

Introduction to Python

Introduction:

- Using Programming languages and technologies we develop applications.
- Applications are used to store data and perform operations on data.

Types of applications:

Standalone apps:

- The application runs from single machine.
- Internet connection is not required to run the application.
- Application needs to be installed on machine.
- **Examples:** VLC, MS-office, Anti-virus, Browser, **Programming languages**.

Web apps:

- The application runs from multiple machines in a network.
- Internet connection is required to run the application.
- Application installed in server and run from the clients.
- **Examples:** Gmail, YouTube, IRCTC, Flip Kart etc.

Download python:

- Python is an Open-Source Technology.
- We can download and install Python software from official website www.python.org

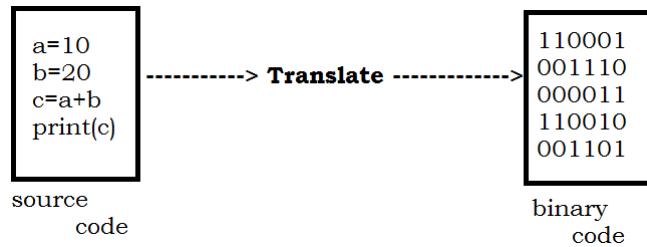
The screenshot shows the Python.org homepage with a dark blue header. The navigation bar includes links for Python, PSF, Docs, PyPI, Jobs, and Community. The main content area features the Python logo and a search bar. A sidebar on the left displays a snippet of Python code related to fruit counts. The central part of the page is titled 'Download for Windows' and offers Python 3.11.0. It includes a note about Python 3.9+ not being compatible with Windows 7 or earlier, and information about other platforms like macOS and Linux. A large call-to-action button at the bottom encourages users to learn more about Python's capabilities.

Python is used to develop both Standalone and Web applications:

- Core + Advance python + GUI + DBMS = Standalone app development
- Core + Advance + DBMS + HTML + CSS + JavaScript + Django = Web app development

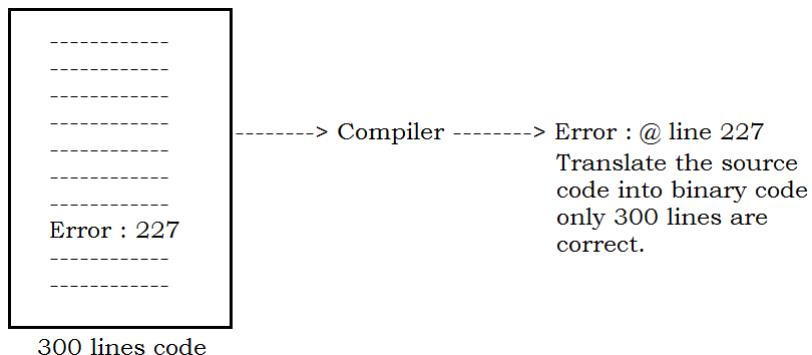
Translators:

- Programmer can define only source code.
- We need to convert the source code into binary code before run.
- We use 2 translators to convert Source code into byte code.
 - Compiler
 - Interpreter



Compiler:

- Compiler checks the source code syntactically correct or not.
- If we define the code correctly, it converts source code into byte code.
- Compiler shows error message with line number if there is a syntax error.



Note: Java programming language use compilation

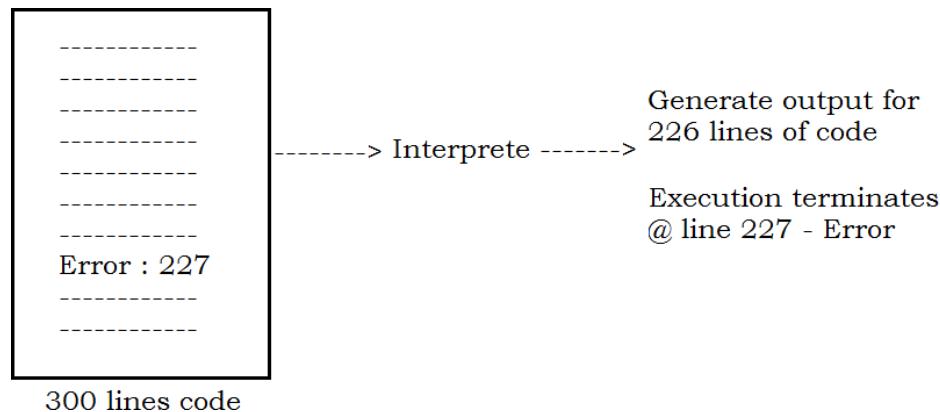
class Program

```
{  
    public static void main(String[] args)  
    {  
        int a=10;  
        System.out.println("a val : " + a);  
        int b=20;  
        System.out.println("b val : " + b);  
        System.out.println("c val : " + c);  
    }  
}
```

Compile: Error @ line – 11 (variable “c” not present)

Interpreter:

- Line by line translation of source code into binary code.
- Python uses interpreter for program execution.



Note: Python programming uses interpretation

```
a=10  
print("a val :",a)  
b=20  
print("b val :",b)  
print("c val :",c)
```

Output: a val : 10
 b val : 20
 NameError: name 'c' is not defined

Python(Programming & Scripting):

- Programming language are directly used to develop applications.
 - **Examples:** C, C++, Python, Java, .Net etc.
- Scripting languages always run from another program.
 - **Examples:** JavaScript, TypeScript, Python....

Program:

- A set of instructions.
- Program runs alone.

Script:

- Script is a set of Instructions
- Scripts is a program that always execute from another program.
- JavaScript is the best example of Scripting language.
- JavaScript code always run with HTML program.

web.html

```
<html>
  <head>
    <script>
      java script
      logic
    </script>
  </head>
  <body>
    .....
    .....
  </body>
</html>
```

1. Java Script code cannot run alone.
2. It always execute from HTML file
3. Python code can be used as a script from other applications such as DEVOP, AWS, SELENIUM.....

Python is Dynamic:

- Every programming language is used to develop applications
- Application is used to store and process the data.
- Generally we allocate memory to variables in 2 ways
 1. Static memory allocation
 2. Dynamic memory allocation

Static memory:

- Static means "fixed memory"
- The languages which are supporting primitive types allowed allocating static memory.
- Primitive variable size and type are fixed.
- Primitive variable stores data directly.
- Compiler raises error when data limit or type is deviated from specified.

Primitive : Variable stores the data

In C :

```
int a ;
a = 10 ;
a = a+15 ;
a = 23.45 ; -> Error : only integer allowed
a = 50000 ; -> Error : Can store a value between -32768 to +32767
```

a (2 bytes)

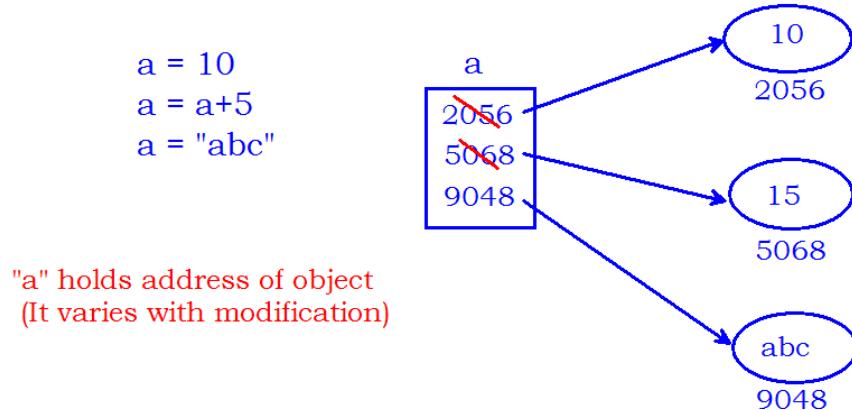
25

2046

Dynamic memory:

- Python is dynamic.
- Dynamic memory means type and size of data can vary.
- Python can store information in Object format.
- Dynamic variables cannot store the data directly.
- Dynamic variables store the reference of Object which holds data.
- In Python, object location changes every time when we modify the data.

Dynamic : Variable holds the reference of data object.



```
>>> a=10
>>> print(a)
10
>>> print("Address :",id(a))
Address : 1628169120
```

```
>>> a=a+15
>>> print(a)
25
>>> print("Address :",id(a))
Address : 1628169360
```

```
>>> a="python"
>>> print(a)
python
>>> print("Address :",id(a))
Address : 48576832
```

Python Variables

Variable:

- Variable is an identity of memory location.
- Variables used to store values
- You can assign any value to a variable using the "=" operator.

```
# Example:
```

```
x = 10
```

Variables can be of different types in Python, such as integer, float, string, boolean, etc.

```
# Example:
```

```
age = 25  
height = 5.7  
name = "Amar"  
is_student = True
```

You can assign the same value to multiple variables at once using the "=" operator.

```
# Example:
```

```
x = y = z = 0
```

Variables can be updated with new values as the program runs.

```
# Example:
```

```
x = 10  
x = x + 1
```

Variables can be deleted using the "del" keyword.

```
# Example:
```

```
x = 10  
del x
```

Python allows you to assign values to variables in a single line

```
# Example:
```

```
x, y, z = 10, 20, 30
```

Python variables are case-sensitive, which means "a" and "A" are different variables.

```
# Example:
```

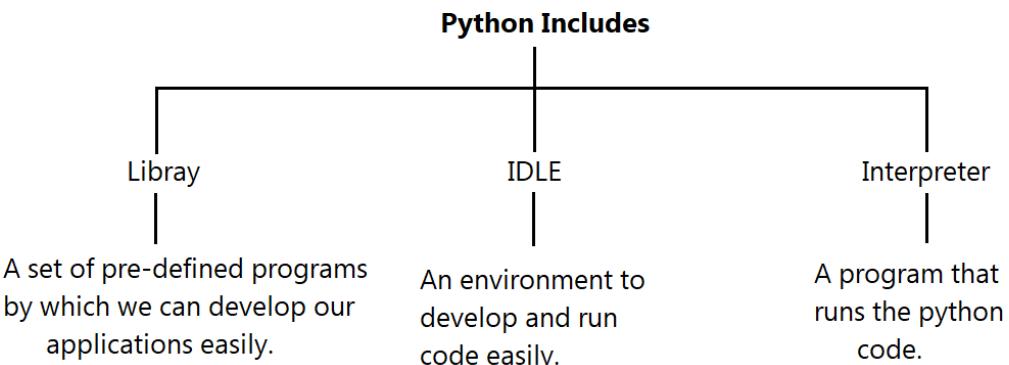
```
a = 10  
A = 20
```

You can use underscores in variable names for better readability.

```
# Example:
```

```
my_variable = 10
```

Edit and Run python program:



Working with IDLE:

- Once python installed, we can open IDLE by searching its name.
- A shell window will be opened where we can run only commands.

```
Python 3.6.5 (v3.6.5:f59c0932b4, Mar 28 2018, 16:07:46) [MSC v.1900 32 bit (Intel)] on win32
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> # We cannot write programs here
>>> # we execute simple commands
>>> print("Hello")
Hello
>>> 10+20
30
>>> len("Python")
6
```

Writing and executing programs:

- We can write and execute programs from editor
- Go to File menu
- Select "new" file – Opens an editor
- Write code and Save with .py extension
- Run – with shortcut f5

The image shows two windows side-by-side. On the left is the Python 3.6.5 Shell window, which displays the standard startup message and a command prompt (>>>). On the right is a code editor window titled 'Test.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/Test.py (3.6.5)'. It contains two lines of Python code: `print("It is my")` and `print("First Python code")`. A red arrow points from the code editor towards the shell window, with the text 'Editor is used to write program' written next to it. Another red arrow points from the shell window back to the code editor, with the text 'If you run, output will display on Shell' written next to it.

```
Python 3.6.5 (v3.6.5:f59c0932b4, Mar 28 2018, 16:07:46) [MSC v.1900 32 bit (Intel)] on win32
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>>
=====
RESTART: C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/Test.py =====
=====
It is my
First Python code
```

Editor is used to write program

If you run, output will display on Shell

Operators and Control Statements

Operator:

- Operator is a symbol that performs operation on one or more operands.
- The member on which operator operates is called the operand.
- In the expression $a = 5+9$,
 a, 5, 9 are operands
 =, + are operators

Python supports the following operators:

1. Arithmetic Operators
2. Comparison (Relational) Operators
3. Assignment Operators
4. Logical Operators
5. Bitwise Operators
6. Membership Operators
7. Identity Operators

Arithmetic operators:

Arithmetic operators are used to perform mathematical operations like addition, subtraction, multiplication etc.

Operators are `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `%`, `//`, `**`

Operator	Meaning	Example
<code>+</code>	Add 2 operands	<code>X+Y</code>
<code>-</code>	Subtract right from left	<code>X-Y</code>
<code>*</code>	Multiply 2 operands	<code>X*Y</code>
<code>/</code>	Divide left with right	<code>X/Y</code>
<code>%</code>	Divide and returns Remainder	<code>X%Y</code>
<code>//</code>	Floor division - division that results into whole number adjusted to the left in the number line	<code>X//Y</code>
<code>**</code>	Exponent - left operand raised to the power of right	<code>X**Y</code>

$$a = 5, b = 2$$

$\begin{array}{r} 2) 5 (2.5 \\ \underline{-} 5 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$ $a/b = 2.5$	$\begin{array}{r} 2) 5 (2 \\ \underline{-} 4 \\ \hline 1 \end{array}$ $a \% b = 1$	$\begin{array}{r} 2) 5 (2.5 \\ \underline{-} 5 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$ $a // b = 2 \leftarrow$ floor value of 2.5	$5^2 = 25$ $a^{**}b = 25$
--	---	--	------------------------------

Division (/) : Operator divide and returns quotient. Result is float value.

Remainder (%): It returns the remainder after division. It performs operation only on integers.

Division	Mod
>>> 5/2	>>> 5%2
2.5	1
>>> 10/3	>>> 10%4
3.333333333333335	2
>>> 10/5	>>> 5.0%2.5
2.0	0.0
	>>> 5.0%2
	1.0

Floor division (//): Returns floor value after divide.

Exponent ():** returns the power value of specified base.

