

Complete Guide For Python Programming

Quick & Easy Guide To Learn Python

learnpython



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By:

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INTRODUCTION

Python is a wide used general, high-level programming language. Its style philosophy emphasizes code readability, and its syntax allows programmers to precise ideas in fewer lines of code that might be possible in languages like C++ or Java. The language provides constructs supposed to modify clear programs on both small and large scales.

Python is a simple to learn, powerful programming language. Its economical high-level information structures and an easy, but effective approach to object-oriented programming. Python's elegant syntax and dynamic typing, in conjunction with its interpreted nature, make it a perfect language for scripting and speedy application development in several areas on most platforms. Python is one in all those rare languages which might claim to both easy and powerful. You may end up pleasantly stunned to examine how easy it's to think about the answer to the matter instead of the syntax and structure of the language you are programming in.

In my first book "[Python Programming for Beginners](#)", I have discussed all about what python programming language is? How to install python to your system? Different data types, function, parameters, class, objects used in python. I also have discussed about basic python operators and modules. Not only these, you can also get knowledge on how to call a function, exception handling function, python variables etc. That is all basic things that are must know when you start learning any programming language.

Now in this book I am going to share with you advanced python programming functions and programs to create in python? I assure you that if you go through this book seriously, then in few days you will become an expert python programmer. So what are you waiting for? Start going through the book and start creating your first program today.

PYTHON VERSIONS

Python has many versions but most commonly used are Python 2.0 and Python 3.0. Python 2.0 was released on 16 October 2000, with many major new features including a full garbage collector and support for Unicode. With this release the development process was changed and became more transparent and community-backed. while Python 3.0 , which is also known as Python 3000 or py3k, is a major, backwards-incompatible release, and was released on 3 December 2008. Many of its major features have been back ported to the backwards-compatible Python 2.6 and 2.7. Python 2.x is legacy, Python 3.x is the present and future of the language.

Python 3.0 was released in 2008. The final 2.x version 2.7 release came out in mid-2010, with a statement of extended support for this end-of-life release. The 2.x branch will see no new major releases after that. 3.x is under active development and has already seen over five years of stable releases, including version 3.3 in 2012 and 3.4 in 2014. This means that all recent standard library improvements, for example, are only available by default in Python 3.x.

For those interested in using Python via a USB thumb drive, you may be interested in Portable Python. This is a self-contained Python environment that you can either run from the thumb drive or install to your computer. This is useful for people who can't or don't want to install Python but would still like to use it.

SOME COMMONLY USED OPERATIONS IN PYTHON

Using Blank Lines:

A line containing only whitespace, possibly with a comment, is called a blank line and Python ignores it completely. In an interactive interpreter session, you must enter an empty physical line to terminate a multiline statement.

Waiting for the User:

The following line of the program displays the prompt, Press the enter key to exit and waits for the user to press the Enter key:

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

Here, “\n\n” are being 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.

Multiple Statements on a Single Line:

The semicolon (;) allows multiple statements on the single line given that neither statement starts a new code block. Here is a sample snip using the semicolon:

```
import sys; a = 'abc'; sys.stdout.write(a + '\n')
```

Multiple Statement Groups as Suites:

In Python, a group of statements, which make a single code block are called suites. Compound or complex statements, such as if, while, def, and class, are those which require a header line and a suite. Header lines begin the statement and terminates with a colon (:) and are followed by one or more lines, which make up the suite. For example:

if expression : suite
elif expression : suite
else : suite

Accessing Command-Line Arguments:

Python provides a `getopt` module that helps you parse command-line options and arguments.

```
$ python test.py arg1 arg2 arg3
```

The Python `sys` module provides access to any command-line arguments via the `sys.argv`. This serves two purpose:

- `sys.argv` is the list of command-line arguments.
- `len(sys.argv)` is the number of command-line arguments.

Parsing Command-Line Arguments:

Python provides a `getopt` module that helps you parse command-line options and arguments. This module provides two functions and an exception to enable command-line argument parsing.

`getopt.getopt` method:

This method parses command-line options and parameter list. Following is simple syntax for this method:

```
getopt.getopt(args, options[, long_options])
```

Here is the detail of the parameters:

- `args`: This is the argument list to be parsed.
- `options`: This is the string of option letters that the script wants to recognize, with options that require an argument should be followed by a colon (:).
- `long_options`: This is optional parameter and if specified, must be a list of strings with the names of the long options, which should be supported. Long options, which require an argument should be followed by an equal sign ('='). To accept only long options, options should be an empty string.

PRINTF FORMAT STRINGS

%d : integer

%5d : integer in a field of width 5 chars

%-5d : integer in a field of width 5 chars, but adjusted to the left

%05d : integer in a field of width 5 chars, padded with zeroes from the left

%g : float variable in %f or %g notation

%e : float variable in scientific notation

%11.3e : float variable in scientific notation, with 3 decimals, field of width 11 chars

%5.1f : float variable in fixed decimal notation, with one decimal, field of width 5 chars

%.3f : float variable in fixed decimal form, with three decimals, field of min. width

%s : string

%-20s : string in a field of width 20 chars, and adjusted to the left

PYTHON INTERACTIVE - USING PYTHON AS A CALCULATOR

You can use python as a calculator, as you can add, subtract, multiply and divide numbers in python language.

Start Python (or IDLE, the Python IDE).

A prompt is showing up:

```
>>>
```

Display version:

```
>>>help()
```

Welcome to Python 2.7! This is the online help utility.

```
...
```

```
help>
```

Help commands:

modules: available modules

keywords: list of reserved Python keywords

quit: leave help

To get help on a keyword, just enter its name in help.

Common Operators in Python

| Operator | | Example | Explication |
|------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------|
| +,- *,/ | add, subtract, multiply, divide | | |
| % | modulo | 25 % 5 = 0 84 % 5 = 4 | 25/5 = 5, remainder = 0 84/5 = 16, remainder = 4 |
| ** | exponent | 2**10 = 1024 | |
| // | floor division | 84/5 = 16 | 84/5 = 16, remainder = 4 |

Example For Simple Calculations in Python

```
>>> 3.14*5
```

```
15.700000000000001
```

Take care in Python 2.x if you divide two numbers:

Isn't this strange:

```
>>> 35/6
```

```
5
```

Obviously the result is wrong!

But:

```
>>> 35.0/6
```

```
5.833333333333333
```

```
>>> 35/6.0
```

```
5.833333333333333
```

In the first example, 35 and 6 are interpreted as integer numbers, so integer division is used and the result is an integer.

This uncanny behavior has been abolished in Python 3, where 35/6 gives 5.833333333333333.

In Python 2.x, use floating point numbers (like 3.14, 3.0 etc....) to force floating point division!

PYTHON IMPLEMENTATIONS

An “implementation” of Python provides support for the execution of programs which are written in the Python Programming language, is represented by the CPython reference implementation. There several implementation to run python programs. Let’s have a look at them:

CPython Variants

These are implementations which are based on the CPython runtime core, but with extended behavior or features in some aspects.

CrossTwine Linker - A combination of CPython and an add-on library offering improved performance.

Stackless Python - CPython with an emphasis on concurrency using tasklets and channels.

Unladen-Swallow - an optimization branch of CPython, intended to be fully compatible and significantly faster.

WPython - a re-implementation of CPython using “wordcode” instead of bytecode.

Other Implementations

These are re-implementations of the Python language that do not depend on the CPython runtime core. Many of them reuse the standard library implementation. The only implementations that are known to be compatible with a given version of the language are IronPython, Jython and PyPy.

The following implementations are comprehensive or even complete, that you can run typical programs with them already:

Brython - A way to run Python in the browser through translation to JavaScript.

CLPython - Python in Common Lisp.

HotPy - A virtual machine for Python supporting bytecode optimization and translation using type information gathered at run-time.

IronPython - Python in C# for the Common Language Runtime (CLR/.NET) and the FePy project's IronPython Community Edition (IPCE).

Jython - Python in Java for the Java platform.

Pyjs - A Python to JavaScript compiler plus Web/GUI framework.

PyMite - Python for embedded devices.

PyPy - Python in Python, targeting several environments.

Pyvm - A Python-related virtual machine and software suite providing a nearly self-contained "userspace" system.

RapydScript - A Python-like language that compiles to JavaScript.

SNAPpy - A subset of the Python language that has been optimized for use in low-power embedded devices.

Tinypy - A minimalist implementation of Python in 64K of code .

Tentative Implementations

The following implementations are apparent works in progress; they may not be able to run typical programs:

Berp - an implementation of Python 3 in Haskell, providing an interactive environment as well as a compiler.

Phpython - a Python interpreter written in PHP.

Pyjaco - a Python to JavaScript compiler similar to Pyjs but lighter weight.

Pystacho - is, like Skulpt, Python in JavaScript.

Pyvm2.py - a CPython bytecode interpreter written in Python.

Skulpt - Python in JavaScript.

Typhon - a Rubinius-based implementation of Python.

Python Compilers & Numerical Accelerators

Compilers

These compilers usually implement something close to Python, have a look at them:

2c-python - a static Python-to-C compiler, apparently translating CPython bytecode to C.

Compyler - an attempt to “transliterate the bytecode into x 86 assemblies”.

Cython - a widely used optimizing Python-to-C compiler, CPython extension module generator, and wrapper language for binding external libraries. Interacts with CPython runtime and supports embedding CPython in stand-alone binaries.

GCC Python Front-End - an in-progress effort to compile Python code within the GCC infrastructure.

Nuitka - a Python-to-C++ compiler using libpython at run-time, attempting some compile-time and run-time optimizations. Interacts with CPython runtime.

Pyc - performs static analysis in order to compile Python programs, uses similar techniques to Shed Skin.

Shed Skin - a Python-to-C++ compiler, restricted to an implicitly statically typed subset of the language for which it can automatically infer efficient types through whole program analysis.

UnPython - a Python to C compiler using type annotations.

Numerical Accelerators

Copperhead - purely functional data-parallel Python compiles to multi-core and GPU backends.

Numba - NumPy-aware optimizing runtime compiler for Python.

Parakeet - runtime compiler for a numerical subset of Python.

Logical And Physical Line in Python

A physical line is what you see when you write the program in python. A logical line is what Python sees as a single statement. Python implicitly assumes that each physical line corresponds to a logical line. For example, you want to write - 'hello world' - if this was on a line by itself, then this also corresponds to a physical line.

If you want to specify more than one logical line on a single physical line, then you have to explicitly specify this using a semicolon (;) which indicates the end of a logical line/statement.

For example:

```
i = 12
```

```
print i
```

is effectively same as

```
i = 12;
```

```
print i;
```

which is also same as

```
i = 12; print i;
```

and same as

```
i = 12; print i
```

If you have a long line of code, you can break it into multiple physical lines by using the backslash. This is referred to as explicit line joining:

```
s = 'This is a python book. \
```

```
This continues the book.'
```

```
print s
```

Output:

This is a python book. This continues the book.

Similarly,

```
print \  
i  
is the same as  
print i
```

Sometimes, there is an implicit assumption where you don't need to use a backslash. This is the case where the logical line has starting parentheses, starting square brackets or a starting curly braces but not an ending one. This is called implicit line joining. You can see this in action when we write programs using lists in later chapters.

PYTHON INDENTATION

Whitespace is very important in Python. The whitespace at the beginning of the line is called indentation. Leading whitespace at the beginning of the logical line is used to determine the indentation level of the logical line, which in turn is used to determine the grouping of statements. Each set of statements is called a block.

