function is for deleting an element at a particular position.
del(lst[1]) -> deletes 20

remove() will remove a particular element. clear() wil delete all elements from the list.
lst.remove('Ajay')
lst.clear()

We can update the list elements by assignment.
lst[0] = 'Vinod'
lst[1:3] = 10, 15

max() and min() functions return the biggest and smallest elements.
max(lst)
min(lst)

Other methods of lists

Example	Description
lst.index(x)	Returns the first occurrence of x in lst.
lst.count(x)	Returns the number of occurrences of x in lst.
lst.insert(i, x)	Inserts x into lst in the position specified by i.
lst.copy()	Copies all elements of lst into a new list and returns it.
lst.extend(lst1)	Appends lst1 to lst.
lst.sort()	Sorts all elements into ascending order.
lst.sort(reverse=True)	Sorts all elements into descending order.
lst.reverse()	Reverses the sequence of elements.

TUPLES

A tuple is similar to a list but its elements cannot be modified. A tuple is represented by parentheses ( ).
Indexing, slicing and repetition are possible on tuples also.

Ex:
tpl=( ) # creates an empty tuple
tpl=(10,) # with only one element – comma needed after the element

tpl = (10, 20, -30, "Raju")
print(tpl)
(10, 20, -30, 'Raju')
tpl[0]=-11 # error

print(tpl[0:2])
(10, 20)

tpl = tpl*2

```
print(tpl)
(10, 20, -30, 'Raju', 10, 20, -30, 'Raju')
```

NOTE: len(), count(), index(), max(), min() functions are same in case of tuples also.
We cannot use append(), extend(), insert(), remove(), clear() methods on tuples.

To sort the elements of a tuple, we can use sorted() method.

```
sorted(tpl)   # sorts all elements into ascending order
sorted(tpl, reverse=True)  # sorts all elements into descending order
```

To convert a list into tuple, we can use tuple() method.

```
tpl = tuple(lst)
```

RANGE DATATYPE

range represents a sequence of numbers. The numbers in the range cannot be modified.
Generally, range is used to repeat a for loop for a specified number of times.

Ex: we can create a range object that stores from 0 to 4 as:

```
r = range(5)

print(r[0])  -> 0

for i in r: print(i)
```



```
0
1
2
3
4
```

Ex: we can also mention step value as:

```
r = range(0, 10, 2)
for i in r: print(i)
```

```
0
2
4
6
8
```

```
r1 = range(50, 40, -2)
for i in r1: print(i)
```

```
50
48
46
44
42
```

SETS

A **set datatype** represents unordered collection of elements. A set does not accept duplicate elements where as a list accepts duplicate elements. A set is written using curly braces { }. Its elements can be modified.

Ex:
```
s = {1, 2, 3, "Vijaya"}
print(s)
{1, 2, 3, 'Vijaya'}
```

NOTE: Indexing, slicing and repetition are not allowed in case of a set.

To add elements into a set, we should use update() method as:
```
s.update([4, 5])
print(s)
{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 'Vijaya'}
```

To remove elements from a set, we can use remove() method as:
```
s.remove(5)
print(s)
{1, 2, 3, 4, 'Vijaya'}
```


A **frozenset** datatype is same as set type but its elements cannot be modified.
Ex:
```
s = {1, 2, -1, 'Akhil'}   -> this is a set
s1 = frozenset(s)   -> convert it into frozenset
for i in s1: print(i)

1
2
Akhil
-1
```

NOTE: update() or remove() methods will not work on frozenset.

MAPPING DATATYPES

A map indicates elements in the form of key – value pairs. When key is given, we can retrieve the associated value. A **dict** datatype (dictionary) is an example for a 'map'.

```
d = {10: 'kamal', 11:'Subbu', 12:'Sanjana'}
print(d)
{10: 'kamal', 11: 'Subbu', 12: 'Sanjana'}
```

keys() method gives keys and values() method returns values from a dictionary.

```
k = d.keys()
for i in k: print(i)
```

10
11
12

for i in d.values(): print(i)

kamal
Subbu
Sanjana

To display value upon giving key, we can use as:
Ex: d = {10: 'kamal', 11:'Subbu', 12:'Sanjana'}
d[10] gives ‘kamal’

To create an empty dictionary, we can use as:
d = {}

Later, we can store the key and values into d, as:

d[10] = ‘Kamal’
d[11] = ‘Pranav’
We can update the value of a key, as: d[key] = newvalue.
Ex: d[10] = ‘Subhash’

We can delete a key and corresponding value, using del function.
Ex: del d[11] will delete a key with 11 and its value also.

PYTHON AUTOMATICALLY KNOWS ABOUT THE DATATYPE

The datatype of the variable is decided depending on the value assigned. To know the datatype of the variable, we can use type() function.
Ex:

```
x = 15  #int type
print(type(x))
<class 'int'>
 x = 'A'  #str type
print(type(x))
<class 'str'>
 x = 1.5  #float tye
print(type(x))
<class 'float'>
x = "Hello"  #str type
print(type(x))
<class 'str'>
x = [1,2,3,4]
print(type(x))
<class 'list'>
x = (1,2,3,4)
print(type(x))
```

<class 'tuple'>
x = {1,2,3,4}
print(type(x))
<class 'set'>

Literals in Python

A *literal* is a constant value that is stored into a variable in a program.
a = 15
Here, 'a' is the variable into which the constant value '15' is stored. Hence, the value 15 is called 'literal'. Since 15 indicates integer value, it is called 'integer literal'.

Ex: a = 'Srinu' → here 'Srinu' is called string literal.
Ex: a = True → here, True is called Boolean type literal.

User-defined datatypes

The datatypes which are created by the programmers are called 'user-defined' datatypes. For example, an array, a class, or a module is user-defined datatypes. We will discuss about these datatypes in the later chapters.

Constants in Python

A constant is similar to variable but its value cannot be modified or changed in the course of the program execution. For example, pi value 22/7 is a constant. Constants are written using caps as PI.

Identifiers and Reserved words

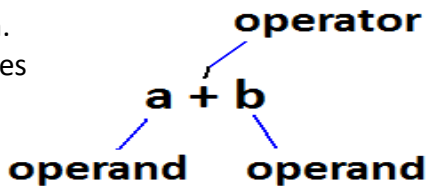
An identifier is a *name* that is given to a variable or function or class etc. Identifiers can include letters, numbers, and the underscore character (_). They should always start with a nonnumeric character. Special symbols such as ?, #, $, %, and @ are not allowed in identifiers. Some examples for identifiers are salaray, name11, gross_income, etc.

Reserved words are the words which are already reserved for some particular purpose in the Python language. The names of these reserved words should not be used as identifiers. The following are the reserved words available in Python:

and	del	from	nonlocal	try
as	elif	global	not	while
assert	else	if	or	with
break	except	import	pass	yield
class	exec	in	print	False
continue	finally	is	raise	True
def	for	lambda	return	

OPERATORS

A symbol that performs an operation.
An operator acts on variables or values that are called 'operands'.



Arithmetic operators
They perform basic arithmetic operations.

a=13, b = 5

Operator	Meaning	Example	Result
+	Addition operator.	a+b	18
-	Subtraction operator.	a-b	8
*	Multiplication operator.	a*b	65
/	Division operator.	a/b	2.6
%	Modulus operator. Gives remainder of division.	a%b	3
**	Exponent operator. a ** b gives the value of a to the power of b.	a**b	371293
//	Integer division. This is also called Floor division. Performs division and gives only integer quotient.	a//b	2

Assignment operators
To assign right side value to a left side variable.

