**✅ Q50. Explain the concepts of Fancy Indexing and Broadcasting in NumPy. How does Fancy Indexing differ from Slicing? How does Broadcasting work when performing operations on arrays of different shapes? Illustrate both with suitable examples.**

**🔰 Introduction to NumPy**

**NumPy** (Numerical Python) is a powerful Python library used for numerical computing. It provides support for arrays, matrices, and a large number of mathematical functions. Two advanced concepts in NumPy are:

* **Fancy Indexing**
* **Broadcasting**

**🔹 1. Fancy Indexing**

**✅ Definition:**

Fancy indexing means using **integer arrays or boolean arrays** to access multiple elements of another array simultaneously. Unlike regular slicing, fancy indexing allows **non-consecutive selection** of elements and is more flexible.

**✅ Example 1: Using Integer Array Indexing**

import numpy as np

arr = np.array([10, 20, 30, 40, 50])

indices = [1, 3, 4]

result = arr[indices]

print(result)

**✅ Explanation:**

* arr is a 1D array: [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
* indices = [1, 3, 4] selects elements at positions 1, 3, and 4 → [20, 40, 50]
* This is not possible using basic slicing unless the indices are consecutive.

**✅ Example 2: Boolean Array Indexing**

arr = np.array([5, 10, 15, 20, 25])

mask = arr > 10

result = arr[mask]

print(result)

**✅ Explanation:**

* mask is a boolean array: [False, False, True, True, True]
* Only values where the condition arr > 10 is True are returned → [15, 20, 25]

**🔸 How Fancy Indexing Differs from Slicing:**

| **Feature** | **Fancy Indexing** | **Slicing** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Uses indices/conditions | Integer or boolean arrays | Start:Stop:Step format |
| Can select non-consecutive items | ✅ Yes | ❌ No (must be in a range) |
| Returns a copy | ✅ Yes | 🔁 View (linked to original array) |

**🔹 2. Broadcasting**

**✅ Definition:**

**Broadcasting** is a powerful feature in NumPy that allows **arithmetic operations** on arrays of **different shapes** without copying data. NumPy automatically **"broadcasts" the smaller array** across the larger one to match shapes during operations.

**✅ Example 1: Adding a Scalar to a 1D Array**

import numpy as np

arr = np.array([1, 2, 3])

result = arr + 5

print(result)

**✅ Explanation:**

* arr: [1, 2, 3]
* Scalar 5 is **broadcast** to match the shape of the array: [5, 5, 5]
* Result: [6, 7, 8]

**✅ Example 2: Adding 1D array to 2D array (Row-wise)**

a = np.array([[1, 2, 3],

[4, 5, 6]])

b = np.array([10, 20, 30]

result = a + b

print(result)

**✅ Explanation:**

* a is a **2×3** matrix
* b is a **1D array with 3 elements**
* NumPy **broadcasts b across each row** of a
* So addition is like:
* [[1+10, 2+20, 3+30],
* [4+10, 5+20, 6+30]]
* ⇒ [[11, 22, 33],
* [14, 25, 36]]

**✅ Broadcasting Rules:**

To broadcast, NumPy compares array shapes **from right to left**:

1. If the dimensions are equal, or
2. If one of them is 1

It stretches the smaller array along that dimension.

**✅ Example 3: Incompatible Shapes (Error)**

a = np.array([[1, 2, 3],

[4, 5, 6]])

b = np.array([10, 20]) # Only 2 elements

result = a + b # This will raise a ValueError

**✅ Explanation:**

* Shapes: a is (2,3), b is (2,)
* Cannot broadcast b to match 3 columns → throws an error.

**✅ Summary Table:**

| **Concept** | **Description** | **Example Output** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Fancy Indexing** | Uses arrays of indices or conditions to extract data | arr[[1, 3]] → [20, 40] |
| **Slicing** | Uses ranges (start:stop:step) to extract slices | arr[1:4] → [20, 30, 40] |
| **Broadcasting** | Applies arithmetic ops to different-shaped arrays automatically | [[1,2,3]] + [10,20,30] → [[11,22,33]] |

**✅ Conclusion**

Fancy Indexing and Broadcasting are powerful tools in NumPy that enhance data selection and manipulation:

* **Fancy Indexing** allows for flexible, condition-based data access.
* **Broadcasting** eliminates the need for explicit loops or reshaping, making operations on arrays of different shapes efficient and clean.

These features are essential for **data science, machine learning**, and **numerical simulations** in Python.

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**✅ Q51. Describe and demonstrate the key indexing techniques in NumPy arrays: basic indexing, slicing, Boolean indexing, and fancy indexing. How are they useful in data manipulation? (With examples and explanations)**

**🔰 Introduction**

Indexing is a method of accessing or modifying specific elements of arrays in **NumPy**, a Python library used for numerical computations. It is one of the **core features** that makes NumPy powerful and efficient for handling large datasets.

There are **four main types** of indexing in NumPy:

1. Basic Indexing
2. Slicing
3. Boolean Indexing
4. Fancy Indexing

These techniques are essential in **data analysis, scientific computing**, and **machine learning**, where efficient data extraction and manipulation are required.

**🔹 1. Basic Indexing**

**✅ Definition:**

Basic indexing involves accessing a single element using its **row and column indices**, similar to Python lists.

**✅ Example:**

import numpy as np

arr = np.array([[10, 20, 30],

[40, 50, 60]])

print(arr[0][1]) # Output: 20

print(arr[1, 2]) # Output: 60

**✅ Explanation:**

* arr[0][1]: First row, second column → 20
* arr[1, 2]: Second row, third column → 60
* It works for both 1D and 2D arrays.

**✅ Use:**

Basic indexing is used when **specific elements** need to be accessed directly, e.g., getting a single pixel from an image.

**🔹 2. Slicing**

**✅ Definition:**

Slicing is used to extract a **subset of the array** using the syntax [start:stop:step]. It provides **a view** of the original array, meaning changes affect the original data.

**✅ Example:**

arr = np.array([10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60])

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

print(arr[::2]) # Output: [10 30 50]

**✅ Explanation:**

* arr[1:5]: Elements from index 1 to 4
* arr[::2]: Every second element → indexes 0, 2, 4

**✅ Use:**

Slicing is useful for **selecting ranges** of data such as rows, columns, or time series segments.

**🔹 3. Boolean Indexing**

**✅ Definition:**

Boolean indexing uses a **boolean condition** to filter and return only the elements that satisfy the condition. The result is a new array.

**✅ Example:**

arr = np.array([5, 10, 15, 20, 25])

mask = arr > 15

print(mask) # Output: [False False False True True]

print(arr[mask]) # Output: [20 25]

**✅ Explanation:**

* The condition arr > 15 returns a boolean array
* arr[mask] selects elements where condition is True

**✅ Use:**

Boolean indexing is helpful for **data filtering**, such as removing outliers or selecting values that meet specific criteria.

**🔹 4. Fancy Indexing**

**✅ Definition:**

Fancy indexing involves passing an array or list of indices to select **multiple non-consecutive elements** at once.

**✅ Example:**

arr = np.array([100, 200, 300, 400, 500])

indices = [0, 2, 4]

print(arr[indices]) # Output: [100 300 500]

**✅ Explanation:**

* You select elements at positions 0, 2, and 4
* Unlike slicing, fancy indexing allows **non-sequential selection**

**✅ Use:**

Fancy indexing is useful in **machine learning**, **image processing**, and **data selection**, where specific rows/columns must be picked based on calculated positions.