For example:

```
i = 5  
# Error below! Notice a single space at the start of the line  
print 'Value is ', i  
print 'I repeat, the value is ', i
```

When you run this, you get error:

File "whitespace.py", line 5

```
print 'Value is ', i  
^
```

IndentationError: unexpected indent

Notice that there is a single space at the beginning of the second line. The error indicated by Python tells us that the syntax of the program is invalid i.e. the program was not properly written. Use four spaces for indentation. This is the official Python language

recommendation. Good editors will automatically do this for you. Make sure you use a consistent number of spaces for indentation; otherwise your program will show errors. Python always use indentation for blocks and will never use braces.

PYTHON STANDARD LIBRARY

The Python Standard Library contains a huge number of useful modules and is part of every standard Python installation. we will explore some of the commonly used modules in this library. You can find complete details for all of the modules in the Python Standard Library in the ‘Library Reference’ section of the documentation that comes with your Python installation.

sys module

The sys module contains system-specific functionality. We have already seen that the sys.argv list contains the command-line arguments. For example, you want to check the version of the Python software being used; the sys module gives us that information.

```
$ python
```

```
>>> import sys
```

```
>>> sys.version_info
```

```
sys.version_info(major=2, minor=7, micro=6, releaselevel='final', serial=0)
```

```
>>> sys.version_info.major == 2
```

```
True
```

logging module

What if you wanted to have some debugging messages or important messages to be stored somewhere so that you can check whether your program has been running as you would expect it? How do you “store somewhere” these messages? This can be achieved using the logging module.

Save as `stdlib_logging.py`:

```
import os, platform, logging
```

```
if platform.platform().startswith('Windows'):
```

```
    logging_file = os.path.join(os.getenv('HOMEDRIVE'),
                                os.getenv('HOMEPATH'),
                                'test.log')
```

else:

```
    logging_file = os.path.join(os.getenv('HOME'), 'test.log')
print "Logging to", logging_file
logging.basicConfig(
    level=logging.DEBUG,
    format='%(asctime)s : %(levelname)s : %(message)s',
    filename = logging_file,
    filemode = 'w',
)
logging.debug("Start of the program")
logging.info("Doing something")
logging.warning("Dying now")
```

Output:

```
$ python stdlib_logging.py
Logging to /Users/swa/test.log
$ cat /Users/swa/test.log
2014-03-29 09:27:36,660 : DEBUG : Start of the program
2014-03-29 09:27:36,660 : INFO : Doing something
2014-03-29 09:27:36,660 : WARNING : Dying now
```

CREATING CLASSES & OBJECTS

Python is an object-oriented language and because of this creating and using classes and objects are quite easy.

Overview of OOP Terminology

Class: A user-defined prototype for an object that defines a set of attributes that characterize any object of the class. The attributes are data members and methods, accessed via dot notation.

Class variable: A variable that is shared by all instances of a class. Class variables are defined within a class but outside any of the class's methods. Class variables aren't used as frequently as instance variables are.

Data member: A class variable or instance variable that holds data associated with a class

and its objects.

Function overloading: The assignment of more than one behavior to a particular function. The operation performed varies by the types of objects involved.

Instance variable: A variable that is defined inside a method and belongs only to the current instance of a class.

Inheritance: The transfer of the characteristics of a class to other classes that are derived from it.

Instance: An individual object of a certain class. An object 'obj' that belongs to a class Circle, for example, is an instance of the class Circle.

Instantiation: The creation of an instance of a class.

Method: A special kind of function that is defined in a class definition.

Object: A unique instance of a data structure that's defined by its class. An object comprises both data members and methods.

Operator overloading: The assignment of more than one function to a particular operator.

DOCUMENTING YOUR CODE

To document a Python object, docstring is used. A docstring is simply a triple-quoted sentence which gives a brief summary of the object. The object can be anything a function, a method, a class, etc.

Anything written in the triple quotes is the function's docstring, which documents what the function does. A docstring, is the first thing that is defined in a function. Docstring is available at runtime as an attribute of the function. The docstring of a script should be usable as its 'usage' message, printed when the script is invoked with incorrect or missing arguments. The docstring is a phrase ending in a period. It describes the function's effect as a command.

In docstring for a module classes, exceptions and functions that are exported by the module are listed. The docstring for a function or method summarize its behavior and document its arguments, return value(s), side effects and exceptions raised. The docstring for a class summarize its behavior and list the public methods and instance variables. Individual methods should be documented by their own docstring.

You can add a docstring to a function, class, or module by adding a string as the first indented statement.

For example:

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
# docstringexample.py
"""Example of using documentation strings."""
class Knight:
    """
    An example class.
    Call spam to get bacon.
    """
    def spam(eggs="bacon"):
        """Prints the argument given."""
        print(eggs)
```

PYTHON - OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING

Learning Python Classes

In OOP (object-oriented programming), the class is the most basic component. OOP is very powerful tool and many Python libraries and APIs uses classes, and so you should know what classes are? How they work? And how to create them? One thing to remember about Python and OOP is that it's not mandatory to use objects in your code.

Now the question is how are Classes Better?

Let's take an example, suppose you want to calculate the velocity of a car in a two-dimensional plane using functions. And you now want to make a new program to calculate the velocity of an airplane in three dimensions, and then you'll have to rewrite the many of the functions to make them work for the vertical dimension, especially to map the object in a 3-D space. In that case classes are used. Classes let you define an object once, and then you can reuse it multiple times. You need to give it a base function, and then build upon that method to redefine it as necessary.

Improving Your Class Standing

Some concepts of classes are given below. Have a look at them:

- Classes have a definite namespace, just like modules. Trying to call a class method from a different class will give you an error unless you qualify it, e.g. `spamClass.eggMethod()`.
- Classes support multiple copies. Classes have two different objects: class objects and instance objects. Class objects are used to give the default behavior and are used to create instance objects. Instance objects are the objects that actually do the work in your program. You can have as many instance objects of the same class object as you need.
- Each instance object has its own namespace but also inherits from the base class object. This means each instance has the same default namespace components as the class object, but additionally each instance can make new namespace objects just for itself.
- Classes can define objects that respond to the same operations as built-in types. So, class objects can be sliced, indexed, concatenated, etc. just like strings, lists, and other standard Python types. This is because everything in Python is actually a class object; we aren't actually doing anything new with classes, we're just learning how to better use the inherent nature of the Python language.

So What Does a Class Look Like?

See here you class look like in python:

Defining a class

```
>>> class Item : #define a classobject
... def setName (self,value) :      #define class methods
... self.name = value               #selfidentifiesaparticular instance
```

```
... def display (self) :  
... print self.name    #print the data for a particular instance
```

Creating class instances

```
>>> x = Item ()  
>>> y = Item ()  
>>> z = Item ()
```

Adding data to instances

```
>>> x.setName ("Hello, This is Python book.")  
>>> y.setName ("I am a quick learner.")  
>>> z.setName ("It is worth buying this book.")
```

Displaying instance data

```
>>> x.display ()  
Hello, This is Python book.  
>>> y.display ()  
I am a quick learner.  
>>> z.display ()  
It is worth buying this book.
```

PYTHON DATABASES

In python when you use web applications or customer-oriented programs, Databases are very important. Normal files, such as text files, are easy to create and use; Python has the

tools built-in and it doesn't take much to work with files. Databases are used when you work on discrete "structures", such as customer list that has phone numbers, addresses, past orders, etc. database is used to store a lump of data and it allows the user or developer to pull the necessary information, without regard to how the data is stored. Also, databases can be used to retrieve data randomly, rather than sequentially.

How to Use a Database

A database is a collection of data, which is placed into an arbitrary structured format. Most commonly used database is a relational database. In database tables are used to store the data and relationships can be defined between different tables. SQL (Structured Query Language) is the language which is used to work with most Databases. SQL provides the commands to query a database and retrieve or manipulate the information. SQL is also used to input information into a database.

Working With A Database

Database consists of one or more tables, just like a spreadsheet. The vertical columns comprise of different fields or categories; they are analogous to the fields you fill out in a form. The horizontal rows are individual records; each row is one complete record entry. Here is an example representing a customer's list.

USING SQL TO QUERY A DATABASE

| Index | LName | FName | Address | City | State |
|-------|---------|-------|--------------|-----------|-------|
| 0 | Peter | Sam | 123 Easy St. | Anywhere | CA |
| 1 | Jackson | Harry | 312 Hard St. | Somewhere | NY |

Here, Index field is the one that provides a unique value to every record; it's often called the primary key field. The primary key is a special object for databases; simply identifying which field is the primary key will automatically increment that field as new entries are made, thereby ensuring a unique data object for easy identification. The other fields are simply created based on the information that you want to include in the database.

Now if you want to make order entry database, and want to link that to the above customer list, so it should be like:

| Key | Item_title | Price | Order_Number | Customer_ID |
|-----|------------|-------|--------------|-------------|
| 0 | Bag | 99.5 | 4455 | 0 |
| 1 | Shoes | 95 | 4455 | 0 |
| 2 | Purse | 50 | 7690 | 0 |
| 3 | Clutch | 60.69 | 3490 | 1 |
| 4 | Ring | 40 | 5512 | 1 |

This table is called “Orders_table”. This table shows various orders made by each person in the customer table. Each entry has a unique key and is related to Customers_table by the Customer_ID field, which is the Index value for each customer.

Python and SQLite

Python has a SQLite, a light-weight SQL library. SQLite is basically written in C, so it is very quick and easy to understand. It creates the database in a single file, so implementing a database becomes fairly simple; you don’t need to worry about the issues of having a database spread across a server. SQLite is good for prototyping your application before you throw in a full-blown database. By this you can easily know how your program works and any problems are most likely with the database implementation. It’s also good for small programs that don’t need a complete database package with its associated overhead.

Creating an SQLite database

SQLite is built into Python, so it can easily be imported to any other library. Once you import it, you have to make a connection to it; so as to create the database file. Cursor in SQLite performs most of the functions; you will be doing with the database.

```
import sqlite3          #SQLite v3 is the version currently included with Python
connection = sqlite3.connect (“Hand_tools.database”)          #The . database extension is optional
cursor = connection.cursor ()
#Alternative database created only in memory
#mem_conn = sqlite3.connect (“:memory:”)
#cursor = mem_conn.cursor ()
cursor.execute (“““CREATE TABLE Tools (id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY, name TEXT, size TEXT, price INTEGER)”””)
for item in ((None,“Book”,“Small”,15),          #The end comma is required to separate
```

```

tuple items (None, "Purse", "Medium", 35), (None, "Pen", "Large", 55), (None, "
Hat", "Small", 25), (None, "Handbag", "Small", 25), (None, "Socks", "Small", 10),
(None, "Comb", "Large", 60),): cursor.execute ("INSERT INTO Tools VALUES
(?,?,?,?)", item)
connection.commit() #Write data to database
cursor.close() #Close database

```

In this example question marks (?) are used to insert items into the table. They are used to prevent a SQL injection attack, where a SQL command is passed to the database as a legitimate value. The question marks act as a substitution value.

Retrieving data from SQLite

To retrieve the data from a SQLite database, you just use the SQL commands that tell the database what information you want and how you want it formatted.

Example:

```

cursor.execute ("SELECT name, size, price FROM Tools")
tools Tuple = cursor.fetchall ()
for tuple in tools Tuple: name, size, price = tuple #unpack the tuples
item = ("%s, %s, %d" % (name, size, price))
print item

```

Output:

```

Book, Small, 15
Purse, Medium, 35
Pen, Large, 55
Hat, Small, 25
Handbag, Small, 25
Socks, Small, 10
Comb, Large, 60
Book, Small, 15
Purse, Medium, 35
Pen, Large, 55
Hat, Small, 25

```

Handbag, Small, 25

Socks, Small, 10

Comb, Large, 60

Dealing with existing databases

SQLite will try to recreate the database file every time you run the program. If the database file already exists, you will get an “OperationalError” exception stating that the file already exists. The easiest way to deal with this is to simply catch the exception and ignore it.