Operator	Example	Meaning
=	z = x+y	Assignment operator. i.e. x+y is stored into z.
+=	z+=x	Addition assignment operator. i.e. z = z+x.
-=	z-=x	Subtraction assignment operator. i.e. z = z-x.
*=	z*=x	Multiplication assignment operator. i.e. z = z *x.
/=	z/=x	Division assignment operator. i.e. z = z/x.
%=	z%=x	Modulus assignment operator. i.e. z = z%x.
**=	z**=y	Exponentiation assignment operator. i.e. z = z**y.
//=	z//=y	Floor division assignment operator. i.e. z = z// y.

Ex:
```
a=b=c=5
print(a,b,c)
5 5 5

a,b,c=1,2,'Hello'
print(a,b,c)
1 2 Hello

x = [10,11,12]
a,b,c = 1.5, x, -1
print(a,b,c)
1.5 [10, 11, 12] -1
```

Unary minus operator
Converts +ve value into negative and vice versa.

Relational operators
Relational operators are used to compare two quantities. They return either True or False (bool datatype).

Ex:
a, b = 1, 2
print(a>b)
False

Ex:
1<2<3<4 will give True
1<2>3<4 will give False

Logical operators
Logical operators are useful to construct compound conditions. A compound condition is a combination of more than one simple condition. 0 is False, any other number is True.

X=1, y=2

Operator	Example	Meaning	Result
and	x and y	And operator. If x is False, it returns x, otherwise it returns y.	2
or	x or y	Or operator. If x is False, it returns y, otherwise it returns x.	1
not	not x	Not operator. If x is False, it returns True. If x is True it returns False.	False

Ex:
x=1; y=2; z=3
if(x<y or y>z):
    print('Yes')
else:
    print('No') -> displays Yes

Boolean operators
Boolean operators act upon 'bool' type values and they provide 'bool' type result. So the result will be again either True or False.

x = True, y = False

Operator	Example	Meaning	Result
and	x and y	Boolean and operator. If both x and y are True, then it returns True, otherwise False.	False
or	x or y	Boolean or operator. If either x or y is True, then it returns True, else False.	True
not	not x	Boolean not operator. If x is True, it returns False, else True.	False

INPUT AND OUTPUT

print() function for output

Example	Output
print()	Blank line
print("Hai")	Hai
print("This is the \nfirst line")	This is the first line
print("This is the \\nfirst line")	This is the \nfirst line
print('Hai'*3)	HaiHaiHai
print('City=', "Hyderabad")	City= Hyderabad
print('City='+"Hyderabad")	City=Hyderabad
print(a, b)	1 2
print(a, b, sep=",")	1,2
print(a, b, sep='-----')	1-----2
print("Hello") print("Dear")	Hello Dear
print("Hello", end='') print("Dear", end='')	HelloDear
a=2 print('You typed ', a, 'as input')	You typed 2 as input
%i, %f, %c, %s can be used as format strings. name='Linda'; sal=12000.50 print('Hai', name, 'Your salary is', sal) print('Hai %s, Your salary is %.2f' % (name, sal))	Hai Linda Your salary is 12000.5 Hai Linda, Your salary is 12000.50
print('Hai {}, Your salary is {}'.format(name, sal)) print('Hai {0}, Your salary is {1}'.format(name, sal)) print('Hai {1}, Your salary is {0}'.format(name, sal))	Hai Linda, Your salary is 12000.5 Hai Linda, Your salary is 12000.5 Hai 12000.5, Your salary is Linda

input() function for accepting keyboard input

Example
str = input()
str = input('Enter your name= ')
a = int(input('Enter int number: ')
a = float(input('Enter a float number: ')
a,b,c = [int(x) for x in input("Enter three numbers: ").split()]
a,b,c = [int(x) for x in input('Enter a,b,c: ').split(',')]
a,b,c = [x for x in input('Enter 3 strings: ').split(',')]
lst = [float(x) for x in input().split(',')]
lst = eval(input('Enter a list: '))

PROGRAMS

1. Enter id number, name and salary one by one and display them.
2. Enter 3 numbers and find their sum and average.
3. Enter the radius of a circle and find the area.
4. Enter a character and display it.

5. Enter two strings and display the total string.
6. Enter a number and display its cube value.
7. Sort a group of strings into ascending order.
8. Enter a list of different elements and display them.

CONTROL STATEMENTS

Control the flow of execution

- □ if statement
- □ if…else statement
- □ if…elif…else statement
- □ while loop
- □ for loop
- □ break statement
- □ continue statement
- □ pass statement
- □ return statement

if statement
executes statements based on a condition.

```
if condition:
   statements
```


if…else statement
executes statements1 else statements2 based on a condition.

```
if condition:
   statements1
else:
   statements2
```

PROGRAMS
9. Test whether a given number is even or odd.

if…elif…else statement
executes statements depending on multiple conditions.

```
if condition1:
   statements1
elif condition2:
   statements2
elif condition3:
   statements3
else:
   statements4
```

PROGRAMS
10. Test whether a given number is even or odd or zero.

while loop
executes statements as long as the condition is True.

```
while condition:
   statements
```

PROGRAMS
11. Display numbers from 1 to 10.
12. Display even numbers between m and n.

for loop
to iterate over the elements of a sequence like string, list, tuple, set, range, etc.

```
for var in sequence:
   statements
```

PROGRAMS
13. Display numbers from 100 to 110.
14. Display even numbers from 100 to 110.
15. Display the individual letters of a string.
16. Find sum of list of numbers.
17. Display required multiplication table.

else suit
else can be used with for loop or while loop. The statements in the else part are always executed.

```
for var in sequence:
   statements
else:
   statements

while condition:
   statements
else:
   statements
```

PROGRAMS
18. Enter a number and find out if it exists in a list.

break statement
to come out of a for loop or while loop.

continue statement
to continue the next iteration of a loop.

PROGRAMS
19. To break a loop of 1 to 10 at 5.
20. Do not display a loop from 5 onwards.

pass statement
does nothing. It is used in 'if statement' or a 'loop' to represent no operation.

PROGRAMS
21. Retrieve only negative numbers from a list.

return statement
to return result from a function.

PROGRAMS
22. A function to return the sum of two numbers from a function.

assert statement
to check if a particular condition is fulfilled or not. If the condition fails, it displays the assert statement and also raises AssertionError.

assert condition, "message"

PROGRAMS
23. Check if the user entered a number greater than 10 or not.

COMMAND LINE ARGUMENTS

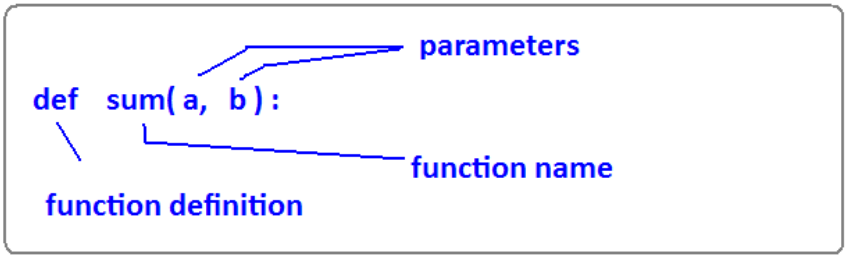
The arguments passed to a Python program at command prompt. They are stored in the form of a list in argv defined in 'sys' module.
len(sys.argv) gives number of command line args.
sys.argv is a list that contains all command line args.
sys.argv[0] contains the program name.

PROGRAMS
24. Display the no. of command line args and their names.
25. Enter a group of numbers at command line and find their sum and average.

FUNCTIONS

Contains a group of statements to perform a particular task. A function written inside a class is a 'method'. A method is called as: obj.methodname() or class.methodname().

Function definition = function name, parameters and body.




```
# function definition
def sum(a, b) :
    """ to find sum of two numbers """
    c = a + b
    print('Sum= ', c)

# call the function
sum(5, 10)

# call again
sum('Hello', 'Dear')
```

: indicates beginning of body.
docstring.
function body

PROGRAMS

26. A function to find sum of two numbers.

A function can return more than one value. When several values are returned, they are stored into a tuple and then returned.