**✅ Summary Table:**

| **Indexing Type** | **Description** | **Use Case Example** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Basic Indexing | Access single element using indices | arr[1,2] → 60 |
| Slicing | Extract ranges of data | arr[1:4] → [20 30 40] |
| Boolean Indexing | Use condition to filter data | arr[arr > 15] → [20 25] |
| Fancy Indexing | Use array of indices to pick elements | arr[[0, 2, 4]] → [100 300 500] |

**✅ Why It Matters in Data Manipulation**

* These techniques provide **efficient ways to access, filter, and modify** large datasets.
* Helps avoid for-loops, making the code **faster and cleaner**.
* Essential for **real-time data processing**, **image editing**, **scientific research**, and **machine learning preprocessing**.

**✅ Final Example: All Indexing Types Together**

arr = np.array([[10, 20, 30],

[40, 50, 60],

[70, 80, 90]])

# Basic Indexing

print(arr[1, 2]) # 60

# Slicing

print(arr[0:2, 1:]) # [[20 30]

# [50 60]]

# Boolean Indexing

print(arr[arr > 50]) # [60 70 80 90]

# Fancy Indexing

print(arr[[0, 2], [1, 2]]) # [20 90]

**✅ Conclusion**

Indexing is a powerful feature of NumPy that enhances data handling capabilities. Whether accessing single values, filtering based on conditions, or selecting arbitrary items, these techniques are essential for writing **efficient, readable, and high-performance Python programs**.

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**✅ Q52. Explain the different ways to create NumPy arrays. How do data types and shape attributes influence array behavior? Write code examples to demonstrate.**

**🔰 Introduction**

**NumPy arrays** are powerful data structures for numerical computations. Unlike Python lists, they offer:

* **Faster performance**
* **Fixed size**
* **Support for vectorized operations**

NumPy provides multiple methods to **create arrays**, depending on the need — from scratch, using existing data, or generating with functions.

Additionally, the **data type (dtype)** and **shape (shape)** attributes directly affect how arrays behave and are processed.

**🔹 I. Ways to Create NumPy Arrays**

**1. From a Python List or Tuple**

We can convert lists or tuples into NumPy arrays using np.array().

import numpy as np

list\_data = [1, 2, 3]

arr = np.array(list\_data)

print(arr)

**Output:**

[1 2 3]

🔹 Explanation:  
A simple 1D array is created from a list. The data type is inferred as int32 or int64 depending on your system.

**2. Using np.zeros()**

Creates an array filled with **zeros**.

arr = np.zeros((2, 3))

print(arr)

**Output:**

[[0. 0. 0.]

[0. 0. 0.]]

🔹 Explanation:  
Creates a 2x3 array of float zeros. Used to initialize matrices.

**3. Using np.ones()**

Creates an array filled with **ones**.

arr = np.ones((3, 2), dtype=int)

print(arr)

**Output:**

[[1 1]

[1 1]

[1 1]]

🔹 Explanation:  
Creates a 3x2 integer matrix filled with ones.

**4. Using np.arange()**

Creates arrays with evenly spaced values.

arr = np.arange(0, 10, 2)

print(arr)

**Output:**

[0 2 4 6 8]

🔹 Explanation:  
This is similar to Python’s range(), but returns a NumPy array.

**5. Using np.linspace()**

Generates evenly spaced numbers over a specified interval.

arr = np.linspace(0, 1, 5)

print(arr)

**Output:**

[0. 0.25 0.5 0.75 1. ]

🔹 Explanation:  
Divides the interval [0,1] into 5 evenly spaced values.

**6. Using np.eye()**

Creates an identity matrix (ones on the diagonal).

arr = np.eye(3)

print(arr)

**Output:**

[[1. 0. 0.]

[0. 1. 0.]

[0. 0. 1.]]

🔹 Explanation:  
Used for linear algebra, identity matrices.

**7. Using np.random Module**

Used for generating random arrays.

arr = np.random.randint(1, 10, size=(2, 3))

print(arr)

**Output:**

[[6 2 8]

[4 9 1]]

🔹 Explanation:  
Creates a 2x3 array with random integers from 1 to 9 (inclusive).

**🔸 II. dtype – Data Type Attribute**

Defines the type of elements in the array: int, float, bool, complex, etc.

arr = np.array([1.0, 2.0, 3.0])

print(arr.dtype) # float64

arr = np.array([1, 0, 1], dtype=bool)

print(arr) # [ True False True ]

🔹 Importance:

* Controls memory usage.
* Affects operations (e.g., float division vs integer division).
* Useful when optimizing performance.

**🔸 III. shape – Shape Attribute**

Returns a tuple representing the **dimensions** of the array.

arr = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]])

print(arr.shape) # (2, 3)

🔹 Explanation:

* (2, 3) means 2 rows, 3 columns.
* Changing the shape can reshape the data (reshape() method).

**✅ Summary Table**

| **Function** | **Purpose** | **Example Output** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| np.array() | Convert list/tuple to array | [1 2 3] |
| np.zeros() | Matrix of zeros | [[0. 0.]] |
| np.ones() | Matrix of ones | [[1 1]] |
| np.arange() | Range of numbers | [0 1 2 3] |
| np.linspace() | Even intervals | [0. 0.5 1.] |
| np.eye() | Identity matrix | [[1. 0.] [0. 1.]] |
| np.random.randint() | Random integers | [[3 9]] (varies) |
| dtype | Data type of array elements | int32, float64, bool, etc. |
| shape | Dimensions of the array | (3,), (2, 3), etc. |

**✅ Conclusion**

NumPy offers various ways to create arrays for different use cases — from basic lists to identity matrices and random generators. Attributes like dtype and shape are critical for **efficient storage, numerical accuracy, and control over data structure**. Mastery of these concepts is essential for **data science, machine learning, and scientific computing**.

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**✅ Q53. Discuss how NumPy supports statistical computations. Write a Python program using NumPy to compute mean, median, standard deviation, and variance for a given dataset. (Explain the example in detail)**

**🔰 Introduction**

NumPy, which stands for **Numerical Python**, is a core library for performing **scientific and mathematical computations** in Python. One of its powerful features is the ability to carry out **statistical operations** on large datasets **efficiently and with minimal code**.

Statistical functions in NumPy are optimized in C and run significantly faster than using pure Python logic.

**🔹 Statistical Functions Provided by NumPy**

Here are some important statistical functions provided by NumPy:

| **Function** | **Purpose** |
| --- | --- |
| np.mean() | Calculates the average value |
| np.median() | Finds the middle value |
| np.std() | Computes the standard deviation |
| np.var() | Calculates the variance |
| np.min() / np.max() | Finds minimum or maximum values |
| np.percentile() | Calculates specific percentiles (e.g. 50th) |

These functions work with **1D, 2D, or multi-dimensional** arrays, which is useful in **data science, analytics, and machine learning**.

**🔹 Example Python Program**

import numpy as np

# Sample dataset

data = np.array([12, 15, 20, 22, 26, 30, 33, 35, 40])

# Compute statistical values

mean\_val = np.mean(data)

median\_val = np.median(data)

std\_dev = np.std(data)

variance = np.var(data)

# Display results

print("Dataset:", data)

print("Mean:", mean\_val)

print("Median:", median\_val)

print("Standard Deviation:", std\_dev)

print("Variance:", variance)

**🔸 Output**

Dataset: [12 15 20 22 26 30 33 35 40]

Mean: 26.88888888888889

Median: 26.0

Standard Deviation: 8.617256885235394

Variance: 74.28571428571429

**🔹 Explanation of the Program**

**✅ 1. Mean (Average) – np.mean()**

Mean is the **sum of all elements divided by the number of elements**.

**Formula:**

Mean=∑xin\text{Mean} = \frac{\sum x\_i}{n}

Here:

Mean=12+15+20+22+26+30+33+35+409=26.89\text{Mean} = \frac{12+15+20+22+26+30+33+35+40}{9} = 26.89

**✅ 2. Median – np.median()**

Median is the **middle value** of a sorted dataset.  
If odd number of elements: middle one  
If even number: average of two middle values

In our case, the sorted array is:

[12, 15, 20, 22, 26, 30, 33, 35, 40]

Middle element (5th one) is 26.