>>> 10/3	>>> 2**2
3.333333333333335	4
>>> 10//3	>>> 2**4
3	16
>>> 10/4	>>> 3**3
2.5	27
>>> 10//4	
2	

```
print("Arithmetic operations")
print("5+2 :", 5+2)
print("5-2 :", 5-2)
print("5*2 :", 5*2)
print("5/2 :", 5/2)
print("5%2 :", 5%2)
print("5//2 :", 5//2)
print("5**2 :", 5**2)
```

Complete this work sheet Arithmetic Operators

a=10 a=20 a=30 a=40 a=50 print(a)	a <input type="text"/>	a=5 a=a+1 a=a+1 a=a+1 a=a+1 print(a)	a <input type="text"/>
a=5 a=a+1 a=a+2 a=a+3 a=a+4 print(a)	a <input type="text"/>	a=15 a=a+5 a=a+4 a=a+3 a=a+4 print(a)	a <input type="text"/>

<pre>a, x = 5, 1 a=a+x x = x+1 a=a+x x = x+1 a=a+x print(a, x)</pre>	a [] x []	<pre>a, b = 5, 1 a=a+b b = b-1 a=a+b b= b-1 a=a+b print(a, b)</pre>	a [] b []
<pre>n=2; int s=n*n; print(s);</pre>	n [] s []	<pre>n=2; int c=n*n*n; print(c);</pre>	n [] c []
<pre>n=2; int s=n*n; int c=n*n*n; print(s+c);</pre>	s [] c []	<pre>bal=5000; int amt=3500; bal = bal + amt; print(bal);</pre>	bal [] amt []
<pre>a=5, b=3; int c=a+b; print(c);</pre>	a [] b [] c []	<pre>a=5, b=3; a=b; b=a; print(a,b);</pre>	a [] b []
<pre>a=5, b=3, c; c=a; a=b; b=c; print(a,b);</pre>	a [] b [] c []	<pre>a=2, b=3; a=a+b; b=a+a; print(a,b);</pre>	a [] b []
<pre>a=2, b=3; a=a+b; b=a-b; a=a-b; print(a,b);</pre>	a [] b []	<pre>a=2, b=3; a=a*b; b=a//b; a=a//b; print(a,b);</pre>	a [] b []
<pre>n=234; int d=n%10; print(d);</pre>	n [] d []	<pre>n=234; int d=n//10; print(d);</pre>	n [] d []
<pre>sum=0, i=1; sum=sum+i; i=i+1; sum=sum+i; i=i+1; sum=sum+i; print(sum);</pre>	i [] sum []	<pre>fact=1, i=1; fact=fact*i; i=i+1; fact=fact*i; i=i+1; fact=fact*i; print(fact);</pre>	i [] fact []
<pre>n=2345, rev=0; rev=rev*10+n%10; n=n//10; Print(rev, n); rev=rev*10+n%10; n=n//10; Print(rev, n);</pre>		<pre>rev=rev*10+n%10; n=n//10; Print(rev, n); rev=rev*10+n%10; n=n//10; Print(rev, n);</pre>	

Python Input()

Reading input from End-user :

- The input() function is used read data from user.
- The function prompts the message to enter the value
 - **input(prompt)**
- The function waits for the user to enter the value followed by pressing the "Enter" key.
- The function reads the input as string.

Reading the name and display:

```
print("Enter your name :")
name = input()
print("Hello, ",name)
```

We can give the prompt while reading input

```
name = input("Enter your name : ")
print("Hello, ",name)
```

Every input value will be returned in String format only.

```
print("Enter 2 numbers :")
a = input()
b = input()
c = a+b # "5" + "6" = "56"
print("Sum :",c)
```

We need to convert the string type input values into corresponding type to perform operations.

int() :

- It is pre-defined function
- It can convert input value into integer type.
- On success, it returns integer value
- On failure(if the input is not valid, raised error)

Adding 2 numbers

```
print("Enter 2 numbers :")
a = input()
b = input()
c = int(a)+int(b)
print("Sum :",c)
```

Data Conversion Functions

int() :

- It is pre-defined function
- It can convert input value into integer type.
- On success, it returns integer value
- On failure(if the input is not valid, raised error)

```
>>> int(10)
10
>>> int(23.45)
23
>>> int(True)
1
>>> int(False)
0
>>> int("45")
45
>>> int("python") # Error : Invalid input
```

Adding 2 numbers:

```
print("Enter 2 numbers :")
a = input()
b = input()
c = int(a)+int(b)
print("Sum :",c)
```

We can give the prompt directly while calling input() function.

```
x = int(input("First Num :"))
y = int(input("Second Num :"))
print("Sum : ",x+y)
```

float() :

- converts the input value into float type.
- Raise error if the input is not valid.

```
>>> float(2.3)
2.3
>>> float(5)
5.0
>>> float(True)
1.0
>>> float("3.4")
3.4
```

```
>>> float("abc")
ValueError: could not convert string to float: 'abc'
```

bool():

- Returns a boolean value depends on input value.
- boolean values are pre-defined (True , False)

```
>>> bool(True)
True
>>> bool(-13)
True
>>> bool(0.0013)
True
>>> bool(0)
False
>>> bool("abc")
True
>>> bool(" ")
True
>>> bool("")
False
>>> bool(False)
False
>>> bool("False")
True
```

str(): convert any input int string type.

```
>>> str(3)
'3'
>>> str(2.3)
'2.3'
>>> str(True)
'True'
```

bin(): Returns binary value for specified decimal value.

```
>>> bin(10)
'0b1010'
>>> bin(8)
'0b1000'
```

Character System:

- File is a collection of bytes.
- Every symbol occupies 1 byte memory in File.
- Every symbol stores into memory in binary format.
- Symbol converts into binary based on its ASCII value.
- Character system is the representation of all symbols of a language using constant integer values.
- Examples are ASCII and UNICODE.

ASCII : (Americans Standard Code for Information Interchange)

- Represents all symbols 1 language using constants
- The range is 0 - 255
- A language is at most having 256 symbols.
- 1 byte range is (0-255) - 2^8 value
- Hence we represent a symbol using 1 byte memory.

A-65	a-97	0-48	#-35				
B-66	b-98	1-49	\$-36				
..				
..				
Z-90	z-122	9-57	..				
<hr/>							
26	+	26	+	10	+	150	< 256 symbols
<hr/>							

chr(): Return the symbol for specified integer value.

ord(): Returns the integer for specified symbol.

```
>>> chr(65)
'A'
>>> chr(50)
'2'
>>> ord('a')
97
>>> ord('$')
36
>>> ord('1')
49
```

Programs On Arithmetic Operators

Adding 2 numbers:

```
num1 = float(input("Enter the first number: "))
num2 = float(input("Enter the second number: "))
sum = num1 + num2
print("The sum of", num1, "and", num2, "is", sum)
```

Arithmetic Operations:

```
num1 = float(input("Enter the first number: "))
num2 = float(input("Enter the second number: "))

sum = num1 + num2
difference = num1 - num2
product = num1 * num2
quotient = num1 / num2
remainder = num1 % num2
floordiv = num1 // num2

print("Sum:", sum)
print("Difference:", difference)
print("Product:", product)
print("Quotient:", quotient)
print("Remainder :", remainder)
print("Floor Division :", floordiv)
```

Program to display the last digit of given number:

```
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
last_digit = num % 10
print("The last digit of", num, "is", last_digit)
```

```
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
num = num//10
print("The number with the last digit removed is", num)
```

Program to remove last digit of given number:

Find Total and Average of 4 numbers:

```
mark1 = float(input("Enter the first mark: "))
mark2 = float(input("Enter the second mark: "))
mark3 = float(input("Enter the third mark: "))
mark4 = float(input("Enter the fourth mark: "))
average = (mark1 + mark2 + mark3 + mark4) / 4
print("The average of the four marks is", average)
```

Find sum of square and cube of given number:

```
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
square = num ** 2
cube = num ** 3
sum = square + cube
print("The sum of the square and cube of", num, "is", sum)
```

Calculate Total Salary for given basic Salary:

```
basic_salary = float(input("Enter the basic salary: "))

# Calculate the allowances and deductions
hra = 0.2 * basic_salary
da = 0.1 * basic_salary
pf = 0.05 * basic_salary

# Calculate the gross and net salary
gross_salary = basic_salary + hra + da
net_salary = gross_salary - pf

# Print the result
print("Basic salary:", basic_salary)
print("HRA:", hra)
print("DA:", da)
print("PF:", pf)
print("Gross salary:", gross_salary)
print("Net salary:", net_salary)
```

Swapping 2 numbers:

```
num1 = float(input("Enter the first number: "))
num2 = float(input("Enter the second number: "))

# Before swapping
print("Before swapping:")
print("num1 =", num1)
print("num2 =", num2)

# Swap the values
temp = num1
num1 = num2
num2 = temp

# After swapping
print("After swapping:")
print("num1 =", num1)
print("num2 =", num2)
```

Swapping 2 number without third variable:

```
# Take input from the user
num1 = float(input("Enter the first number: "))
num2 = float(input("Enter the second number: "))

# Swap the values without using a third variable
num1, num2 = num2, num1

# After swapping
print("After swapping:")
print("num1 =", num1)
print("num2 =", num2)
```

```
// Swap the values without using a third variable
num1 = num1 + num2;
num2 = num1 - num2;
num1 = num1 - num2;
```

Another Way:

Relational operators:

- Operators are `>`, `<`, `>=`, `<=`, `==`, `!=`
- These operators validate the relation among operands and return a boolean value.
- If relation is valid returns True else False

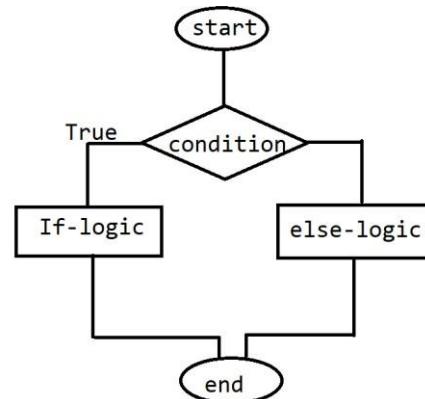
Program to understand Relational operators:

```
print("Relational operations")
print("5>3 :", 5>3)
print("5==3 :", 5==3)
print("5<3 :", 5<3)
print("5!=3 :", 5!=3)
print("5>=3 :", 5>=3)
print("5<=3 :", 5<=3)
```

If-else Conditional Statement:

Syntax :

```
if(condition) :
    .....
    if-logic
    .....
else:
    .....
    else-logic
    .....
```



Check the Number is Zero or Not

```
n = int(input("Enter number : "))
if(n==0):
    print("Number equals to zero")
else:
    print("Number is not zero")
```

Check the Number is Positive or Not

```
n = int(input("Enter number : "))
if(n>=0):
    print("Positive Number")
else:
    print("Negative Number")
```

Check the 2 numbers equal or not

```
n1 = int(input("Enter First num : "))
n2 = int(input("Enter Second num : "))
if(n1==n2):
    print("Equal numbers")
else:
    print("Not equal Numbers")
```

Check the first number greater than second number or not

```
n1 = int(input("Enter First num : "))
n2 = int(input("Enter Second num : "))
if(n1>n2):
    print("First Number is big")
else:
    print("Second Number is big")
```

Check the person eligible for vote or not

```
age = int(input("Enter age : "))
if(age>=18):
    print("Eligible for vote")
else:
    print("Not eligible for vote")
```

Check the number is divisible by 7 or not

```
num = int(input("Enter number : "))
if(num%7==0):
    print("Divisible by 7")
else:
    print("Not divisible by 7")
```

Check the number is even or not

```
num = int(input("Enter number : "))
if(num%2==0):
    print("Even Number")
else:
    print("Not Even")
```

Check the last digit of number is zero or not

```
num = int(input("Enter number : "))
if(num%10==0):
    print("Last digit is zero")
else:
    print("Last digit is not zero")
```

Check the sum of 2 numbers equal to 10 or not

```
n1 = int(input("Enter First number : "))
n2 = int(input("Enter Second number : "))
if(n1+n2==10):
    print("Equal to 10")
else:
    print("Not equal to 10")
```

Check last digits of given 2 numbers equal or not

```
n1 = int(input("Enter First number : "))
n2 = int(input("Enter Second number : "))
if(n1%10 == n2%10):
    print("Equal")
else:
    print("Not equal")
```

Check the average of 3 numbers greater than 60 or not

```
print("Enter 3 numbers :")
n1 = int(input())
n2 = int(input())
n3 = int(input())

if((n1+n2+n3)/3 > 60):
    print("avg Greater than 60")
else:
    print("Not")
```

Check the last digit of number is divisible by 3 or not

```
n = int(input("Enter num : "))
if((n%10)%3==0):
    print("Last digit divisible by 3")
else:
    print("Not divisible")
```

Logical operators: These operators returns True or False by validating more than one expression

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

And examples:	Or examples:	Not examples:
>>> True and True True	>>> False or False False	>>> not True False
>>> 5>3 and 3>2 True	>>> False or True True	>>> not False True
>>> True and False False	>>> True or False True	>>> not 5>3 False
>>> False and True False	>>> True or True True	>>> not 3!=3 True
>>> False and False False	>>> 3>5 or 5>2 True	
>>> 5>3 and 5!=5 False		

Check the Number Divisible by 3

N%3==0 (3, 6, 9, 12....)

Check the Number Divisible by 5

N%5==0 (5, 10, 15, 20....)

Check the Number Divisible by both 3 and 5

N%3==0 and N%5==0 (15, 30, 45, 60....)

Check the Number Divisible by either 3 or 5

N%3==0 and N%5==0 (3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 15...)

Program to check the Number Divisible by both 3 and 5:

```
n = int(input("enter number : "))
if n%3==0 and n%5==0:
    print("Divisible by 3 and 5")
else:
    print("Not divisible")
```

Check the person age between 20 and 50:

```
age = int(input("enter age :"))
if age>=20 and age<=50:
    print("Age between 20 and 50")
else:
    print("Not in between")
```

Check the Number is Single Digit or Not:

```
n = int(input("enter num :"))
if n>=0 and n<=9:
    print("Single Digit")
else:
    print("Not Sigle Digit")
```

Check the Number is Two Digit or Not:

```
n = int(input("enter num :"))
if n>=10 and n<=99:
    print("Two Digit")
else:
    print("Not Two Digit")
```

Check the Character is Upper case Alphabet or Not:

```
ch = input("enter character :")
if ch>='A' and ch<='Z':
    print("Upper case Alphabet")
else:
    print("Not")
```

Check the Character is Lower case Alphabet or Not:

```
ch = input("enter character :")
if ch>='a' and ch<='z':
    print("Lower case Alphabet")
else:
    print("Not")
```

Check the Character is Digit or Not:

```
ch = input("enter character :")
if ch>='0' and ch<='9':
    print("Digit")
else:
    print("Not")
```

Character is Vowel or Not:

```
ch = input("enter character : ")
if ch=='a' or ch=='e' or ch=='i' or ch=='o' or ch=='u':
    print("Vowel")
else:
    print("Not")
```

Check the Character is Alphabet or Not:

```
ch = input("enter character : ")
if((ch>='A' and ch<='Z') or (ch>='a' and ch<='z')):
    print("Alphabet")
else:
    print("Not")
```

Check the Student passed in all 3 subjects or not with minimum 35 marks:

```
subj1 = int(input("Enter subj1 score: "))
subj2 = int(input("Enter subj2 score: "))
subj3 = int(input("Enter subj3 score: "))
if subj1 >= 35 and subj2 >= 35 and subj3 >= 35:
    print("Pass")
else:
    print("Fail")
```

Check A greater than both B and C:

```
print("Enter 3 numbers : ")
x = int(input())
y = int(input())
z = int(input())
if(x>y and x>z):
    print("Yes")
else:
    print("No")
```

Check given 3 numbers equal or not:

```
print("Enter 3 numbers : ")
x = int(input())
y = int(input())
z = int(input())
if(x==y and y==z and z==x):
    print("Equal numbers")
else:
    print("Not equal numbers")
```

Check given 3 numbers unique (not equal):

```
print("Enter 3 numbers : ")
x = int(input())
y = int(input())
z = int(input())
if(x!=y and y!=z and z!=x):
    print("Unique numbers")
else:
    print("Not unique numbers")
```

Check any 2 numbers are equal among the given 3 numbers:

```
print("Enter 3 numbers : ")
x = int(input())
y = int(input())
z = int(input())
if(x==y or y==z or z==x):
    print("Any 2 equal")
else:
    print("Not equal numbers")
```

If-block: Execute a block of instructions only if the given condition is true

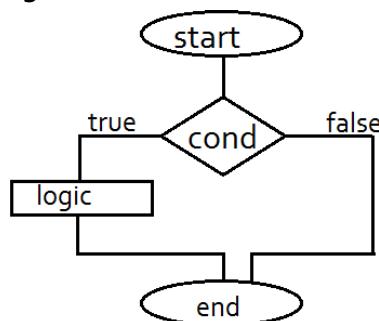
Syntax :

```
if (condition) :
```

.....

logic

.....