PROGRAMS

27. A function to return result of addition and subtraction of two numbers.
28. A function to return results of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division.

It is possible to send a group of strings or numbers in the form of a list to a function and do any operation inside the function.

PROGRAMS

29. Enter a group of numbers from keyboard and sort them using a function.

LOCAL AND GLOBAL VARIABLES

A variable declared inside a function is local variable. Local variable is available only within that function. A variable declared above the function becomes global variable. It is available in the function and also outside of the function.

PROGRAMS

30. Create a global variable and local variable and display their values.

When local variable and global variable have same name, we can use globals() function to retrieve the global variable value inside the function. Ex: globals()['var']

PROGRAMS

31. Use globals() to retrieve the global variable inside a function.

Functions are first class objects

That means we can use functions exactly as objects.

- It is possible to assign a function to a variable.
- It is possible to define one function inside another function.
- It is possible to pass a function as parameter to another function.
- It is possible that a function can return another function.

PROGRAMS
32. Assign a function to a variable.
33. Define message() function inside display() function.
34. Pass message() function to display() function as parameter.
35. Return message() function from display() function.

Recursive functions
A function calling itself repeatedly.

PROGRAMS
36. Using recursion, calculate factorial value of a given number.

Formal and actual arguments

When a function is defined, it may have some parameters. These parameters are useful to receive values from outside of the function. They are called 'formal arguments'. When we call the function, we should pass data or values to the function. These values are called 'actual arguments'. In the following code, 'a' and 'b' are formal arguments and 'x' and 'y' are actual arguments.

```
def sum(a, b):  # a, b are formal arguments
   c = a+b
   print(c)

# call the function
x=10; y=15
sum(x, y)   # x, y are actual arguments
```

The actual arguments used in a function call are of 4 types:

- Positional arguments
- Keyword arguments
- Default arguments
- Variable length arguments

Positional arguments

These are the arguments passed to a function in correct positional order. Here, the number of arguments and their positions in the function definition should match exactly with the number and position of the argument in the function call

```
def attach(s1, s2):  # function definition
attach('New', 'York')  # positional arguments
```

Keyword arguments

Keyword arguments are arguments that identify the parameters by their names.

```
def grocery(item, price):  # function definition
grocery(item='Sugar', price=50.75)  # key word arguments
```

Default arguments

We can mention some default value for the function parameters in the definition.

```
def grocery(item, price=40.00):  # default argument is price
grocery(item='Sugar')   # default value for price is used
```

Variable length arguments

A variable length argument is an argument that can accept any number of values. The variable length argument is written with a ' * ' symbol before it in the function definition, as:

```
def add(farg, *args):   # *args can take 0 or more values
add(5, 10)
add(5, 10, 20, 30)
```

Here, 'farg' is the formal argument and '*args' represents variable length argument. We can pass 1 or more values to this '*args' and it will store them all in a tuple.

Function decorators

A decorator is a function that accepts a function as parameter and returns a function. A decorator takes the result of a function, modifies the result and returns it. Thus decorators are useful to perform some additional processing required by a function.

1. We should define a decorator function with another function name as parameter.

```
def decor(fun):
```

2. We should define a function inside the decorator function. This function actually modifies or decorates the value of the function passed to the decorator function.

```
def decor(fun):
   def inner():
      value = fun()   # access value returned by fun()
```

```
    return value+2   # increase the value by 2
  return inner   # return the inner function
```

3. Return the inner function that has processed or decorated the value. In our example, in the last statement, we were returning inner() function using return statement. With this, the decorator is completed.

The next question is how to use the decorator. Once a decorator is created, it can be used for any function to decorate or process its result. For example, let us take num() function that returns some value, e.g. 10.

```
def num():
  return 10
```

Now, we should call decor() function by passing num() function name as:

```
result_fun = decor(num)
```

So, 'result_fun' indicates the resultant function. Call this function and print the result, as:

```
print(result_fun())
```

PROGRAMS

37. Write a decorator function to increase the value by 2.

Generators

Generators are functions that return a sequence of numbers. A generator function is written like an ordinary function but it uses 'yield' statement. This statement is useful to return the value.

PROGRAMS

38. Create a generator object with numbers from 5 to 10.

Modules, Packages and Libraries

During the development of software or project, the senior programmers develop some code in the form of functions and classes (for which, see in the future chapters) and put that code inside modules and packages. This code is imported and used by other programmers without the need of redeveloping it. This technique makes the project development easy and takes less time to complete the project. We will discuss about these concepts in this Chapter.

Modules

So far, we developed several Python programs. These programs can be called 'modules' if they can be used by other Python programs. So, what is a module? A module is nothing but a Python program that can be imported into other programs. Since a module is a Python program, it may contain any stuff like classes, objects, functions, constants etc.

In Python, we have several built-in modules like sys, io, time, math, pickle, threading, etc. Just like these modules, we can also create our own modules and use them whenever we need them. Let us now develop a module (or Python program) that contains 2 simple functions add() and sub() to perform addition and subtraction respectively.

Program 1: A Program to create a module with functions.

```
# This module contains 2 functions
# This module name is arith.py
def add(x, y):
    z = x+y
    print('Sum of two nos= ', z)

def sub(x, y):
    z = x-y
    return z
```

In the preceding code, observe that the add() function is displaying the result of sum of two numbers whereas the sub() function is returning the result of subtraction. Save this code in a file by the name 'arith.py'. Now we can call 'arith.py' as a module, if it can be used in another program, e.g. 'use.py'. For this purpose, we should import 'arith.py' module into 'use.py' program. This can be done by writing import statement inside 'use.py' program. The following are different ways of writing import statement:

- import arith
  When we write the module name in the import statement as shown in the preceding code, PVM will add this module name before every Python object in our program i.e. use.py. That means if we have add() function in our program, PVM will make it arith.add() internally. Hence we should call the add() function in our program as: arith.add() or arith.sub()

- import arith as ar
  Here, 'ar' is another name or alias name for 'arith' module. When an alias name is used like this, PVM will add the alias name before very Python object in the program. Hence, we can call the function using the alias name as: ar.add() or ar.sub()

- from arith import *
  Here '*' represents 'all'. In this case, PVM does not bring the module name 'arith' into our program. Instead, it brings all the names inside 'arith' module into our program. That means the names add, sub are available directly to our program. Hence we can refer to those functions directly as: add() or sub()

- from arith import add, sub
  Here, we are specifically mentioning the names of the functions add and sub. In this case, PVM brings the names add and sub from arith module directly into our program. Therefore we can call them directly as: add() or sub()

In the Program 2, we have shown how to import the module 'arith.py' and call the functions add() and sub() available in that module. Following Figure will help to understand this concept in a better manner.