**✅ 3. Standard Deviation (std) – np.std()**

Standard Deviation tells **how spread out the data is**.  
A low std means data is close to the mean; a high std means it's spread out.

**Formula:**

Standard Deviation=1n∑i=1n(xi−xˉ)2\text{Standard Deviation} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum\_{i=1}^{n} (x\_i - \bar{x})^2}

In our dataset, std = approx 8.62

**✅ 4. Variance – np.var()**

Variance is the **square of the standard deviation**.  
It measures how far the numbers are from the mean.

Variance=1n∑i=1n(xi−xˉ)2\text{Variance} = \frac{1}{n} \sum\_{i=1}^{n} (x\_i - \bar{x})^2

Here, variance = approx 74.29

**✅ Summary Table**

| **Measure** | **NumPy Function** | **Result (from example)** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Mean | np.mean() | 26.89 |
| Median | np.median() | 26.0 |
| Standard Deviation | np.std() | 8.62 |
| Variance | np.var() | 74.29 |

**🔸 Use in Real-Life Scenarios**

* In **machine learning**, you use mean and std to normalize data.
* In **finance**, std and variance help calculate **risk and volatility**.
* In **quality control**, median helps spot anomalies.
* In **education**, averages are used to summarize test scores.

**✅ Conclusion**

NumPy’s statistical functions provide a fast, simple, and efficient way to compute key statistical measures like **mean**, **median**, **standard deviation**, and **variance**. These tools are essential in **data analysis, scientific computing**, and **machine learning**, and they make handling large datasets easy and reliable.

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**✅ Q55. Explain the different functions in NumPy used to generate random numbers. Compare rand(), randn(), randint(), and random(). Give examples for each. (Explain in detail with examples)**

**🔰 Introduction**

Random numbers are essential in many fields such as **simulation, statistical sampling, cryptography, gaming, and machine learning**.  
NumPy offers a rich set of **random number generation functions** in its numpy.random module, which provide **efficient and flexible ways** to generate random data following different distributions.

**🔹 Key NumPy Random Number Functions**

| **Function** | **Distribution Type** | **Description** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| np.random.rand() | Uniform (0,1) | Generates random floats in the range [0,1) with uniform probability |
| np.random.randn() | Standard Normal (Gaussian) | Generates samples from the standard normal distribution (mean=0, std=1) |
| np.random.randint() | Discrete Uniform Integers | Generates random integers between a low (inclusive) and high (exclusive) |
| np.random.random() | Uniform (0,1) | Also generates random floats in [0,1), similar to rand() but with different syntax |

**1. np.random.rand()**

* Generates random numbers from a **uniform distribution** between 0 and 1.
* Takes **dimensions** as parameters to create arrays.

**Example:**

import numpy as np

# Generate 5 random floats between 0 and 1

arr = np.random.rand(5)

print("rand():", arr)

# Generate 2x3 array

arr\_2d = np.random.rand(2, 3)

print("rand() 2D:\n", arr\_2d)

**Sample Output:**

rand(): [0.5488135 0.71518937 0.60276338 0.54488318 0.4236548 ]

rand() 2D:

[[0.64589411 0.43758721 0.891773 ]

[0.96366276 0.38344152 0.79172504]]

**2. np.random.randn()**

* Generates random numbers from the **standard normal distribution** (mean = 0, std = 1).
* Useful for simulations or problems assuming Gaussian noise.

**Example:**

arr = np.random.randn(5)

print("randn():", arr)

arr\_2d = np.random.randn(2, 3)

print("randn() 2D:\n", arr\_2d)

**Sample Output:**

randn(): [ 0.15494743 0.37816252 -0.88778575 -1.98079647 -0.34791215]

randn() 2D:

[[-0.30230275 -1.04855297 -1.42001794]

[-1.70627019 1.9507754 -0.50965218]]

**3. np.random.randint()**

* Generates **random integers** between a given range [low, high).
* Commonly used for selecting random indices or categorical variables.

**Syntax:**

np.random.randint(low, high=None, size=None)

* If high is None, range is [0, low).

**Example:**

arr = np.random.randint(1, 10, size=5)

print("randint():", arr)

arr\_2d = np.random.randint(0, 100, size=(2, 4))

print("randint() 2D:\n", arr\_2d)

**Sample Output:**

randint(): [8 3 7 9 1]

randint() 2D:

[[64 1 61 27]

[44 75 44 53]]

**4. np.random.random()**

* Similar to rand(), it generates floats in the interval [0,1).
* Differs in syntax: takes a **shape tuple** as a single argument instead of separate dimensions.

**Example:**

arr = np.random.random(5)

print("random():", arr)

arr\_2d = np.random.random((2, 3))

print("random() 2D:\n", arr\_2d)

**Sample Output:**

random(): [0.07103606 0.95958153 0.65512903 0.27090029 0.1289263 ]

random() 2D:

[[0.65998405 0.81722214 0.73054751]

[0.90422777 0.03381646 0.54530759]]

**🔹 Comparison Summary**

| **Function** | **Distribution** | **Arguments Format** | **Use Case** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| rand() | Uniform [0,1) | Dimensions as separate args | Random floats for simulations |
| randn() | Standard Normal | Dimensions as separate args | Gaussian noise, statistical modeling |
| randint() | Random integers | low, high, size | Random discrete data, indices |
| random() | Uniform [0,1) | Shape tuple | Alternative to rand(), same range |

**🔹 Summary**

* Use **rand() or random()** when you want random floats between 0 and 1.
* Use **randn()** when you need normally distributed random values.
* Use **randint()** when you need random integers within a specific range.

**✅ Conclusion**

NumPy’s random functions provide a flexible and powerful toolkit for generating random data across different **distributions** and **formats**. Choosing the right function depends on your use case — whether it's uniform floats, Gaussian data, or integers. These are fundamental for simulations, probabilistic models, and randomized algorithms in data science and machine learning.

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**✅ Q56. With reference to arrays explain the following methods: append(), insert(), pop(), reverse(). Explain in detail with examples and line-by-line explanation.**

**🔰 Introduction**

In Python, arrays (or lists, which are more commonly used dynamic arrays) provide several built-in methods to **modify and manage elements efficiently**. Four important methods that help manipulate arrays/lists are:

* append() — Add an element to the end
* insert() — Insert an element at a specified index
* pop() — Remove and return an element (usually last or specified index)
* reverse() — Reverse the order of elements in the array/list

These methods are essential in managing data collections dynamically during program execution.

**🔹 1. append() Method**

* Purpose: Adds a single element **at the end** of the array/list.
* Changes the original array in-place.

**Example:**

arr = [10, 20, 30]

arr.append(40)

print(arr)

**Explanation:**

* arr = [10, 20, 30] — Create a list with elements 10, 20, 30.
* arr.append(40) — Add 40 to the end of arr.
* print(arr) — Displays the updated list: [10, 20, 30, 40].

**🔹 2. insert() Method**

* Purpose: Inserts an element **at a specified index**, shifting other elements to the right.
* Syntax: list.insert(index, element)

**Example:**

arr = [10, 20, 30]

arr.insert(1, 15)

print(arr)

**Explanation:**

* arr = [10, 20, 30] — Initial list.
* arr.insert(1, 15) — Insert 15 at index 1 (second position).
* The elements from index 1 onward shift right: [10, 15, 20, 30].
* print(arr) — Prints the updated list.

**🔹 3. pop() Method**

* Purpose: Removes and **returns an element** from the list.
* By default, removes the **last element**.
* You can specify the index to remove any element.

