

BEGINERS GUIDE TO PYTHON





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MODULE 1: Introduction to Programming basics using Python



1. Overview on Programming

Writing programs (or programming) is a very creative and rewarding activity. You can write programs for many reasons ranging from making your living to solving a difficult data analysis problem to having fun to helping someone else solve a problem. We assume that everyone needs to know how to program and that once you know how to program, you will figure out what you want to do with your newfound skills. We are surrounded in our daily lives with computers ranging from laptops to cell phones. We can think of these computers as our "personal assistants" who can take care of many things on our behalf. The hardware in our current-day computers is essentially built to continuously ask us the question, "What would you like me to do next?".

Programmers add an operating system and a set of applications to the hardware and we end up with a Personal Digital Assistant that is quite helpful and capable of helping many different things.

Our computers are fast and have vast amounts of memory and could be very helpful to us if we only knew the language to speak to explain to the computer what we would like it to "do next". If we knew this language we could tell the computer to do tasks on our behalf that were repetitive. Interestingly, the kinds of things computers can do best are often the kinds of things that we humans find boring and mind-numbing.

Python is a high-level, interpreted, interactive and object-oriented scripting language. Python is designed to be highly readable. It uses English keywords frequently where as other languages use punctuation, and it has fewer syntactical constructions than other languages.

- **Python is Interpreted** Python is processed at runtime by the interpreter. You do not need to compile your program before executing it. This is similar to PERL and PHP.
- **Python is Interactive** You can actually sit at a Python prompt and interact with the interpreter directly to write your programs.
- **Python is Object-Oriented** Python supports Object-Oriented style or technique of programming that encapsulates code within objects.

• **Python is a Beginner's Language** — Python is a great language for the beginner-level programmers and supports the development of a wide range of applications from simple text processing to WWW browsers to games.

1.1 History of Python

Python was developed by Guido van Rossum in the late eighties and early nineties at the National Research Institute for Mathematics and Computer Science in the Netherlands.

Python is derived from many other languages, including ABC, Modula-3, C, C++, Algol-68, SmallTalk, and Unix shell and other scripting languages.

Python is copyrighted. Like Perl, Python source code is now available under the GNU General Public License (GPL).

Python is now maintained by a core development team at the institute, although Guido van Rossum still holds a vital role in directing its progress.

1.2 Python Features

Python's features include -

- **Easy-to-learn** Python has few keywords, simple structure, and a clearly defined syntax. This allows the student to pick up the language quickly.
- **Easy-to-read** Python code is more clearly defined and visible to the eyes.
- **Easy-to-maintain** Python's source code is fairly easy-to-maintain.
- **A broad standard library** Python's bulk of the library is very portable and cross-platform compatible on UNIX, Windows, and Macintosh.
- **Interactive Mode** Python has support for an interactive mode which allows interactive testing and debugging of snippets of code.
- **Portable** Python can run on a wide variety of hardware platforms and has the same interface on all platforms.
- Extendable You can add low-level modules to the Python interpreter. These
 modules enable programmers to add to or customize their tools to be more
 efficient.

- **Databases** Python provides interfaces to all major commercial databases.
- **GUI Programming** Python supports GUI applications that can be created and ported to many system calls, libraries and windows systems, such as Windows MFC, Macintosh, and the X Window system of Unix.
- **Scalable** Python provides a better structure and support for large programs than shell scripting.

Apart from the above-mentioned features, Python has a big list of good features, few are listed below —

- It supports functional and structured programming methods as well as OOP.
- It can be used as a scripting language or can be compiled to byte-code for building large applications.
- It provides very high-level dynamic data types and supports dynamic type checking.
- IT supports automatic garbage collection.
- It can be easily integrated with C, C++, COM, ActiveX, CORBA, and Java.

1.3 Installing Python

Python distribution is available for a wide variety of platforms. You need to download only the binary code applicable for your platform and install Python.

If the binary code for your platform is not available, you need a C compiler to compile the source code manually. Compiling the source code offers more flexibility in terms of choice of features that you require in your installation.

Here is a quick overview of installing Python on various platforms -

1.4 Running Python

There are three different ways to start Python –

Interactive Interpreter

You can start Python from Unix, DOS, or any other system that provides you a command-line interpreter or shell window.

Enter **python** the command line.

Start coding right away in the interactive interpreter.

Script from the Command-line

A Python script can be executed at command line by invoking the interpreter on your application, as in the following —

```
$python script.py # Unix/Linux
or
python% script.py # Unix/Linux
or
C: >python script.py # Windows/DOS
```

The Python language has many similarities to Perl, C, and Java. However, there are some definite differences between the languages.

1.5 First Python Program

Let us execute programs in different modes of programming.

Interactive Mode Programming

Invoking the interpreter without passing a script file as a parameter brings up the following prompt —

```
$ python
Python 2.4.3 (#1, Nov 11 2010, 13:34:43)
[GCC 4.1.2 20080704 (Red Hat 4.1.2-48)] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>>
```

Type the following text at the Python prompt and press the Enter –

```
>>> print "Hello, Python!"
```

If you are running new version of Python, then you would need to use print statement with parenthesis as in **print ("Hello, Python!")**;

Script Mode Programming

Invoking the interpreter with a script parameter begins execution of the script and continues until the script is finished. When the script is finished, the interpreter is no longer active.

Let us write a simple Python program in a script. Python files have extension **.py**. Type the following source code in a test.py file –

```
print "Hello, Python!"
```

We assume that you have Python interpreter set in PATH variable. Now, try to run this program as follows —

```
$ python test.py
```

This produces the following result –

```
Hello, Python!
```

Let us try another way to execute a Python script. Here is the modified test.py file —

```
#!/usr/bin/python
print "Hello, Python!"
```

1.6 Python Identifiers

A Python identifier is a name used to identify a variable, function, class, module or other object. An identifier starts with a letter A to Z or a to z or an underscore (_) followed by zero or more letters, underscores and digits (0 to 9).

Python does not allow punctuation characters such as @, \$, and % within identifiers. Python is a case sensitive programming language. Thus, **Manpower** and **manpower** are two different identifiers in Python.

Here are naming conventions for Python identifiers –

- Class names start with an uppercase letter. All other identifiers start with a lowercase letter.
- Starting an identifier with a single leading underscore indicates that the identifier is private.
- Starting an identifier with two leading underscores indicates a strongly private identifier.
- If the identifier also ends with two trailing underscores, the identifier is a language-defined special name.