**Program to give 20% discount to customer if the bill amount is > 5000**

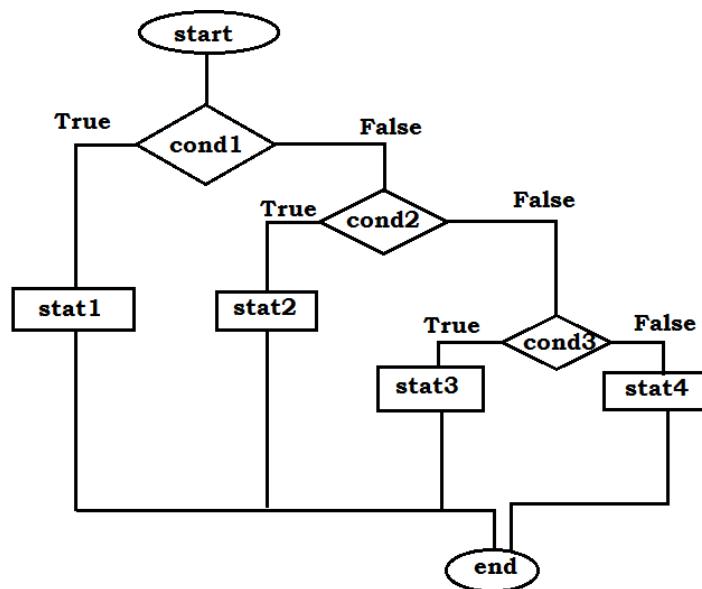
```
print("Enter bill amount :")
bill = float(input())
if(bill>5000):
    discount = 0.2*bill
    bill = bill-discount

print("Plz pay : ", bill)
```

if-elif-else: if-elif-else is a control flow structure in programming that allows a program to execute different blocks of code based on one or more conditions.

Syntax :

```
if(cond1) :  
    stat1  
  
elif(cond2) :  
    stat2  
  
elif(cond3) :  
    stat3  
  
else :  
    stat4
```



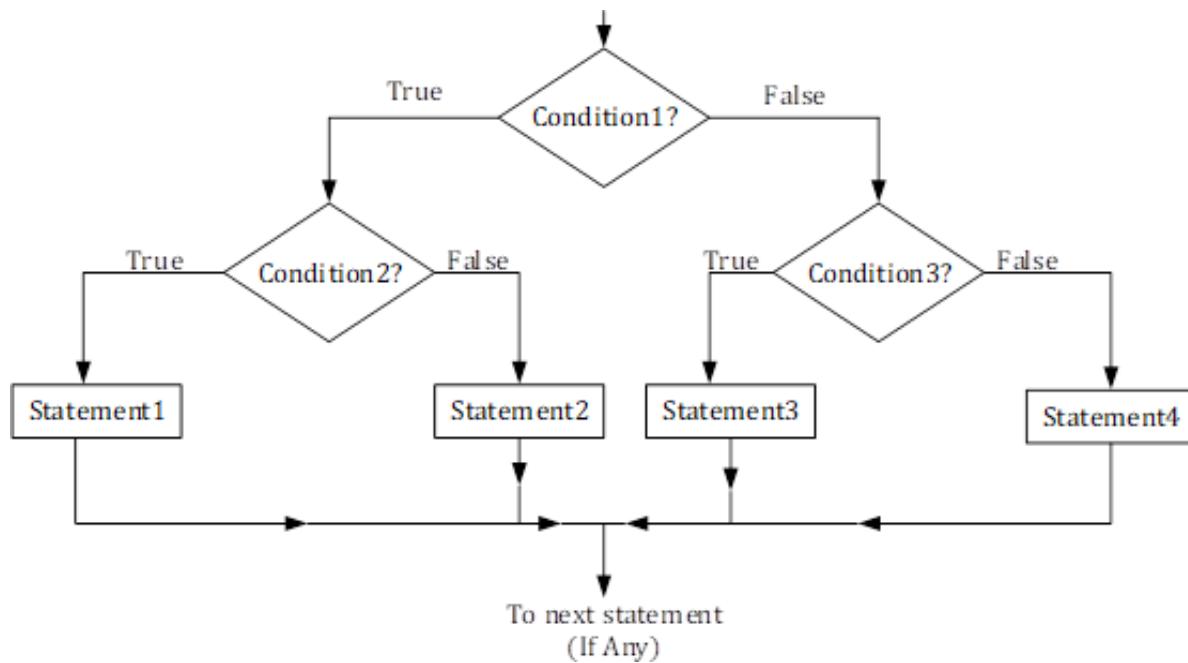
Check the Given number is Single Digit or Two Digit or Three Digit or Other

```
n = int(input("Enter number :"))  
if(n>=0 and n<=9):  
    print("Single digit")  
elif(n>=10 and n<=99):  
    print("Two digit")  
elif(n>=100 and n<=999):  
    print("Three digit")  
else:  
    print("Other digits number")
```

```
ch = input("Enter character :")  
if(ch>='A' and ch<='Z'):  
    print("Upper case alphabet")  
elif(ch>='a' and ch<='z'):  
    print("Lower case alphabet")  
elif(ch>='0' and ch<='9'):  
    print("Digit")  
else:  
    print("Symbol")
```

Check the given character is Upper case or Lower case or Digit or Symbol:

Nested-If: Writing if block inside another if block



Check the number is even or not only if the Number is positive

```
n = int(input("Enter number :"))
if n>=0:
    if n%2==0:
        print("Even number")
    else:
        print("Not even number")
else:
    print("Negative")
```

```
print("Enter 2 integers :")
a = int(input())
b = int(input())
if(a!=b):
    if(a>b):
        print("a is big")
    else:
        print("b is big")
else:
    print("equal numbers given")
```

Check the biggest of 2 numbers only if the 2 numbers are not equal:

Display Student Grade only if the Student passed in all subjects:

```
print("Enter 3 subject marks :")
m1 = int(input())
m2 = int(input())
m3 = int(input())

if(m1>=40 and m2>=40 and m3>=40):
    avg = (m1+m2+m3)/3
    if(avg>=75):
        print("Distinction")
    elif(avg>=60):
        print("A-Grade")
    elif(avg>=50):
        print("B-Grade")
    else:
        print("C-Graade")
else:
    print("Fail")
```

Bitwise operators:

- Bitwise operators act on operands as if they were string of binary digits. It operates bit by bit, hence the name.
- For example, 2 is 10 in binary and 7 is 111.
- In the table below: Let $x = 10$ (0000 1010 in binary) and $y = 4$ (0000 0100 in binary)

Operator	Meaning	Example
&	Bitwise AND	$x \& y = 0$ (0000 0000)
	Bitwise OR	$x y = 14$ (0000 1110)
~	Bitwise NOT	$\sim x = -11$ (1111 0101)
^	Bitwise XOR	$x ^ y = 14$ (0000 1110)
>>	Bitwise right shift	$x >> 2 = 2$ (0000 0010)
<<	Bitwise left shift	$x << 2 = 40$ (0010 1000)

Bitwise truth table:

x	y	$x \& y$	$x y$	$x ^ y$
0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0

```

>>> x=15
>>> y=8
>>> x&y
8
>>> x|y
15
>>> x^y

```

$\begin{array}{r} 2 \mid 15 \\ 2 \mid 7 - 1 \\ 2 \mid 3 - 1 \\ 2 \mid 1 - 1 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 2 \mid 8 \\ 2 \mid 4 - 0 \\ 2 \mid 2 - 0 \\ 2 \mid 1 - 0 \end{array}$	$x \wedge y:$ $\begin{array}{r} 15 = 1111 \\ 8 = 1000 \\ \hline ^ = 0111 \rightarrow 7 \end{array}$
$x \& y:$ $\begin{array}{r} 15 = 1111 \\ 8 = 1000 \\ \hline \& = 1000 \end{array}$	$x y:$ $\begin{array}{r} 15 = 1111 \\ 8 = 1000 \\ \hline = 1111 \end{array}$	$2^3 * 0 + 2^2 * 1 + 2^1 * 1 + 2^0 * 1 = 7$

Shift operators:

- These are used to move the bits in the memory either to right side or to left side.
- Moving binary bits in the memory change the value of variable.
- These operators return the result in decimal format only.
- Operators are Right shift (>>) and Left shift (<<)

```

>>> x=8
>>> x>>2
2
>>> x<<2
32

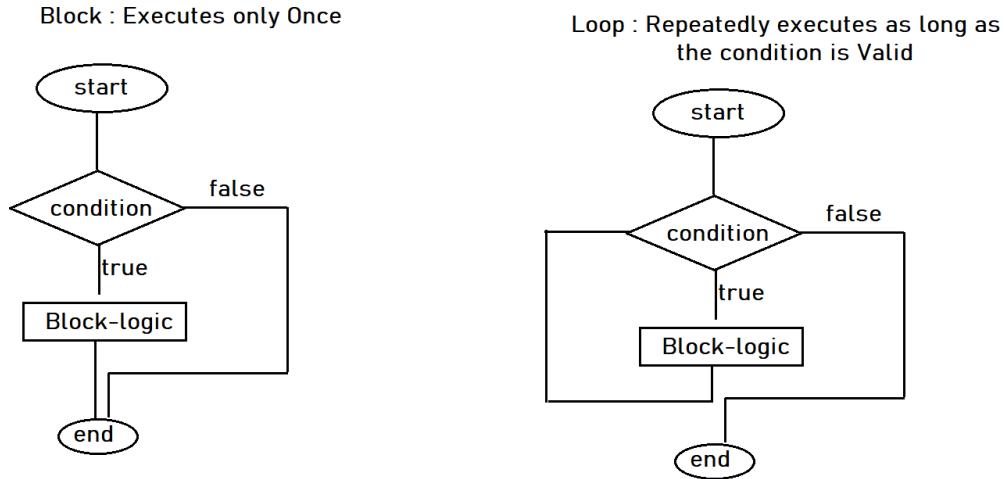
```

Right shift: $n/2^s \rightarrow 8/2^2 \rightarrow 8/4 \rightarrow 2$

Left shift : $n*2^s \rightarrow 8*2^2 \rightarrow 8*4 \rightarrow 32$

Introduction to Loops

Loop: A Block of instructions execute repeatedly as long the condition is valid.



Note: Block executes only once whereas Loop executes until condition become False

Python Supports 3 types of Loops:

1. For Loop
2. While Loop
3. While - else Loop

For Loop: We use for loop only when we know the number of repetitions. For example,

- Print 1 to 10 numbers
- Print String elements
- Print Multiplication table
- Print String character by character in reverse order

While loop: We use while loop when we don't know the number of repetitions.

- Display contents of File
- Display records of Database table

While – else : while-else loop is a type of loop that combines a while loop with an else statement that is executed after the loop has completed. The else block is executed only if the while loop completed normally

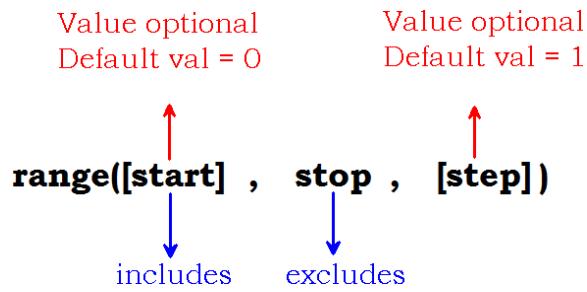
For Loop

for loop:

- "for" is a keyword.
- for loop executes a block repeatedly as long as the condition is valid.
- for loop uses range() function for loop repetition.

range():

- The range() function in Python generates a sequence of numbers within a given range.
- It takes up to three arguments: start (optional), stop (required), and step (optional).
- The sequence generated by the range() function is commonly used in for loops.