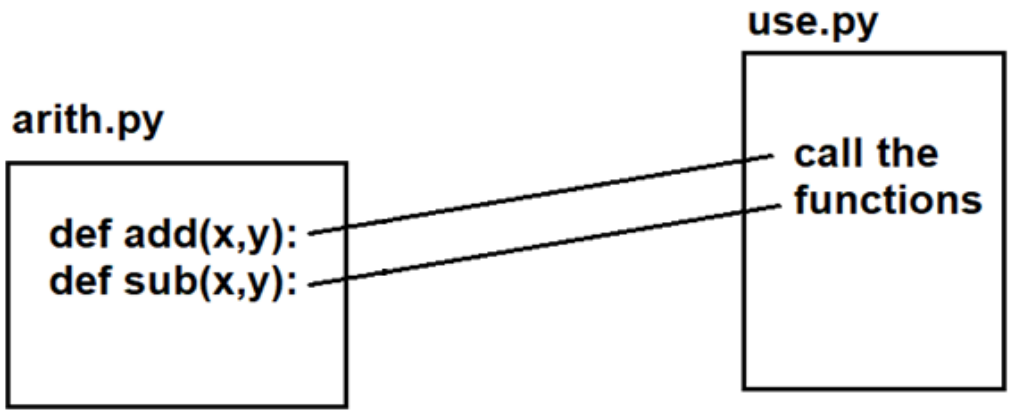


Figure : The functions of arith.py module are reused in use.py

Program 2: A Program to import and use the arith.py module.

```
# this is use.py program
# import arith module using one of the above 4 ways
import arith

# call the functions of the module
arith.add(10, 22)
result = arith.sub(10, 22)
print('Result of subtraction= ', result)
```


Output:

```
C:\> python use.py
Sum of two nos=  32
Result of subtraction=  -12
```

Suppose, in the preceding program, we wrote the import statement, as:

```
from arith import *
```

Then, we need not write the module name before the functions while calling them. The same Program 2 looks like this:

```
# using the arith.py module - version 2

from arith import *

# call the functions of the module
add(10, 22)
result = sub(10, 22)
print('Result of subtraction= ', result)
```

Since we are importing ‘arith.py’ program into the ‘use.py’ program, we call ‘arith.py’ program as a module. Once imported, the contents of arith module can be used in use.py program. In this manner, arith

module can be reused not only in use.py program but also in any other program. Thus modules can be understood as reusable Python programs. Due to their reusable nature, they make development of the software easy.

Packages

A package is a folder or directory that contains some modules. How PVM distinguishes a normal folder from a package folder is the question. To differentiate the package folder, we need to create an empty file by the name '__init__.py' inside the package folder. The following Figure shows a package 'mypack' with a module 'arith.py' in it. The module contains functions add() and sub() and we have to use them in another program 'use.py' which is outside of the package. See the below Figure.

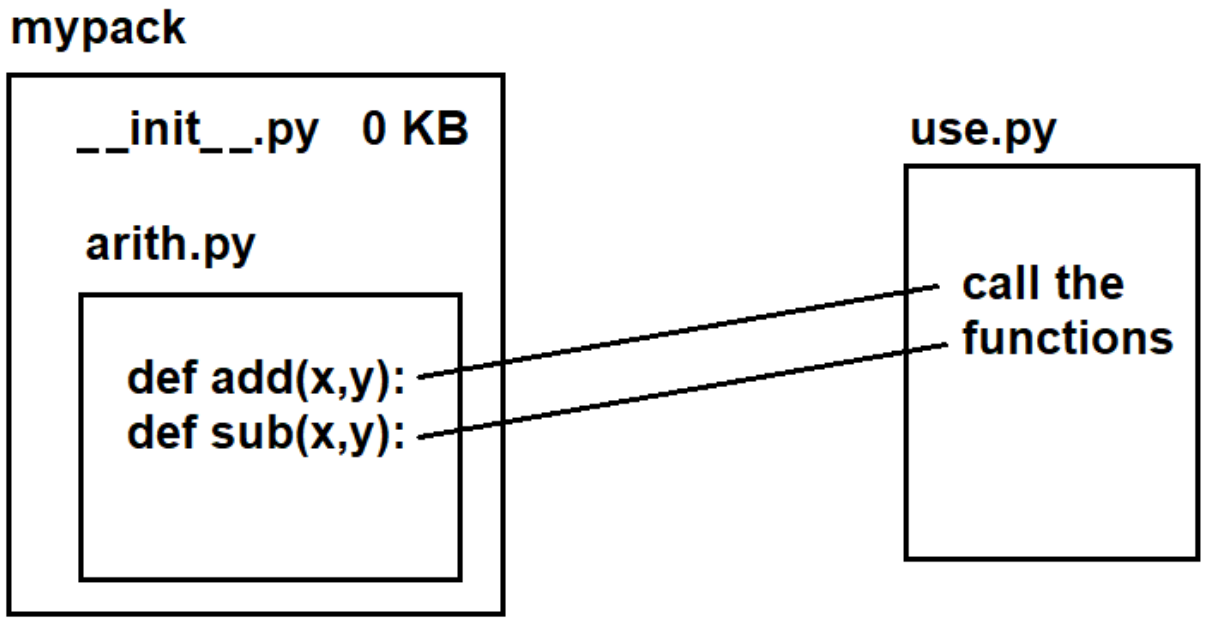


Figure: Using arith.py module of mypack package from another program.

First of all we should create a folder by the name 'mypack'. For this purpose, right click the mouse → New → Folder. Then it will create a new folder by the name 'New folder'. Rename it as 'mypack'.

The next step is to create '__init__.py' file as an empty file inside 'mypack' folder. First go into mypack folder by double clicking on it. Then right click the mouse → New → Text Document. This will open a Notepad file by the name 'New Text Document.txt'. Double click on this file to open it. Then File → Save As → Type the file name in double quotes as "__init__.py". Please observe the below Figure.

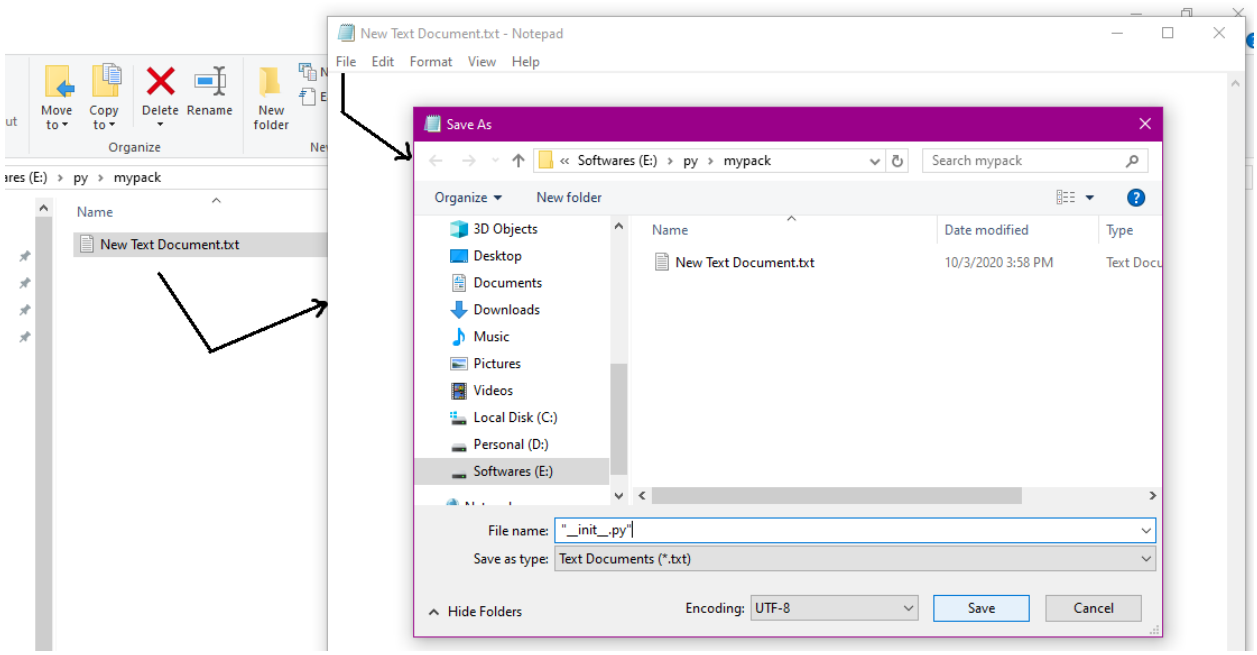


Figure : Creating an empty __init__.py file in mypack

Now we can see a new file by the name '__init__.py' with 0 KB size created in the mypack folder. Store the program 'arith.py' (See Program 44) into this mypack folder. Now mypack is treated as a package with arith.py as a module.

Come out of mypack. We can use this mypack package in any program like 'use.py' which is stored out of the package. We can write use.py program to import the module from mypack package as shown in Program 3.