1.7 Reserved Words

The following list shows the Python keywords. These are reserved words and you cannot use them as constant or variable or any other identifier names. All the Python keywords contain lowercase letters only.

and	exec	not
assert	finally	or
break	for	pass
class	from	print
continue	global	raise
def	if	return
del	import	try
elif	in	while
else	is	with

except	lambda	yield

1.8 Lines and Indentation

Python provides no braces to indicate blocks of code for class and function definitions or flow control. Blocks of code are denoted by line indentation, which is rigidly enforced.

The number of spaces in the indentation is variable, but all statements within the block must be indented the same amount. For example —

```
if True:
   print "True"
else:
   print "False"
```

Note – Do not try to understand the logic at this point of time. Just make sure you understood various blocks even if they are without braces.

```
#!/usr/bin/python

import sys

try:
    # open file stream
    file = open(file_name, "w")

except IOError:
    print "There was an error writing to", file_name
    sys.exit()

print "Enter '", file_finish,

print "' When finished"

while file_text != file_finish:
    file_text = raw_input("Enter text: ")
    if file_text == file_finish:
```

```
# close the file
      file.close
      break
   file.write(file text)
   file.write("\n")
file.close()
file_name = raw_input("Enter filename: ")
if len(file_name) == 0:
   print "Next time please enter something"
   sys.exit()
try:
  file = open(file_name, "r")
except IOError:
   print "There was an error reading file"
   sys.exit()
file_text = file.read()
file.close()
print file_text
```

1.9 Quotation in Python

Python accepts single ('), double (") and triple ("' or """) quotes to denote string literals, as long as the same type of quote starts and ends the string.

The triple quotes are used to span the string across multiple lines. For example, all the following are legal —

```
word = 'word'
sentence = "This is a sentence."
paragraph = """This is a paragraph. It is
made up of multiple lines and sentences."""
```

1.10 Comments in Python

A hash sign (#) that is not inside a string literal begins a comment. All characters after the # and up to the end of the physical line are part of the comment and the Python interpreter ignores them.

```
#!/usr/bin/python

# First comment
print "Hello, Python!" # second comment
```

This produces the following result –

```
Hello, Python!
```

You can type a comment on the same line after a statement or expression –

```
name = "Madisetti" # This is again comment
```

1.11 Waiting for the User

The following line of the program displays the prompt, the statement saying "Press the enter key to exit", and waits for the user to take action —

```
#!/usr/bin/python
raw_input("\n\nPress the enter key to exit.")
```

Here, "\n\n" is used to create two new lines before displaying the actual line. Once the user presses the key, the program ends. This is a nice trick to keep a console window open until the user is done with an application.

Python - VariableTypes

Variables are nothing but reserved memory locations to store values. This means that when you create a variable you reserve some space in memory.

Based on the data type of a variable, the interpreter allocates memory and decides what can be stored in the reserved memory. Therefore, by

assigning different data types to variables, you can store integers, decimals or characters in these variables.

1.12 Assigning Values to Variables

Python variables do not need explicit declaration to reserve memory space. The declaration happens automatically when you assign a value to a variable. The equal sign (=) is used to assign values to variables.

The operand to the left of the = operator is the name of the variable and the operand to the right of the = operator is the value stored in the variable. For example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python

counter = 100  # An integer assignment

miles = 1000.0  # A floating point

name = "John"  # A string

print counter

print miles

print name
```

Here, 100, 1000.0 and "John" are the values assigned to *counter*, *miles*, and *name* variables, respectively. This produces the following result –

```
100
1000.0
John
```

1.13 Multiple Assignment

Python allows you to assign a single value to several variables simultaneously. For example —

```
a = b = c = 1
```

Here, an integer object is created with the value 1, and all three variables are assigned to the same memory location. You can also assign multiple objects to multiple variables. For example –

```
a,b,c = 1,2,"john"
```

Here, two integer objects with values 1 and 2 are assigned to variables a and b respectively, and one string object with the value "john" is assigned to the variable c.

2.1 Standard Data Types

The data stored in memory can be of many types. For example, a person's age is stored as a numeric value and his or her address is stored as alphanumeric characters. Python has various standard data types that are used to define the operations possible on them and the storage method for each of them.

Python has five standard data types –

- Numbers
- String
- List
- Tuple
- Dictionary

2.2 Python Numbers

Number data types store numeric values. Number objects are created when you assign a value to them. For example —

```
var1 = 1
var2 = 10
```

Python supports four different numerical types –

- int (signed integers)
- long (long integers, they can also be represented in octal and hexadecimal)

- float (floating point real values)
- complex (complex numbers)

Examples

Here are some examples of numbers -

int	long	float	complex
10	51924361L	0.0	3.14j
100	-0x19323L	15.20	45.j
-786	0122L	-21.9	9.322e-36j
080	0xDEFABCECBDAECBFBAEI	32.3+e18	.876j
-0490	535633629843L	-90.	6545+0J
-0x260	-052318172735L	-32.54e100	3e+26J
0x69	-4721885298529L	70.2-E12	4.53e-7j

- Python allows you to use a lowercase I with long, but it is recommended that you use only an uppercase L to avoid confusion with the number 1. Python displays long integers with an uppercase L.
- A complex number consists of an ordered pair of real floating-point numbers denoted by x + yj, where x and y are the real numbers and j is the imaginary unit.

2.3 Python Strings

Strings in Python are identified as a contiguous set of characters represented in the quotation marks. Python allows for either pairs of single or double quotes. Subsets of strings can be taken using the slice operator ([

] and [:]) with indexes starting at 0 in the beginning of the string and working their way from -1 at the end.

The plus (+) sign is the string concatenation operator and the asterisk (*) is the repetition operator. For example -

```
#!/usr/bin/python

str = 'Hello World!'

print str  # Prints complete string

print str[0]  # Prints first character of the string

print str[2:5]  # Prints characters starting from 3rd to 5th

print str[2:]  # Prints string starting from 3rd character

print str * 2  # Prints string two times

print str + "TEST" # Prints concatenated string
```

This will produce the following result -

```
Hello World!
H
llo
llo World!
Hello World!Hello World!
Hello World!TEST
```

2.4 Python Lists

Lists are the most versatile of Python's compound data types. A list contains items separated by commas and enclosed within square brackets ([]). To some extent, lists are similar to arrays in C. One difference between them is that all the items belonging to a list can be of different data type.

The values stored in a list can be accessed using the slice operator ([] and [:]) with indexes starting at 0 in the beginning of the list and working their way to end -1. The plus (+) sign is the list concatenation operator, and the asterisk (*) is the repetition operator. For example —