Print the numbers from 0 to 9:

```
for i in range(10):  
    print(i)
```

Print the numbers from 3 to 8:

```
for i in range(3,9):  
    print(i)
```

Print the numbers from 10 to 1:

```
for i in range(10, 0, -1):  
    print(i)
```

Print every third number from 0 to 20:

```
for i in range(0, 21, 3):  
    print(i)
```

Print the even numbers from 0 to 10:

```
for i in range(0, 11, 2):  
    print(i)
```

Print the odd numbers from 1 to 9:

```
for i in range(1, 10, 2):  
    print(i)
```

Print the even numbers from 10 to 0:

```
for i in range(10, -1, -2):
    print(i)
```

Display values side by side:

```
for i in range(1,6):
    # print(i)
    # print(i, end=' ') -> print values with spaces
    # print(i, end='\t') -> print values with tab spaces
    print(i, end="\n") # print values in new lines
```

Sum of First N numbers:

```
n = int(input("Enter a positive integer: "))
sum = 0
for i in range(1, n+1):
    sum += i
print("The sum of the first", n, "natural numbers is:", sum)
```

Find factorial for given number:

```
n = int(input("Enter a positive integer: "))
factorial = 1
for i in range(1, n+1):
    factorial *= i
print("The factorial of", n, "is:", factorial)
```

Multiplication table program:

```
n = int(input("Enter a positive integer: "))
for i in range(1, 11):
    product = i * n
    print(n, "x", i, "=", product)
```

Print even numbers from 1 to 10:

```
n = int(input("Enter a positive integer: "))
print("Even numbers from 1 to", n, "are:")
for i in range(1, n+1):
    if i % 2 == 0:
        print(i)
```

Print factors for given number:

```
n = int(input("Enter a positive integer: "))
print("Factors of", n, "are:")
for i in range(1, n+1):
    if n % i == 0:
        print(i)
```

Prime number program:

```
n = int(input("Enter a positive integer: "))
is_prime = True
for i in range(2, n):
    if n % i == 0:
        is_prime = False
        break
if is_prime:
    print(n, "is a prime number")
else:
    print(n, "is not a prime number")
```

Perfect number program:

```
n = int(input("Enter a positive integer: "))
sum = 0
for i in range(1, n//2 + 1):
    if n % i == 0:
        sum += i

if sum == n:
    print(n, "is a perfect number")
else:
    print(n, "is not a perfect number")
```

Fibonacci Series program:

```
n = int(input("Enter the number of terms: "))
a, b = 0, 1
for i in range(1, n+1):
    print(a)
    c = a + b
    a, b = b, c
```

Multiplication tables in the given range:

```
for n in range(5, 11):
```

```
    for i in range(1,11):
```

```
        print(n,'*',i,'=',n*i)
```

Factorials in the Given range:

```
for n in range(1,8):
```

```
    fact=1
```

```
    for i in range(1,n+1):
```

```
        fact=fact*i
```

```
    print("factorial of",n,"is",fact)
```

Prime numbers in given range:

```
for n in range(1,51):
```

```
    factors=0
```

```
    for i in range(1,n+1):
```

```
        if(n%i==0):
```

```
            factors=factors+1
```

```
    if(factors==2):
```

```
        print(n,"is prime")
```

Perfect numbers in given range:

```
for n in range(1,10000):
```

```
    sum=0
```

```
    for i in range(1,n):
```

```
        if(n%i==0):
```

```
            sum=sum+i
```

```
    if(n==sum):
```

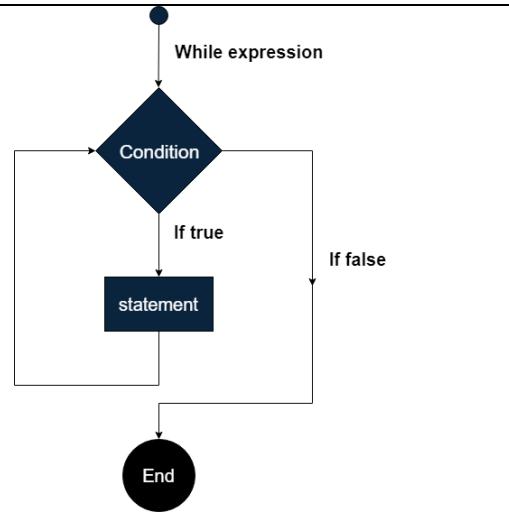
```
        print(n,"is perfect")
```

while loop:

- We use while loop when we dont know the number of iterations.
- **Examples:** Reading a File, Display records in database.

Syntax:

```
while(condition):  
    statements;
```



Check the even numbers until user quits:

```
while(True):  
    n = int(input("enter num : "))  
    if(n%2==0):  
        print(n,"is even")  
    else:  
        print(n,"is odd")  
  
    print("Do you check another num(y/n) :")  
    ch = input()  
    if(ch=='n'):  
        break
```

Display Multiplication tables until user quits:

```
while(True):  
    n = int(input("Enter table num : "))  
    for i in range(1,11):  
        print(n,'*',i,'=',n*i)  
  
    print("Do you print another table(y/n) :")  
    ch = input()  
    if(ch=='n'):  
        break
```

Menu Driven Program to perform all arithmetic operations:

```
while(True):
    print("1. Add")
    print("2. Subtract")
    print("3. Multiply")
    print("4. Divide")
    print("5. Quit")

    ch = int(input("enter choice :"))
    if(ch==1):
        print("Enter 2 numbers:")
        a=int(input())
        b=int(input())
        print("Res : ", a+b)
    elif(ch==2):
        print("Enter 2 numbers:")
        a=int(input())
        b=int(input())
        print("Res : ", a-b)
    elif(ch==3):
        print("Enter 2 numbers:")
        a=int(input())
        b=int(input())
        print("Res : ", a*b)
    elif(ch==4):
        print("Enter 2 numbers:")
        a=int(input())
        b=int(input())
        print("Res : ", a/b)
    elif(ch==5):
        break
    else:
        print("Invalid choice")
```

Count digits in the given number:

```
n = int(input("enter num : "))
count=0
while(n!=0):
    n=n//10
    count=count+1
print("Digits count : ", count)
```

Sum of digits in the given number:

```
n = int(input("Enter a number: "))
sum = 0
while n > 0:
    digit = n % 10
    sum += digit
    n //=
print("The sum of digits is:", sum)
```

Display only Even digits:

```
n = int(input("Enter a number: "))
while n > 0:
    digit = n % 10
    if digit % 2 == 0:
        print(digit)
    n //=

```

Sum of Even digits:

```
n = int(input("Enter a number: "))
sum = 0
while n > 0:
    digit = n % 10
    if digit % 2 == 0:
        sum += digit
    n //=
print("The sum of even digits is:", sum)
```

Largest digit in the given number:

```
n = int(input("Enter a number: "))
max_digit = 0
while n > 0:
    digit = n % 10
    if digit > max_digit:
        max_digit = digit
    n //= 10

print("The largest digit is:", max_digit)
```

Display First digit in the given number:

```
n = int(input("Enter a number: "))
while n >= 10:
    n //= 10

print("The first digit is:", n)
```

Sum of First and Last Digits in the given number:

```
n = int(input("Enter a number: "))
last_digit = n % 10
first_digit = n
while first_digit >= 10:
    first_digit //= 10

sum = first_digit + last_digit
print("The sum of the first and last digits is:", sum)
```

Reverse number program:

```
n = int(input("Enter a number: "))
reverse = 0

while n != 0:
    digit = n % 10
    reverse = (reverse * 10) + digit
    n //= 10

print("The reversed number is:", reverse)
```

Strong number program:

```
n = int(input("Enter a number: "))

temp = n
sum = 0

while temp != 0:
    digit = temp % 10
    fact = 1
    for i in range(1, digit + 1):
        fact *= i
    sum += fact
    temp //= 10

if sum == n:
    print(n, "is a strong number")
else:
    print(n, "is not a strong number")
```

ArmStrong Number program:

```
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))

sum = 0
temp = num

# find the number of digits
n = len(str(num))

# calculate sum of cubes of each digit
while temp > 0:
    digit = temp % 10
    sum += digit ** n
    temp //= 10

# display the result
if num == sum:
    print(num, "is an Armstrong number")
else:
    print(num, "is not an Armstrong number")
```

Break and Continue

break:

- It is a keyword
- It is called branching statement
- It is used to terminate the flow of a loop(for or while)

```
while True:  
    print("Hi")  
    print("Hello")  
    break
```

Break loop on condition:

```
for i in range(10):  
    if i==5:  
        break  
    print("i val :",i)
```

continue:

- It is a keyword.
- It is used to skip the current iteration in loop execution.

```
for i in range(1,11):  
    if i==5:  
        continue  
    print("i val :",i)
```

```
for i in range(1,11):  
    if i==3 or i==6:  
        continue  
    print("i val :",i)
```

Patterns Programming

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(1,6): for j in range(1,6): print("*", end=" ") print()</pre>	<pre>***** ***** ***** ***** *****</pre>

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(1,6): for j in range(1,6): print(i, end=" ") print()</pre>	<pre>1 1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5</pre>

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(1,6): for j in range(1,6): print(j, end=" ") print()</pre>	<pre>1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 5</pre>

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(1,6,1): for j in range(1,i+1,1): print(j, end=' ') print()</pre>	<pre>1 1 2 1 2 3 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4 5</pre>

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(5,0,-1): for j in range(1,i+1,1): print(j, end=' ') print()</pre>	<pre>1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 1 2 1</pre>

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(5,0,-1): for j in range(5,i-1,-1): print(j, end=' ') print()</pre>	<pre>5 5 4 5 4 3 5 4 3 2 5 4 3 2 1</pre>

Code:	Pattern:
for i in range(1,6,1):	5 4 3 2 1
for j in range(5,i-1,-1):	5 4 3 2
print(j, end=' ')	5 4 3
print()	5 4
	5

Code:	Pattern:
for i in range(1,6,1):	1
for j in range(i,0,-1):	2 1
print(j, end=' ')	3 2 1
print()	4 3 2 1
	5 4 3 2 1

Code:	Pattern:
for i in range(5,0,-1):	5 4 3 2 1
for j in range(i,0,-1):	4 3 2 1
print(j, end=' ')	3 2 1
print()	2 1
	1

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(1,10): for j in range(1,10): if(i==5 or j==5): print("+", end=" ") else: print(" ", end=" ") print()</pre>	+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(1,10): for j in range(1,10): if(i==j or j==10-i): print("+", end=" ") else: print(" ", end=" ") print()</pre>	<pre>+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +</pre>

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(1,10): for j in range(1,10): if(i==1 or i==9 or i==j or j==10-i): print("+", end=" ") else: print(" ", end=" ") print()</pre>	<pre>+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +</pre>

Code:	Pattern:
<pre>for i in range(1,10): for j in range(1,10): if((i==1 and j<=5) or j==5 or (i==9 and j>=5) or (j==9 and i<=5) or i==5 or (j==1 and i>=5)): print("+", end=" ") else: print(" ", end=" ") print()</pre>	<pre>+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +</pre>

Functions in Python

Functions:

- A block of instructions that performs a task.
- Function takes input, process the input and returns the output.
- "def" is a keyword used to define functions in python programming.

Syntax:

```
def identity(arguments) :  
    .....  
    Logic  
    .....
```

Ex:

```
def add(a, b):  
    c=a+b  
    return c
```

Every function consists:

1. Function definition: Function definition is a block which contains the logic.
2. Function call : It is a single statement used to access the function definition.

Definition:

```
def add(a, b):  
    c=a+b  
    return c
```

Call:

```
res = add(10,20)
```

Basic functional programming:

- Function execute only when we call that function.
- Calling is a single statement used to access the function logic

```
def fun():  
    print("Hello...")  
    return  
  
fun() # calling
```

Note : We cannot call a function before it has defined.

```
fun() # error:  
def fun():  
    print("Hello...")  
    return
```

The main advantage of functions is code re-usability. We can call the function many times once we defined.

```
def test():  
    print("logic..")  
    return  
  
test()  
test()  
test()
```

One source file(.py file) can have more than one function definition. Functions get executed in the order we invoke.

```
def m1():  
    print("m1 .... ")  
    return  
  
def m2():  
    print("m2 .... ")  
    return  
  
m2()  
m1()
```

We can access one function from another function.

```
def m1():  
    print("control in m1...")  
    return  
  
def m2():  
    print("control in m2...")  
    m1() #calling  
    print("control back to m2 from m1...")  
    return  
  
print("Program starts...")  
m2() #calling  
print("Program ends...")
```

Classification of functions: The way of passing input and returning output, functions classified into

1. No arguments and No return values
2. With arguments and No return values
3. With arguments and With return values
4. No arguments and With return value
5. Recursion

No arguments and No return values:

- Defining a function without arguments. No need to pass input values while calling the function. 'return' statement is optional.

```
def sayHi():
    print("Hi to all...")
    return

sayHi()
sayHi()
sayHi()
```

With arguments and No return values:

- Defining a function with arguments(variables)
- Function takes input and it can be any type.
- We need to pass parameter values while calling the function.

```
def printMessage(msg):
    print("Message is :",msg)
    return

printMessage("Live Tution")
printMessage("Python")
printMessage("Tutorials")
```

With arguments and with return values:

- Defining a function with arguments and return values
- The value returned by function need to collect into variable.
- Function returned value back to the calling function.

```
def add(a,b):
    c=a+b
    return c

print("sum :",add(3,5))
print("sum :",add(5,8))
```

No arguments and with return values:

- Defining a function with no arguments
- Function returns a value from its definition.

```
def getPI():
    PI = 3.142
    return PI

print("PI value :",getPI())
```

Recursion:

- Function calling itself is called recursion.
- Calling the function from the definition of same function.
- Function executes from the allocated memory called STACK.
- While executing the program, if the stack memory is full, the program execution terminates abnormally.

```
def tutorials():
    print("Keep reading...")
    tutorials()
    return

tutorials()
```

Factorial of given number using recursion:

```
def fact(n):
    res=0
    if(n==0):
        res=1
    else:
        res=n*fact(n-1)
    return res

n = int(input("Enter n val :"))
print("Factorial val :", fact(n))
```

Argument type functions: Depends on the way of passing input and taking input, functions in python classified into

1. Default arguments function
2. Required arguments function
3. Keyword arguments function
4. Variable arguments function

Default arguments function:

- Defining a function by assigning values to arguments.
- Passing values to these arguments is optional while calling the function.
- We can replace the values of default arguments if required.

```
def default(a,b=20):  
    print("a val :",a)  
    print("b val :",b)  
    return  
  
default(10)  
default(50,100)  
default(10,"abc")
```

- Argument assigned with value is called default argument
- A Non default argument cannot follows default argument

```
def default(a=10,b):  
    print("a val :",a)  
    print("b val :",b)  
    return
```

Required arguments function:

- Function definition without default arguments.
- We need to pass input value to all positional arguments of function.

```
def required(a,b):  
    print("a val :",a)  
    print("b val :",b)  
    return  
  
#required(10) -> Error:  
required(10,20)  
required(10,"abc")
```

Keyword arguments function:

- Calling the function by passing values using keys.
- We use arguments names as keys.

```
def keyword(name, age):
    print("Name is :",name)
    print("Age is :",age)
    return

keyword("Annie",21)
keyword(23,"Amar")
```

We can change the order of arguments while passing values using keys.

```
def keyword(name, age):
    print("Name is :",name)
    print("Age is :",age)
    return

keyword(age=23,name="Amar")
```

Keyword functions are useful mostly in default arguments function.

```
def default(a=10,b=20,c=30):
    print("a :",a)
    print("b :",b)
    print("c :",c)
    return

default()
# I want to change value of b=50
default(10,50,30)
# It is easy to use keyword arguments
default(b=50)
```

Variable arguments function:

- Passing different length of values while calling the function.
- We can collect these arguments into pointer type argument variable.

```
def variable(*arr):
    print("Length is :",len(arr))
    print("Elements :",arr)
    return

variable()
```

We can pass different types of data elements also

```
def variable(*arr):
    print("Elements :",arr)
    return

variable(10,20,30,40,50)
variable(10,2.3, "abc")
```

We can process the elements easily using for loop

```
def variable(*arr):
    print("Elements :")
    for ele in arr:
        print(ele)
    return

variable(10,20,30,40,50)
```

Local and Global Variables:

Local variables:

- Defining a variable inside the function.
- Local variables can be accessed only from the same function in which it has defined.
- We access the local variable directly.

```
def test():
    a=10 #local
    print("Inside :",a)
    return

test()
print("Outside :",a) #error :
```

Arguments(parameters):

- Variables used to store input of the function.
- Arguments are working like local variables.
- Arguments can access within that function only.

```
def test(a, b): #a,b are local
    print("Inside :",a)
    print("Inside :",b)
    return

test(10,20)
print("Outside :",a) #error
```

Global variables:

- Defining a variable outside to all the functions.
- We can access the variable directly.
- It is available throughout the application.

```
a=10 #global  
def m1():  
    print("Inside m1 :",a)  
    return  
  
def m2():  
    print("Inside m2 :",a)  
    return  
  
m1()  
m2()  
print("Outside :",a)
```

- We can define local & global variables with the same name.
- We access both the variables directly using its identity.
- When we access a variable inside the function, it gives the first priority to local variable.
- If local is not present, then it is looking for Global variable.

```
a=10 #global  
def m1():  
    a=20 #local  
    print("Inside m1 :",a)  
    return  
  
def m2():  
    print("Inside m2 :",a)  
    return  
  
m1()  
m2()  
print("Outside :",a)
```

global:

- It is a keyword.
- It is used to define, access, modify & delete global variables from the function.
- global statement must be placed inside the function before the use of that variable.