```
cursor.execute(“CREATE TABLE Foo (id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY, name TEXT)”)
except sqlite3.Operational Error:pass
```

This will allow you to run your database program multiple times without having to delete the database file after every run.

CLASSES

Class is a data structure that is used in python to define objects, which holds data values and behavioral characteristics. Classes are the entities, which are the programs of an abstraction for a problem, and instances are realizations of such objects. The term most likely originates from using classes to identify and categorize biological families of species to which specific creatures belong and can be derived into similar yet distinct subclasses. Many of these features apply to the concept of classes in programming.

In Python, class declarations are similar to the function declarations, a header line with appropriate keyword followed by a suite as its definition, as indicated below:

```
def functionName(args):
‘function documentation string’
function_suite
class
ClassName:
‘class documentation string’
class_suite
```

Class in python holds multiple data items, and it can also support its own set of functions, which are called methods. You may be asking what other advantages classes have over standard container types such as lists and dictionaries.

Creating Classes

Python classes are created using the class keyword. In the simple form of class declarations, the name of the class immediately follows the keyword:

```
class ClassName:  
    'class documentation string'  
    class_suite
```

class_suite consists of all the component statements, defining class members, data attributes, and functions. Classes are generally defined at the top-level of a module so that instances of a class can be created anywhere in a piece of source code where the class is defined.

Class Declaration vs. Definition

In python there is no difference in declaring and defining classes because they occur simultaneously. The definition follows the declaration and the documentation string.

Class Attributes

A class attribute is a functional element, which belongs to another object and is accessed via dotted-attribute notation. In Python, complex numbers have data attributes while lists and dictionaries have functional attributes. When you access attribute, you can also access an object that may have attributes of its own.

For example:

```
- sys.stdout.write('abc')  
- print myModule.myClass.__doc__  
- myList.extend(map(upper, open('x').readlines()))
```

Class attributes are linked to the classes in which they are defined, and instance objects are the most commonly used objects in OOP. Instance data attributes are the primary data attributes that are used. Class data attributes are useful only when a “static” data type is required, which does not require any instances.

Class Data Attributes

Data attributes are the variables of the class which are defined by the programmer. They can be used like any other variable when the class is created and can be updated by methods within the class. These types of attributes are better known to programmers as static members, class variables, or static data. They represent data that is tied to the class object they belong to and are independent of any class instances.

Example of using class data attributes (abc):

```
>>> class C:
... abc = 100
>>> print C.abc
0
>>> C.abc = C.abc + 1
>>> print C.abc
```

Output:

```
101
```

METHODS

In the example given below, MyFirstMethod method of the MyTeam class is simply a function which is defined as part of a class definition. This means that MyMethod applies only to objects or instances of MyTeam type.

For Example:

```
>>> class MyTeam:
def MyFirstMethod(self):
pass
>>> myInstance = MyTeam()
```

```
>>> myInstance.MyFirstMethod()
```

Any call to MyFirstMethod by itself as a function fails:

```
>>> MyFirstMethod()
```

```
Traceback (innermost last):
```

```
File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
```

```
MyFirstMethod()
```

```
NameError: MyFirstMethod
```

Here in the above example, NameError exception is raised because there is no such function in the global namespace. Here MyFirstMethod is a method, meaning that it belongs to the class and is not a name in the global namespace. If MyFirstMethod was defined as a function at the top-level, then our call would have succeeded. We show you below that even calling the method with the class object fails.

```
>>> MyTeam.MyFirstMethod()
```

```
Traceback (innermost last):
```

```
File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
```

```
MyTeam.MyFirstMethod()
```

```
TypeError: unbound method must be called with class instance 1st argument
```

This TypeError exception may seem perplexing at first because you know that the method is an attribute of the class and so are wondering why there is a failure.

Static Methods

Python does not support static methods, and functions which are associated only with a class and not with any particular instances. They are either function, which help manage static class data or are global functions which have some sort of functionality related to the class, in which they are defined. Because python does not support static methods, so a standard global function is required.

INSTANCES

Class is a data structure definition type, while an instance is a declaration of a variable of that type. Or you can say that instances are classes which are brought to life. Instances are the objects which are used primarily during execution, and all instances are of type “instance.”

Creating Instances by Invoking Class Object

Most languages provide a new keyword to create an instance of a class. The python’s approach is much simpler. Once a class has been defined in python, creating an instance is no more difficult. Using instantiation of the function operator.

For Example:

```
>>> class MyTeam: # define class
... pass
>>> myInstance = MyTeam() # instantiate class
>>> type(MyTeam) # class is of class type
<type 'class'>
>>> type(myInstance) # instance is of instance type
<type 'instance'>
```

Using the term “type” in Python is different from the instance being of the type of class it was created from. An object’s type dictates the behavioral properties of such objects in the Python system, and these types are a subset of all types, which Python supports. User-defined “types” such as classes are categorized in the same manner. Classes share the same type, but have different IDs and values. All classes are defined with the same syntax, so they can be instantiated, and all have the same core properties. Classes are unique objects, which are differ only in definition, hence they are all the same “type” in Python.

Instance Attributes

Instances have only data attributes and these are simply the data values which you want to be associated with a particular instance of any class. They are accessible via the familiar dotted-attribute notation. These values are independent of any other instance or the class it was instantiated from. If any instance is deallocated, then its attributes are also deallocated.

“Instantiating” Instance Attributes

Instance attributes can be set any time after an instance has been created, in any piece of code that has access to the instance. However, one of the key places where such attributes are set is in the constructor, `__init__()`.

Constructor First Place to Set Instance Attributes

The constructor is the earliest place that instance attributes can be set because `__init__()` is the first method called after instance objects have been created. There is no earlier opportunity to set instance attributes. Once `__init__()` has finished execution, the instance object is returned, completing the instantiation process.

Default Arguments Provide Default Instance Setup

One can also use `__init__()` along with default arguments to provide an effective way in preparing an instance for use. In most of the cases, the default values represent the most common cases for setting up instance attributes, and such use of default values precludes them from having to be given explicitly to the constructor.

Built-in Type Attributes

Built-in types also have attributes, and although they are technically not class instance attributes, they are sufficiently similar to get a brief mention here. Type attributes do not have an attribute dictionary like classes and instances (`__dict__`), so how do we figure out what attributes built-in types have? The convention for built-in types is to use two special attributes, `__methods__` and `__members__`, to outline any methods and/or data attributes.

Instance Attributes vs. Class Attributes

Class attributes are simply data values which are associated with a class and with not any

particular instances. Such values are also referred to as static members because their values remain constant, even if a class is invoked due to instantiation multiple times. No matter what, static members maintain their values independent of instances unless explicitly changed. Comparing instance attributes to class attributes is just similar to comparing automatic and static variables. Their main aspect is that you can access a class attribute with either the class or an instance, while the instance does not have an attribute with the same name.

Python Database Access

The standard database used for Python is DB-API. Most Python database interfaces adhere to this standard. You can choose the right database for your application. Python Database API supports a wide range of database servers such as, GadFly, mSQL, MySQL, PostgreSQL, Microsoft SQL Server 11000, Informix, Interbase, Oracle, Sybase. You must download a separate DB API module for each database that you need to access. For example, if you need to access an Oracle database as well as a MySQL database, then you need to download both the Oracle and the MySQL database modules.

The DB API provides a minimal standard for working with databases using Python structures and syntax wherever possible.

The API includes:

- Importing the API module.
- Acquiring a connection with the database.
- Issuing SQL statements and stored procedures.
- Closing the connection

We would learn all the concepts using MySQL, so let's talk about MySQLdb module only.

What is MySQLdb?

MySQLdb is an interface for connecting to a MySQL database server from Python. It implements the Python Database API v2.0 and is built on top of the MySQL C API.

How to install MySQLdb?

Before proceeding, you make sure you have MySQLdb installed on your Tomhine. Just type the following in your Python script and execute it:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import MySQLdb
```

If it produces the following result, then it means MySQLdb module is not installed:

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
File "test.py", line 3, in <module>
import MySQLdb
ImportError: No module named MySQLdb
```

To install MySQLdb module, download it from MySQLdb Download page and proceed as follows:

```
$ gunzip MySQL-python-1.2.2.tar.gz
$ tar -xvf MySQL-python-1.2.2.tar
$ cd MySQL-python-1.2.2
$ python setup.py build
$ python setup.py install
```

Database Connection:

Before connecting to a MySQL database, you need to make sure of the followings points given below:

- You have created a database TESTDB.
- You have created a table STAFF in TESTDB.

- This table is having fields FIRST_NAME, LAST_NAME, AGE, SEX and INCOME.
- User ID “abctest” and password “python121” are set to access TESTDB.
- Python module MySQLdb is installed properly on your Tomhine.
- You have gone through MySQL tutorial to understand MySQL Basics.

For Example:

Connecting with MySQL database “TESTDB”:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import MySQLdb
# Open database connection
db = MySQLdb.connect(“localhost”,“abctest”,“python121”,“TESTDB”)
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = db.cursor()
# execute SQL query using execute() method.
cursor.execute(“SELECT VERSION()”)
# Fetch a single row using fetchone() method.
data = cursor.fetchone()
print “Database version : %s ” % data
# disconnect from server
db.close()
```

Output:

Database version : 5.0.45

Creating Database Table:

Once a database connection is established, you can easily create tables or records into the database using execute method.