```
#!/usr/bin/python

list = [ 'abcd', 786 , 2.23, 'john', 70.2 ]

tinylist = [123, 'john']

print list  # Prints complete list

print list[0]  # Prints first element of the list

print list[1:3]  # Prints elements starting from 2nd till 3rd

print list[2:]  # Prints elements starting from 3rd element

print tinylist * 2  # Prints list two times

print list + tinylist # Prints concatenated lists
```

This produce the following result –

```
['abcd', 786, 2.23, 'john', 70.2000000000000]
abcd
[786, 2.23]
[2.23, 'john', 70.200000000000]
[123, 'john', 123, 'john']
['abcd', 786, 2.23, 'john', 70.2000000000000, 123, 'john']
```

2.5 Python Tuples

A tuple is another sequence data type that is similar to the list. A tuple consists of a number of values separated by commas. Unlike lists, however, tuples are enclosed within parentheses.

The main differences between lists and tuples are: Lists are enclosed in brackets ([]) and their elements and size can be changed, while tuples are enclosed in parentheses (()) and cannot be updated. Tuples can be thought of as **read-only** lists. For example —

```
#!/usr/bin/python

tuple = ( 'abcd', 786 , 2.23, 'john', 70.2 )

tinytuple = (123, 'john')
```

```
print tuple  # Prints complete list

print tuple[0]  # Prints first element of the list

print tuple[1:3]  # Prints elements starting from 2nd till 3rd

print tuple[2:]  # Prints elements starting from 3rd element

print tinytuple * 2  # Prints list two times

print tuple + tinytuple # Prints concatenated lists
```

This produce the following result –

```
('abcd', 786, 2.23, 'john', 70.2000000000000)
abcd
(786, 2.23)
(2.23, 'john', 70.200000000000)
(123, 'john', 123, 'john')
('abcd', 786, 2.23, 'john', 70.2000000000000, 123, 'john')
```

The following code is invalid with tuple, because we attempted to update a tuple, which is not allowed. Similar case is possible with lists —

```
#!/usr/bin/python

tuple = ( 'abcd', 786 , 2.23, 'john', 70.2 )

list = [ 'abcd', 786 , 2.23, 'john', 70.2 ]

tuple[2] = 1000  # Invalid syntax with tuple

list[2] = 1000  # Valid syntax with list
```

2.6 Python Dictionary

Python's dictionaries are kind of hash table type. They work like associative arrays or hashes found in Perl and consist of key-value pairs. A dictionary key can be almost any Python type, but are usually numbers or strings. Values, on the other hand, can be any arbitrary Python object.

Dictionaries are enclosed by curly braces ($\{\ \}$) and values can be assigned and accessed using square braces ([]). For example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
dict = {}
dict['one'] = "This is one"
dict[2] = "This is two"

tinydict = {'name': 'john','code':6734, 'dept': 'sales'}

print dict['one'] # Prints value for 'one' key
print dict[2] # Prints value for 2 key
print tinydict # Prints complete dictionary
print tinydict.keys() # Prints all the keys
print tinydict.values() # Prints all the values
```

This produce the following result –

```
This is one
This is two
{'dept': 'sales', 'code': 6734, 'name': 'john'}
['dept', 'code', 'name']
['sales', 6734, 'john']
```

Dictionaries have no concept of order among elements. It is incorrect to say that the elements are "out of order"; they are simply unordered.

2.7 Data Type Conversion

Sometimes, you may need to perform conversions between the built-in types. To convert between types, you simply use the type name as a function.

There are several built-in functions to perform conversion from one data type to another. These functions return a new object representing the converted value.

```
Sr.No. Function & Description
```

1	<pre>int(x [,base]) Converts x to an integer. base specifies the base if x is a string.</pre>
2	<pre>long(x [,base]) Converts x to a long integer. base specifies the base if x is a string.</pre>
3	float(x) Converts x to a floating-point number.
4	complex(real [,imag]) Creates a complex number.
5	<pre>str(x) Converts object x to a string representation.</pre>
6	repr(x) Converts object x to an expression string.
7	eval(str) Evaluates a string and returns an object.
8	tuple(s) Converts s to a tuple.
9	list(s) Converts s to a list.
10	set(s)

	Converts s to a set.
11	<pre>dict(d) Creates a dictionary. d must be a sequence of (key,value) tuples.</pre>
12	frozenset(s) Converts s to a frozen set.
13	<pre>chr(x) Converts an integer to a character.</pre>
14	unichr(x) Converts an integer to a Unicode character.
15	<pre>ord(x) Converts a single character to its integer value.</pre>
16	hex(x) Converts an integer to a hexadecimal string.
17	oct(x) Converts an integer to an octal string.

Operators are the constructs which can manipulate the value of operands.

Consider the expression 4 + 5 = 9. Here, 4 and 5 are called operands and + is called operator.

2.8 Types of Operator

Python language supports the following types of operators.

- Arithmetic Operators
- Comparison (Relational) Operators
- Assignment Operators
- Logical Operators
- Bitwise Operators
- Membership Operators
- Identity Operators

Let us have a look on all operators one by one.

Python Arithmetic Operators

Assume variable a holds 10 and variable b holds 20, then -

Operator	Description	Example
+ Addition	Adds values on either side of the operator.	a + b = 30
- Subtraction	Subtracts right hand operand from left hand operand.	a - b = - 10
* Multiplication	Multiplies values on either side of the operator	a * b = 200
/ Division	Divides left hand operand by right hand operand	b / a = 2
% Modulus	Divides left hand operand by right hand operand and returns remainder	b % a = 0
** Exponent	Performs exponential (power) calculation on operators	a**b =10 to the

		power 20
//	Floor Division - The division of operands where the result is the quotient in which the digits after the decimal point are removed. But if one of the operands is negative, the result is floored, i.e., rounded away from zero (towards negative infinity) —	9//2 = 4 and 9.0//2.0 = 4.0, - 11//3 = -4, - 11.0//3 = -4.0

Python Comparison Operators

These operators compare the values on either sides of them and decide the relation among them. They are also called Relational operators.