Program 3: A Program showing how to use a module belonging to a package.

```
# using the arith.py module of mypack package

import mypack.arith

# call the functions of the module
mypack.arith.add(10, 22)
result = mypack.arith.sub(10, 22)
print('Result of subtraction= ', result)
```

Output:

```
C:\>python use.py
Sum of two nos=  32
Result of subtraction=  -12
```

Please observe the import statement in the beginning of this program.

- `import mypack.arith`

It represents mypack is the package (or folder) and in that arith module is found. This arith module is being imported. When we import like this, we need to add the package name and module name before the functions or classes which are defined inside the module, as: mypack.arith.add()

The following are the other ways of writing the import statement:

- `import mypack.arith as ar`

Then refer to the functions as: ar.add() or ar.sub()

- `from mypack.arith import *`
- `from mypack.arith import add, sub`

In the above two cases, we can directly call the functions as: add() or sub()

Libraries

We can extend the concept of packages to form libraries. A group of packages is called a 'software library', often simply called a 'library'. A library contains several packages and each package contains several useful classes and functions. When a project is going on, as part of the project, several programmers may create packages and the related packages form the library. Now-a-days, top companies are sharing such libraries with other companies freely; the other companies can import and use those libraries in their own projects. Thus, sharing of knowledge is taking place between various companies.

For the sake of our understanding, let us take google company has created a library with a lot of sub folders as:

google/sub/py/gui/thread/photos

Observe that google is the root folder. In that folder, sub folders are found with the names sub, py, gui, thread. The final sub folder 'thread' contains a module by the name 'photos'. As a programmer, you need to import 'photos.py' module and use it in your program. How can you write your import statement? The following are the different ways:

import google.sub.py.gui.thread.photos

import google.sub.py.gui.thread.photos as ph # ph is the alias name

from google.sub.py.gui.thread.photos import *

from google.sub.py.gui.thread.photos import fun1, fun2, Class1, Class2, …

Creating our own modules in Python

A module represents a group of classes, methods, functions and variables. In Python, we have several built-in modules like sys, io, time etc. Just like these modules, we can also create our own modules and use them whenever we need them. Once a module is created, any programmer in the project team can reuse that module. Hence, modules will make software development easy and faster.

PROGRAMS

39. Create 'mymodule' with addition and subtraction functions and use them in another program.

The special variable __name__

When a program is executed in Python, there is a special variable internally created by the name '__name__'. This variable stores information regarding whether the program is executed as an individual program or as a module. When the program is executed directly, the Python interpreter stores the value '__main__' into this variable. When the program is imported as a module into another program, then Python interpreter stores the module name into this variable. Thus, by observing the value of the variable '__name__', we can understand how the program is executed.

PROGRAMS

40. Create 'one' module with display() function. Find out how it is executed.

LAMBDAS OR ANONYMOUS FUNCTIONS

A function without a name is called 'anonymous function'. So far, the functions we wrote were defined using the keyword 'def'. But anonymous functions are not defined using 'def'. They are defined using the keyword *lambda* and hence they are also called 'Lambda functions'. Let us take a normal function that returns square of a given value.

```
def square(x):
   return x*x
```

The same function can be written as anonymous function as:

```
lambda x: x*x
```

Observe the keyword 'lambda'. This represents that an anonymous function is being created. After that we have written an argument of the function, i.e. 'x'. Then colon (:) represents the beginning of the function that contains an expression x * x. Please observe that we did not use any name for the function here. So, the format of lambda functions is:

```
lambda argument_list : expression
```

Normally, if a function returns some value, we assign that value to a variable, as:

```
y = square(5)
```

But, lambda functions return a function and hence they should be assigned to a function, as:

```
f = lambda x: x*x
```

Here, 'f' is the function name to which the lambda expression is assigned. Now, if we call the function f(), as:

```
value = f(5)
```

Now, 'value' contains the square value of 5, i.e. 25.

PROGRAMS

41. Create a lambda function to find square value of a number.
42. Write a lambda to test whether a given number is even or not.

Using lambdas with filter() function

The filter() function is useful to filter out the elements of a sequence depending on the result of a function. We should supply a function and a sequence to the filter() function as:

filter(function, sequence)

Here, the 'function' represents a function name that may return either True or False; and 'sequence' represents a list, string or tuple.

PROGRAMS
43. Create a lambda that returns even numbers from a list of numbers.

Using lambdas with map() function

The map() function is similar to filter() function but it acts on each element of the sequence and perhaps changes the elements. The format of map() function is:

map(function, sequence)

The 'function' performs a specified operation on all the elements of the sequence and the modified elements are returned which can be stored in another sequence.

PROGRAMS
44. Create a lambda that returns squares of all elements in a list.

Using lambdas with reduce() function

reduce() function reduces a sequence of elements to a single value by processing the elements according to a function supplied. The reduce() function is used in the format:

reduce(function, sequence)

NOTE: reduce() function belongs to 'functools' module.

PROGRAMS
45. Create a lambda function to calculate products of elements of a list.

ARRAYS

To work with arrays, we use numpy (numerical python) package.
For complete help on numpy: https://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/reference/

An array is an object that stores a group of elements (or values) of same datatype. Array elements should be of same datatype. Arrays can increase or decrease their size dynamically.

NOTE: We can use for loops to display the individual elements of the array.

To work with numpy, we should import that module, as:
import numpy

```
import numpy as np
from numpy import *
```

Single dimensional (or 1D) arrays

A 1D array contains one row or one column of elements. For example, the marks of a student in 5 subjects.

Creating single dimensional arrays

Creating arrays in numpy can be done in several ways. Some of the important ways are:

- Using array() function
- Using linspace() function
- Using logspace() function
- Using arange() function
- Using zeros() and ones() functions.

Creating 1D array using array()

To create a 1D array, we should use array() method that accepts list of elements.
Ex: arr = numpy.array([1,2,3,4,5])

PROGRAMS
46. Create different types of 1D arrays using numpy.

Creating 1D array using linspace()

linspace() function is used to create an array with evenly spaced points between a starting point and ending point. The form of the linspace() is:

linspace(start, stop, n)

'start' represents the starting element and 'stop' represents the ending element. 'n' is an integer that represents the number of parts the elements should be divided. If 'n' is omitted, then it is taken as 50. Let us take one example to understand this.
a = linspace(0, 10, 5)

In the above statement, we are creating an array 'a' with starting element 0 and ending element 10. This range is divided into 5 equal parts and hence the points will be 0, 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10. These elements are stored into 'a'. Please remember the starting and ending elements 0 and 10 are included.

PROGRAMS
47. Create an array with 5 equal points using linspace().

Creating arrays using logspace

logspace() function is similar to linspace(). The linspace() produces the evenly spaced points. Similarly, logspace() produces evenly spaced points on a logarithmically spaced scale. logspace is used in the following format:

logspace(start, stop, n)

The logspace() starts at a value which is 10 power of 'start' and ends at a value which is 10 power of 'stop'. If 'n' is not specified, then its value is taken as 50. For example, if we write:

a = logspace(1, 4, 5)

This function represents values starting from 10^1 to 10^4. These values are divided into 5 equal points and those points are stored into the array 'a'.

PROGRAMS
48. A program to create an array using logspace().

Creating 1D arrays using arange() function

The arange() function in numpy is same as range() function in Python. The arange() function is used in the following format:

arange(start, stop, stepsize)

This creates an array with a group of elements from 'start' to one element prior to 'stop' in steps of 'stepsize'. If the 'stepsize' is omitted, then it is taken as 1. If the 'start' is omitted, then it is taken as 0. For example,

arange(10)

will produce an array with elements 0 to 9.

arange(5, 10, 2)

will produce an array with elements: 5,7,9.