Note: We can access global variable inside the function. We cannot modify the global variable from function directly.

```
a=10

def test():
    print("a val :",a)
    a=a+20 #error :
    print("a val :",a)
    return

test()
```

We can use global keyword to modify the global variable from the function:

```
a=10

def test():
    global a
    print("a val :",a)

    a=a+20
    print("a val :",a)

    a=a+30
    return

test()
print("a val :",a)
```

We can define global variables from the function using "global" :

```
def test():
    global a
    a=10
    print("Inside :",a)
    return

test()
print("Outside :",a)
```

Introduction to OOPS

Application:

- Programming Languages and Technologies are used to develop applications.
- Application is a collection of Programs.
- We need to design and understand a single program before developing an application.

Program Elements: Program is a set of instructions. Every Program consists,

1. Identity
2. Variables
3. Methods

1. Identity:

- Identity of a program is unique.
- Programs, Classes, Variables and Methods having identities
- Identities are used to access these members.

2. Variable:

- Variable is an identity given to memory location.
or
- Named Memory Location
- Variables are used to store information of program(class/object)

Syntax	Examples
identity = value;	name = "amar"; age = 23; salary = 35000.00; is_married = False;

3. Method:

- Method is a block of instructions with an identity
- Method performs operations on data(variables)
- Method takes input data, perform operations on data and returns results.

Syntax	Example
identity(arguments): body	add(int a, int b): c = a+b return c

Object Oriented Programming:

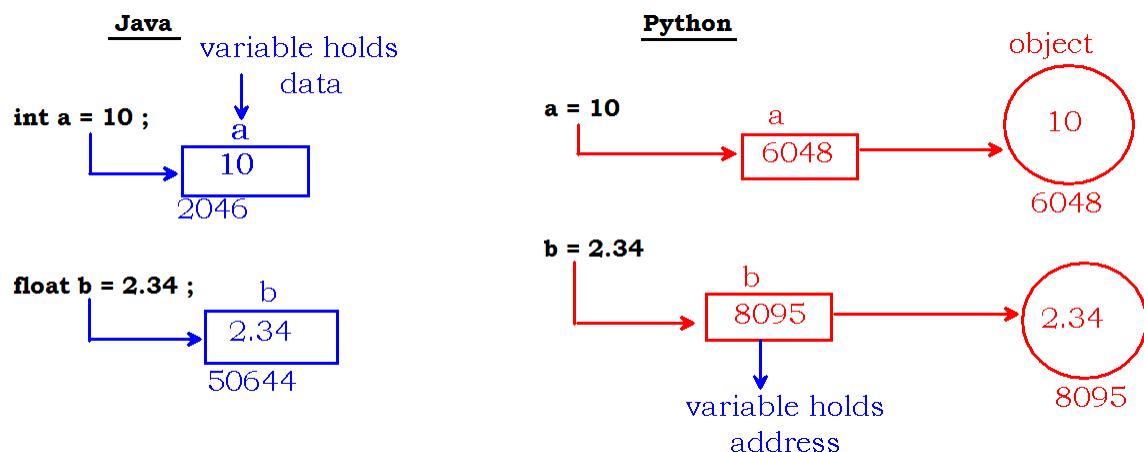
- Python is Object Oriented.
- Python is Fully Object Oriented because it doesn't support primitive data types.
- Languages which are supporting primitive types are called, Partial Object oriented programming languages.
- for example C++, Java, .Net...

Note: Primitive types such as int, float, char occupies fixed memory size and stores specific type of data.

Python is Dynamic:

- Python is dynamic
- Python variable stores address instead of data directly.
- Python stores information in the form of Objects.
- Depends on the data, the size of memory grows and shrinks dynamically.
- A python variable accepts any type of data assignment.

Note: In python, if we modify the value of variable, it changes the location.



id(): A pre-defined function that returns memory address of specified variable.

```
a=10
print("Val :",a)
print("Addr :",id(a))

a=a+5
print("Val :",a)
print("Addr :",id(a))
```

Object Oriented Programming features are:

1. Encapsulation
2. Inheritance
3. Polymorphism
4. Abstraction

Note: We implement Object-Oriented functionality using Classes and Objects

Class: Class contains variables and methods. Java application is a collection of classes

Syntax	Example
class ClassName: Variables ; & Methods ;	class Account: num; balance; withdraw(): logic; deposit(): logic;

Object: Object is an instance of class. Instance (non static) variables of class get memory inside the Object.

Syntax: refVariableName = ClassName();

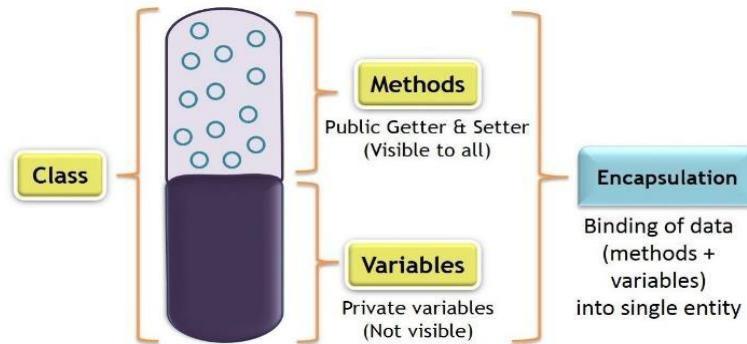
Example: acc = Account();

Note: Class is a Model from which we can define multiple objects of same type



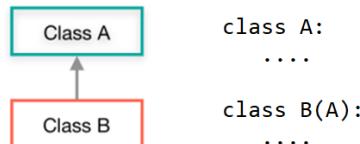
Encapsulation:

- The concept of protecting the data within the class itself.
- **Implementation rules:**
 - Class is Public (to make visible to other classes).
 - Variables are Private (other objects cannot access the data directly).
 - Methods are public (to send and receive the data).



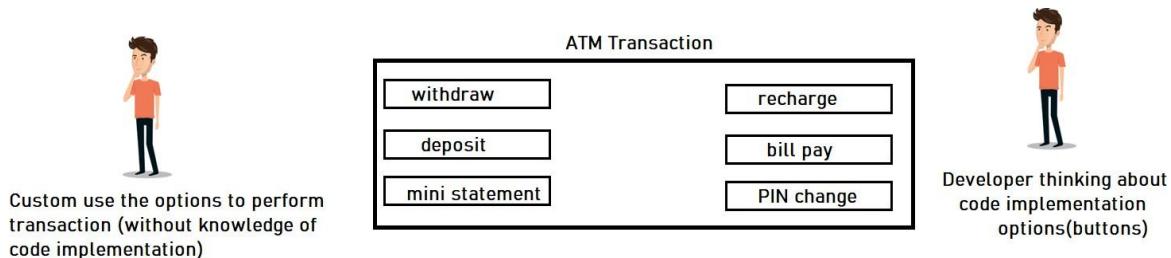
Inheritance:

- Defining a new class by re-using the members of other class.
 - We can implement inheritance using “extends” keyword.
 - **Terminology:**
 - **Parent/Super class:** The class from which members are re-used.
 - **Child/Sub class:** The class which is using the members



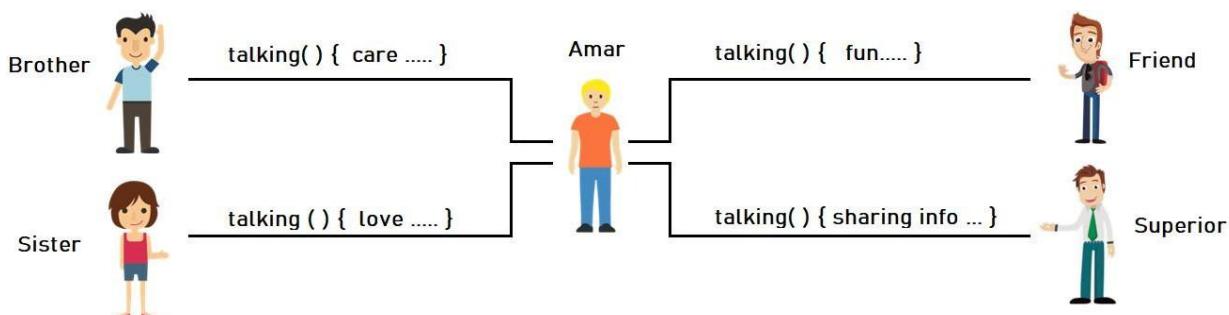
Abstraction:

- Abstraction is a concept of hiding implementations and shows functionality.
 - Abstraction describes "What an object can do instead how it does it?".



Polymorphism:

- Polymorphism is the concept where object behaves differently in different situations.



Class Members or Static members:

- Defining variable or method inside the class.
- We can access these members using class name.

Note: Generally, we access the variables and functions directly after definition.

```
a=10  
def test():  
    print("test")  
    return  
print("a val :",a)  
test()
```

- In Object Oriented application, variables and methods must be defined inside the class.
- "class" is a keyword.
- Defining variable and method inside the class called "static members"
- We need to access static members using identity of class.

```
class Test:  
    a=10 # static  
    def fun():  
        print("static fun")  
        return  
    print("a val :",Test.a)  
    Test.fun()
```

Connect classes:

- One python file allowed to define any number of classes
- We can access the members of these classes using "class names"

```
class First:  
    def fun():  
        print("First class fun")  
        return  
class Second:  
    def fun():  
        print("Second class fun")  
        return  
class Access:  
    def main():  
        print("starts @ main")  
        First.fun()  
        Second.fun()  
        return  
  
Access.main()
```

Local and Static variables:

- Defining a variable inside method is called local variable
- We access local variables directly but only from the same block in which it has defined.
- Defining a variable inside the class and outside to all methods is called static variable.
- We can access static variable using class name.

```
class Access:  
    a=10 #static  
    def main():  
        a=20 #local  
        print("local a :", a)  
        print("static a :", Access.a)  
        return  
  
Access.main()
```

Global variables:

- Defining variables outside to all classes.
- We access global variables directly.
- When we access variable inside the method, it is looking for local variable first. If the local variable is not present, it accesses the global variable.

```
a=10 #Global  
class Access:  
    a=20 #Static  
    def m1():  
        a=30 #Local  
        print("Inside m1")  
        print(a)  
        print(Access.a)  
        return  
  
    def m2():  
        print("Inside m2")  
        print(a)  
        print(Access.a)  
        return  
  
    def main():  
        Access.m1()  
        Access.m2()  
        return  
Access.main()
```

Dynamic members

Dynamic Members:

- The specific functionality of Object must be defined as dynamic.
- We access dynamic members using object.
- We can create object for a class from static context.

Dynamic method:

- Defining a method inside the class by writing "self" variable as first argument.
- "self" is not a keyword.
- "self" is a recommended variable to define Dynamic methods.
- Definition of dynamic method as follows.

```
class Test:  
    def m1():  
        # static method  
        return  
  
    def m2(self):  
        # dynamic method  
        return  
  
    def __init__(self):  
        # constructor  
        return
```

self:

- It is used to define dynamic methods and constructor.
- It is not a keyword but it is the **most recommended** variable to define dynamic functionality.
- It is an argument(local variable of that function)
- We can access "self" only from the same function or constructor.
- "self" variable holds object address.

Constructor:

- A special method with pre-defined identity(__init__).
- It is a dynamic method(first argument is self)
- It invokes automatically in the process of Object creation.

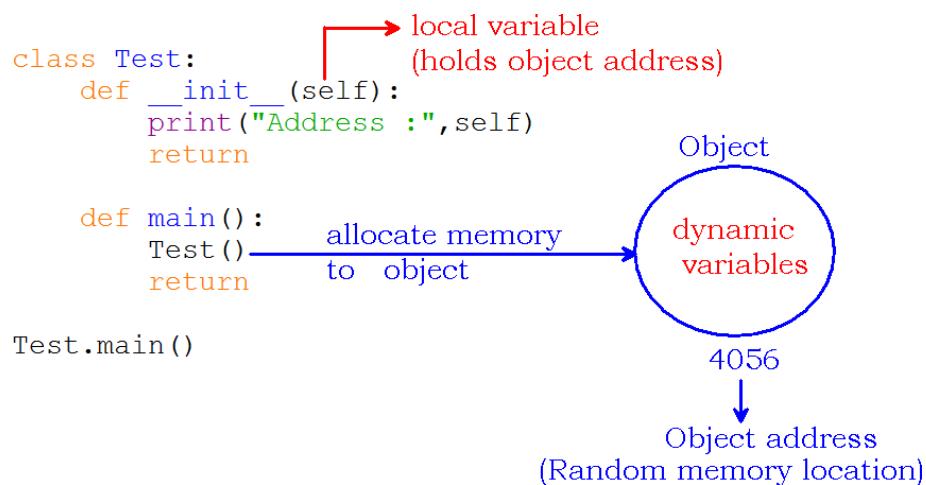
Creating object in main():

- Application execution starts from static context(main).
- We can access non static members using object address.
- We create object(take permission) in static context(main)

```
class Test:  
    def __init__(self):  
        print("Constructor")  
        return  
  
    def main():  
        Test() #access constructor  
        return  
  
Test.main()
```

Constructor executes every time when we create the object.

```
class Test:  
    def __init__(self):  
        print("Constructor")  
        return  
  
    def main():  
        for i in range(10):  
            Test()  
        return  
  
Test.main()
```



```

class Test:
    def __init__(self):
        print("Address :",self)
        return

    def main():
        Test()
        return

Test.main()

```

id(): A pre-defined method that returns integer value of specified Object.

type(): Returns the class name of specified object.

```

class Test:
    def __init__(self):
        print("Address :",id(self))
        print("Name :",type(self))
        return

    def main():
        Test()
        return

Test.main()