Assume variable a holds 10 and variable b holds 20, then -

Operator	Description	Example
==	If the values of two operands are equal, then the condition becomes true.	(a == b) is not true.
!=	If values of two operands are not equal, then condition becomes true.	(a != b) is true.
<>	If values of two operands are not equal, then condition becomes true.	(a <> b) is true. This is similar to != operator.
>	If the value of left operand is greater than the value of right operand, then condition becomes true.	

<	If the value of left operand is less than the value of right operand, then condition becomes true.	(a < b) is true.
>=	If the value of left operand is greater than or equal to the value of right operand, then condition becomes true.	(a >= b) is not true.
<=	If the value of left operand is less than or equal to the value of right operand, then condition becomes true.	(a <= b) is true.

Python Assignment Operators

Assume variable a holds 10 and variable b holds 20, then -

Operator	Description	Example
=	Assigns values from right side operands to left side operand	c = a + b assigns value of a + b into c
+= Add AND	It adds right operand to the left operand and assign the result to left operand	c += a is equivalent to c = c + a
-= Subtract AND	It subtracts right operand from the left operand and assign the result to left operand	c -= a is equivalent to c = c - a
*= Multiply AND	It multiplies right operand with the left operand and assign the result to left operand	c *= a is equivalent to c = c *

		a
/= Divide AND	It divides left operand with the right operand and assign the result to left operand	c /= a is equivalent to c = c / ac /= a is equivalent to c = c / a
%= Modulus AND	It takes modulus using two operands and assign the result to left operand	c %= a is equivalent to c = c % a
**= Exponent AND	Performs exponential (power) calculation on operators and assign value to the left operand	c **= a is equivalent to c = c ** a
//= Floor Division	It performs floor division on operators and assign value to the left operand	c //= a is equivalent to c = c // a

Python Bitwise Operators

Bitwise operator works on bits and performs bit by bit operation. Assume if a = 60; and b = 13; Now in binary format they will be as follows –

a = 0011 1100

b = 0000 1101

 $a\&b = 0000 \ 1100$

a|b = 0011 1101

 $a^b = 0011\ 0001$

 \sim a = 1100 0011 There are following Bitwise operators supported by Python language

Operator	Description	Example
& Binary AND	Operator copies a bit to the result if it exists in both operands	(a & b) (means 0000 1100)
Binary OR	It copies a bit if it exists in either operand.	(a b) = 61 (means 0011 1101)
^ Binary XOR	It copies the bit if it is set in one operand but not both.	(a ^ b) = 49 (means 0011 0001)
~ Binary Ones Complement	It is unary and has the effect of 'flipping' bits.	(~a) = -61 (means 1100 0011 in 2's complement form due to a signed binary number.
<< Binary Left Shift	The left operands value is moved left by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	a << 2 = 240 (means 1111 0000)
>> Binary Right Shift	The left operands value is moved right by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	a >> 2 = 15 (means 0000 1111)

Python Logical Operators

There are following logical operators supported by Python language. Assume variable a holds 10 and variable b holds 20 then

erator	Description	Example
and Logical AND	If both the operands are true then condition becomes true.	(a and b) is true.
or Logical OR	If any of the two operands are non-zero then condition becomes true.	(a or b) is true.
not Logical NOT	Used to reverse the logical state of its operand.	Not(a and b) is false.

Python Membership Operators

Python's membership operators test for membership in a sequence, such as strings, lists, or tuples. There are two membership operators as explained below -

Operator	Description	Example
in	Evaluates to true if it finds a variable in the specified sequence and false otherwise.	x in y, here in results in a 1 if x is a member of sequence y.
not in	Evaluates to true if it does not finds a variable in the specified sequence and false	x not in y, here not in

otherwise.	results in a 1 if x is not a member of sequence y.
------------	--

Python Identity Operators

Identity operators compare the memory locations of two objects. There are two Identity operators explained below —

Operator	Description	Example
is	Evaluates to true if the variables on either side of the operator point to the same object and false otherwise.	x is y, here is results in 1 if id(x) equals id(y).
is not	Evaluates to false if the variables on either side of the operator point to the same object and true otherwise.	x is not y, here is notresults in 1 if id(x) is not equal to id(y).

Python Operators Precedence

The following table lists all operators from highest precedence to lowest.

Sr.No.	Operator & Description
1	**
	Exponentiation (raise to the power)

2	~ + - Complement, unary plus and minus (method names for the last two are +@ and -@)
3	* / % // Multiply, divide, modulo and floor division
4	+ - Addition and subtraction
5	>> << Right and left bitwise shift
6	& Bitwise 'AND'
7	^ Bitwise exclusive `OR' and regular `OR'
8	<= < > >= Comparison operators
9	<> == != Equality operators
10	= %= /= //= -= += *= **= Assignment operators
11	is is not

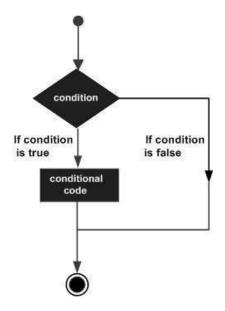
	Identity operators
12	in not in Membership operators
13	not or and Logical operators

3.1 Python - Decision Making

Decision making is anticipation of conditions occurring while execution of the program and specifying actions taken according to the conditions.

Decision structures evaluate multiple expressions which produce TRUE or FALSE as outcome. You need to determine which action to take and which statements to execute if outcome is TRUE or FALSE otherwise.

Following is the general form of a typical decision making structure found in most of the programming languages –



Python programming language assumes any **non-zero** and **non- null** values as TRUE, and if it is either **zero** or **null**, then it is assumed as FALSE value.

Python programming language provides following types of decision making statements.

Sr.No.	Statement & Description	
1	if statements	
	An if statement consists of a boolean expression followed by one or more statements.	
2	ifelse statements	
	An if statement can be followed by an optional else statement , which executes when the boolean expression is FALSE.	
3	nested if statements You can use one if or else if statement inside another if or else if statement(s).	

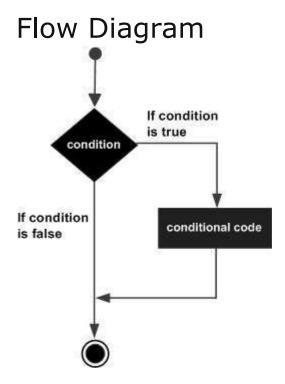
3.2 Python IF Statement

It is similar to that of other languages. The **if** statement contains a logical expression using which data is compared and a decision is made based on the result of the comparison.