PROGRAMS

49. A program to create an array with even number up to 10.

Creating arrays using zeros() and ones() functions

We can use zeros() function to create an array with all zeros. The ones() function is useful to create an array with all 1s. They are written in the following format:

zeros(n, datatype)
ones(n, datatype)

where 'n' represents the number of elements. we can eliminate the 'datatype' argument. If we do not specify the 'datatype', then the default datatype used by numpy is 'float'. See the examples:

zeros(5)

This will create an array with 5 elements all are zeros, as: [0. 0. 0. 0. 0.]. If we want this array in integer format, we can use 'int' as datatype, as:
zeros(5, int)

this will create an array as: [0 0 0 0 0].

If we use ones() function, it will create an array with all elements 1. For example,

ones(5, float)

will create an array with 5 integer elements all are 1s as: [1. 1. 1. 1. 1.].

Arithmetic operations on arrays

Taking an array as an object, we can perform basic operations like +, -, *, /, // and % operations on each element.
Ex:

```
import numpy
arr = numpy.array([10, 20, 30])
arr+5
```


Important Mathematical functions in numpy

Function	Meaning
concatenate([a, b])	Joins the arrays a and b and returns the resultant array.
sqrt(arr)	Calculates square root value of each element in the array 'arr'.
power(arr, n)	Returns power value of each element in the array 'arr' when raised to the power of 'n'.
exp(arr)	Calculates exponentiation value of each element in the array 'arr'.
sum(arr)	Returns sum of all the elements in the array 'arr'.
prod(arr)	Returns product of all the elements in the array 'arr'.
min(arr)	Returns smallest element in the array 'arr'.
max(arr)	Returns biggest element in the array 'arr'.
mean(arr)	Returns mean value (average) of all elements in the array 'arr'.
median(arr)	Returns median value of all elements in the array 'arr'.
std(arr)	Gives standard deviation of elements in the array 'arr'.
argmin(arr)	Gives index of the smallest element in the array. Counting starts from 0.
argmax(arr)	Gives index of the biggest element in the array. Counting starts from 0.
unique(arr)	Gives an array that contains unique elements of the array 'arr'.
sort(arr)	Gives an array with sorted elements of the array 'arr' in ascending order.

Ex:
numpy.sort(arr)
numpy.max(arr)
numpy.sqrt(arr)

Aliasing the arrays

If 'a' is an array, we can assign it to 'b', as:

b = a

This is a simple assignment that does not make any new copy of the array 'a'. It means, 'b' is not a new array and memory is not allocated to 'b'. Also, elements from 'a' are not copied into 'b' since there is no memory for 'b'. Then how to understand this assignment statement? We should understand that we are giving a new name 'b' to the same array referred by 'a'. It means the names 'a' and 'b' are referencing same array. This is called 'aliasing'.

'Aliasing' is not 'copying'. Aliasing means giving another name to the existing object. Hence, any modifications to the alias object will reflect in the existing object and vice versa.

Viewing and Copying arrays

We can create another array that is same as an existing array. This is done by view() method. This method creates a copy of an existing array such that the new array will also contain the same elements found in the existing array. The original array and the newly created arrays will share different memory locations. If the newly created array is modified, the original array will also be modified since the elements in both the arrays will be like mirror images.

We can create a view of 'a' as:
b = a.view()

Viewing is nothing but copying only. But it is called 'shallow copying' as the elements in the view when modified will also modify the elements in the original array. So, both the arrays will act as one and the same. Suppose we want both the arrays to be independent and modifying one array should not affect another array, we should go for 'deep copying'. This is done with the help of copy() method. This method makes a complete copy of an existing array and its elements. When the newly created array is modified, it will not affect the existing array or vice versa. There will not be any connection between the elements of the two arrays.

We can create a copy of 'a' as:
b = a.copy()

PROGRAMS
50. Create a 1D array using arange() and then create another array by alias, view and copy.

Indexing and slicing in 1D arrays are possible

Ex:
import numpy as np

```
arr = np.array([10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 90])
arr[1]  -> 20

print(arr[1:5])
[20 30 40 50]

arr[1:5:2]
array([20, 40])

arr[:5:]
array([10, 20, 30, 40, 50])

arr[::]
array([10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 90])

arr[0::2]
array([10, 30, 50])

arr[5:0:-1]
array([90, 50, 40, 30, 20])
```

Attributes of an array

Numpy's array class is called *ndarray*. It is also known by alias name *array*. Let us remember that there is another class 'array' in Python that is different from numpy's 'array' class. This class contains the following important attributes (or variables):

ndim

'ndim' represents the number of dimensions or axes of the array. The number of dimensions is also referred to as 'rank'. For a single dimensional array, it is 1 and for a two dimensional array, it is 2. See the examples:

```
arr1 = array([1,2,3,4,5])  # 1D array
print(arr1.ndim) displays 1

arr2 = array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6]])  # 2D array with 2 rows and 3 elements
print(arr2.ndim) displays 2
```

shape

'shape' gives the shape of an array. The shape is a tuple listing the number of elements along each dimension. A dimension is called an axis. For a 1D array, shape gives the number of elements in the row. For a 2D array, it specifies the number of rows and columns in each row. We can also change the shape using 'shape' attribute. See the examples:

```
arr1 = array([1,2,3,4,5])
print(arr1.shape) displays (5,)   # no. of elements

arr2 = array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6]])
print(arr2.shape) displays (2, 3)  # 2 rows and 3 cols
```

arr2.shape = (3, 2) # change shape of arr2 to 3 rows and 2 cols
print(arr2) displays the following:
[[1 2]
[3 4]
[5 5]]

size
gives the total number of elements in the array. For example,

arr1 = array([1,2,3,4,5])
print(arr1.size) displays 5

arr2 = array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6]])
print(arr2.size) displays 6

itemsize
This gives the memory size of the array element in bytes. As we know, 1 byte is equal to 8 bits. For example,

arr1 = array([1,2,3,4,5])
print(arr1.itemsize) displays 4

arr2 = array([1.1,2.1,3.5,4,5.0])
print(arr2.itemsize) displays 8

dtype
This attribute gives the datatype of the elements in the array. For example,

arr1 = array([1,2,3,4,5]) # integer type array
print(arr1.dtype) displays int32

arr2 = array([1.1,2.1,3.5,4,5.0]) # float type array
print(arr2.dtype) displays float64

nbytes
gives the total number of bytes occupied by an array. The total number of bytes = size of the array * item size of each element in the array. For example,

arr2 = array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6]])
print(arr2.nbytes) displays 24

Apart from the attributes discussed in the preceding sections, we can use reshape() and flatten() methods which are useful to convert the 1D array into a 2D array and vice versa.

reshape()
This method is useful to change the shape of an array. The new array should have the same number of elements as in the original array. For example,

arr1 = arange(10) # 1D array with 10 elements
print(arr1) displays the following:
[0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9]

arr1 = arr1.reshape(2, 5) # change the shape as 2 rows, 5 cols
print(arr1) displays the following:
[[0 1 2 3 4]
[5 6 7 8 9]]

arr1 = arr1.reshape(5, 2) # change the shape as 5 rows, 2 cols
print(arr1) displays the following:
[[0 1]
[2 3]
[4 5]
[6 7]
[8 9]]

flatten()
This method is useful to return a copy of the array collapsed into one dimension. For example, let us take a 2D array as:

arr1 = array([[1,2,3],[4,5,6]])
print(arr1) displays the following:
[[1 2 3]
[4 5 6]]

By using flatten() method, we can convert this array into 1D array, as:

arr1 = arr1.flatten()
print(arr1) displays the following:
[1 2 3 4 5 6]

Multi-dimensional arrays (2D, 3D, etc)

They represent more than one row and more than one column of elements. For example, marks obtained by a group of students each in five subjects.

Creating multi-dimensional arrays

We can create multi dimensional arrays in the following ways:

- Using array() function
- Using ones() and zeroes() functions
- Using eye() function
- Using reshape() function discussed earlier

Using array() function

To create a 2D array, we can use array() method that contains a list with lists.