**Example 1 (pop last):**

arr = [10, 20, 30]

removed\_element = arr.pop()

print("Removed:", removed\_element)

print("Updated list:", arr)

**Explanation:**

* arr = [10, 20, 30] — Initial list.
* removed\_element = arr.pop() — Removes last element (30), stores in removed\_element.
* print("Removed:", removed\_element) — Displays removed value 30.
* print("Updated list:", arr) — Shows list after removal: [10, 20].

**Example 2 (pop at index):**

arr = [10, 20, 30]

removed\_element = arr.pop(1)

print("Removed:", removed\_element)

print("Updated list:", arr)

**Explanation:**

* arr.pop(1) — Removes element at index 1 (20).
* Remaining list is [10, 30].

**🔹 4. reverse() Method**

* Purpose: Reverses the elements **in place** (no return value).
* Changes the list so that elements appear in reverse order.

**Example:**

arr = [10, 20, 30]

arr.reverse()

print(arr)

**Explanation:**

* arr = [10, 20, 30] — Initial list.
* arr.reverse() — Reverses the order: [30, 20, 10].
* print(arr) — Prints reversed list.

**🔹 Summary Table**

| **Method** | **Description** | **Changes list?** | **Returns Value** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| append() | Add element to end | Yes | None |
| insert() | Insert element at specific index | Yes | None |
| pop() | Remove and return element (default last) | Yes | Removed element |
| reverse() | Reverse order of list elements | Yes | None |

**🔸 Additional Notes**

* All methods **modify the list in-place**, except pop() which also returns the removed element.
* These methods are widely used in dynamic list manipulation, for example in stacks, queues, and other data structures.

**✅ Complete Example Demonstrating All Methods:**

arr = [1, 2, 3]

# Append 4 to the end

arr.append(4)

print("After append:", arr) # [1, 2, 3, 4]

# Insert 10 at index 2

arr.insert(2, 10)

print("After insert:", arr) # [1, 2, 10, 3, 4]

# Pop last element

last = arr.pop()

print("Popped element:", last) # 4

print("After pop:", arr) # [1, 2, 10, 3]

# Pop element at index 1

removed = arr.pop(1)

print("Popped element at index 1:", removed) # 2

print("After pop at index 1:", arr) # [1, 10, 3]

# Reverse the list

arr.reverse()

print("After reverse:", arr) # [3, 10, 1]

This detailed explanation with examples will help you understand **how arrays/lists are manipulated** with these methods and prepare you well for the exam.

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**✅ Q57. Explain linspace(), arange(), and eye() functions in Python with suitable examples.**

**🔰 Introduction**

In Python, especially using the **NumPy** library, linspace(), arange(), and eye() are important functions used to create arrays with specific characteristics. These functions help in numerical computations, data generation, and matrix operations.

**1. numpy.linspace()**

* **Purpose:** Generates an array of evenly spaced numbers **over a specified interval**, including both start and end points.
* Useful when you want a fixed number of points between two values, regardless of the step size.

**Syntax:**

numpy.linspace(start, stop, num=50, endpoint=True, retstep=False, dtype=None)

* start: Starting value of the sequence.
* stop: Ending value of the sequence.
* num: Number of evenly spaced samples to generate (default 50).
* endpoint: If True (default), stop is included in the array.
* retstep: If True, returns the step size as well.

**Example:**

import numpy as np

# Generate 5 numbers evenly spaced between 1 and 10

arr = np.linspace(1, 10, 5)

print("linspace:", arr)

**Explanation:**

* linspace(1, 10, 5) creates an array: [1. , 3.25, 5.5, 7.75, 10.]
* The 5 numbers are equally spaced between 1 and 10, including both ends.

**2. numpy.arange()**

* **Purpose:** Creates an array of evenly spaced values **within a half-open interval** [start, stop) (stop is excluded).
* Similar to Python’s built-in range() but returns a NumPy array and supports float steps.

**Syntax:**

numpy.arange(start, stop, step=1, dtype=None)

* start: Starting value (default 0).
* stop: End value (not included).
* step: Spacing between values (default 1).

**Example:**

# Generate values from 0 to 9 with step 2

arr = np.arange(0, 10, 2)

print("arange:", arr)

**Explanation:**

* Generates array [0, 2, 4, 6, 8].
* Values start at 0, increase by 2, and stop before 10.

**Note:** Unlike linspace, arange excludes the stop value.

**3. numpy.eye()**

* **Purpose:** Creates a **2D identity matrix** of size n x n.
* Identity matrix has 1s on the main diagonal and 0s elsewhere.
* Used in linear algebra and matrix computations.

**Syntax:**

numpy.eye(N, M=None, k=0, dtype=float)

* N: Number of rows.
* M: Number of columns (if None, defaults to N).
* k: Index of the diagonal (0 is the main diagonal, positive for above main, negative below).
* dtype: Data type of returned array.

**Example:**

# Create 3x3 identity matrix

mat = np.eye(3)

print("eye():\n", mat)

**Explanation:**

* Creates matrix:

[[1. 0. 0.]

[0. 1. 0.]

[0. 0. 1.]]

**🔹 Summary Table**

| **Function** | **Description** | **Output Example** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| linspace() | Evenly spaced numbers over interval [start, stop] (inclusive) | [1. , 3.25, 5.5, 7.75, 10.] |
| arange() | Evenly spaced numbers in interval [start, stop) (exclusive) | [0, 2, 4, 6, 8] |
| eye() | Creates an identity matrix | 3x3 matrix with 1s on diagonal, 0s elsewhere |

**✅ Complete Code Example**

import numpy as np

# linspace example

arr\_linspace = np.linspace(1, 10, 5)

print("linspace(1, 10, 5):", arr\_linspace)

# arange example

arr\_arange = np.arange(0, 10, 2)

print("arange(0, 10, 2):", arr\_arange)

# eye example

identity\_matrix = np.eye(3)

print("eye(3):\n", identity\_matrix)

**✅ Conclusion**

* Use **linspace()** when you need **a fixed number of points evenly spaced between two values**, including the end.
* Use **arange()** when you want values at a **fixed step size** over a range but excluding the endpoint.
* Use **eye()** when you want to create an **identity matrix** for matrix calculations.

These functions are fundamental in **scientific computing, data analysis, and mathematical modeling** using Python.

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**✅ Q58. Explain the concept of set operations in Python, including union, intersection, difference, and symmetric difference. Provide examples demonstrating how these operations are performed using built-in methods and operators.**

**🔰 Introduction to Sets in Python**

A **set** in Python is an **unordered collection** of unique elements. Sets are very useful for mathematical operations such as union, intersection, difference, and symmetric difference, which are fundamental in **data analysis, filtering, and comparison tasks**.

Python provides built-in support for sets and their operations via:

* Set methods (like .union(), .intersection(), etc.)
* Set operators (|, &, -, ^)

These operations allow you to perform mathematical set theory easily on collections of data.

**1. Union (| or .union())**

* Combines **all unique elements** from two sets.
* Result contains every element present in either set, **without duplicates**.

**Example:**

setA = {1, 2, 3, 4}

setB = {3, 4, 5, 6}

# Using union method

union\_set = setA.union(setB)

print("Union using method:", union\_set)

# Using '|' operator

union\_set\_op = setA | setB

print("Union using operator:", union\_set\_op)

**Explanation:**

* setA has elements {1, 2, 3, 4}
* setB has elements {3, 4, 5, 6}
* Union includes all elements from both sets: {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}
* Both method and operator produce the same result.

**2. Intersection (& or .intersection())**

* Finds **common elements** present in both sets.
* Result contains only elements that exist in **both** sets.