Syntax

if expression:
 statement(s)

If the boolean expression evaluates to TRUE, then the block of statement(s) inside the if statement is executed. If boolean expression evaluates to FALSE, then the first set of code after the end of the if statement(s) is executed.



Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

var1 = 100
if var1:
    print "1 - Got a true expression value"
    print var1

var2 = 0
if var2:
    print "2 - Got a true expression value"
```

```
print var2
print "Good bye!"
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result -

```
1 - Got a true expression value
100
Good bye!
```

3.3 Python IF...ELIF...ELSE Statements

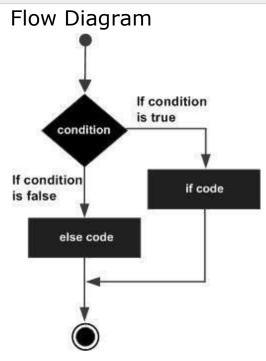
An **else** statement can be combined with an **if** statement. An **else** statement contains the block of code that executes if the conditional expression in the if statement resolves to 0 or a FALSE value.

The *else* statement is an optional statement and there could be at most only one **else** statement following **if**.

Syntax

The syntax of the *if...else* statement is –

```
if expression:
   statement(s)
else:
   statement(s)
```



Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python
var1 = 100
if var1:
   print "1 - Got a true expression value"
   print var1
else:
   print "1 - Got a false expression value"
   print var1
var2 = 0
if var2:
   print "2 - Got a true expression value"
   print var2
else:
   print "2 - Got a false expression value"
   print var2
print "Good bye!"
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result -

```
1 - Got a true expression value
100
2 - Got a false expression value
0
Good bye!
```

3.4 The elif Statement

The **elif** statement allows you to check multiple expressions for TRUE and execute a block of code as soon as one of the conditions evaluates to TRUE.

Similar to the **else**, the **elif** statement is optional. However, unlike **else**, for which there can be at most one statement, there can be an arbitrary number of **elif** statements following an **if**.

syntax

```
if expression1:
    statement(s)
elif expression2:
    statement(s)
elif expression3:
    statement(s)
else:
    statement(s)
```

Core Python does not provide switch or case statements as in other languages, but we can use if..elif...statements to simulate switch case as follows –

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

var = 100

if var == 200:
    print "1 - Got a true expression value"
    print var

elif var == 150:
    print "2 - Got a true expression value"
    print var

elif var == 100:
    print "3 - Got a true expression value"
    print var

else:
```

```
print "4 - Got a false expression value"
print var
print "Good bye!"
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
3 - Got a true expression value
100
Good bye!
```

3.5 Python nested IF statements

There may be a situation when you want to check for another condition after a condition resolves to true. In such a situation, you can use the nested **if** construct.

In a nested **if** construct, you can have an **if...elif...else**construct inside another **if...else** construct.

Syntax

The syntax of the nested if...elif...else construct may be -

```
if expression1:
    statement(s)
    if expression2:
        statement(s)
    elif expression3:
        statement(s)
    else:
        statement(s)
    elif expression4:
        statement(s)
    elif expression4:
        statement(s)
```

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

var = 100
if var < 200:</pre>
```

```
print "Expression value is less than 200"

if var == 150:
    print "Which is 150"

elif var == 100:
    print "Which is 100"

elif var == 50:
    print "Which is 50"

elif var < 50:
    print "Expression value is less than 50"

else:
    print "Could not find true expression"</pre>
```

When the above code is executed, it produces following result –

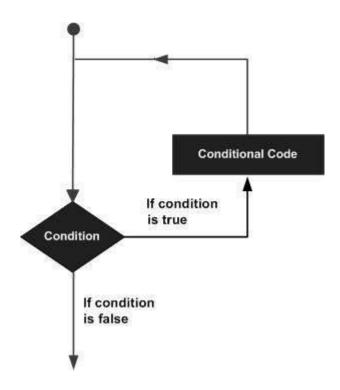
```
Expression value is less than 200
Which is 100
Good bye!
```

4.1 Python - Loops

In general, statements are executed sequentially: The first statement in a function is executed first, followed by the second, and so on. There may be a situation when you need to execute a block of code several number of times.

Programming languages provide various control structures that allow for more complicated execution paths.

A loop statement allows us to execute a statement or group of statements multiple times. The following diagram illustrates a loop statement —



Python programming language provides following types of loops to handle looping requirements.

Sr.No.	Loop Type & Description
1	while loop Repeats a statement or group of statements while a given condition is TRUE. It tests the condition before executing the loop body.
2	for loop Executes a sequence of statements multiple times and abbreviates the code that manages the loop variable.
3	nested loops You can use one or more loop inside any another while, for or dowhile loop.

4.2 Loop Control Statements

Loop control statements change execution from its normal sequence. When execution leaves a scope, all automatic objects that were created in that scope are destroyed.

Python supports the following control statements. Click the following links to check their detail.

Sr.No.	Control Statement & Description
1	break statement Terminates the loop statement and transfers execution to the statement immediately following the loop.
2	continue statement Causes the loop to skip the remainder of its body and immediately retest its condition prior to reiterating.
3	pass statement The pass statement in Python is used when a statement is required syntactically but you do not want any command or code to execute.

Let us go through the loop control statements briefly

4.3 Python while Loop Statements

A **while** loop statement in Python programming language repeatedly executes a target statement as long as a given condition is true.

Syntax

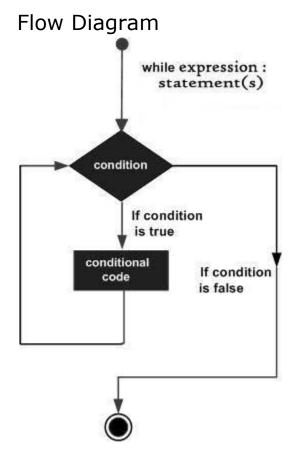
The syntax of a while loop in Python programming language is –

while expression:
 statement(s)

Here, **statement(s)** may be a single statement or a block of statements. The **condition** may be any expression, and true is any non-zero value. The loop iterates while the condition is true.

When the condition becomes false, program control passes to the line immediately following the loop.

In Python, all the statements indented by the same number of character spaces after a programming construct are considered to be part of a single block of code. Python uses indentation as its method of grouping statements.



Here, key point of the while loop is that the loop might not ever run. When the condition is tested and the result is false, the loop body will be skipped and the first statement after the while loop will be executed.