Example for creating Database table STAFF:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import MySQLdb
```

```

# Open database connection
db = MySQLdb.connect("localhost","abctest","python121","TESTDB")
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = db.cursor()
# Drop table if it already exist using execute() method.
cursor.execute("DROP TABLE IF EXISTS STAFF")
# Create table as per requirement sql = """"CREATE TABLE STAFF (FIRST_NAME
CHAR(20) NOT NULL, LAST_NAME CHAR(20), AGE INT, SEX CHAR(1), INCOME
FLOAT )""""
cursor.execute(sql)
# disconnect from server
db.close()

```

INSERT Operation:

INSERT operation is required when you want to create your records into a database table.

Example to create a record into STAFF table:

```

#!/usr/bin/python
import MySQLdb
# Open database connection
db = MySQLdb.connect("localhost","abctest","python121","TESTDB" )
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = db.cursor()
# Prepare SQL query to INSERT a record into the database.
sql = """"INSERT INTO STAFF(FIRST_NAME, LAST_NAME, AGE, SEX, INCOME)
VALUES ('Tom', 'David', 20, 'M', 11000)""""
try:
# Execute the SQL command
cursor.execute(sql)
# Commit your changes in the database
db.commit()
except:
# Rollback in case there is any error

```

```
db.rollback()
```

```
# disconnect from server
```

```
db.close()
```

Above example can be written as follows to create SQL queries dynamically:

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

```
import MySQLdb
```

```
# Open database connection
```

```
db = MySQLdb.connect("localhost","abctest","python121","TESTDB" )
```

```
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
```

```
cursor = db.cursor()
```

```
# Prepare SQL query to INSERT a record into the database.
```

```
sql = "INSERT INTO STAFF(FIRST_NAME, \LAST_NAME, AGE, SEX, INCOME) \
```

```
VALUES ('%s', '%s', '%d', '%c', '%d' )" % \ ('Tom', 'David', 20, 'M', 11000)
```

```
try:
```

```
# Execute the SQL command
```

```
cursor.execute(sql)
```

```
# Commit your changes in the database
```

```
db.commit()
```

```
except:
```

```
# Rollback in case there is any error
```

```
db.rollback()
```

```
# disconnect from server
```

```
db.close()
```

READ Operation:

READ Operation on database means to fetch some useful information from the database. Once our database connection is established, we are ready to make a query into this database. We can use either `fetchone()` method to fetch single record or `fetchall()` method to fetch multiple values from a database table.

- **fetchone():** This method fetches the next row of a query result set. A result set is an object that is returned when a cursor object is used to query a table.
- **fetchall():** This method fetches all the rows in a result set. If some rows have already

been extracted from the result set, the fetchall() method retrieves the remaining rows from the result set.

- **rowcount:** This is a read-only attribute and returns the number of rows that were affected by an execute() method.

Example to query all the records from STAFF table having salary more than 5000:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import MySQLdb
# Open database connection
db = MySQLdb.connect("localhost","abctest","python121","TESTDB" )
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = db.cursor()
# Prepare SQL query to INSERT a record into the database.
sql = "SELECT * FROM STAFF \
WHERE INCOME > '%d'" % (1000)
try:
# Execute the SQL command
cursor.execute(sql)
# Fetch all the rows in a list of lists.
results = cursor.fetchall()
for row in results:
fname = row[0]
lname = row[1]
age = row[2]
sex = row[3]
income = row[4]
# Now print fetched result
print "fname=%s,lname=%s,age=%d,sex=%s,income=%d" % \
(fname, lname, age, sex, income )
except:
print "Error: unable to fetch data"
# disconnect from server
db.close()
```

Output:

fname=Tom, lname=David, age=20, sex=M, income=11000

Update Operation:

UPDATE Operation on any database means to update one or more records, which are already available in the database. Following is the procedure to update all the records having SEX as 'M'. Here, we will increase AGE of all the males by one year.

For Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import MySQLdb
# Open database connection
db = MySQLdb.connect("localhost","abctest","python121","TESTDB" )
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = db.cursor()
# Prepare SQL query to UPDATE required records
sql = "UPDATE STAFF SET AGE = AGE + 1
WHERE SEX = '%c'" % ('M')
try:
# Execute the SQL command
cursor.execute(sql)
# Commit your changes in the database
db.commit()
except:
# Rollback in case there is any error
db.rollback()
# disconnect from server
db.close()
```

DELETE Operation:

DELETE operation is required when you want to delete some records from your database. Following is the procedure to delete all the records from STAFF where AGE is more than 20:

For Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import MySQLdb
# Open database connection
db = MySQLdb.connect("localhost","abctest","python121","TESTDB" )
# prepare a cursor object using cursor() method
cursor = db.cursor()
# Prepare SQL query to DELETE required records
sql = "DELETE FROM STAFF WHERE AGE > '%d'" % (20)
try:
# Execute the SQL command
cursor.execute(sql)
# Commit your changes in the database
db.commit()
except:
# Rollback in case there is any error
db.rollback()
# disconnect from server
db.close()
```

Performing Transactions:

Transactions are a mechanism that ensures consistency of data. Transactions should have the following properties:

- **Atomicity:** Either a transaction completes or nothing happens at all.
- **Consistency:** A transaction must start in a consistent state and leave the system in a consistent state.
- **Isolation:** Intermediate results of a transaction are not visible outside the current transaction.
- **Durability:** Once a transaction was committed, the effects are persistent, even after a

system failure.

The Python DB API 2.0 provides two methods to either commit or rollback a transaction.

For Example:

```
# Prepare SQL query to DELETE required records
sql = "DELETE FROM STAFF WHERE AGE > '%d'" % (20)
try:
# Execute the SQL command
cursor.execute(sql)
# Commit your changes in the database
db.commit()
except:
# Rollback in case there is any error
db.rollback()
```

COMMIT Operation:

Commit is the operation, which gives a green signal to database to finalize the changes, and after this operation, no change can be reverted back.

For Example:

```
db.commit()
```

ROLLBACK Operation:

If you are not satisfied with one or more of the changes and you want to revert back those changes completely, then use rollback() method.

For Example:

```
db.rollback()
```

Disconnecting Database:

To disconnect Database connection, use close() method.

For Example:

```
db.close()
```

If the connection to a database is closed by the user with the `close()` method, any outstanding transactions are rolled back by the DB. However, instead of depending on any of DB lower level implementation details, your application would be better off calling `commit` or `rollback` explicitly.

Handling Errors:

There are many sources of errors. A few examples are a syntax error in an executed SQL statement, a connection failure, or calling the `fetch` method for an already canceled or finished statement handle. The DB API defines a number of errors that must exist in each database module. The following table lists these exceptions.

Exception Description

Warning Used for non-fatal issues. Must subclass `StandardError`.

Error Base class for errors. Must subclass `StandardError`.

InterfaceError

Used for errors in the database module, not the database itself. Must subclass `Error`.

DatabaseError

Used for errors in the database. Must subclass `Error`. `DataError` Subclass of `DatabaseError` that refers to errors in the data.

OperationalError

Subclass of `DatabaseError` that refers to errors such as the loss of a connection to the database. These errors are generally outside of the control of the Python scripter.

IntegrityError

Subclass of `DatabaseError` for situations that would damage the relational integrity, such as uniqueness constraints or foreign keys.

InternalError

Subclass of DatabaseError that refers to errors internal to the database module, such as a cursor no longer being active.

ProgrammingError

Subclass of DatabaseError that refers to errors such as a bad table name and other things that can safely be blamed on you.

NotSupportedError

Subclass of DatabaseError that refers to trying to call unsupported functionality.

Your Python scripts should handle these errors, but before using any of the above exceptions, make sure your MySQLdb has support for that exception. You can get more information about them by reading the DB API 2.0 specification.

PYTHON NETWORKING

Python provides two levels of access to network services. At a low level, you can access the basic socket support in the underlying operating system which allows you to implement clients and servers for both connection oriented and connectionless protocols. Python also has libraries that provide higher-level access to specific application-level network protocols, such as FTP, HTTP, and so on.

What are Sockets?

Sockets are the endpoints of a bidirectional communications channel. Sockets may communicate within a process, between processes on the same machine, or between processes on different continents. Sockets may be implemented over a number of different channel types: UNIX domain sockets, TCP, UDP, and so on. The socket library provides specific classes for handling the common transports as well as a generic interface for handling the rest.

Sockets have their own vocabulary:

| Term | Description |
|----------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| domain | The family of protocols that will be used as the transport mechanism. These values are constants such as AF_INET, PF_INET, PF_UNIX, PF_X25, and so on. |
| type | The type of communications between the two endpoints, typically SOCK_STREAM for connection-oriented protocols and SOCK_DGRAM for connectionless protocols. |
| protocol | Typically zero, this may be used to identify a variant of a protocol within a domain and type. |
| hostname | The identifier of a network interface: |
| | • A string, which can be a host name, a dotted-quad address, or an IPV6 address in colon (and possibly dot) notation |
| | • A string "<broadcast>", which specifies an INADDR_BROADCAST address. |
| | • A zero-length string, which specifies INADDR_ANY, or |
| | • An Integer, interpreted as a binary address in host byte order. |
| port | Each server listens for clients calling on one or more ports. A port may be a Fixnum port number, a string containing a port number, or the name of a service. |

The socket Module:

To create a socket, you must use the socket.socket() function available in socket module.
Syntax:

```
s = socket.socket (socket_family, socket_type, protocol=0)
```

Description of parameters:

- **socket_family**: This is either AF_UNIX or AF_INET, as explained earlier.
- **socket_type**: This is either SOCK_STREAM or SOCK_DGRAM.
- **protocol**: This is usually left out, defaulting to 0.

Socket objects are use required functions to create your client or server program. Here I am going to share with you the list of functions required:

Server Socket Methods:

| Method | Description |
|------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| s.bind() | This method binds address (hostname, port number pair) to socket. |
| s.listen() | This method sets up and start TCP listener. |
| s.accept() | This passively accepts TCP client connection, waiting until connection arrives (blocking). |

Client Socket Methods:

| Method | Description |
|-------------|-------------------------------------------------------|
| s.connect() | This method actively initiates TCP server connection. |

General Socket Methods:

| Method | Description |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| s.recv() | This method receives TCP message |
| s.send() | This method transmits TCP message |
| s.recvfrom() | This method receives UDP message |
| s.sendto() | This method transmits UDP message |
| s.close() | This method closes socket |
| socket.gethostname() | Returns the hostname |

A Simple Server:

To write Internet servers, we use the socket function available in socket module to create a socket object. A socket object is then used to call other functions to set up a socket server. Now, call bind (hostname, port) function to specify a port for your service on the given host.

Next, call the accept method of the returned object. This method waits until a client connects to the port you specified and then returns a connection object that represents the connection to that client.

Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python # This is server.py file
import socket # Import socket module
s = socket.socket() # Create a socket object
host = socket.gethostname() # Get local machine name
port = 102 # Reserve a port for your service.
s.bind((host, port)) # Bind to the port
s.listen(5) # Now wait for client connection.
while True:
    c, addr = s.accept() # Establish connection with client.
    print 'Got connection from', addr
    c.send('Thanks for connecting')
    c.close() # Close the connection
```

A Simple Client:

Now, we will write a very simple client program, which will open a connection to a given port 102 and given host. This is very simple to create a socket client using Python's socket module function. The socket.connect(hostname, port) opens a TCP connection to hostname on the port. Once you have a socket open, you can read from it like any IO object. When

done, remember to close it, as you would close a file. The following code is a very simple client that connects to a given host and port, reads any available data from the socket, and then exits:

Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python # This is client.py file
import socket # Import socket module
s = socket.socket() # Create a socket object
host = socket.gethostname() # Get local machine name
port = 102 # Reserve a port for your service.
s.connect((host, port))
print s.recv(1024)
s.close # Close the socket when done
```

Now, run this server.py in background and then run above client.py to see the result.

Following would start a server in background.

```
$ python server.py &
```

Once server is started run client as follows:

```
$ python client.py
```

Output:

```
Got connection from ('127.0.0.1', 48437)
```

```
Thanks for connecting
```

Python Internet modules

Here below is a list of some important modules, which are used in Python Network/Internet programming.

| Protocol | Common function | Port No | Python module |
|----------|--------------------|---------|-------------------------|
| HTTP | Web pages | 80 | httplib, urllib, xmllib |
| NNTP | Usenet news | 119 | nntplib |
| FTP | File transfers | 20 | ftplib, urllib |
| SMTP | Sending email | 25 | smtplib |
| POP3 | Fetching email | 110 | poplib |
| IMAP4 | Fetching email | 143 | imaplib |
| Telnet | Command lines | 23 | telnetlib |
| Gopher | Document transfers | 70 | gopherlib, urllib |

SENDING MAIL IN PYTHON

Simple Mail Transfer Protocol (SMTP) is a protocol that is used to send e-mails and routing e-mails between the mail servers. In Python there is 'smtplib' module, which defines an SMTP client session object. SMTP client session object is used to send mail to any Internet machine with an SMTP or ESMTP listener daemon.