PROGRAMS

51. Create and display a 2D array using array() method.

ones() and zeros() functions

The ones() function is useful to create a 2D array with several rows and columns where all the elements will be taken as 1. The format of this function is:

ones((r, c), dtype)

Here, 'r' represents the number of rows and 'c' represents the number of columns. 'dtype' represents the datatype of the elements in the array. For example,

a = ones((3, 4), float)

will create a 2D array with 3 rows and 4 columns and the datatype is taken as float. If 'dtype' is omitted, then the default datatype taken will be 'float'. Now, if we display 'a', we can see the array as:

```
[[1.  1.  1.  1.]
 [1.  1.  1.  1.]
 [1.  1.  1.  1.]]
```


The decimal point after each element represents that the elements are float type.

Just like ones() function, we can also use zeros() function to create a 2D array with elements filled with zeros. Suppose, we write:

b = zeros((3,4), int)

Then a 2D array with 2 rows and 4 columns will be created where all elements will be 0s, as shown below:

```
[[0  0  0  0]
 [0  0  0  0]
 [0  0  0  0]]
```

eye() function

The eye() function creates a 2D array and fills the elements in the diagonal with 1s. The general format of using this function is:

eye(n, dtype=datatype)

This will create an array with 'n' rows and 'n' columns. The default datatype is 'float'. For example, eye(3) will create a 3x3 array and fills the diagonal elements with 1s as shown below:

a = eye(3)

```
[[1.  0.  0.]
 [0.  1.  0.]
 [0.  0.  1.]]
```

Indexing and slicing in 2D arrays

Ex:
```
import numpy as np
arr = np.array([[1,2,3],[4,5,6],[7,8,9]])
```
arr[0] gives 0th row -> [1,2,3]
arr[1] gives 1st row -> [4,5,6]
arr[0,1] gives 0th row, 1st column element -> 2
arr[2,1] gives 2nd row, 1st column element -> 8

```
a = np.array([[1,2,3,4],[5,6,7,8],[9,10,11,12]])
a
array([[ 1,  2,  3,  4],
       [ 5,  6,  7,  8],
       [ 9, 10, 11, 12]])
```

a[0:2, 0:3] -> 0th row to 1st row, 0th column to 2nd column
```
array([[1, 2, 3],
       [5, 6, 7]])
```

a[1:3, 2:] -> 1th row to 2nd row, 2nd column to last column
```
array([[ 7,  8],
       [11, 12]])
```


MATRICES IN NUMPY

A 2D array with m rows and n cols - is an example for a mXn matrix.

matrix() method is useful to convert a 2D array into a matrix.
matrix(2D array)
matrix('string that contains elements')

Ex:
```
a = np.array([[1,2,3],[4,5,6],[7,8,9]])
m = np.matrix(a)
m
matrix([[1, 2, 3],
        [4, 5, 6],
        [7, 8, 9]])
```

We can retrieve diagonal elements of the matrix using diagonal() method.
```
d = np.diagonal(m)
print(d)
```

[1 5 9]

We can find biggest and smallest elements in the matrix using max() and min() methods.

```
b = m.max()
print(b)
9

s = m.min()
print(s)
1
```

We can find sum and average of elements using sum() and mean() methods.

```
sum = m.sum()
print(sum)
45
avg = m.mean()
print(avg)
5.0
```

We can sort the elements into ascending order using sort() method.

```
arr = np.array([[3,4,2], [1,2,9]])
m = np.matrix(arr)
m
matrix([[3, 4, 2],
        [1, 2, 9]])

s = np.sort(m)   # sort the elements in each row
s
matrix([[2, 3, 4],
        [1, 2, 9]])
s1 = np.sort(m, axis=0)   # sort the elements in each column
 s1
matrix([[1, 2, 2],
        [3, 4, 9]])
```

We can find transpose of the matrix using transpose() method.

```
t = m.transpose()
t
matrix([[3, 1],
        [4, 2],
        [2, 9]])
```

Matrix addition, subtraction, multiplication, division can be done by using +, -, * and / operators.
(DO NOT USE IDLE)

PROGRAMS

52. Do matrix multiplication and division.
53. Accept matrix from keyboard as a string and display its transpose.
54. Rewrite the above program to accept the matrix in matrix form.