Example

#!/usr/bin/python

```
count = 0
while (count < 9):
    print 'The count is:', count
    count = count + 1

print "Good bye!"</pre>
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
The count is: 0
The count is: 1
The count is: 2
The count is: 3
The count is: 4
The count is: 5
The count is: 6
The count is: 7
The count is: 8
Good bye!
```

The block here, consisting of the print and increment statements, is executed repeatedly until count is no longer less than 9. With each iteration, the current value of the index count is displayed and then increased by 1.

4.4 The Infinite Loop

A loop becomes infinite loop if a condition never becomes FALSE. You must use caution when using while loops because of the possibility that this condition never resolves to a FALSE value. This results in a loop that never ends. Such a loop is called an infinite loop.

An infinite loop might be useful in client/server programming where the server needs to run continuously so that client programs can communicate with it as and when required.

```
#!/usr/bin/python

var = 1
```

```
while var == 1 : # This constructs an infinite loop
  num = raw_input("Enter a number :")
  print "You entered: ", num

print "Good bye!"
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result -

```
Enter a number :20
You entered: 20
Enter a number :29
You entered: 29
Enter a number :3
You entered: 3
Enter a number between :Traceback (most recent call last):
    File "test.py", line 5, in <module>
        num = raw_input("Enter a number :")
KeyboardInterrupt
```

Above example goes in an infinite loop and you need to use CTRL+C to exit the program.

Using else Statement with Loops

Python supports to have an **else** statement associated with a loop statement.

• If the **else** statement is used with a **while** loop, the **else** statement is executed when the condition becomes false.

The following example illustrates the combination of an else statement with a while statement that prints a number as long as it is less than 5, otherwise else statement gets executed.

```
#!/usr/bin/python

count = 0
while count < 5:
    print count, " is less than 5"
    count = count + 1
else:</pre>
```

```
print count, " is not less than 5"
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
0 is less than 5
1 is less than 5
2 is less than 5
3 is less than 5
4 is less than 5
5 is not less than 5
```

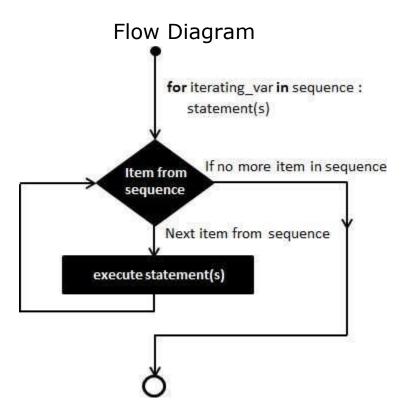
4.5 Python for Loop Statements

It has the ability to iterate over the items of any sequence, such as a list or a string.

Syntax

```
for iterating_var in sequence:
statements(s)
```

If a sequence contains an expression list, it is evaluated first. Then, the first item in the sequence is assigned to the iterating variable *iterating_var*. Next, the statements block is executed. Each item in the list is assigned to *iterating_var*, and the statement(s) block is executed until the entire sequence is exhausted.



Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

for letter in 'Python':  # First Example
    print 'Current Letter :', letter

fruits = ['banana', 'apple', 'mango']

for fruit in fruits:  # Second Example
    print 'Current fruit :', fruit

print "Good bye!"
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result -

```
Current Letter : P
Current Letter : y
Current Letter : t
Current Letter : h
Current Letter : o
```

```
Current Letter : n
Current fruit : banana
Current fruit : apple
Current fruit : mango
Good bye!
```

4.6 Iterating by Sequence Index

An alternative way of iterating through each item is by index offset into the sequence itself. Following is a simple example —

```
#!/usr/bin/python

fruits = ['banana', 'apple', 'mango']

for index in range(len(fruits)):
    print 'Current fruit :', fruits[index]

print "Good bye!"
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result -

```
Current fruit : banana
Current fruit : apple
Current fruit : mango
Good bye!
```

Here, we took the assistance of the len() built-in function, which provides the total number of elements in the tuple as well as the range() built-in function to give us the actual sequence to iterate over.

4.7 Using else Statement with Loops

Python supports to have an else statement associated with a loop statement

• If the **else** statement is used with a **for** loop, the **else**statement is executed when the loop has exhausted iterating the list.

The following example illustrates the combination of an else statement with a for statement that searches for prime numbers from 10 through 20.

```
lower = 10

upper = 20

# uncomment the following lines to take input from the user

#lower = int(input("Enter lower range: "))

#upper = int(input("Enter upper range: "))

print("Prime numbers between",lower,"and",upper,"are:")

for num in range(lower,upper + 1):

    for i in range(2,num):
        if (num % i) == 0:
            break
        else:
            print '%d is a prime number \n' %(num),
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
('Prime numbers between', 10, 'and', 20, 'are:')
11 is a prime number
13 is a prime number
17 is a prime number
19 is a prime number
```

4.8 Python break, continue and pass Statements

You might face a situation in which you need to exit a loop completely when an external condition is triggered or there may also be a situation when you want to skip a part of the loop and start next execution.

Python provides break and continue statements to handle such situations and to have good control on your loop.

The break Statement:

The **break** statement in Python terminates the current loop and resumes execution at the next statement, just like the traditional break found in C. The most common use for **break** is when some external condition is triggered requiring a hasty exit from a loop. The break statement can be used in both *while* and *for* loops.

Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

This will produce the following result:

```
Current Letter: P
Current Letter: y
Current Letter: t
Current variable value: 10
Current variable value: 9
Current variable value: 8
Current variable value: 7
Current variable value: 6
Good bye!
```

The continue Statement:

The **continue** statement in Python returns the control to the beginning of the while loop. The **continue** statement rejects all the remaining statements in the current iteration of the loop and moves the control back to the top of the loop.

The **continue** statement can be used in both while and for loops.

Example:

This will produce following result:

```
Current Letter: P
Current Letter: y
Current Letter: t
Current Letter: o
Current Letter: n
Current variable value: 10
Current variable value: 9
Current variable value: 8
Current variable value: 7
Current variable value: 6
Current variable value: 4
Current variable value: 3
Current variable value: 2
Current variable value: 1
Good bye!
```

The pass Statement:

The **pass** statement in Python is used when a statement is required syntactically but you do not want any command or code to execute.