SYNTAX:

```
import smtplib
smtpObj = smtplib.SMTP([host[,port[,local_hostname]]])
```

Detail of parameters used:

- **host:** This is the host running your SMTP server. You can specify IP address of the host or a domain name. This is optional argument.
- **port:** If you are providing host argument, then you need to specify a port, where SMTP server is listening. Usually this port would be 25.
- **local_hostname:** If your SMTP server is running on your local machine, then you can specify localhost as of this option. An SMTP object has an instance method called sendmail, which will typically be used to do the work of mailing a message. It takes three parameters:
 - **The sender** - A string with the address of the sender.

- **The receivers** - A list of strings, one for each recipient.
- **The message** - A message as a string formatted as specified in the various RFCs.

Example:

To send an e-mail using Python script.

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import smtplib
sender = 'abc@sensdomain.com'
receivers = ['xyz@recdomain.com']
message = """From: From Person <abc@sensdomain.com>
To: To Person <xyz@recdomain.com>
Subject: SMTP e-mail test
This is a test e-mail message.
"""
try:
smtpObj = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')
smtpObj.sendmail(sender, receivers, message)
print "Mail sent successfully"
except SMTPException:
print "Error in sending mail"
```

In case, if you are not running an SMTP server on your local machine, then you can use 'smtplib' client to communicate with a remote SMTP server. Unless you're using a webmail service, your e-mail provider will have provided you with outgoing mail server details that you can provide them, as follows:

```
smtplib.SMTP('mail.your-domain.com', 25)
```

Sending an HTML E-mails Using Python:

When you send a text message using Python, then all the content will be treated as simple text. Even if you will include HTML tags in a text message, it will be displayed as simple text and HTML tags will not be formatted according to HTML syntax. But Python provides option to send an HTML message as actual HTML message. While sending an e-mail message, you can specify a Mime version, content type and character set to send an HTML e-mail.

Example to send HTML content as an e-mail:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import smtplib
message = """From: From Person <abc@sensdomain.com>
To: To Person <xyz@recdomain.com>
MIME-Version: 1.0
Content-type: text/html
Subject: SMTP HTML e-mail test
This is an e-mail message to be sent in HTML format
<b>Here is HTML text for you.</b>
<h1>Here is Headline for you.</h1>
"""
try:
smtpObj = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')
smtpObj.sendmail(sender, receivers, message)
print "Mail sent successfully"
except SMTPException:
print "Error in sending mail"
```

Sending Attachments as an e-mail:

To send an e-mail with mixed content requires setting Content-type header to multipart/mixed. Then, text and attachment sections can be specified within boundaries. A boundary is started with two hyphens followed by a unique number, which can not appear in the message part of the e-mail. A final boundary denoting the e-mail's final section must also end with two hyphens. Attached files should be encoded with the pack("m") function to have base64 encoding before transmission.

Example to send a file /tmp/test.txt as an attachment:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import smtplib
import base64
filename = "/tmp/test.txt"
# Read a file and encode it into base64 format
fo = open(filename, "rb")
```

```
filecontent = fo.read()
encodedcontent = base64.b64encode(filecontent) # base64
sender = 'test@aaadomain.com'
reciever = 'aaa.admin@gmail.com'
marker = "TESTMARKER"
body = """
This is a test email to send an attachement.
"""

# Define the main headers.
part1 = """From: From Person <me@fromdomain.net>
To: To Person <aaa.admin@gmail.com>
Subject: Sending Attachement
MIME-Version: 1.0
Content-Type: multipart/mixed; boundary=%s
—%s
""" % (marker, marker)

# Define the message action
part2 = """Content-Type: text/plain
Content-Transfer-Encoding:8bit
%s
—%s
""" % (body,marker)

# Define the attachment section
part3 = """Content-Type: multipart/mixed; name="%s"
Content-Transfer-Encoding:base64
Content-Disposition: attachment; filename=%s
%s
—%s—
""" %(filename, filename, encodedcontent, marker)
message = part1 + part2 + part3
try:
smtpObj = smtplib.SMTP('localhost')
```

```
smtpObj.sendmail(sender, reciever, message)
print "Mail sent successfully"
except Exception:
print "Error in sending email"
```

PYTHON MULTITHREADING

In python you can run multiple threads at a time. Running multiple threads is similar to running several different programs with following benefits:

- Multiple threads within a process share the same data space with the main thread and can share information or communicate with each other more easily as compared to when they were separate processes.
- Threads sometimes called light-weight processes and they don't require much memory overhead. A thread has a beginning, an execution sequence, and a conclusion. It has an instruction pointer that keeps track of where within its context it is currently running.
- It can be pre-empted.
- It can temporarily be put on hold while other threads are running, this method is called yielding.

Starting a New Thread:

To start a new thread, you need to call following method available in thread module:

```
thread.start_new_thread (function, args[,kwargs])
```

This method is used to enable a fast and efficient way to create new threads in both Linux and Windows. The method call returns immediately and the child thread starts and calls function with the passed list of 'args'. When function returns, then the thread terminates. Here, 'args' is a tuple of arguments; that uses an empty tuple to call function without passing any arguments. 'kwargs' is an optional dictionary of keyword arguments.

For Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import thread
import time
```

```
# Define a function for the thread
def print_time( threadName, delay):
    count = 0
    while count < 5:
        time.sleep(delay)
        count += 1
    print "%s: %s" % ( threadName, time.ctime(time.time()) )
# Create two threads as follows
try:
    thread.start_new_thread( print_time, ("MyThread-1", 2,) )
    thread.start_new_thread( print_time, ("MyThread-2", 4,) )
except:
    print "Error in starting a thread"
while 1:
    pass
```

Output:

```
MyThread-1: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:17 2015
MyThread-1: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:19 2015
MyThread-2: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:19 2015
MyThread-1: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:21 2015
MyThread-2: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:23 2015
MyThread-1: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:23 2015
MyThread-1: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:25 2015
MyThread-2: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:27 2015
MyThread-2: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:31 2015
MyThread-2: Wed Jan 01:45 01:45:35 2015
```

Although it is very effective for low-level threading, but the thread module is very limited compared to the newer threading module.

The Threading Module:

New threading module in Python 2.4 provides much more powerful, high-level support for threads. The threading module exposes all the methods of the thread module and provides some additional methods:

- `threading.activeCount()`: Returns the number of thread objects that are active.
- `threading.currentThread()`: Returns the number of thread objects in the caller's thread control.
- `threading.enumerate()`: Returns a list of all thread objects that are currently active.

In addition to the methods, the threading module has the Thread class that implements threading. The methods provided by the Thread class are given below:

- **run()**: The run() method is the entry point for a thread.
- **start()**: The start() method starts a thread by calling the run method.
- **join([time])**: The join() waits for threads to terminate.
- **isAlive()**: The isAlive() method checks whether a thread is still executing.
- **getName()**: The getName() method returns the name of a thread.
- **setName()**: The setName() method sets the name of a thread.

Creating Thread using ThreadingModule:

To implement a new thread using the threading module, you must follow the points given below:

- Define a new subclass of the Thread class.
- Override the `__init__(self [,args])` method to add additional arguments.
- Then, override the `run(self [,args])` method to implement what the thread should do when started.

Once you have created the new Thread subclass, you can create an instance of it and then start a new thread by invoking the start(), which will in turn call run() method.

For Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import threading
import time
exitFlag = 0
class myBook (threading.Thread):
```

```
def __init__(self, threadID, name, counter):
threading.Thread.__init__(self)
self.threadID = threadID
self.name = name
self.counter = counter
def run(self):
print "Starting " + self.name
print_time(self.name, self.counter, 5)
print "Exiting " + self.name
def print_time(threadName, delay, counter):
while counter:
if exitFlag:
thread.exit()
time.sleep(delay)
print "%s: %s" % (threadName, time.ctime(time.time()))
counter -= 1
# Create new threads
thread1 = myBook(1, "MyThread-1", 1)
thread2 = myBook(2, "MyThread-2", 2)
# Start new Threads
thread1.start()
thread2.start()
print "Exit From Main Thread"
```

Output:

Starting MyThread-1

Starting MyThread-2

Exit From Main Thread

MyThread-1: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:03 2015

MyThread-1: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:04 2015

MyThread-2: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:04 2015

MyThread-1: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:05 2015

```
MyThread-1: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:06 2015
MyThread-2: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:06 2015
MyThread-1: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:07 2015
Exiting MyThread-1
MyThread-2: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:08 2015
MyThread-2: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:10 2015
MyThread-2: Mon Jul 27 01:45:10:12 2015
Exiting MyThread-2
```

Synchronizing Threads:

In python threading module includes a simple-to-implement locking mechanism which will allow you to synchronize the threads. A new lock is created by calling the Lock() method, which returns the new lock. to force threads to run, The acquire(blocking) method of the new lock object is used. If blocking is set to 0, the thread will return immediately with a 0 value if the lock cannot be acquired and with a 1 if the lock was acquired. If blocking is set to 1, the thread will block and wait for the lock to be released. The release() method of the the new lock object would be used to release the lock when it is no longer required.

For Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import threading
import time
class myBook (threading.Thread):
def __init__(self, threadID, name, counter):
threading.Thread.__init__(self)
self.threadID = threadID
self.name = name
self.counter = counter
def run(self):
print "Starting " + self.name
# Get lock to synchronize threads
threadLock.acquire()
print_time(self.name, self.counter, 3)
```

```
# Free lock to release next thread
threadLock.release()
def print_time(threadName, delay, counter):
while counter:
time.sleep(delay)
print "%s: %s" % (threadName, time.ctime(time.time()))
counter -= 1
threadLock = threading.Lock()
threads = []
# Create new threads
thread1 = myBook(1, "MyThread-1", 1)
thread2 = myBook(2, "MyThread-2", 2)
# Start new Threads
thread1.start()
thread2.start()
# Add threads to thread list
threads.append(thread1)
threads.append(thread2)
# Wait for all threads to complete
for t in threads:
t.join()
print "Exiting from Main Thread"
```

Output:

```
Starting MyThread-2
MyThread-1: Mon Jul 27 01:45:11:28 2015
MyThread-1: Mon Jul 27 01:45:11:29 2015
MyThread-1: Mon Jul 27 01:45:11:30 2015
MyThread-2: Mon Jul 27 01:45:11:32 2015
MyThread-2: Mon Jul 27 01:45:11:34 2015
MyThread-2: Mon Jul 27 01:45:11:36 2015
Exiting from Main Thread
```

Multithreaded Priority Queue:

The Queue module in python allows you to create a new queue object, which can hold a specific number of items. Methods that are used to control the Queue are given below:

- **get()**: The get() removes and returns an item from the queue.
- **put()**: The put adds item to a queue.
- **qsize()** : The qsize() returns the number of items that are currently in the queue.
- **empty()**: The empty() returns True if queue is empty; otherwise, False.
- **full()**: the full() returns True if queue is full; otherwise, False.

For Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import Queue
import threading
import time
exitFlag = 0
class myBook (threading.Thread):
def __init__(self, threadID, name, q):
threading.Thread.__init__(self)
self.threadID = threadID
self.name = name
self.q = q
def run(self):
print "Starting " + self.name
process_data(self.name, self.q)
print "Exiting " + self.name
def process_data(threadName, q):
while not exitFlag:
queueLock.acquire()
```

```
if not workQueue.empty():
    data = q.get()
    queueLock.release()
    print "%s processing %s" % (threadName, data)
else:
    queueLock.release()
    time.sleep(1)
threadList = ["MyThread-1", "MyThread-2", "Thread-3"]
nameList = ["A", "B", "C", "D", "E"]
queueLock = threading.Lock()
workQueue = Queue.Queue(10)
threads = []
threadID = 1
# Create new threads
for tName in threadList:
    thread = myThread(threadID, tName, workQueue)
    thread.start()
    threads.append(thread)
    threadID += 1
# Fill the queue
queueLock.acquire()
for word in nameList:
    workQueue.put(word)
queueLock.release()
# Wait for queue to empty
while not workQueue.empty():
    pass
# Notify threads it's time to exit
exitFlag = 1
# Wait for all threads to complete
for t in threads:
    t.join()
```

```
print "Exiting Main Thread"
```

Output:

Starting Thread-1

Starting Thread-2

Starting Thread-3

Thread-1 processing A

Thread-2 processing B

Thread-3 processing C

Thread-1 processing D

Thread-2 processing E

Exiting Thread-3

Exiting Thread-1

Exiting Thread-2

Exiting Main Thread

PYTHON XML PROCESSING

What is XML?

XML is, Extensible Markup Language (XML) and its like HTML or SGML. XML is a portable, open source language that allows the programmers to develop applications that can be read by other applications, regardless of operating system and/or developmental language. XML is extremely useful for keeping track of small to medium amounts of data.

XML Parser Architectures and APIs:

The Python standard library provides a set of interfaces to work with XML. The two most basic and broadly used APIs to XML data are the SAX and DOM interfaces.

- **Simple API for XML (SAX):** Here, you register callbacks for events of interest and then let the parser proceed through the document. This is useful when your documents are large or you have memory limitations, it parses the file as it reads it from disk and the entire file is never stored in memory.
- **Document Object Model (DOM) API:** This is a World Wide Web Consortium recommendation wherein the entire file is read into memory and stored in a hierarchical (tree-based) form to represent all the features of an XML document.

The thing is that SAX can't process information as fast as DOM, when working with large files. On the other hand, using DOM can kill your resources, especially if used on a lot of small files. SAX is read-only, while DOM allows changes to the XML file. As these two APIs complement each other, there is no reason why you can't use them both for large projects. Let's see a simple example for XML file movies.xml:

```
<collection shelf="New Arrivals">
<movie title="Enemy Behind">
<type>War, Thriller</type>
<format>DVD</format>
<year>2003</year>
<rating>PG</rating>
<stars>10</stars>
<description>Talk about a US-Japan war</description>
</movie>
<movie title="Transformers">
<type>Anime, Science Fiction</type>
<format>DVD</format>
<year>1989</year>
<rating>R</rating>
<stars>8</stars>
<description>A schientific fiction</description>
</movie>
<movie title="Trigun">
<type>Anime, Action</type>
```

```
<format>DVD</format>
<episodes>4</episodes>
<rating>PG</rating>
<stars>10</stars>
<description>Vash the Stampede!</description>
</movie>
<movie title="Ishtar">
<type>Comedy</type>
<format>VHS</format>
<rating>PG</rating>
<stars>2</stars>
<description>Viewable boredom</description>
</movie>
</collection>
```

Parsing XML with SAX APIs:

SAX is a standard interface for event-driven XML parsing. For Parsing XML with SAX, you need to create your own ContentHandler by subclassing `xml.sax.ContentHandler`. Your ContentHandler handles the particular tags and attributes of your flavor of XML. A ContentHandler object provides methods to handle various parsing events. Its owning parser calls ContentHandler methods as it passes the XML file. The methods `startDocument` and `endDocument` are called at the start and the end of the XML file. The ContentHandler is called at the start and end of each element. Here are some methods to understand before proceeding:

The `make_parser` Method:

This method creates a new parser object and returns it. The parser object created will be of the first parser type the system finds.

```
xml.sax.make_parser( [parser_list] )
```

Here parameter '`parser_list`', is the optional argument consisting of a list of parsers to use which must all implement the `make_parser` method.

The `parse` Method:

This method creates a SAX parser and uses it to parse a document.

```
xml.sax.parse( xmlfile, contenthandler[, errorhandler])
```

Here parameters 'xmlfile', is the name of the XML file to read from. 'contenthandler', must be a ContentHandler object. and 'errorhandler', must be a SAX ErrorHandler object.

The parseString Method:

There is one more method to create a SAX parser and to parse the specified XML string.

```
xml.sax.parseString(xmlstring, contenthandler[, errorhandler])
```

Here parameters 'xmlstring', is the name of the XML string to read from. 'contenthandler', must be a ContentHandler object. 'errorhandler', must be a SAX ErrorHandler object.

For Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import xml.sax
class MovieHandler( xml.sax.ContentHandler ):
def __init__(self):
self.CurrentData = ""
self.type = ""
self.format = ""
self.year = ""
self.rating = ""
self.stars = ""
self.description = ""
# Call when an element starts
def startElement(self, tag, attributes):
self.CurrentData = tag
if tag == "movie":
print "*****Movie*****"
title = attributes["title"]
print "Title:", title
# Call when an elements ends
```

```
def endElement(self, tag):
    if self.CurrentData == "type":
        print "Type:", self.type
    elif self.CurrentData == "format":
        print "Format:", self.format
    elif self.CurrentData == "year":
        print "Year:", self.year
    elif self.CurrentData == "rating":
        print "Rating:", self.rating
    elif self.CurrentData == "stars":
        print "Stars:", self.stars
    elif self.CurrentData == "description":
        print "Description:", self.description
    self.CurrentData = ""
# Call when a character is read
def characters(self, content):
    if self.CurrentData == "type":
        self.type = content
    elif self.CurrentData == "format":
        self.format = content
    elif self.CurrentData == "year":
        self.year = content
    elif self.CurrentData == "rating":
        self.rating = content
    elif self.CurrentData == "stars":
        self.stars = content
    elif self.CurrentData == "description":
        self.description = content
if ( __name__ == "__main__"):
    # create an XMLReader
    parser = xml.sax.make_parser()
    # turn off namespaces
```

```
parser.setFeature(xml.sax.handler.feature_namespaces, 0)
# override the default ContextHandler
Handler = MovieHandler()
parser.setContentHandler( Handler )
parser.parse("movies.xml")
```

Output:

*****Movie*****

Title: Enemy Behind

Type: War, Thriller

Format: DVD

Year: 2003

Rating: PG

Stars: 10

Description: Talk about a US-Japan war

*****Movie*****

Title: Transformers

Type: Anime, Science Fiction

Format: DVD

Year: 1989

Rating: R

Stars: 8

Description: A schientific fiction

*****Movie*****

Title: Trigun

Type: Anime, Action

Format: DVD

Rating: PG

Stars: 10

Description: Vash the Stampede!

*****Movie*****

Title: Ishtar

Type: Comedy

Format: VHS

Rating: PG

Stars: 2

Description: Viewable boredom

Parsing XML with DOM APIs:

The Document Object Model or “DOM,” is a cross-language API which is used for accessing and modifying the XML documents. The DOM is extremely useful for random-access applications. SAX allows to use one document at a time. If you are looking at one SAX element, you have no access to another one. the easiest way to quickly load an XML document and to create a minidom object is by using the xml.dom module. The minidom object provides a simple parser method that will quickly create a DOM tree from the XML file.

For Example:

```
#!/usr/bin/python
from xml.dom.minidom import parse
import xml.dom.minidom
# Open XML document using minidom parser
DOMTree = xml.dom.minidom.parse("movies.xml")
collection = DOMTree.documentElement
if collection.hasAttribute("shelf"):
    print "Root element : %s" % collection.getAttribute("shelf")
# Get all the movies in the collection
movies = collection.getElementsByTagName("movie")
# Print detail of each movie.
for movie in movies:
    print "*****Movie*****"
    if movie.hasAttribute("title"):
        print "Title: %s" % movie.getAttribute("title")
    type = movie.getElementsByTagName('type')[0]
    print "Type: %s" % type.childNodes[0].data
    format = movie.getElementsByTagName('format')[0]
    print "Format: %s" % format.childNodes[0].data
```

```
rating = movie.getElementsByTagName('rating')[0]
print "Rating: %s" % rating.childNodes[0].data
description = movie.getElementsByTagName('description')[0]
print "Description: %s" % description.childNodes[0].data
```

Output:

Root element : New Arrivals

*****Movie*****

Title: Enemy Behind

Type: War, Thriller

Format: DVD

Rating: PG

Description: Talk about a US-Japan war

*****Movie*****

Title: Transformers

Type: Anime, Science Fiction

Format: DVD

Rating: R

Description: A schientific fiction

*****Movie*****

Title: Trigun

Type: Anime, Action

Format: DVD

Rating: PG

Description: Vash the Stampede!

*****Movie*****

Title: Ishtar

Type: Comedy

Format: VHS

Rating: PG

Description: Viewable boredom

Python Program to Add Two Matrices

```
# Program to add two matrices
# using nested loop
X = [[12,7,3],
     [4 ,5,6],
     [7 ,8,9]]

Y = [[5,8,1],
     [6,7,3],
     [4,5,9]]

result = [[0,0,0],
          [0,0,0],
          [0,0,0]]

# iterate through rows
for i in range(len(X)):
    # iterate through columns
    for j in range(len(X[0])):
        result[i][j] = X[i][j] + Y[i][j]
for r in result:
    print(r)
```

Output:

```
[17, 15, 4]
[10, 12, 9]
[11, 13, 18]
```

Python Program to Add Two Numbers

```
# This program adds two numbers
# Numbers are provided by the user
```

```
# Store input numbers
num1 = input('Enter first number: ')
num2 = input('Enter second number: ')
# Add two numbers
sum = float(num1) + float(num2)
# Display the sum
print('The sum of {0} and {1} is {2}'.format(num1,num2,sum))
```

Output:

```
Enter first number: 5.3
Enter second number: 3.3
The sum of 5.3 and 3.3 is 8.6
```

Python Program to Calculate the Area of a Triangle

```
# Python Program to find the area of triangle
# Three sides of the triangle
# a,b,c are provided by the user
a = float(input('Enter first side: '))
b = float(input('Enter second side: '))
c = float(input('Enter third side: '))
# calculate the semi-perimeter
s = (a + b + c) / 2
# calculate the area
area = (s*(s-a)*(s-b)*(s-c)) ** 0.5
print('The area of the triangle is %0.2f' %area)
```

Output:

```
Enter first side: 5
Enter second side: 6
Enter third side: 7
```

The area of the triangle is 14.70

Python Program to Check Armstrong Number

```
# Python program to if the
# number provided by the
# user is an Armstrong number
# or not
# take input from the user
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
# initialise sum
sum = 0
# find the sum of the cube of each digit
temp = num
while temp > 0:
    digit = temp % 10
    sum += digit ** 3
    temp //= 10
# display the result
if num == sum:
    print(num, "is an Armstrong number")
else:
    print(num, "is not an Armstrong number")
```