```

We cannot access 'self' in main() method to work with object.

```

class Test:
    def __init__(self):
        print("In Constructor :",id(self))
        return

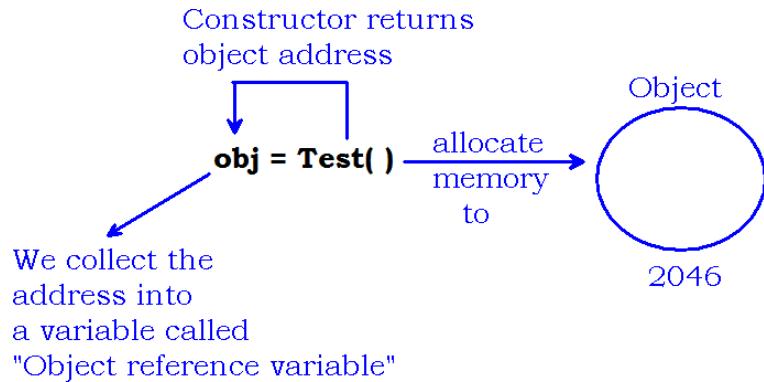
    def main():
        Test()
        print("In main :", id(self))
        return

Test.main()

```

Object reference variable:

- Constructor returns address of Object after creation.
- We can collect the address assigning to any variable.
- The variable stores object address is called "Object reference variable"



We can display object address in main using "object reference variable".

```
class Test:
    def __init__(self):
        print("In Constructor:", id(self))
        return

    def main():
        addr = Test()
        print("In main :", id(addr))
        return

Test.main()
```

Access static and dynamic methods from main:

```
class Test:
    def m1():
        # static method
        return

    def m2(self):
        # dynamic method
        return
```

Default constructor:

- In object creation process, constructor executes implicitly.
- When we don't define any constructor, a default constructor will be added to the source code.
- Default constructor has empty definition – no logic.

```
class Test:

    def main():
        x = Test()
        y = Test()
        print("Address of x : ", id(x))
        print("Address of y : ", id(y))
        return

Test.main()
```

We can define the default constructor explicitly to understand the object creation process.

```
class Test:

    def __init__(self):
        print("Object Created :", id(self))
        return

    def main():
        x = Test()
        y = Test()
        print("Address of x : ", id(x))
        print("Address of y : ", id(y))
        return

Test.main()
```

Accessing static and dynamic methods:

```
class Test:

    def main():
        obj = Test()
        Test.m1()
        obj.m2()
        return

    def m1():
        print("Static method")
        return

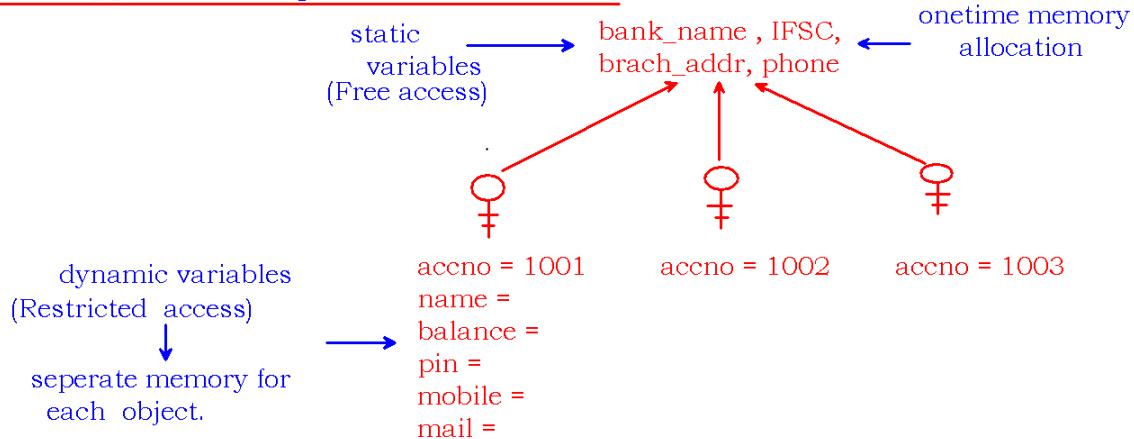
    def m2(self):
        print("Dynamic method")
        return

Test.main()
```

Dynamic variables:

Static Variables	Dynamic Variables
Static variables store common information of Object.	We create dynamic variables inside the object using 'self' variable.
Static variables get memory only once.	Variables creation must be from constructor.
We can access static variables using class Name	We can access the variables through object address.

Bank App : Processing account holders data



Constructor is used to define dynamic variables:

- Constructor is a special method
- Execute every time automatically in object creation process.
- Constructors used to create dynamic variables.
- As soon as object memory is ready, constructor allocates memory to dynamic variables inside the object.

Access instance variables:

```
class Test :
    def __init__(self):
        self.x = 10
        self.y = 20
    return

    def main():
        obj = Test()
        print("x val :", obj.x)
        print("y val :", obj.y)
    return

Test.main()
```

```

class Test :
    def __init__(self):
        self.x = 10
        self.y = 20
    return

    def main():
        obj = Test()
        print("x val :", obj.x)
        print("y val :", obj.y)
    return

Test.main()

```

The diagram illustrates the state of memory after the object is created. A blue arrow points from the variable 'obj' in the code to a blue circle labeled 'Object'. Inside the circle, 'x = 10' and 'y = 20' are listed, representing the values assigned to the object's dynamic variables. Below the circle, 'obj = 4059' is written, indicating the memory address of the object.

Note: In the above program, if we assign values directly to dynamic variables, all objects initializes with same set of values.

```

class Test:
    def __init__(self):
        self.a = 10
    return

    def main():
        t1 = Test()
        print("t1 a val :", t1.a)

        t2 = Test()
        print("t2 a val :", t2.a)
    return

Test.main()

```

Arguments constructor:

- Constructor taking input values to initialize dynamic variables in Object creation process.
- Using arguments constructor, we can set different values to different object variables.
- Arguments are local variables and we can access directly.

```

class Test :
    def __init__(self, a, b):
        self.x = a
        self.y = b
    return

```

```

def main():
    obj = Test(50,60)
    print("x val :", obj.x)
    print("y val :", obj.y)
    return

```

Test.main()

```

class Test :
    def __init__(self, a, b):
        self.x = a
        self.y = b
        return

def main():
    obj = Test(50, 60)
    print("x val :", obj.x)
    print("y val :", obj.y)
    return

Test.main()

```

self.x = a --> local variable "a" value
assigning to dynamic variable "x"

- Local variables and dynamic variables can have the same identity.
- We access the local variable directly where as dynamic variable using object address.

```

class Test:
    def __init__(self,a,b):
        self.a = a
        self.b = b
        return

def main():
    obj = Test(10,20)
    print("a val :", obj.a)
    print("b val :", obj.b)
    return

Test.main()

```

WAP to construct the object by taking user input:

```
class Test:  
    def __init__(self,a,b):  
        self.a = a  
        self.b = b  
        return  
  
    def details(self):  
        print("a val :", self.a)  
        print("b val :", self.b)  
        return  
  
    def main():  
        print("Enter a, b values :")  
        a = input()  
        b = input()  
        obj = Test(a,b)  
        obj.details()  
        return  
  
Test.main()
```

Read Emp details and Construct object:

```
class Emp:  
    def __init__(self, num, name):  
        self.num = num  
        self.name = name  
        return  
  
    def details(self):  
        print("Emp num is :", self.num)  
        print("Emp name is :", self.name)  
        return  
  
class Access:  
    def main():  
        print("Enter emp details :")  
        num = int(input())  
        name = input()  
        obj = Emp(num, name)  
        obj.details()  
        return  
Access.main()
```

Account Operations program:

```
class Account:  
    def __init__(self,amt):  
        self.balance = amt  
        return  
  
    def deposit(self,amt):  
        self.balance = self.balance + amt  
        print(amt,"deposited")  
        return  
  
    def withdraw(self,amt):  
        print("Withdrawning : ",amt)  
        print("Avail bal : ",self.balance)  
        if(amt <= self.balance):  
            print("Collect cash : ",amt)  
            self.balance = self.balance - amt  
        else:  
            print("Error : Low balance")  
        return  
  
class Bank:  
    def main():  
        amt = int(input("Enter initial bal : "))  
        acc = Account(amt)  
        print("Balance is : ",acc.balance)  
  
        amt = int(input("Enter deposit amt : "))  
        acc.deposit(amt)  
        print("After deposit : ",acc.balance)  
  
        amt = int(input("Enter withdraw amt : "))  
        acc.withdraw(amt)  
        print("Final balance : ",acc.balance)  
        return  
  
    Bank.main()
```

Access Modifiers

Access Modifiers:

- Access modifiers are used to set permissions to access the data.
- Python supports 3 access modifiers.
 - private(__var)
 - protected (_var)
 - public (var)

Note: Protected members can be discussed with Inheritance concept.

public:

- We can access public members (variables or methods) directly.
- All programs discussed before contains public variables and methods.

```
class Test:  
    a=10  
    def __init__(self,b):  
        self.b = b  
        return  
  
class Access:  
    def main():  
        obj = Test(20)  
        print("a val :", Test.a)  
        print("b val :", obj.b)  
        return  
  
Access.main()
```

Private members:

- A member definition preceded by __ is called private member.
- One object(class) cannot access the private members of another object directly.

Note: A class itself can access the private members.

```
class First:  
    a = 10 #public  
    __b = 20 #private  
  
    def main():  
        print("a val :", First.a)  
        print("b val :", First.__b)  
        return  
  
First.main()
```

Accessing private members of another class results Error:

```
class First:  
    a = 10 #public  
    __b = 20 #private  
  
class Second:  
    def main():  
        print("a val :", First.a)  
        print("b val :", First.__b)  
        return  
  
Second.main()
```

Private dynamic variables creation and Access:

```
class First:  
    def __init__(self,x,y):  
        self.a = x # 'a' is public  
        self.__b = y # 'b' is private  
        return  
  
    def main():  
        obj = First(10,20)  
        print("a val : ", obj.a)  
        print("b val : ", obj.__b)  
        return  
  
First.main()
```

Accessing private variables from other class results error:

```
class First:  
    def __init__(self,x,y):  
        self.a = x  
        self.__b = y  
        return  
  
class Second:  
    def main():  
        obj = First(10,20)  
        print("a val : ", obj.a)  
        print("b val : ", obj.__b)  
        return  
  
Second.main()
```

Accessing private variables from another class:

- One class cannot access the private information from another class directly.
- A class(object) is allowed to share(send or receive) the private data in communication.
- Communication between objects is possible using methods.
- Two standard methods get() and set() to share the information.

```
class First:  
    _a = 10  
    def getA():  
        return First._a  
  
class Second:  
    def main():  
        # print("a val : ", First._a)  
        print("a val : ", First.getA())  
        return  
  
Second.main()
```

Accessing dynamic private variable using dynamic get() method:

```
class First:  
    def __init__(self,a):  
        self._a = a  
        return  
  
    def getA(self):  
        return self._a  
  
class Second:  
    def main():  
        obj = First(10)  
        # print("a val : ", obj._a)  
        print("a val : ", obj.getA())  
        return  
  
Second.main()
```

Modifying private variables data:

- We cannot set values directly to private variables.
- We use set() method to modify the data.

Note: When we try set the value directly to private variable, the value will be omitted.

```
class First:  
    _a=10  
    def getA():  
        return First._a  
    def setA(a):  
        First._a = a  
        return  
  
class Second:  
    def main():  
        print("a val :", First.getA())  
        First._a=20  
        print("a val :", First.getA())  
        First.setA(20)  
        print("a val :", First.getA())  
        return  
  
Second.main()
```

Setting values to dynamic private variables:

```
class First:  
    def __init__(self,a):  
        self._a = a  
        return  
    def getA(self):  
        return self._a  
    def setA(self,a):  
        self._a = a  
        return  
  
class Second:  
    def main():  
        obj = First(10)  
        print("a val :", obj.getA())  
        obj.setA(20)  
        print("a val :", obj.getA())  
        return  
  
Second.main()
```

Encapsulation: The concept of protecting object information.

Rules:

1. Class is public – Object is visible to other objects in communication.
2. Variables are private – One object cannot access the information of other object directly.
3. Communication between objects using get() and set() methods to share the information.

```
class Emp:  
    def __init__(self,num,name,salary):  
        self._num = num  
        self._name = name  
        self._salary = salary  
        return  
  
    def getNum(self):  
        return self._num  
    def getName(self):  
        return self._name  
    def getSalary(self):  
        return self._salary  
  
    def setNum(self,num):  
        self._num = num  
        return  
    def setName(self,name):  
        self._name = name  
        return  
    def setSalary(self,salary):  
        self._salary = salary  
        return  
  
class Access:  
    def main():  
        print("Enter Emp details :")  
        num = int(input("Emp Num : "))  
        name = input("Emp Name : ")  
        salary = float(input("Emp Sal : "))  
        obj = Emp(num, name, salary)  
        print("Name :",obj.getName())  
        return  
    Access.main()
```

Inheritance in Python

Inheritance:

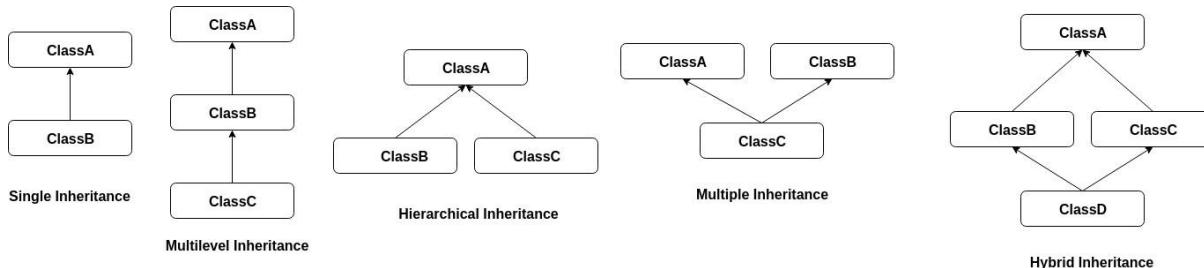
- Defining an object by re-using the functionality of existing object.
- The main advantage of inheritance in code re-usability.

Terminology of inheritance :

- Parent – Child class
- Super – Sub class
- Base – Derived class

Types of Inheritance:

- Python supports all types of inheritance supported by Object Oriented Programming.
- The following diagram represents all types



Single Inheritance:

- In parent-child relation, we can access the functionality of Parent through child.
- We cannot access Child functionality using Parent.
- Accessing static members in Parent and Child as follows:

```
class Parent:  
    def m1():  
        print("Parent's m1")  
        return  
  
class Child(Parent):  
    def m2():  
        print("Child's m2")  
        return  
  
class Inheritance:  
    def main():  
        Child.m1()  
        Child.m2()  
  
Inheritance.main()
```

Accessing dynamic functionality in Parent-Child relation:

```
class Parent:  
    def m1(self):  
        print("Parent's m1")  
        return  
  
class Child(Parent):  
    def m2(self):  
        print("Child's m2")  
        return  
  
class Inheritance:  
    def main():  
        c = Child()  
        c.m1()  
        c.m2()  
  
Inheritance.main()
```

Method overriding:

- Defining a method in the Child class with same name and same set of arguments of Parent class method.
- When two methods in Parent and Child with the same identity, it gives the first priority to Child object.

```
class Parent:  
    def fun(self):  
        print("Parent's fun()")  
        return  
  
class Child(Parent):  
    def fun(self): #override  
        print("Child's fun()")  
        return  
  
class Inheritance:  
    def main():  
        obj = Child()  
        obj.fun()  
        return  
  
Inheritance.main()
```

Advantage of overriding:

- Overriding is the concept of updating existing object functionality when it is not sufficient to extended object.
- Re-writing the function logic with the same identity.