The **pass** statement is a null operation; nothing happens when it executes. The **pass** is also useful in places where your code will eventually go, but has not been written yet (e.g., in stubs for example):

Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python

for letter in 'Python':
    if letter == 'h':
        pass
        print 'This is pass block'
    print 'Current Letter :', letter

print "Good bye!"
```

This will produce following result:

```
Current Letter: P
Current Letter: y
Current Letter: t
This is pass block
Current Letter: h
Current Letter: o
Current Letter: n
```

Good bye!

The preceding code does not execute any statement or code if the value of letter is 'h'. The **pass** statement is helpful when you have created a code block but it is no longer required.

You can then remove the statements inside the block but let the block remain with a pass statement so that it doesn't interfere with other parts of the code.

5.1 String Manipulation:

A character can be considered as a smallest atomic Symbol which cannot be further broken. For example 'a', '\$','1' etc , can be considered as character . It is represented as a symbol within a single inverted quotes. The collection of many character is called a **string** . Strings are like sentences. They are formed by a list of characters, which is really an "array of characters". Strings are very useful when communicating information from the program to the **user** of the program. An Empty string is a string which has 0 characters.

To Manipulate Strings we can use some of pythons readily available string built in methods .

Creation

word = "Hello World"

>>> print word

Hello World

```
Use [] to access characters in a string
word = "Hello World"
letter=word[0]

>>> print letter
H
```

```
Length
word = "Hello World"

>>> len(word)
11
```

```
Finding
word = "Hello World"

>>> print word.count('I') # count how many times I is in the string

3

>>> print word.find("H") # find the word H in the string

0

>>> print word.index("World") # find the letters World in the string

6

Count
s = "Count, the number of spaces"
```

```
>>> print s.count(' ')
Slicing
Use [#:#] to get set of letter
Keep in mind that python, as many other languages, starts to count from 0!!
word = "Hello World"
print word[0]
                  #get one char of the word
                   #get one char of the word (same as above)
print word[0:1]
print word[0:3]
                   #get the first three char
print word[:3]
                  #get the first three char
print word[-3:]
                  #get the last three char
print word[3:]
                  #get all but the three first char
print word[:-3]
                  #get all but the three last character
word = "Hello World"
word[start:end]
                       # items start through end-1
word[start:] # items start through the rest of the list
word[:end]
                   # items from the beginning through end-1
word[:]
             # a copy of the whole list
Split Strings
word = "Hello World"
>>> word.split(' ') # Split on whitespace
['Hello', 'World']
Startswith / Endswith
word = "hello world"
```

```
>>> word.startswith("H")
True
>>> word.endswith("d")
True
>>> word.endswith("w")
False
Repeat Strings
print "."* 10
            # prints ten dots
>>> print "." * 10
Replacing
word = "Hello World"
>>> word.replace("Hello", "Goodbye")
'Goodbye World'
Changing Upper and Lower Case Strings
string = "Hello World"
>>> print string.upper()
HELLO WORLD
>>> print string.lower()
hello world
>>> print string.title()
Hello World
```

```
>>> print string.capitalize()
Hello world
>>> print string.swapcase()
hELLO wORLD
Reversing
string = "Hello World"
>>> print ''.join(reversed(string))
dlroW olleH
Strip
Python strings have the strip(), Istrip(), rstrip() methods for removing
any character from both ends of a string.
If the characters to be removed are not specified then white-space will be remove
word = "Hello World"
Strip off newline characters from end of the string
>>> print word.strip('
Hello World
strip() #removes from both ends
lstrip() #removes leading characters (Left-strip)
rstrip() #removes trailing characters (Right-strip)
>>> word = " xyz "
>>> print word
  XYZ
```

```
>>> print word.strip()
XVZ
>>> print word.lstrip()
XYZ
>>> print word.rstrip()
  XYZ
Concatenation
To concatenate strings in Python use the "+" operator.
"Hello " + "World" # = "Hello World"
"Hello " + "World" + "!"# = "Hello World!"
Join
>>> print ":".join(word) # #add a : between every char
H:e:l:l:o: :W:o:r:l:d
>>> print " ".join(word) # add a whitespace between every char
Hello World
Testing
A string in Python can be tested for truth value.
The return type will be in Boolean value (True or False)
word = "Hello World"
word.isalnum() #check if all char are alphanumeric
word.isalpha() #check if all char in the string are alphabetic
word.isdigit()
                  #test if string contains digits
word.istitle()
                 #test if string contains title words
```

```
word.isupper() #test if string contains upper case
word.islower() #test if string contains lower case
word.isspace() #test if string contains spaces
word.endswith('d') #test if string endswith a d
word.startswith('H') #test if string startswith H
```

6 Introduction to List, Tuples and Dictionary

6.1 Python - Lists

The most basic data structure in Python is the **sequence**. Each element of a sequence is assigned a number - its position or index. The first index is zero, the second index is one, and so forth.

Python has six built-in types of sequences, but the most common ones are lists and tuples, which we would see in this tutorial.

There are certain things you can do with all sequence types. These operations include indexing, slicing, adding, multiplying, and checking for membership. In addition, Python has built-in functions for finding the length of a sequence and for finding its largest and smallest elements.

Python Lists

The list is a most versatile datatype available in Python which can be written as a list of commaseparated values (items) between square brackets. Important thing about a list is that items in a list need not be of the same type.

Creating a list is as simple as putting different comma-separated values between square brackets. For example –

```
list1 = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000];
list2 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
list3 = ["a", "b", "c", "d"]
```

Accessing Values in Lists

To access values in lists, use the square brackets for slicing along with the index or indices to obtain value available at that index. For example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```
list1 = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000];
list2 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7];
print "list1[0]: ", list1[0]
print "list2[1:5]: ", list2[1:5]
```

Updating Lists

You can update single or multiple elements of lists by giving the slice on the left-hand side of the assignment operator, and you can add to elements in a list with the append() method. For example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python
list = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000];
print "Value available at index 2 : "
print list[2]
list[2] = 2001;
print "New value available at index 2 : "
print list[2]
```

Delete List Elements

To remove a list element, you can use either the del statement if you know exactly which element(s) you are deleting or the remove() method if you do not know. For example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python
list1 = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000];
print list1
del list1[2];
print "After deleting value at index 2 : "
print list1
```

Basic List Operations

Lists respond to the + and * operators much like strings; they mean concatenation and repetition here too, except that the result is a new list, not a string.