Output 1

Enter a number: 663

663 is not an Armstrong number

Output 2

Enter a number: 371

407 is an Armstrong number

Python Program to Check if a Number is Odd or Even

```
# Python program to check if
# the input number is odd or even.
# A number is even if division
# by 2 give a remainder of 0.
# If remainder is 1, it is odd.
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
if (num % 2) == 0:
    print("{0} is Even".format(num))
else:
    print("{0} is Odd".format(num))
```

Output 1

Enter a number: 73

73 is Odd

Output 2

Enter a number: 24

24 is Even

Python Program to Check if a Number is Positive, Negative or Zero

```
# In this python program, we input a number
# check if the number is positive or
# negative or zero and display
# an appropriate message
num = float(input("Enter a number: "))
```

```
if num > 0:
    print("Positive number")
elif num == 0:
    print("Zero")
else:
    print("Negative number")
# In this program, we input a number
# check if the number is positive or
# negative or zero and display
# an appropriate message
# This time we use nested if
num = float(input("Enter a number: "))
if num >= 0:
    if num == 0:
        print("Zero")
    else:
        print("Positive number")
else:
    print("Negative number")
```

Output 1

```
Enter a number: 5
Positive number
```

Output 2

```
Enter a number: 0
Zero
```

Output 3

```
Enter a number: -4
Negative number
```

Python Program to Check if a String is Palindrome or Not

```
# Program to check if a string
# is palindrome or not
# take input from the user
my_str = input("Enter a string: ")
# make it suitable for caseless comparison
my_str = my_str.casefold()
# reverse the string
rev_str = reversed(my_str)
# check if the string is equal to its reverse
if list(my_str) == list(rev_str):
    print("It is palindrome")
else:
    print("It is not palindrome")
```

Output 1

```
Enter a string: aIbohPhoBiA
It is palindrome
```

Output 2

```
Enter a string: 13344331
It is palindrome
```

Output 3

```
Enter a string: palindrome
It is not palindrome
```

Python Program to Check Leap Year

```
# Python program to check if
```

```
# the input year is
# a leap year or not
year = int(input("Enter a year: "))
if (year % 4) == 0:
    if (year % 100) == 0:
        if (year % 400) == 0:
            print("{0} is a leap year".format(year))
        else:
            print("{0} is not a leap year".format(year))
    else:
        print("{0} is a leap year".format(year))
else:
    print("{0} is not a leap year".format(year))
```

Output 1

```
Enter a year: 2012
2012 is a leap year
```

Output 2

```
Enter a year: 2015
2015 is not a leap year
```

Python Program to Check Prime Number

```
# Python program to check if
# the input number is
# prime or not
# take input from the user
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
# prime numbers are greater than 1
if num > 1:
    # check for factors
```

```

for i in range(2,num):
    if (num % i) == 0:
        print(num,"is not a prime number")
        print(i,"times",num//i,"is",num)
        break
    else:
        print(num,"is a prime number")
# if input number is less than
# or equal to 1, it is not prime
else:
    print(num,"is not a prime number")

```

Output 1

```

Enter a number: 407
407 is not a prime number
11 times 37 is 407

```

Output 2

```

Enter a number: 853
853 is a prime number

```

Python Program to Convert Celsius To Fahrenheit

```

# Python Program to convert temperature in
# celsius to fahrenheit where, input is
# provided by the user in
# degree celsius
# take input from the user
celsius = float(input('Enter degree Celsius: '))
# calculate fahrenheit
fahrenheit = (celsius * 1.8) + 32
print('%0.1f degree Celsius is equal to %0.1f degree Fahrenheit' %(celsius,fahrenheit))

```

Output

Enter degree Celsius: 43.7

43.7 degree Celsius is equal to 110.66 degree Fahrenheit

Python Program to Convert Decimal into Binary, Octal and Hexadecimal

```
# Python program to convert decimal
# number into binary, octal and
# hexadecimal number system
# Take decimal number from user
dec = int(input("Enter an integer: "))
print("The decimal value of",dec,"is:")
print(bin(dec),"in binary.")
print(oct(dec),"in octal.")
print(hex(dec),"in hexadecimal.")
```

Output

Enter an integer: 133

The decimal value of 133 is:

0b10000101 in binary.

0o205 in octal.

0x85 in hexadecimal.

Python Program to Convert Decimal to Binary Using Recursion

```
# Python program to convert decimal
# number into binary number
# using recursive function
```

```
def binary(n):
    """Function to print binary number
    for the input decimal using recursion"""
    if n > 1:
        binary(n//2)
    print(n % 2,end = " ")
# Take decimal number from user
dec = int(input("Enter an integer: "))
binary(dec)
```

Output

```
Enter an integer: 76
1001100
```

Python Program to Convert Kilometers to Miles

```
# Program to convert kilometers
# into miles where, input is
# provided by the user in
# kilometers
# take input from the user
kilometers = float(input('How many kilometers?: '))
# conversion factor
conv_fac = 0.621371
# calculate miles
miles = kilometers * conv_fac
print('%0.3f kilometers is equal to %0.3f miles' %(kilometers,miles))
```

Output

```
How many kilometers?: 3.7
5.500 kilometers is equal to 2.300 miles
```

Python Program to Count the Number of Each Vowel

```
# Program to count the number of
# each vowel in a string
# string of vowels
vowels = 'aeiou'
# take input from the user
ip_str = input("Enter a string: ")
# make it suitable for caseless comparisons
ip_str = ip_str.casefold()
# make a dictionary with each vowel a key and value 0
count = {}.fromkeys(vowels,0)
# count the vowels
for char in ip_str:
    if char in count:
        count[char] += 1
print(count)
```

Output

```
Enter a string: I welcome you all to read my book and learn python easily.
{'e': 4, 'u': 1, 'o': 6, 'a': 5, 'i': 1}
```

Python Program to Display Calendar

```
# Python program to display calendar
# of given month of the year
```

```
# import module
import calendar
# ask of month and year
yy = int(input("Enter year: "))
mm = int(input("Enter month: "))
# display the calendar
print(calendar.month(yy,mm))
```

Output

Enter year: 2015

Enter month: 09

September 2015

| Mo | Tu | We | Th | Fr | Sa | Su |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
| 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
| 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 |
| 28 | 29 | 30 | | | | |

Python Program to Display Fibonacci Sequence Using Recursion

```
# Python program to display the Fibonacci
# sequence up to n-th term using
# recursive functions
def recur_fibo(n):
```

```
"""Recursive function to
print Fibonacci sequence"""
if n <= 1:
    return n
else:
    return(recur_fibo(n-1) + recur_fibo(n-2))
# take input from the user
nterms = int(input("How many terms? "))
# check if the number of terms is valid
if nterms <= 0:
    print("Plese enter a positive integer")
else:
    print("Fibonacci sequence:")
    for i in range(nterms):
        print(recur_fibo(i))
```

Output

How many terms? 8

Fibonacci sequence:

0

1

1

2

3

5

8

13

Python Program To Display Powers of 2 Using Anonymous Function

```
# Python Program to display
```

```
# the powers of 2 using
# anonymous function
# Take number of terms from user
terms = int(input("How many terms? "))
# use anonymous function
result = list(map(lambda x: 2 ** x, range(terms)))
# display the result
for i in range(terms):
    print("2 raised to power",i,"is",result[i])
```

Output

```
How many terms? 6
2 raised to power 0 is 1
2 raised to power 1 is 2
2 raised to power 2 is 4
2 raised to power 3 is 8
2 raised to power 4 is 16
2 raised to power 5 is 32
```

Python Program to Display the multiplication Table

```
# Python program to find the multiplication
# table (from 1 to 10)c
# of a number input by the user
# take input from the user
num = int(input("Display multiplication table of? "))
# use for loop to iterate 10 times
for i in range(1,11):
    print(num,'x',i,'=',num*i)
```

Output

Display multiplication table of? 7

$$7 \times 1 = 7$$

$$7 \times 2 = 14$$

$$7 \times 3 = 21$$

$$7 \times 4 = 28$$

$$7 \times 5 = 35$$

$$7 \times 6 = 42$$

$$7 \times 7 = 49$$

$$7 \times 8 = 56$$

$$7 \times 9 = 63$$

$$7 \times 10 = 70$$

Python Program to Find Armstrong Number in an Interval

```
# Program to ask the user
# for a range and display
# all Armstrong numbers in
# that interval
# take input from the user
lower = int(input("Enter lower range: "))
upper = int(input("Enter upper range: "))
for num in range(lower,upper + 1):
    # initialize sum
    sum = 0
    # find the sum of the cube of each digit
    temp = num
    while temp > 0:
        digit = temp % 10
```

```
sum += digit ** 3
temp //= 10
if num == sum:
    print(num)
```

Output

```
Enter lower range: 0
Enter upper range: 999
0
1
153
370
371
407
```

Python Program to Find ASCII Value of Character

```
# Program to find the
# ASCII value of the
# given character
# Take character from user
c = input("Enter a character: ")
print("The ASCII value of ' " + c + "' is",ord(c))
```

Output 1

```
Enter a character: k
The ASCII value of 'k' is 107
```

Output 2

```
Enter a character: =
The ASCII value of '=' is 61
```

Python Program to Find Factorial of Number Using Recursion

```
# Python program to find the
```

```

# factorial of a number
# using recursion
def recur_factorial(n):
    """Function to return the factorial
    of a number using recursion"""
    if n == 1:
        return n
    else:
        return n*recur_factorial(n-1)
# take input from the user
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
# check is the number is negative
if num < 0:
    print("Sorry, factorial does not exist for negative numbers")
elif num == 0:
    print("The factorial of 0 is 1")
else:
    print("The factorial of",num,"is",recur_factorial(num))

```

Output 1

```

Enter a number: -5
Sorry, factorial does not exist for negative numbers

```

Output 2

```

Enter a number: 5
The factorial of 5 is 120

```

Python Program to Find Factors of Number

```

# Python Program to find the
# factors of a number
# define a function
def print_factors(x):
    """This function takes a

```

```
number and prints the factors"""  
print("The factors of",x,"are:")  
for i in range(1, x + 1):  
    if x % i == 0:  
        print(i)  
# take input from the user  
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))  
print_factors(num)
```

Output

Enter a number: 120

The factors of 120 are:

1
2
3
4
5
6
8
10
12
15
20
24
30
40
60
120

Python Program to Find Hash of File

```
# Python program to find the SHA-1
# message digest of a file
# import hashlib module
import hashlib
def hash_file(filename):
    """This function returns the SHA-1 hash
    of the file passed into it"""
    # make a hash object
    h = hashlib.sha1()
    # open file for reading in binary mode
    with open(filename, 'rb') as file:
        # loop till the end of the file
        chunk = 0
        while chunk != b'':
            # read only 1024 bytes at a time
            chunk = file.read(1024)
            h.update(chunk)
    # return the hex representation of digest
    return h.hexdigest()
message = hash_file("track1.mp3")
print(message)
```

Output

```
633d7356947eec543c50b76a1852f92427f4dca9
```

Python Program to Find HCF or GCD

```
# Python program to find the
# H.C.F of two input number
# define a function
def hcf(x, y):
```

```

"""This function takes two
integers and returns the H.C.F"""
# choose the smaller number
if x > y:
    smaller = y
else:
    smaller = x
for i in range(1,smaller + 1):
    if((x % i == 0) and (y % i == 0)):
        hcf = i
return
# take input from the user
num1 = int(input("Enter first number: "))
num2 = int(input("Enter second number: "))
print("The H.C.F. of", num1,"and", num2,"is", hcf(num1, num2))