**Example:**

# Using intersection method

intersect\_set = setA.intersection(setB)

print("Intersection using method:", intersect\_set)

# Using '&' operator

intersect\_set\_op = setA & setB

print("Intersection using operator:", intersect\_set\_op)

**Explanation:**

* Only elements {3, 4} are common in both setA and setB.
* So the intersection is {3, 4}.

**3. Difference (- or .difference())**

* Elements that are in the **first set but not in the second**.
* Order matters: setA - setB ≠ setB - setA.

**Example:**

# Difference: elements in setA but not in setB

diff\_set = setA.difference(setB)

print("Difference (setA - setB) using method:", diff\_set)

# Using '-' operator

diff\_set\_op = setA - setB

print("Difference (setA - setB) using operator:", diff\_set\_op)

# Difference: elements in setB but not in setA

diff\_set\_reverse = setB - setA

print("Difference (setB - setA):", diff\_set\_reverse)

**Explanation:**

* setA - setB gives {1, 2}, because 1 and 2 are only in setA.
* setB - setA gives {5, 6}, elements unique to setB.

**4. Symmetric Difference (^ or .symmetric\_difference())**

* Elements that are in **either** of the sets, **but not in both**.
* It’s the union of differences in both directions.

**Example:**

# Using symmetric\_difference method

sym\_diff\_set = setA.symmetric\_difference(setB)

print("Symmetric difference using method:", sym\_diff\_set)

# Using '^' operator

sym\_diff\_set\_op = setA ^ setB

print("Symmetric difference using operator:", sym\_diff\_set\_op)

**Explanation:**

* Elements exclusive to each set combined.
* Result: {1, 2, 5, 6} — elements that are in setA or setB, but not in both.

**🔹 Summary Table of Set Operations**

| **Operation** | **Method** | **Operator** | **Description** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Union | .union() | ` | ` |
| Intersection | .intersection() | & | Common elements in both sets |
| Difference | .difference() | - | Elements in first set not in second |
| Symmetric Difference | .symmetric\_difference() | ^ | Elements in either set but not both |

**🔸 Why Are Set Operations Important?**

* **Remove duplicates:** Sets automatically ensure uniqueness.
* **Fast membership testing:** Checking if an element exists is efficient.
* **Data filtering:** Useful in finding common or unique data points between datasets.
* **Mathematical modeling:** Used in algorithms requiring union or intersection of sets.

**✅ Complete Example with All Operations and Detailed Output:**

setA = {1, 2, 3, 4}

setB = {3, 4, 5, 6}

print("Set A:", setA)

print("Set B:", setB)

# Union

print("Union (A | B):", setA | setB) # {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}

# Intersection

print("Intersection (A & B):", setA & setB) # {3, 4}

# Difference A - B

print("Difference (A - B):", setA - setB) # {1, 2}

# Difference B - A

print("Difference (B - A):", setB - setA) # {5, 6}

# Symmetric Difference

print("Symmetric Difference (A ^ B):", setA ^ setB) # {1, 2, 5, 6}

**Step-by-step Explanation:**

* setA | setB combines unique elements of both sets.
* setA & setB finds common elements.
* setA - setB finds what is unique to setA.
* setB - setA finds what is unique to setB.
* setA ^ setB finds elements exclusive to either set, excluding common elements.

**🔹 Additional Notes**

* Sets are **mutable**, but their elements must be **immutable** (e.g., integers, strings, tuples).
* Use **frozenset** if you need an immutable version of a set.
* Operators provide a more **concise and readable** syntax compared to methods.
* Useful in many areas like **data science**, **database querying**, and **algorithm design**.

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**✅ Q: Discuss the concept of sets in Python and their significance in programming. Explain how sets differ from other data structures, such as lists and dictionaries, and highlight their key characteristics.**

**🔰 What is a Set in Python?**

In Python, a **set** is an **unordered**, **unindexed**, and **mutable** collection of **unique elements**. It is one of the built-in data structures and is widely used for operations involving **mathematical sets** such as union, intersection, and difference.

Sets are defined using **curly braces {}** or the **set() constructor**.

**📌 Example:**

my\_set = {1, 2, 3, 4}

print(my\_set) # Output: {1, 2, 3, 4}

**🔹 Key Characteristics of Sets**

| **Characteristic** | **Description** |
| --- | --- |
| **Unordered** | Elements have no fixed position or index. |
| **No Duplicates** | Automatically removes duplicate values. |
| **Mutable** | You can add or remove items after creation. |
| **Iterable** | Can be used in loops (e.g., for loop). |
| **Heterogeneous** | Can store elements of different data types (e.g., int, str, tuple). |

**⚠️ Note:**

* Sets cannot contain **mutable items like lists or other sets** as elements.
* You cannot access elements by index or slice them.

**🔹 Creating Sets**

# Using curly braces

my\_set = {1, 2, 3, 3, 4}

print(my\_set) # Output: {1, 2, 3, 4}

# Using set() function

my\_set2 = set([10, 20, 30])

print(my\_set2) # Output: {10, 20, 30}

**🔸 Common Set Operations**

| **Operation** | **Syntax Example** | **Description** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Add item** | s.add(5) | Adds a single element |
| **Remove item** | s.remove(2) | Removes an element (raises error if not found) |
| **Discard item** | s.discard(2) | Removes an element (no error if not found) |
| **Union** | `s1 | s2ors1.union(s2)` |
| **Intersection** | s1 & s2 or s1.intersection(s2) | Common elements |
| **Difference** | s1 - s2 or s1.difference(s2) | Elements in s1 but not in s2 |
| **Symmetric Diff.** | s1 ^ s2 or s1.symmetric\_difference(s2) | Elements in s1 or s2 but not both |

**🔹 Significance of Sets in Programming**

1. ✅ **Duplicate Removal:**
   * Useful when you want a collection of unique elements.
2. data = [1, 2, 2, 3, 4]
3. unique\_data = set(data)
4. print(unique\_data) # Output: {1, 2, 3, 4}
5. ✅ **Efficient Membership Testing:**
   * Very fast to check if an item exists in a set using in.
6. if 3 in my\_set:
7. print("Exists!") # Fast lookup
8. ✅ **Useful in Data Cleaning:**
   * Quickly identify or eliminate duplicate records.
9. ✅ **Mathematical Operations:**
   * Directly supports operations like union, intersection, and difference.
10. ✅ **Helps in Comparison:**
    * Easily compare groups of data (e.g., common users, missing elements, etc.)

**🔸 Sets vs. Lists vs. Dictionaries**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Feature | Set | List | Dictionary |
| Ordered | ❌ No | ✅ Yes | ✅ Yes (Python 3.7+) |
| Duplicates | ❌ No | ✅ Yes | ❌ Keys are unique |
| Indexing | ❌ Not supported | ✅ Supported | ✅ Keys used for access |
| Mutability | ✅ Yes | ✅ Yes | ✅ Yes |
| Usage | Math operations, uniqueness | Sequential data | Key-value pairs |

**✅ Example Demonstration:**

# Set demo

a = {1, 2, 3}

b = {3, 4, 5}

# Union

print("Union:", a | b) # {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}

# Intersection

print("Intersection:", a & b) # {3}

# Difference

print("a - b:", a - b) # {1, 2}

# Symmetric Difference

print("Symmetric Difference:", a ^ b) # {1, 2, 4, 5}

**✅ Conclusion**

Sets in Python are a **powerful and efficient** data structure for working with unique data and performing mathematical set operations. They differ from lists and dictionaries by their lack of order and automatic uniqueness enforcement. Understanding sets is crucial for tasks involving **data filtering, duplicate elimination, and fast membership testing**, making them essential in real-world programming and data science.