Complete Inheritance with Code program:

- # 1. Accessing existing functionality
- # 2. Adding new features
- # 3. Update override) existing features

```
class Guru:  
    def call(self):  
        print("Guru - Call")  
        return  
    def camera(self):  
        print("Guru - Camera - 2MP")  
        return  
  
class Galaxy(Guru):  
    def videoCall(self):  
        print("Galaxy - Video Call")  
        return  
    def camera(self):  
        print("Galaxy - Camera - 8MP")  
        return  
  
class Inheritance:  
    def main():  
        g1 = Galaxy()  
        g1.call()# Access existing  
        g1.videoCall()# new feature  
        g1.camera() #updated  
  
        g2 = Guru()  
        g2.call()  
        g2.camera()  
        g2.videoCall() # error:  
        return
```

```
Inheritance.main()
```

Accessing overridden functionality of Parent class: super():

- It is pre-defined method.
- It is used to access Parent class functionality(super) from Child(sub).

```
class Grand:  
    def fun(self):  
        print("Grand")  
        return  
  
class Parent(Grand):  
    def fun(self):  
        super().fun()  
        print("Parent")  
        return  
  
class Child(Parent):  
    def fun(self):  
        super().fun()  
        print("Child")  
        return  
  
class Inheritance:  
    def main():  
        obj = Child()  
        obj.fun()  
        return  
  
Inheritance.main()
```

- We can access the functionality of all classes in the hierarchy from one place using super() method.
- We need to specify the Class type along with object reference variable.
- If we specify the Child type, it access Parent functionality.

```
class Grand:  
    def fun(self):  
        print("Grand")  
        return  
  
class Parent(Grand):  
    def fun(self):  
        print("Parent")
```

```

return

class Child(Parent):
    def fun(self):
        print("Child")
    return

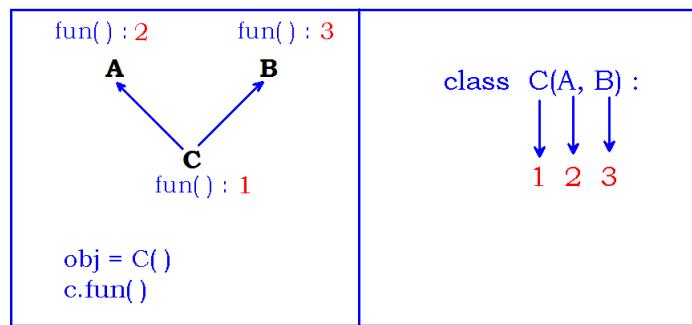
class Inheritance:
    def main():
        obj = Child()
        obj.fun()
        super(Child, obj).fun()
        super(Parent, obj).fun()
    return

Inheritance.main()

```

Accessing the functionality in Multiple Inheritance:

- While accessing the functionality of Multiple Inheritance or Hybrid Inheritance, we need to understand the concept of MRO(Method Resolution Order).
- MRO is the concept of how the Interpreter searching for methods while accessing using Child object address.



```

class A:
    def m1(self):
        print("A-m1")
    return

    def m3(self):
        print("A-m3")
    return

```

```

class B:
    def m1(self):
        print("B-m1")
        return

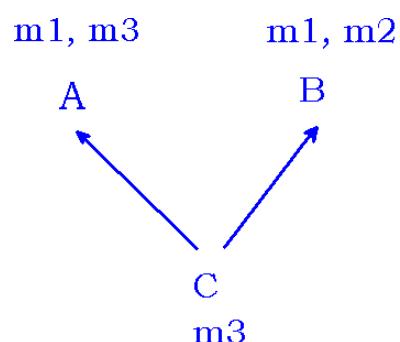
    def m2(self):
        print("B-m2")
        return

class C(A,B):
    def m3(self):
        print("C-m3")
        return

class Multiple:
    def main():
        c = C()
        c.m3()
        c.m2()
        c.m1()
        return

Multiple.main()

```



$c.m3()$ ---> C - m3
 $c.m2()$ ---> B - m2
 $c.m1()$ ---> A - m1

Accessing the complete functionality of all objects in multiple inheritance:

```
class A:  
    def m1(self):  
        print("A-m1")  
        return
```

```
    def m3(self):  
        print("A-m3")  
        return
```

```
class B:  
    def m1(self):  
        print("B-m1")  
        return
```

```
    def m2(self):  
        print("B-m2")  
        return
```

```
class C(A,B):  
    def m3(self):  
        print("C-m3")  
        return
```

```
class Multiple:  
    def main():  
        obj = C()  
        obj.m1()  
        obj.m2()  
        obj.m3()  
        super(C,obj).m1()  
        super(C,obj).m2()  
        A.m3(obj)  
        B.m1(obj)  
        return
```

```
Multiple.main()
```

```

class A:
    def m1(self):
        print("A-m1")
        return

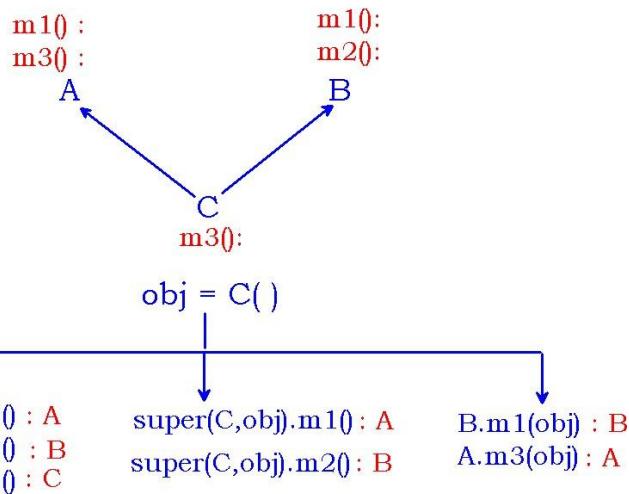
    def m3(self):
        print("A-m3")
        return

class B:
    def m1(self):
        print("B-m1")
        return

    def m2(self):
        print("B-m2")
        return

class C(A,B):
    def m3(self):
        print("C-m3")
        return

```



Hybrid inheritance:

```

class A:
    def fun(self):
        print("A")
        return

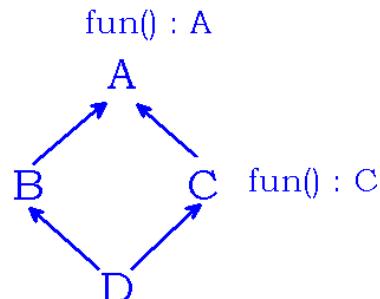
class B(A):
    pass

class C(A):
    def fun(self):
        print("C")
        return

class D(B,C):
    pass

class Hybrid:
    def main():
        obj = D()
        A.fun(obj) → A
        B.fun(obj) → A
        C.fun(obj) → C
        D.fun(obj) → C

```



Polymorphism in Python

Polymorphism:

- Defining an object(class) that shows different behavior(methods) with the same identity.
- Polymorphism is of 2 types
 - Compile time polymorphism
 - Runtime polymorphism

Compile time polymorphism:

- It is also called "Static binding".
- It is "Method Overloading" technique.
- Defining multiple methods with same name and different set of arguments is called "Overloading".
- Depends on input values, corresponding method executes.

Note: Python doesn't support method overloading. When we define a duplicate method, existing method will be replaced.

```
class Calc:  
    def add(a,b):  
        res=a+b  
        print("Sum of 2 num's :", res)  
        return  
  
    def add(a,b,c): # replace existing add() method  
        res=a+b+c  
        print("Sum of 3 num's :", res)  
        return  
  
class Overload:  
    def main():  
        Calc.add(10,20,30)  
        Calc.add(10,20) # error  
        return  
  
Overload.main()
```

How can we implement overloading in python?

- In other programming languages, we can define overloading by writing multiple methods either with different types of input or with different length of input.
- As python doesn't support data types, we can pass different types of data into same variables.

```
class Calc:  
    def add(a,b):  
        res=a+b  
        print("Sum :", res)  
        return  
  
class Overload:  
    def main():  
        Calc.add(10,20)  
        Calc.add(2.3,4.5)  
        Calc.add("Python","Class")  
        return  
  
Overload.main()
```

Python supports variables arguments function. We can pass different length of arguments to a single method.

```
class Calc:  
    def add(*arr):  
        l = len(arr)  
        sum = 0  
        for ele in arr:  
            sum = sum+ele  
        print("Sum of",l,"elements :",sum)  
        return  
  
class Overload:  
    def main():  
        Calc.add(10,20)  
        Calc.add(10,20,30)  
        Calc.add(10,20,30,40,50)  
        return  
  
Overload.main()
```

Runtime Polymorphism:

- It is called "dynamic binding".
- It is method "overriding technique".
- Overriding is the concept of defining a method in Child class with the same name and same set of arguments in Parent class method.
- A Child object can shows the functionality of Parent and Child. Hence it is called Polymorphic

```
class Grand:  
    def fun(self):  
        print("Grand")  
        return  
  
class Parent(Grand):  
    def fun(self):  
        print("Parent")  
        return  
  
class Child(Parent):  
    def fun(self):  
        print("Child")  
        return  
  
class Override:  
    def main():  
        obj = Child()  
        obj.fun()  
        super(Child,obj).fun()  
        super(Parent,obj).fun()  
        return  
  
Override.main()
```

Exception Handling in Python

Exception Handling:

- Exception is a "class"
- Exception is a "Runtime Error"
- When exception rises, the flow of execution will be terminated with informal information to the user.

```
class Add:  
    def main():  
        print("Enter 2 integers :")  
        x = int(input())  
        y = int(input())  
        z = x+y  
        print("Sum : ", z)  
        print("End...")  
        return  
  
Add.main()
```

Note the followings:

- Exception handling is the concept of working with failure cases of logic.
- As a programmer, we need to analyze success cases and failure cases in the transaction to implement the code.

Default Exception handler:

- It is a pre-defined program.
- When exception raises, an object will be created with the complete information of that Error is called "Exception Object".
- It is recommended to handle every exception in the application.
- If we don't handle, the object will be transferred to "Default Exception Handler"

Handling the exceptions:

Try:

- Try block is used to place the doubtful code that may raise exception.
- If exception raises in try block, an exception object will be raised with the error information.

Except:

- Except block is used to collect and handle the exception object which is raised in try block.

Syntax:

```
try :  
    ->Doubtful code...  
except <Exception_type> var :  
    ->Handling logic...
```

Reading 2 numbers and perform addition operation: Chance of getting ValueError if the user entered invalid input

```
class Demo:  
    def main():  
        try:  
            print("Enter 2 numbers :")  
            x = int(input())  
            y = int(input())  
            z = x+y  
            print("Sum :",z)  
        except ValueError:  
            print("Exception : Invalid input")  
        print("End")  
        return  
Demo.main()
```

try with multi except: One try block can have more than one except blocks to handle different types of exceptions occur in different lines of code. Only one except block executes among we defined.

```
class Division:  
    def main():  
        try:  
            print("Enter 2 numbers :")  
            x = int(input())  
            y = int(input())  
            print("Result :", x/y)  
  
        except ValueError:  
            print("Exception : Invalid input")  
  
        except ZeroDivisionError:  
            print("Exception : Denominator should not be zero")  
        print("End")  
        return  
Division.main()
```

Exception class:

- "Exception" is pre-defined class.
- "Exception" is the Parent class of all other exception classes.
- Instead of handling multiple exceptions with number of except blocks, we can specify "Exception" type to handle all.
- We need to provide the common the error information to handle using "Exception" class.

Note: We can display the message of Exception object by collecting into variable in "except" block.

```
class Division:  
    def main():  
        try:  
            print("Enter 2 numbers :")  
            x = int(input())  
            y = int(input())  
            z = x/y  
            print("Result:",z)  
  
        except Exception as msg:  
            print("Exception :",msg)  
  
        return  
  
Division.main()
```

Finally block: It is used to provide "Resource releasing logic". All resources (connected to program) must be closed from finally block.

Note: Finally block executes whether or not an exception has raised in the try block.

```
class Finally:  
    def main():  
        try:  
            x = 10/5  
            print("Try block")  
        except Exception:  
            print("Except block")  
        finally:  
            print("Finally block")  
        return  
  
Finally.main()
```

Finally block executes though exception occurs

```
class Finally:  
    def main():  
        try:  
            x = 10/0  
            print("Try block")  
  
        except Exception:  
            print("Except block")  
  
        finally:  
            print("Finally block")  
  
    return  
  
Finally.main()
```

Open and Close the File using Finally block:

- open() is pre-defined and it is used to open the file in specified path.
- If the file is not present, it raises Exception.

```
class Finally:  
    def main():  
        try:  
            file = open("sample.txt")  
            print("File opened...")  
        except FileNotFoundError:  
            print("Exception : No such file")  
        return  
  
Finally.main()
```

- When we connect any resource to the program, we must release that resource.
- close() function is pre-defined and it is used to release any resource.
- Closing statements must be in finally block.

```
class Finally:  
    file = None  
    def main():  
        try:  
            Finally.file = open("sample.txt")  
            print("File opened...")
```

```

except FileNotFoundError:
    print("Exception : No such file")

finally:
    Finally.file.close()
    print("File closed...")
return

Finally.main()

```

- In the above application, if the file is not present, close() function raises exception as it invokes on "None" value.
- We need to close the file only by checking whether it is pointing to any address on None.

```

class Finally:
    file = None
    def main():
        try:
            Finally.file = open("sample.txt")
            print("File opened...")

        except FileNotFoundError:
            print("Exception : No such file")

        finally:
            if Finally.file != None:
                Finally.file.close()
                print("File closed...")
        return

Finally.main()

```

Custom Exceptions:

- Python library is providing number of exception classes.
- As a programmer, we can define custom exceptions depends on application requirement.
- Every custom exception should extends the functionality of pre-defined Exception class.

raise:

- It is a keyword.
- It is used to raise Custom Exception explicitly by the programmer.