LIST OF PROGRAMS (CORE PYTHON)

```
# 1. to accept id, name and salary
id = int(input('Enter id: '))
name = input('Enter name: ')
sal = input('Enter salary: ')
print('Your id={}\nName={}\nSalary={}'.format(id,name,sal))
```

```
# 2. sum and average
a,b,c = [float(x) for x in input('Enter 3 numbers: ').split()]
sum = a+b+c
avg = sum/3
print("Sum= %i\nAverage= %.2f" % (sum, avg))
```

```
# 3.area of a circle - v1
r = float(input('Enter radius: '))
PI = 22/7
area = PI*r**2
print('Area= ', area)


'''
# area of a circle - v2
import math
r = float(input('Enter radius: '))
area = math.pi*r*r
print('Area= ', area)
'''
```

```
# 4. enter a char and display
str = input('Enter a char: ')
print('You entered: '+ str[0])
```

```
# 5. joining strings
str1, str2 = input('Enter two strings: ').split(',')
print("Total string: "+str1+str2)
```

```
# 6.cube value
num = float(input('Enter a number: '))
print('Cube= ', num**3)
```

```
# 7.sorting a group of strings
lst = []

n = int(input('How many strings? '))

for i in range(n):
    s = input('Enter string: ')
    lst.append(s)

lst.sort()

for i in lst:
```

```
    print(i)
```

```
# 8.enter a list and display using eval()
lst = eval(input('Enter a list: '))
print("List= ", lst)
for i in lst:
    print(i)
```

```
# 9.test whether a given number is even or odd
x = int(input('Enter a number: '))
if x % 2 == 0:
    print(x,"is even")
else:
    print(x,"is odd")
```

```
# 10.even or odd or zero
no = int(input('Enter a number: '))
if(no ==0): print(no, "is zero")
elif(no % 2 == 0): print(no,"is even")
else: print(no, "is odd")
```

```
# 11.display numbers from 1 to 10
x=1
while(x<=10):
    print(x)
    x+=1
print("End")
```

```
# 12.display evens between m and n
m, n = [int(i) for i in input('Enter start, stop: ').split()]
x = m  # start from min
if x % 2 !=0: x=m+1

while(x<=n):
    print(x)
    x+=2
```

```
# 13.to display numbers from 100 to 110
x = 100
for i in range(100, 111):
    print(i)
```

```
# 14.to display even numbers from 100 to 110
x = 100
for i in range(100, 111, 2):
    print(i)
```

```
# 15.to display letters of a string
str = "Hello"
for i in str:
    print(i)
```

```
# 16.to find sum of list of numbers
lst = [10, 20, -10, 5.5]
sum=0
for i in lst:
    sum+=i
print('Sum=', sum)
```

```
# 17.to display a multiplication table
x = int(input('Which table? '))

for i in range(1, 21):
    print(i, ' X ', x, ' = ', i*x)
```

```
# 18.whether an element exists in the list or not
lst = [1,2,3,4]
s = int(input('Which element to search? '))
for i in lst:
    if s == i:
        print('Found')
        break
else:
    print('Not found')
```

```
# 19.to break a loop at 5
x=0
while x<=10:
    x+=1
    if x==5:
        break
    print(x)
```



```
# 20.not to display from 5 onwards
x=0
while x<=10:
    x+=1
    if x>=5:
        continue
    print(x)
```

```
# 21.to retrieve only negatives
num = [1,2,-3,-4,5,-6]

for i in num:
    if(i>0):
        pass
    else:
        print(i)
```

```
# 22.a function to return sum value
# define the function
def sum(a, b):
    c = a+b
    return c

# call the function
```

```
res1 = sum(5, 10)
res2 = sum(1.5, 2.6)
print('Result1= ', res1)
print('Result2= ', res2)
```

```
# 23.understanding assert stmt
x = int(input('Enter a number: '))
assert x>10, "Wrong input entered"
print('U entered: ', x)
```

```
# 24.command line args
import sys

# find no. of args
n = len(sys.argv)
print('No of args= ', n)

# get all args
lst = sys.argv
print('They are: ')
for i in lst: print(i)

# show program name
print('Program name= ', sys.argv[0])
```

```
# 25.command line args
import sys

# find no. of args
n = len(sys.argv)
print('No of args= ', n)

# get args from argv[1] till end and add them
sum=0
lst = sys.argv
for i in range(1, n):
    sum+=float(lst[i])

print('Sum= ', sum)
print('Average= ', sum/n)
```

```
# 26.function definition
def sum(a, b) :
        """ to find sum of two numbers """
        c = a + b
        print('Sum= ', c)

# call the function
sum(5, 10)

# call again
sum('Hello', 'Dear')
```

```
# 27.function definition
def sum_sub(a, b) :
        """ to find result of addition
        and subtraction """
        c = a + b
        d = a- b
```

```
        return c, d

# call the function
c, d = sum_sub(5, 10)
print("Results = {} and {}".format(c, d))
```

```
# 28.function to return several values
def fun(n1, n2) :
        a = n1+n2
        b = n1-n2
        c = n1*n2
        d = n1/n2
        return a,b,c,d

# call the function
tpl = fun(5, 10)
print(tpl)

for i in tpl: print(i)
```

```
# 29.sorting a group of numbers
def sortnum(lst):
    lst.sort()
    for i in lst: print(i)

# take a group of numbers from keyboard
print('Enter numbers: ')
lst = [float(x) for x in input().split(',')]

# call the function
sortnum(lst)
```

```
# 30.local and global variables
a = 5  # global var
def fun():
    a = 6  # local var
    print(a) # displays local var

fun()
print(a)  # displays global var
```

```
# 31.local and global variables
a = 5  # global var
def fun():
    a = 6  # local var
    print(a) # displays local var

    x = globals()['a']
    print(x)  # displayes global var

fun()
print(a)  # displays global var
```

```
# 32.assign a function to a variable
def display(str):
    return 'Hai '+str

var = display('Krish')
print(var)
```

```
# 33.define a function inside another function
def display(str):
    def message():
        return 'How are U? '
    result = message()+str
    return result

var = display('Krish')
print(var)
```

```
# 34.functions can be passed as parameters to other functions
def display(fun):
    return 'How are U? '+ fun

def message():
    return 'Krish'

var = display(message())
print(var)
```

```
# 35.functions can return other functions
def display():
    def message():
        return 'How are U?'

    return message

# call display() function and it returns message() function
# in the following code, var refers to the name: message.
var = display()
print(var())
```

```
# 36.recursive function
def factorial(n):
    if n==0:
        result=1
    else:
        result=n*factorial(n-1)
    return result

n = int(input('Enter number: '))
print('Factorial = ', factorial(n))
```

```
# 37.a decorator to increase the value by 2
def decor(fun):
    def inner():
        value = fun()
        return value+2
    return inner

"""
# this is the function to which decorator should be applied
def num():
    return 10

result = decor(num)
print(result())

"""
@decor
```

```
def num():
    return 10

print(num())
```

```
# 38.generator that returns sequence from x to y
def mygen(x, y):
    while x<=y:
        yield x
        x+=1

# fill generator object with 5 and 10
g = mygen(5, 10)

# display all numbers in the generator
for i in g:
    print(i, end=' ')
```

```
# 39.a module with 2 functions - save this a mymodule.py
def add(a, b):
    print(a+b)

def sub(a, b):
    print(a-b)

# use mymodule.
import mymodule
x, y = [int(x) for x in input('Enter two nos: ').split()]
mymodule.add(x,y)
mymodule.sub(x,y)
```

```
# 40.python program to display a message. save this as one.py
def display():
    print('Hello Python!')

if __name__ == '__main__':
    display()   # call display function
    print('This code is run as a program')
else:
    print('This code is run as a module')

# in this program one.py is imported as a module.
import one
one.display()
```

```
# 41.a lambda function to calculate square value
f = lambda x: x*x   # write lambda function
value = f(5)   # call lambda function
print('Square of 5 = ', value)   # display result
```

```
# 42.a lambda function to test a number is even or not
f = lambda x: 'Yes' if x%2==0 else 'No'   # write lambda function
value = f(18)   # call lambda function
print(value)   # display result
```

```
# 43.a lambda function that returns even numbers from a list
lst = [10, 23, 45, 46, 70, 99]
lst1 = list(filter(lambda x: (x%2 == 0) , lst))
print(lst1)
```

```
# 44.a lambda function that returns squares of numbers of a list
lst = [10, 23, 45, 46, 70, 99]
lst1 = list(map(lambda x: x*x , lst))
print(lst1)
```

```
# 45.Lambda that returns products of elements of a list
from functools import *
lst = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
result = reduce(lambda x, y: x*y, lst)
print(result)
```

```
# 46.create different types of 1D arrays
import numpy
arr1 = numpy.array([1,2,3,4])
print(arr1)

arr2 = numpy.array([1.5, 2.5, -3.44])
print(arr2)

arr3 = numpy.array(['a','b','c','d'])
print(arr3)

arr4 = numpy.array(['anil', 'gopal', 'vikas'])
print(arr4)
```

```
# 47.creating an array using linspace()
from numpy import *

# divide 0 to 10 into 5 parts and take those points in the array
a = linspace(0, 10, 5)
print('a = ', a)
```



```
# 48.creating an array using logspace()
from numpy import *

# divide 1 power 10 to 4 power 10 into 5 equal parts
# and take those points in the array
a = logspace(1, 4, 5)

# display the elements of a
for i in a: print(i, end=', ')
```

```
# 49.creating an array with even numbers up to 10
from numpy import *

# create an array using arange() function
a = arange(2, 11, 2)
print(a)
```

```
# 50.aliasing, viewing and copying an array.
from numpy import *

a = arange(1, 6)  # create array a
b = a  # b is alias to a
# b = a.view() # b is shallow copy of a
# b = a.copy()  # b is deep copy of a
```

```
print('Original array: ', a)
print('Alias array: ', b)

b[0]=99  # modify 0th element of b

print('After modification: ')
print('Original array: ', a)
print('Alias array: ', b)
```

```
# 51.create and display a 2D array
import numpy
arr = numpy.array([[1,2,3], [4,5], [10,11,12]])

# display only rows
for i in range(len(arr)):
    print(arr[i])

# display all elements
for i in range(len(arr)):
    for j in range(len(arr[i])):
        print(arr[i][j], end=' ')
    print()
```

```
# 52.matrix operations
import numpy as np

a = np.matrix([[1,2],[3,4]])
b = np.matrix([[2,2],[4,4]])

c = a*b
print(c)

d = a/2
print(d)
```

```
# 53.finding transpose
import numpy
r,c = [int(a) for a in input('How many rows cols? ').split(' ')]
str = input('Enter elements:\n')

m = numpy.matrix(str)
x = numpy.reshape(m, (r,c))

print('original\n', x)
print('transpose\n', x.transpose())
```

```
# 54.finding transpose - to accept elements in matrix form
import numpy
r,c = [int(a) for a in input('How many rows cols? ').split(' ')]

arr = numpy.zeros((r,c))   # create a rXc 2D array

print('Enter elements:')
for i in range(r):   # enter one row at a time
    arr[i]= [float(x) for x in input().split(' ')]

m = numpy.matrix(arr)

print('original\n', m)
print('transpose\n', m.transpose())
```