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**✅ Q: Explain the usage of the following methods: linspace(), arange(), zeros(), and ones()**

In Python, the **NumPy** library provides a wide range of functions for creating and manipulating numerical arrays. Among them, linspace(), arange(), zeros(), and ones() are frequently used to **create arrays** with specific values or patterns. These functions are extremely useful in **scientific computing**, **data analysis**, and **machine learning** tasks where array creation and manipulation are fundamental.

**1️⃣ numpy.linspace(start, stop, num=50)**

**🔹 Definition:**

The linspace() function returns **evenly spaced values** over a specified range. It is useful when you want to divide a numeric interval into n equal parts.

**✅ Syntax:**

numpy.linspace(start, stop, num=50, endpoint=True)

* start: Start of interval.
* stop: End of interval.
* num: Number of evenly spaced samples (default is 50).
* endpoint: If True, includes the stop value.

**✅ Example:**

import numpy as np

arr = np.linspace(1, 5, num=5)

print(arr)

**🔍 Explanation:**

* This divides the interval from 1 to 5 into 5 **equally spaced** numbers.
* Output: [1. 2. 3. 4. 5.]
* Useful in plotting graphs and simulations.

**2️⃣ numpy.arange(start, stop, step)**

**🔹 Definition:**

The arange() function returns values in a **range with a given step**, similar to Python’s built-in range(), but it returns a **NumPy array**.

**✅ Syntax:**

numpy.arange(start, stop, step)

* start: Starting value.
* stop: Ending value (not included).
* step: Step size (default is 1).

**✅ Example:**

arr = np.arange(1, 10, 2)

print(arr)

**🔍 Explanation:**

* Creates numbers from 1 to less than 10, with a step of 2.
* Output: [1 3 5 7 9]
* Useful in generating sequences quickly for looping or calculations.

**3️⃣ numpy.zeros(shape, dtype=float)**

**🔹 Definition:**

The zeros() function creates a **NumPy array filled with zeros**. The size and shape are defined by the shape parameter.

**✅ Syntax:**

numpy.zeros(shape, dtype=float)

* shape: Can be a single integer or a tuple for multidimensional arrays.
* dtype: Data type of the elements (default is float).

**✅ Example:**

arr = np.zeros((2, 3))

print(arr)

**🔍 Explanation:**

* This creates a 2x3 matrix with all values as 0.
* Output:
* [[0. 0. 0.]
* [0. 0. 0.]]
* Useful for initializing arrays before filling them with data.

**4️⃣ numpy.ones(shape, dtype=float)**

**🔹 Definition:**

The ones() function creates a **NumPy array filled with ones**.

**✅ Syntax:**

numpy.ones(shape, dtype=float)

* Same parameters as zeros().

**✅ Example:**

arr = np.ones((3, 2), dtype=int)

print(arr)

**🔍 Explanation:**

* Creates a 3x2 matrix with all values as 1 of integer type.
* Output:
* [[1 1]
* [1 1]
* [1 1]]
* Often used in matrix initialization or as multipliers.

**🔚 Summary Table:**

| **Function** | **Purpose** | **Output Example** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| linspace() | Evenly spaced values over an interval | [0., 0.5, 1.] |
| arange() | Sequence of values with a step | [1, 2, 3, 4] |
| zeros() | Array filled with 0s | [[0., 0.], [0., 0.]] |
| ones() | Array filled with 1s | [[1, 1, 1]] |

**🎯 Use Cases in Programming**

* **linspace()**: Plotting smooth curves in graphs.
* **arange()**: Iterative computations, time steps.
* **zeros()**: Initializing weights or default values in algorithms.
* **ones()**: Creating constant arrays, multiplying matrices.

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**✅ Q: How can NumPy be used to compute basic descriptive statistics like mean, median, standard deviation, and variance? Write a Python program that computes these values for a given NumPy array and explain the output.**

**🔰 Introduction**

**Descriptive statistics** provide essential summaries about the **central tendency**, **spread**, and **variability** of data. In Python, the **NumPy library** offers **built-in functions** to compute these statistics efficiently for arrays of data.

**NumPy Functions Used:**

| **Statistic** | **NumPy Function** |
| --- | --- |
| Mean (Average) | np.mean(array) |
| Median (Middle value) | np.median(array) |
| Standard Deviation | np.std(array) |
| Variance | np.var(array) |

**🔸 Python Program**

import numpy as np

# Creating a NumPy array with sample data

data = np.array([10, 20, 20, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80])

# Mean

mean\_value = np.mean(data)

print("Mean:", mean\_value)

# Median

median\_value = np.median(data)

print("Median:", median\_value)

# Standard Deviation

std\_deviation = np.std(data)

print("Standard Deviation:", std\_deviation)

# Variance

variance\_value = np.var(data)

print("Variance:", variance\_value)

**🔍 Explanation of Output**

Given the array:

[10, 20, 20, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80]

**✅ 1. Mean**

np.mean(data) → (10 + 20 + 20 + 40 + 50 + 60 + 70 + 80) / 8 = 43.75

**Output:** Mean: 43.75  
**Interpretation:** The average value of all the elements.

**✅ 2. Median**

np.median(data) → middle values are 40 and 50 → (40 + 50) / 2 = 45.0

**Output:** Median: 45.0  
**Interpretation:** Middle value when data is sorted. For even number of elements, it averages the two center values.

**✅ 3. Standard Deviation**

np.std(data) → Square root of the average squared deviation from the mean

**Steps:**

* Find mean: 43.75
* Calculate deviation of each value from mean
* Square each deviation
* Find average of squared deviations (variance)
* Take square root of variance

**Output:** Standard Deviation: 24.39 (approx.)  
**Interpretation:** Measures how spread out the values are from the mean.

**✅ 4. Variance**

np.var(data) → Average of squared differences from the mean

**Output:** Variance: 595.31 (approx.)  
**Interpretation:** The square of the standard deviation. High variance = more spread in the data.

**🎯 When is this useful?**

* In **data science**, to understand data distribution.
* In **machine learning**, to normalize or scale data.
* In **finance**, to analyze variability in returns.

**📝 Summary Table**

| **Statistic** | **Function** | **Value** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Mean | np.mean(data) | 43.75 |
| Median | np.median() | 45.0 |
| Standard Deviation | np.std() | ~24.39 |
| Variance | np.var() | ~595.31 |

**✅ Conclusion**

Using NumPy’s built-in functions makes it **fast**, **reliable**, and **concise** to perform descriptive statistics on arrays. It helps in **data analysis**, **reporting**, and **decision making**, especially when working with large datasets.

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**✅ Q: Explain the basic array operations in NumPy with suitable examples. Your answer should include:**

**i) Creating 1D and 2D arrays**  
**ii) Reshaping arrays**  
**iii) Transposing**  
**iv) Flattening**

**🔰 Introduction**

**NumPy (Numerical Python)** is a powerful library in Python used for numerical and scientific computation. One of its core features is the support for **multi-dimensional arrays** and **matrix operations**.

Let’s explore **basic array operations** step by step with clear explanations and examples.

**🔹 i) Creating 1D and 2D Arrays**

**✅ 1D Array:**

A one-dimensional array is similar to a list.

import numpy as np

arr1 = np.array([10, 20, 30, 40])

print("1D Array:", arr1)

**Output:**

1D Array: [10 20 30 40]

✅ Explanation:

* np.array() is used to create an array.
* The above array has a single row with 4 elements.

**✅ 2D Array:**

A two-dimensional array is like a matrix (rows and columns).

arr2 = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]])

print("2D Array:\n", arr2)

**Output:**

2D Array:

[[1 2 3]

[4 5 6]]

✅ Explanation:

* This creates a matrix with 2 rows and 3 columns.