In fact, lists respond to all of the general sequence operations we used on strings in the prior chapter.

|--|

Expression		
len([1, 2, 3])	3	Length
[1, 2, 3] + [4, 5, 6]	[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]	Concatenation
['Hi!'] * 4	['Hi!', 'Hi!', 'Hi!', 'Hi!']	Repetition
3 in [1, 2, 3]	True	Membership
for x in [1, 2, 3]:	1 2 3	Iteration
print x,		

Indexing, Slicing, and Matrixes

Because lists are sequences, indexing and slicing work the same way for lists as they do for strings.

Assuming following input -

```
L = ['spam', 'Spam', 'SPAM!']
```

Python Expression	Results	Description
L[2]	'SPAM!'	Offsets start at zero
L[-2]	'Spam'	Negative: count from the right
L[1:]	['Spam', 'SPAM!']	Slicing fetches sections

6.2 Python - Tuples

A tuple is a sequence of immutable Python objects. Tuples are sequences, just like lists. The differences between tuples and lists are, the tuples cannot be changed unlike lists and tuples use parentheses, whereas lists use square brackets.

Creating a tuple is as simple as putting different comma-separated values. Optionally you can put these comma-separated values between parentheses also. For example –

```
tup1 = ('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000);
tup2 = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5);
tup3 = "a", "b", "c", "d";
```

To write a tuple containing a single value you have to include a comma, even though there is only one value –

```
tup1 = (50,);
```

Accessing Values in Tuples

To access values in tuple, use the square brackets for slicing along with the index or indices to obtain value available at that index. For example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python

tup1 = ('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000);
tup2 = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7);
print "tup1[0]: ", tup1[0];
print "tup2[1:5]: ", tup2[1:5];
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
tup1[0]: physics
tup2[1:5]: (2, 3, 4, 5)
```

Updating Tuples

Tuples are immutable which means you cannot update or change the values of tuple elements. You are able to take portions of existing tuples to create new tuples as the following example demonstrates —

```
#!/usr/bin/python

tup1 = (12, 34.56);
tup2 = ('abc', 'xyz');

# Following action is not valid for tuples
# tup1[0] = 100;

# So let's create a new tuple as follows
tup3 = tup1 + tup2;
print tup3;
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
(12, 34.56, 'abc', 'xyz')
```

Delete Tuple Elements

Removing individual tuple elements is not possible. There is, of course, nothing wrong with putting together another tuple with the undesired elements discarded.

To explicitly remove an entire tuple, just use the **del** statement. For example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python
tup = ('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000);
```

```
print tup;
del tup;
print "After deleting tup : ";
print tup;
```

This produces the following result. Note an exception raised, this is because after **del tup** tuple does not exist any more –

```
('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000)
After deleting tup :
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "test.py", line 9, in <module>
        print tup;
NameError: name 'tup' is not defined
```

Basic Tuples Operations

Tuples respond to the + and * operators much like strings; they mean concatenation and repetition here too, except that the result is a new tuple, not a string.

In fact, tuples respond to all of the general sequence operations we used on strings in the prior chapter –

Python Expression	Results	Description
len((1, 2, 3))	3	Length
(1, 2, 3) + (4, 5, 6)	(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)	Concatenation
('Hi!',) * 4	('Hi!', 'Hi!', 'Hi!', 'Hi!')	Repetition
3 in (1, 2, 3)	True	Membership
for x in $(1, 2, 3)$: print x,	1 2 3	Iteration

Indexing, Slicing, and Matrixes

Because tuples are sequences, indexing and slicing work the same way for tuples as they do for strings. Assuming following input –

```
L = ('Spam', 'SPAM!')
```

Python Expression	Results	Description
L[2]	'SPAM!'	Offsets start at zero
L[-2]	'Spam'	Negative: count from the right
L[1:]	['Spam', 'SPAM!']	Slicing fetches sections

Any set of multiple objects, comma-separated, written without identifying symbols, i.e., brackets for lists, parentheses for tuples, etc., default to tuples, as indicated in these short examples –

```
print 'abc', -4.24e93, 18+6.6j, 'xyz';
x, y = 1, 2;
print "Value of x , y : ", x,y;
```

6.3 Python - Dictionary

Each key is separated from its value by a colon (:), the items are separated by commas, and the whole thing is enclosed in curly braces. An empty dictionary without any items is written with just two curly braces, like this: {}.

Keys are unique within a dictionary while values may not be. The values of a dictionary can be of any type, but the keys must be of an immutable data type such as strings, numbers, or tuples.

Accessing Values in Dictionary

To access dictionary elements, you can use the familiar square brackets along with the key to obtain its value. Following is a simple example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python

dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}
print "dict['Name']: ", dict['Name']
print "dict['Age']: ", dict['Age']
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
dict['Name']: Zara
dict['Age']: 7
```

If we attempt to access a data item with a key, which is not part of the dictionary, we get an error as follows –

```
#!/usr/bin/python
dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}
print "dict['Alice']: ", dict['Alice']
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
dict['Alice']:
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
    File "test.py", line 4, in <module>
        print "dict['Alice']: ", dict['Alice'];
KeyError: 'Alice'
```

Updating Dictionary

You can update a dictionary by adding a new entry or a key-value pair, modifying an existing entry, or deleting an existing entry as shown below in the simple example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python

dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}
dict['Age'] = 8; # update existing entry
dict['School'] = "DPS School"; # Add new entry

print "dict['Age']: ", dict['Age']
print "dict['School']: ", dict['School']
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result –

```
dict['Age']: 8
dict['School']: DPS School
```

Delete Dictionary Elements

You can either remove individual dictionary elements or clear the entire contents of a dictionary. You can also delete entire dictionary in a single operation.

To explicitly remove an entire dictionary, just use the **del** statement. Following is a simple example –

```
#!/usr/bin/python

dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}
del dict['Name']; # remove entry with key 'Name'
dict.clear(); # remove all entries in dict
del dict; # delete entire dictionary

print "dict['Age']: ", dict['Age']
print "dict['School']: ", dict['School']
```

This produces the following result. Note that an exception is raised because after **del dict** dictionary does not exist anymore –

```
dict['Age']:
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "test.py", line 8, in <module>
        print "dict['Age']: ", dict['Age'];
TypeError: 'type' object is unsubscriptable
```

Some important functions

Sr.No.	Function with Description
1	cmp(dict1, dict2)
	Compares elements of both dict.
2	<u>len(dict)</u>
	Gives the total length of the dictionary. This would be equal to the number of items in
	the dictionary.
3	str(dict)
	Produces a printable string representation of a dictionary
4	type(variable)
	Returns the type of the passed variable. If passed variable is dictionary, then it would
	return a dictionary type.