- Pre-defined exceptions will be raised automatically when problem occurs.
- If we don't handle the exception, Default Exception Handler handles.

```
class CustomError(Exception):
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
        return

class RaiseException:
    def main():
        obj = CustomError("Error-Msg")
        raise obj
        return

RaiseException.main()
```

Handling Custom Exception:

- Generally exception rises inside the function.
- We need to handle the exception while calling the function.
- When exception has raised, the object will be thrown to function calling area.

```
class CustomError(Exception):
    def __init__(self, name):
        self.name = name
        return

class Test:
    def fun():
        obj = CustomError("Message")
        raise obj
        return

class Access:
    def main():
        try:
            Test.fun()
        except CustomError as e:
            print("Exception :", e)
        return

Access.main()
```

Exceptions in Banking application:

- Runtime error is called Exception.
- When we perform the transaction, in case of any error in the middle of transaction called "Runtime error".
- We must define every error as Exception.
- The following example explains how to define Runtime Errors in Banking transactions.

```
class LowBalanceError(Exception):
    def __init__(self,name):
        self.name = name
        return

class Account:
    def __init__(self,balance):
        self.balance = balance
        return

    def withdraw(self,amount):
        print("Trying to withdraw : ",amount)
        print("Avail bal : ",self.balance)
        if amount <= self.balance:
            print("Collect cash : ",amount)
            self.balance = self.balance - amount
        else:
            err = LowBalanceError("Low Balance")
            raise err
        return

class Bank:
    def main():
        amount = int(input("enter amount : "))
        acc = Account(amount)
        print("Balance is : ",acc.balance)

        amount = int(input("Enter withdraw amt : "))
        try:
            acc.withdraw(amount)
        except LowBalanceError as e:
            print("Exception : ",e)
        print("Final Balance is : ",acc.balance)
        return

    Bank.main()
```

Inner classes

Inner class: Defining a class inside another class. It is also called Nested class.

Syntax:

```
class Outer:  
    ....  
    logic  
    ....  
    class Inner:  
        ....  
        logic  
        ....
```

Accessing static functionality:

- Static members we access using class name.
- Inner class can be accessed using Outer class name.

```
class Outer:  
    def m1():  
        print("Outer-m1")  
        return  
  
    class Inner:  
        def m2():  
            print("Inner-m2")  
            return  
  
    class Access:  
        def main():  
            Outer.m1()  
            Outer.Inner.m2()  
            return  
  
    Access.main()
```

Accessing dynamic functionality:

- We can access dynamic member through object address.
- We create object for inner class with the reference of outer class only.

```
class Outer:  
    def m1(self):  
        print("Outer-m1")  
        return  
  
    class Inner:  
        def m2(self):  
            print("Inner-m2")  
            return  
  
    class Access:  
        def main():  
            obj1 = Outer()  
            obj1.m1()  
  
            obj2 = obj1.Inner()  
            obj2.m2()  
            return  
  
    Access.main()
```

We create object directly to inner class as follows:

```
class Outer:  
    class Inner:  
        def fun(self):  
            print("Inner-fun")  
            return  
  
    class Access:  
        def main():  
            #obj1 = Outer()  
            #obj2 = obj1.Inner()  
            #obj2.fun()  
            Outer().Inner().fun()  
            return  
  
    Access.main()
```

Local inner classes:

- Defining a class inside the method.
- To access that class, first control should enter into that function.
- We invoke the functionality of local inner class from that function.

```
class Outer:  
    def fun():  
        print("Outer-fun")  
  
    class Local:  
        def fun():  
            print("Outer-Local-fun")  
            return  
  
        Local.fun()  
        return  
  
class Access:  
    def main():  
        Outer.fun()  
        return  
  
Access.main()
```

We can define duplicate classes in different functions:

```
class Outer:  
    def m1():  
        print("Outer-m1")  
  
    class Local:  
        def fun():  
            print("m1-Local-fun")  
            return  
  
        Local.fun()  
        return  
  
    def m2():  
        print("Outer-m2")  
  
    class Local:  
        def fun():
```

```
    print("m2-Local-fun")
    return

    Local.fun()
    return

class Access:
    def main():
        Outer.m1()
        Outer.m2()
        return

Access.main()
```

We can define a local inner class inside another local inner class. But it is complex to access the functionality.

```
class Outer:
    def fun(self):
        print("Outer-fun")

    class Local:
        def fun(self):
            print("Outer-Local-fun")

            class Inner:
                def fun(self):
                    print("Outer-Local-Inner-fun")
                    return

                Inner().fun()
                return

            Local().fun()
            return

    class Access:
        def main():
            Outer().fun()
            return

Access.main()
```

Python Modules

Importance of Modularity:

- When people write large programs they tend to break their code into multiple different files for ease of use, debugging and readability.
- In Python we use modules to achieve such goals.
- Modules are nothing but files with Python definitions and statements.
- The name of the file should be valid Python name (think about any variable name) and in lowercase

Pre-defined modules:

- **threading** : To implement Parallel processing
- **gc** : For Garbage collection
- **tkinter** : To implement GUI programming
- **time** : To find system time and data and to display in different formats
- **numpy** : One, two and Multi dimensional
- **re** : Regular expressions
- **mysql** : Python – MySQL database connectivity

connecting modules using import:

- import is a keyword.
- import is used to connect the modules to access their members.

Function based modules:

- A module cannot contain classes(object oriented programming).
- We have such type of library modules like time, data and so on.
- We access the functions using module name after import.

arithmetic.py:

```
def add(a,b):
    c=a+b
    return c

def subtract(a,b):
    c=a-b
    return c

def multiply(a,b):
    c=a*b
    return c
```

calc.py:

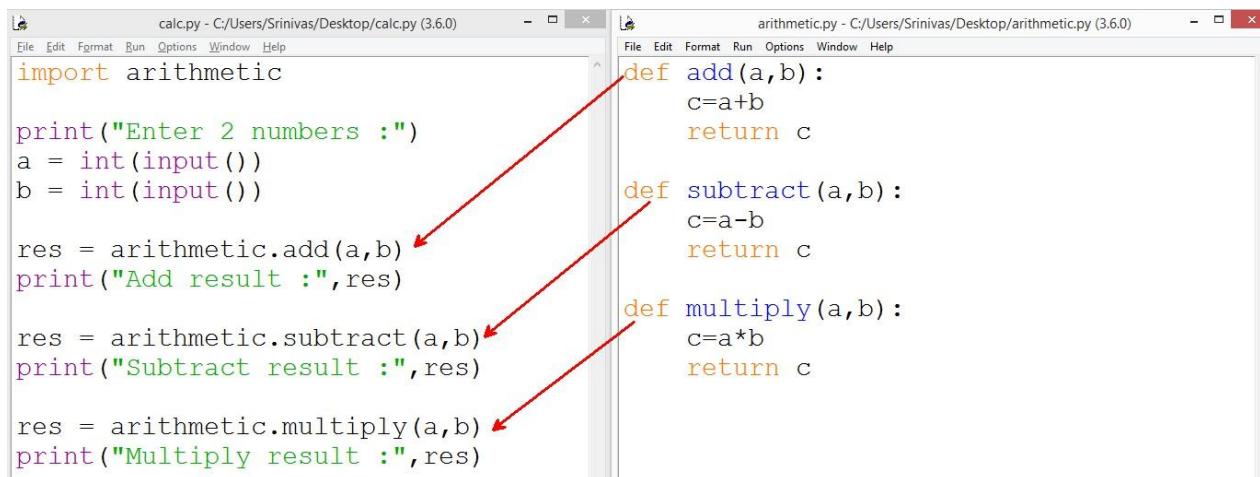
```
import arithmetic

print("Enter 2 numbers :")
a = int(input())
b = int(input())

res = arithmetic.add(a,b)
print("Add result :",res)

res = arithmetic.subtract(a,b)
print("Subtract result :",res)

res = arithmetic.multiply(a,b)
print("Multiply result :",res)
```

**Why we need to call the function using module name after import?**

- We can define members with same identity in different modules
- We access the duplicate members from different modules by using the identity of module while accessing.

one.py:

```
def f1():
    print("one-f1()")
    return

def f2():
    print("one-f2()")
    return
```

two.py:

```
def f1():
    print("two-f1()")
    return

def f2():
    print("two-f2()")
    return
```

access.py:

```
import one
import two

one.f1()
one.f2()

two.f1()
two.f2()
```

The image shows three separate Python code editors side-by-side. The top-left editor contains the code for `one.py`, which defines two functions: `f1()` and `f2()`. The top-right editor contains the code for `access.py`, which imports `one` and `two`, then calls their respective `f1()` and `f2()` methods. The bottom editor contains the code for `two.py`, which also defines `f1()` and `f2()`. Red arrows point from the `one.f1()` and `one.f2()` lines in `access.py` to the corresponding function definitions in `one.py`. Blue arrows point from the `two.f1()` and `two.f2()` lines in `access.py` to the corresponding function definitions in `two.py`.

```
one.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/one.py (3.6.0)
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
def f1():
    print("one-f1()")
    return

def f2():
    print("one-f2()")
    return

access.py - C:/Users
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
import one
import two

one.f1()
one.f2()

two.f1()
two.f2()

two.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/two.py (3.6.0)
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
def f1():
    print("two-f1()")
    return

def f2():
    print("two-f2()")
    return
```

Class Based modules:

- A module is a collection of classes.
- A class is a collection of variables and methods
- To access the class members we need to import the module.

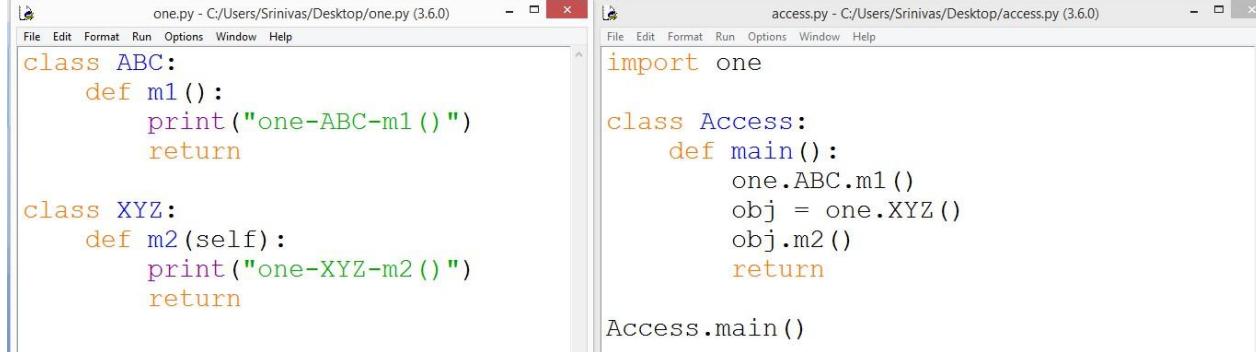
one.py:

```
class ABC:  
    def m1():  
        print("one-ABC-m1()")  
        return  
  
class XYZ:  
    def m2(self):  
        print("one-XYZ-m2()")  
        return
```

access.py:

```
import one  
class Access:  
    def main():  
        one.ABC.m1()  
        obj = one.XYZ()  
        obj.m2()  
        return
```

```
Access.main()
```



```
one.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/one.py (3.6.0)  
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help  
class ABC:  
    def m1():  
        print("one-ABC-m1()")  
        return  
  
class XYZ:  
    def m2(self):  
        print("one-XYZ-m2()")  
        return  
  
access.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/access.py (3.6.0)  
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help  
import one  
  
class Access:  
    def main():  
        one.ABC.m1()  
        obj = one.XYZ()  
        obj.m2()  
        return  
  
Access.main()
```

from:

- "from is a keyword used to access one or more classes from the specified module."
- Note that, no need to specify the module name along with class name if we import using "from"

Syntax:

```
from module import class  
      Or  
from module import *  
      Or  
from module import class1, class2, class3
```

The image shows two code editors side-by-side. The left editor contains 'one.py' with the following code:

```
class ABC:
    def m1():
        print("one-ABC-m1()")
        return

class XYZ:
    def m2(self):
        print("one-XYZ-m2()")
        return
```

The right editor contains 'access.py' with the following code:

```
from one import ABC, XYZ
# from one import *

class Access:
    def main():
        ABC.m1()
        obj = XYZ()
        obj.m2()
        return

Access.main()
```

Accessing duplicate classes from different modules:

One.py:

```
class ABC:
    def m1():
        print("one-ABC-m1()")
        return

class XYZ:
    def m2():
        print("one-XYZ-m2()")
        return
```

two.py:

```
class ABC:
    def m1():
        print("two-ABC-m1()")
        return

class XYZ:
    def m2():
        print("two-XYZ-m2()")
        return
```

access.py:

```
import one
import two

class Access:
    def main():
        one.ABC.m1()
        one.XYZ.m2()
```

```
two.ABC.m1()
two.XYZ.m2()
return
```

```
Access.main()
```

The screenshot shows three windows of a code editor. The top-left window contains the code for `one.py`, which defines classes `ABC` and `XYZ` with methods `m1()` and `m2()` respectively. The top-right window contains the code for `access.py`, which imports `one` and `two`, then defines a class `Access` with a `main()` method that calls the `m1()` and `m2()` methods from both `one` and `two`. The bottom window contains the code for `two.py`, which is identical to `one.py` but with "two" instead of "one".

```
one.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/one.py (3.6.0)
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
class ABC:
    def m1():
        print("one-ABC-m1()")
        return

class XYZ:
    def m2():
        print("one-XYZ-m2()")
        return

two.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/two.py (3.6.0)
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
class ABC:
    def m1():
        print("two-ABC-m1()")
        return

class XYZ:
    def m2():
        print("two-XYZ-m2()")
        return

access.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/access.py (3.6.0)
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
import one
import two

class Access:
    def main():
        one.ABC.m1()
        one.XYZ.m2()

        two.ABC.m1()
        two.XYZ.m2()
        return

Access.main()
```

- When we import classes using 'from' keyword, we cannot work with duplicate classes from different modules.
- Duplicate class replace the existing class as follows

The screenshot shows three windows of a code editor. The top-left window contains the code for `one.py`, which defines classes `ABC` and `XYZ` with methods `m1()` and `m2()` respectively. The top-right window contains the code for `access.py`, which imports both `ABC` and `XYZ` from `one` and `XYZ` from `two`. It then defines a class `Access` with a `main()` method that calls the `m1()` and `m2()` methods. The bottom window contains the code for `two.py`, which is identical to `one.py` but with "two" instead of "one".

```
one.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/one.py (3.6.0)
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
class ABC:
    def m1():
        print("one-ABC-m1()")
        return

class XYZ:
    def m2():
        print("one-XYZ-m2()")
        return

two.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/two.py (3.6.0)
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
class ABC:
    def m1():
        print("two-ABC-m1()")
        return

class XYZ:
    def m2():
        print("two-XYZ-m2()")
        return

access.py - C:/Users/Srinivas/Desktop/access.py (3.6.0)
File Edit Format Run Options Window Help
from one import ABC, XYZ
from two import XYZ

class Access:
    def main():
        ABC.m1()
        XYZ.m2()
        return

Access.main()
```