**🔹 ii) Reshaping Arrays**

The reshape() function is used to change the shape of an array **without changing the data**.

original = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6])

reshaped = original.reshape(2, 3)

print("Reshaped Array:\n", reshaped)

**Output:**

Reshaped Array:

[[1 2 3]

[4 5 6]]

✅ Explanation:

* The original array has 6 elements.
* We reshape it into 2 rows × 3 columns.
* The total number of elements (6) remains the same.

**🔹 iii) Transposing Arrays**

The transpose() method or .T property is used to **swap rows and columns** of a 2D array.

arr = np.array([[1, 2], [3, 4]])

transposed = arr.T

print("Original:\n", arr)

print("Transposed:\n", transposed)

**Output:**

Original:

[[1 2]

[3 4]]

Transposed:

[[1 3]

[2 4]]

✅ Explanation:

* Rows become columns and columns become rows.
* Useful in matrix operations like dot products or rotations.

**🔹 iv) Flattening Arrays**

The flatten() method converts a multi-dimensional array into a **1D array**.

arr = np.array([[10, 20], [30, 40]])

flat = arr.flatten()

print("Flattened Array:", flat)

**Output:**

Flattened Array: [10 20 30 40]

✅ Explanation:

* flatten() turns a 2D array into a 1D array.
* Useful for simplifying data before processing or saving.

**📝 Summary Table**

| **Operation** | **Description** | **Function Used** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Create 1D | Simple list converted to array | np.array() |
| Create 2D | Nested list converted to matrix | np.array() |
| Reshape | Change shape without changing data | reshape() |
| Transpose | Swap rows and columns | .T or transpose() |
| Flatten | Convert multi-dim to 1D array | flatten() |

**✅ Conclusion**

These basic NumPy operations are essential for **efficient data manipulation**, **mathematical modeling**, and **scientific computing**. They help in preparing arrays for operations such as matrix multiplication, statistical analysis, or data reshaping in machine learning workflows.

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**✅ Q: Explain the functionalities of the find(), rfind(), index(), and rindex() methods in Python strings. Provide examples demonstrating their usage and discuss the differences between these methods, including how they handle substring searching and index retrieval.**

**🔰 Introduction**

In Python, strings are sequences of characters, and the language provides several built-in methods to **search for substrings** within a string. Among them, find(), rfind(), index(), and rindex() are commonly used to **locate the position of a substring**. These methods return the **index** of the substring if found, or handle the failure differently depending on the method.

**🔹 1. find() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The find() method searches for the **first occurrence** of a substring in a string from **left to right**. If found, it returns the index of the first character of the substring; otherwise, it returns -1.

**✅ Syntax:**

string.find(substring, start, end)

* substring: Text to search.
* start (optional): Starting index of the search.
* end (optional): Ending index of the search.

**✅ Example:**

text = "Python programming is powerful."

result = text.find("programming")

print("Index:", result)

**Output:**

Index: 7

✅ **Explanation**: The word "programming" starts at index 7 in the string.

**🔹 2. rfind() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The rfind() method searches for the **last occurrence** of a substring from **right to left**, but still returns the index counted from the beginning (left side) of the string.

**✅ Syntax:**

string.rfind(substring, start, end)

**✅ Example:**

text = "Python is easy. Python is powerful."

result = text.rfind("Python")

print("Index:", result)

**Output:**

Index: 17

✅ **Explanation**: The last occurrence of "Python" starts at index 17.

**🔹 3. index() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The index() method works exactly like find(), but with **one key difference**: if the substring is **not found**, it raises a ValueError instead of returning -1.

**✅ Syntax:**

string.index(substring, start, end)

**✅ Example:**

text = "Hello world"

result = text.index("world")

print("Index:", result)

**Output:**

Index: 6

✅ **Explanation**: The substring "world" starts at index 6.

**❌ Example with error:**

text = "Hello world"

result = text.index("Python")

**Output:**

ValueError: substring not found

**🔹 4. rindex() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The rindex() method is similar to rfind(), but raises a ValueError if the substring is not found.

**✅ Syntax:**

string.rindex(substring, start, end)

**✅ Example:**

text = "Python is popular. Python is simple."

result = text.rindex("Python")

print("Index:", result)

**Output:**

Index: 18

✅ **Explanation**: The last occurrence of "Python" starts at index 18.

**🔄 Differences Between Methods**

| **Method** | **Search Direction** | **Returns -1 if Not Found?** | **Raises Error if Not Found?** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| find() | Left to Right | ✅ Yes | ❌ No |
| rfind() | Right to Left | ✅ Yes | ❌ No |
| index() | Left to Right | ❌ No | ✅ Yes |
| rindex() | Right to Left | ❌ No | ✅ Yes |

**📌 Summary of Use Cases**

* Use find() or rfind() when you're **not sure** if the substring exists and want to **avoid errors**.
* Use index() or rindex() when you **want to enforce** that the substring must be present (e.g., in data validation or parsing).

**✅ Conclusion**

These string searching methods in Python provide flexible ways to find substrings. Understanding how each method works, especially the **differences in behavior when substrings are not found**, helps write **robust and error-free string-handling code**.

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**✅ Q: Discuss the functionalities of the following string methods in Python: count(), split(), join(), and replace(). Provide examples to illustrate how each method works and its significance in string manipulation.**

**🔰 Introduction**

In Python, **strings are immutable sequences of characters**, and Python provides a rich set of built-in methods to manipulate strings effectively. Four commonly used methods for string processing are:

* count() – to count occurrences of a substring
* split() – to divide a string into a list
* join() – to combine a list into a string
* replace() – to substitute substrings

These methods are essential for **text parsing, cleaning, formatting**, and **data transformation tasks**.

**🔹 1. count() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The count() method returns the number of times a specified **substring** appears in a string.

**✅ Syntax:**

string.count(substring, start, end)

* substring: the target text to count.
* start and end are optional parameters that define the search range.

**✅ Example:**

text = "Python is easy. Python is powerful. Python is fun."

count\_python = text.count("Python")

print("Occurrences of 'Python':", count\_python)

**Output:**

Occurrences of 'Python': 3

✅ **Explanation:** It counts how many times "Python" appears in the string.

**🔹 Significance:**

Useful for analyzing frequency of terms in text, such as in **text analytics**, **word counting**, or **data validation**.

**🔹 2. split() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The split() method **divides** a string into a list of substrings based on a specified delimiter (default is whitespace).

**✅ Syntax:**

string.split(separator, maxsplit)

* separator (optional): string where the split occurs.
* maxsplit (optional): limits the number of splits.

**✅ Example:**

sentence = "Python is a great language"

words = sentence.split()

print(words)

**Output:**

['Python', 'is', 'a', 'great', 'language']

✅ **Explanation:** The string is split at every whitespace.

**🔹 Significance:**

Used in **tokenization**, **text parsing**, and converting strings into lists for further processing.

**🔹 3. join() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The join() method **joins** all items in a list (or any iterable) into a single string, separated by the specified delimiter.

**✅ Syntax:**

separator.join(iterable)

* separator: the string used to join (e.g., space, comma).
* iterable: a list, tuple, or sequence of strings.

**✅ Example:**

words = ['Python', 'is', 'fun']

joined\_text = " ".join(words)

print(joined\_text)

**Output:**

Python is fun

✅ **Explanation:** The list elements are joined into one string using a space as the separator.

**🔹 Significance:**

Essential for formatting output, creating structured text, and **reversing the effect** of split().

**🔹 4. replace() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The replace() method replaces a **substring** with another substring in the given string.

**✅ Syntax:**

string.replace(old, new, count)

* old: the substring to replace.
* new: the replacement text.
* count (optional): number of replacements to perform.

**✅ Example:**

text = "I love Java. Java is fast."

replaced\_text = text.replace("Java", "Python")

print(replaced\_text)

**Output:**

I love Python. Python is fast.

✅ **Explanation:** All occurrences of "Java" are replaced with "Python".

**🔹 Significance:**

Used in **data cleaning**, **text standardization**, and correcting errors in string content.

**🔄 Summary Table**

| **Method** | **Purpose** | **Returns** | **Modifies Original?** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| count() | Count occurrences of a substring | Integer | ❌ No |
| split() | Split string into a list | List | ❌ No |
| join() | Join list into a string | String | ❌ No |
| replace() | Replace substring with another | New String | ❌ No |

**✅ Conclusion**

The count(), split(), join(), and replace() methods are fundamental tools for **string manipulation in Python**. They make text processing tasks easier, especially in applications like **natural language processing**, **data preprocessing**, and **automation scripts**. Mastering these methods is essential for any Python programmer working with text data.

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**✅ Q. Explain the purpose and functionality of the seek() and tell() methods in file handling in Python. Provide examples illustrating how these methods are used to navigate within a file and determine the current file pointer position. Additionally, discuss the significance of these methods in file manipulation tasks.**

**🔰 Introduction**

In Python, file handling allows us to read from and write to files using various built-in functions. When a file is opened, Python maintains a **file pointer**—a position marker that tells us **where the next read or write operation will occur**.

To **control or check this pointer**, Python provides two key methods:

* seek() – to move the file pointer to a desired location.
* tell() – to check the current position of the file pointer.

These methods are critical for **navigating large files**, **editing specific parts**, or performing **non-linear data operations**.

**🔹 tell() Method**

**✅ Purpose:**

The tell() method returns the **current position** of the file pointer in number of bytes from the beginning of the file.

**✅ Syntax:**

file\_object.tell()

**✅ Example:**

f = open("demo.txt", "r")

position = f.tell()

print("Current file pointer position:", position)

f.close()

**📘 Output:**

Current file pointer position: 0

**✅ Explanation:**

* When a file is opened, the pointer starts at byte 0.
* tell() is used to **monitor** where we are in the file.

**🔹 seek() Method**

**✅ Purpose:**

The seek() method is used to **move the file pointer** to a specific byte position in the file.

**✅ Syntax:**

file\_object.seek(offset, whence)

* offset: Number of bytes to move.
* whence (optional):
  + 0 (default): from beginning of file.
  + 1: from current position.
  + 2: from end of file.

**✅ Example:**

f = open("demo.txt", "r")

f.seek(7) # move pointer to 7th byte

print("After seek(7):", f.read(5)) # read next 5 characters

f.close()

**📘 Output:**

After seek(7): Python

**✅ Explanation:**

* The pointer is moved to byte 7, and then the next 5 characters are read.
* This demonstrates how you can **skip parts** of a file.

**🔁 Using seek() and tell() Together**

**✅ Example:**

with open("demo.txt", "r") as f:

print("Initial position:", f.tell())

content = f.read(10)

print("Read 10 characters:", content)

print("Position after reading 10 chars:", f.tell())

f.seek(0)

print("Pointer reset. Position:", f.tell())

print("Re-read:", f.read(6))

**📘 Output:**

Initial position: 0

Read 10 characters: Welcome to

Position after reading 10 chars: 10

Pointer reset. Position: 0

Re-read: Welcom

**🧠 Significance in File Handling**

| **Use Case** | **Description** |
| --- | --- |
| ➕ Random File Access | You can directly jump to any part of a file instead of reading everything. |
| 🔄 Re-reading Data | Go back and re-read a portion without reopening the file. |
| ✏️ In-place Modification | Move to specific parts and overwrite them. |
| 📂 Efficient File Processing | Handle large files without loading everything into memory. |

**🌐 Real-World Applications**

* **Log Readers**: Jump to a position and fetch only recent log entries.
* **Binary Data Handling**: Essential when working with non-text formats.
* **Custom Parsers**: Move pointer to parse structured files like CSV, JSON, or binary files.
* **Streaming Large Files**: Avoid memory overuse by skipping parts and reading chunks.

**✅ Conclusion**

The seek() and tell() methods are powerful tools in Python’s file handling mechanism. They provide **fine-grained control** over the file pointer, allowing developers to read or write data at precise locations. These methods are indispensable when dealing with **large files**, **data streams**, or **random-access applications**. Mastery of these methods allows efficient and flexible file manipulation.

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**✅ Q. Discuss the functionalities of the following file handling methods in Python: read(), readlines(), write(), and writelines(). Provide explanations and examples demonstrating how each method is used for reading from and writing to files, and discuss their significance in file manipulation tasks.**

**🔰 Introduction**

File handling in Python allows you to perform operations like **reading** and **writing** data to text or binary files. Python provides a simple interface for file manipulation using the built-in open() function and associated methods. Among them, the most commonly used methods include:

* read(): Reads the entire file or a specified number of characters.
* readlines(): Reads all lines in a file and returns them as a list.
* write(): Writes a string to a file.
* writelines(): Writes a list of strings to a file.

These methods are crucial in handling text data stored in files, such as logs, configuration files, user data, and more.

**🔹 1. read() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The read() method reads the **entire file content** as a single string, or reads a specified number of characters.

**✅ Syntax:**

file.read([size])

* size (optional): Number of characters (bytes) to read.

**✅ Example:**

file = open("sample.txt", "r")

data = file.read()

print(data)

file.close()

**✅ Explanation:**

* Opens the file in read mode.
* Reads the entire file content and stores it in the variable data.
* Useful when you want to process the **whole file at once**.

**🔹 2. readlines() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The readlines() method reads the entire file **line by line** and returns a list of strings, where each element is a line.

**✅ Syntax:**

file.readlines()

**✅ Example:**

file = open("sample.txt", "r")

lines = file.readlines()

for line in lines:

print(line.strip()) # remove newline characters

file.close()

**✅ Explanation:**

* Each line is treated as an individual string in a list.
* Useful for **processing lines individually**, like parsing log files or line-by-line data files.

**🔹 3. write() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The write() method writes a single string into the file. If the file already contains data, it will be **overwritten** unless opened in append mode ("a").

**✅ Syntax:**

file.write(string)

**✅ Example:**

file = open("output.txt", "w")

file.write("Hello, Python World!")

file.close()

**✅ Explanation:**

* Opens the file in **write mode**.
* The string "Hello, Python World!" is written into the file.
* If the file doesn't exist, it will be created.

**🔹 4. writelines() Method**

**✅ Definition:**

The writelines() method writes a **list of strings** to the file. Unlike write(), it can write multiple lines at once, but **doesn't add newlines automatically**.

**✅ Syntax:**

file.writelines(list\_of\_strings)

**✅ Example:**

lines = ["Line 1\n", "Line 2\n", "Line 3\n"]

file = open("output.txt", "w")

file.writelines(lines)

file.close()

**✅ Explanation:**

* Each string in the list is written in order.
* If \n is not added manually, all text will appear on one line.

**📌 Comparative Summary**

| **Method** | **Description** | **Returns** | **Suitable For** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| read() | Reads entire file or specified chars | String | Whole file as one text |
| readlines() | Reads file and returns lines as list | List of strings | Line-by-line processing |
| write() | Writes one string to file | Number of chars written | Writing single text block |
| writelines() | Writes list of strings to file | None | Writing multiple lines at once |

**📂 Significance in File Manipulation**

* read() and readlines() are essential when extracting data from files for **processing, analysis, or display**.
* write() and writelines() help in **logging results, saving data, or exporting reports** to a file.
* Efficient usage of these methods ensures that files are handled correctly, avoiding data corruption or loss.

**✅ Conclusion**

Understanding how read(), readlines(), write(), and writelines() work allows Python programmers to effectively **manage and manipulate files**. These methods are the backbone of Python file I/O operations and are widely used in real-world applications like data processing, configuration handling, and report generation.