```

Output

```

Enter first number: 40
Enter second number: 48
The H.C.F. of 40 and 48 is 8

```

Python Program to Find LCM

```

# Python Program to find the
# L.C.M. of two input number
# define a function
def lcm(x, y):
    """This function takes two
    integers and returns the L.C.M."""
    # choose the greater number

```

```
if x > y:
    greater = x
else:
    greater = y
while(True):
    if((greater % x == 0) and (greater % y == 0)):
        lcm = greater
        break
    greater += 1
return lcm
# take input from the user
num1 = int(input("Enter first number: "))
num2 = int(input("Enter second number: "))
print("The L.C.M. of", num1,"and", num2,"is", lcm(num1, num2))
```

Output

Enter first number: 3

Enter second number: 4

The L.C.M. of 3 and 4 is 12

Python Program to Find Numbers Divisible by Another Number

```
# Python Program to find numbers
# divisible by thirteen
# from a list using anonymous function
# Take a list of numbers
my_list = [12, 65, 54, 39, 102, 339, 221,]
# use anonymous function to filter
result = list(filter(lambda x: (x % 13 == 0), my_list))
# display the result
print("Numbers divisible by 13 are",result)
```

Output

Numbers divisible by 13 are [65, 39, 221]

Python Program to Find Sum of Natural Numbers Using Recursion

```
# Python program to find the sum of
# natural numbers up to n
# using recursive function
def recur_sum(n):
    """Function to return the sum
    of natural numbers using recursion"""
    if n <= 1:
        return n
    else:
        return n + recur_sum(n-1)
# take input from the user
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
if num < 0:
    print("Enter a positive number")
else:
    print("The sum is",recur_sum(num))
```

Output

Enter a number: 10

The sum is 55

Python Program to Find the Factorial of a Number

```
# Python program to find the
# factorial of a number
# provided by the user
# take input from the user
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
```

```
factorial = 1
# check if the number is negative, positive or zero
if num < 0:
    print("Sorry, factorial does not exist for negative numbers")
elif num == 0:
    print("The factorial of 0 is 1")
else:
    for i in range(1,num + 1):
        factorial = factorial*i
    print("The factorial of",num,"is",factorial)
```

Output 1

```
Enter a number: -18
Sorry, factorial does not exist for negative numbers
```

Output 2

```
Enter a number: 9
The factorial of 9 is 362,880
```

Python Program to Find the Largest Among Three Numbers

```
# Python program to find the largest
# number among the three
# input numbers
# take three numbers from user
num1 = float(input("Enter first number: "))
num2 = float(input("Enter second number: "))
num3 = float(input("Enter third number: "))
if (num1 > num2) and (num1 > num3):
    largest = num1
elif (num2 > num1) and (num2 > num3):
    largest = num2
```

else:

```
    largest = num3
```

```
print("The largest number is",largest)
```

Output 1

Enter first number: 8

Enter second number: 16

Enter third number: 4

The largest number is 16.0

Output 2

Enter first number: -6

Enter second number: -15

Enter third number: 0

The largest number is 0.0

Python Program to Find the Size (Resolution) of Image

```
# Python Program to find the resolution
```

```
# of a jpeg image without using
```

```
# any external libraries
```

```
def jpeg_res(filename):
```

```
    """This function prints the resolution  
    of the jpeg image file passed into it"""
```

```
# open image for reading in binary mode
```

```
with open(filename,'rb') as img_file:
```

```
    # height of image (in 2 bytes) is at 164th position
```

```
    img_file.seek(163)
```

```
# read the 2 bytes
```

```
a = img_file.read(2)
```

```
# calculate height
```

```
height = (a[0] << 8) + a[1]
```

```
# next 2 bytes is width
```

```
a = img_file.read(2)
# calculate width
width = (a[0] << 8) + a[1]
print("The resolution of the image is",width,"x",height)
jpeg_res("image.jpg")
```

Output

The resolution of the image is 180 x 200

Python Program to Find the Square Root

```
# Python Program to calculate the square root
num = float(input('Enter a number: '))
num_sqrt = num ** 0.5
print('The square root of %0.3f is %0.3f'%(num ,num_sqrt))
```

Output

Enter a number: 11
The square root of 11.000 is 3.316

Python Program to Find the Sum of Natural Numbers

```
# Python program to find the sum of
# natural numbers up to n
# where n is provided by user
# take input from the user
num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
if num < 0:
    print("Enter a positive number")
else:
```

```
sum = 0
# use while loop to iterate un till zero
while(num > 0):
    sum += num
    num -= 1
print("The sum is",sum)
```

Output

Enter a number: 10

The sum is 55

Python Program to Generate a Random Number

```
# Program to generate a random number
# between 0 and 9
# import the random module
import random
print(random.randint(0,9))
```

Output

5

Python Program to Illustrate Different Set Operations

```
# Program to perform different
# set operations like in mathematics
# define three sets
E = {0, 2, 4, 6, 8};
N = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};
# set union
print("Union of E and N is",E | N)
# set intersection
```

```
print("Intersection of E and N is",E & N)
# set difference
print("Difference of E and N is",E - N)
# set symmetric difference
print("Symmetric difference of E and N is",E ^ N)
```

Output

```
Union of E and N is {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8}
Intersection of E and N is {2, 4}
Difference of E and N is {8, 0, 6}
Symmetric difference of E and N is {0, 1, 3, 5, 6, 8}
```

Python Program to Make a Simple Calculator

```
# Program make a simple calculator
# that can add, subtract, multiply
# and divide using functions
# define functions
def add(x, y):
    """This function adds two numbers"""
    return x + y
def subtract(x, y):
    """This function subtracts two numbers"""
    return x - y
def multiply(x, y):
    """This function multiplies two numbers"""
    return x * y
def divide(x, y):
    """This function divides two numbers"""
    return x / y
# take input from the user
```

```
print("Select operation.")
print("1.Add")
print("2.Subtract")
print("3.Multiply")
print("4.Divide")
choice = input("Enter choice(1/2/3/4):")
num1 = int(input("Enter first number: "))
num2 = int(input("Enter second number: "))
if choice == '1':
    print(num1,"+",num2,"=", add(num1,num2))
elif choice == '2':
    print(num1,"-",num2,"=", subtract(num1,num2))
elif choice == '3':
    print(num1,"*",num2,"=", multiply(num1,num2))
elif choice == '4':
    print(num1,"/",num2,"=", divide(num1,num2))
else:
    print("Invalid input")
```

Output

Select operation.

1.Add

2.Subtract

3.Multiply

4.Divide

Enter choice(1/2/3/4): 2

Enter first number: 20

Enter second number: 11

20 - 11 = 9

Python Program to Multiply Two Matrices

```
# Program to multiply two matrices
# using nested loops
# 3x3 matrix
X = [[12,7,3],
     [4 ,5,6],
     [7 ,8,9]]
# 3x4 matrix

Y = [[5,8,1,2],
     [6,7,3,0],
     [4,5,9,1]]
# result is 3x4
result = [[0,0,0,0],
          [0,0,0,0],
          [0,0,0,0]]
# iterate through rows of X
for i in range(len(X)):
    # iterate through columns of Y
    for j in range(len(Y[0])):
        # iterate through rows of Y
        for k in range(len(Y)):
            result[i][j] += X[i][k] * Y[k][j]
for r in result:
    print(r)
```

Output

[114, 160, 60, 27]

[74, 97, 73, 14]

[119, 157, 112, 23]

Python Program to Print all Prime Numbers in an Interval

```
# Python program to ask the user
# for a range and display
# all the prime numbers in
# that interval
# take input from the user
lower = int(input("Enter lower range: "))
upper = int(input("Enter upper range: "))
for num in range(lower,upper + 1):
    # prime numbers are greater than 1
    if num > 1:
        for i in range(2,num):
            if (num % i) == 0:
                break
        else:
            print(num)
```

Output

Enter lower range: 100

Enter upper range: 200

101

103

107

109

113

127

131
137
139
149
151
157
163
167
173
179
181
191
193
197
199

Python Program to Print Hi Good Morning!

```
# This program prints Hi, Good Morning!  
print('Hi, Good Morning!')
```

Output

Hi, Good Morning!

Python program to Print the Fibonacci sequence

```
# Program to display the fibonacci  
# sequence up to n-th term where  
# n is provided by the user  
# take input from the user  
nterms = int(input("How many terms? "))
```

```
# first two terms
n1 = 0
n2 = 1
count = 2
# check if the number of terms is valid
if nterms <= 0:
    print("Plese enter a positive integer")
elif nterms == 1:
    print("Fibonacci sequence:")
    print(n1)
else:
    print("Fibonacci sequence:")
    print(n1, ",", n2, end= ' , ')
    while count < nterms:
        nth = n1 + n2
        print(nth, end= ' , ')
        # update values
        n1 = n2
        n2 = nth
        count += 1
```

Output

How many terms? 12

Fibonacci sequence:

0 , 1 , 1 , 2 , 3 , 5 , 8 , 13 , 21 , 34 , 55 , 89

Python Program to Remove Punctuations form a String

```
# Program to all punctuations from the
# string provided by the user
```

```

# define punctuations
punctuations = '''!()-[]{};:'"\,.<>./?@#$$%^&* _~'''
# take input from the user
my_str = input("Enter a string: ")
# remove punctuations from the string
no_punct = ""
for char in my_str:
    if char not in punctuations:
        no_punct = no_punct + char
# display the unpunctuated string
print(no_punct)

```

Output

Enter a string: "Hello!!!", Good Morning –Have a good day.
Hello Good Morning Have a good day

Python Program to Shuffle Deck of Cards

```

# Python program to shuffle a
# deck of card using the
# module random and draw 5 cards
# import modules
import itertools, random
# make a deck of cards
deck = list(itertools.product(range(1,14),['Spade','Heart','Diamond','Club']))
# shuffle the cards
random.shuffle(deck)
# draw five cards
print("You got:")
for i in range(5):
    print(deck[i][0], "of", deck[i][1])

```

Output 1

You got:

5 of Heart

1 of Heart

8 of Spade

12 of Spade

4 of Spade

Output 2

You got:

10 of Club

1 of Heart

3 of Diamond

2 of Club

3 of Club

Python Program to Solve Quadratic Equation

```
# Solve the quadratic equation
# ax**2 + bx + c = 0
# a,b,c are provided by the user
# import complex math module
import cmath
a = float(input('Enter a: '))
b = float(input('Enter b: '))
c = float(input('Enter c: '))
# calculate the discriminant
d = (b**2) - (4*a*c)
# find two solutions
sol1 = (-b-cmath.sqrt(d))/(2*a)
```

```
sol2 = (-b+cmath.sqrt(d))/(2*a)
print('The solution are {0} and {1}'.format(sol1,sol2))
```

Output

Enter a: 1

Enter b: 5

Enter c: 6

The solutions are (-3+0j) and (-2+0j)

Python Program to Sort Words in Alphabetic Order

```
# Program to sort alphabetically the words
# form a string provided by the user
# take input from the user
my_str = input("Enter a string: ")
# breakdown the string into a list of words
words = my_str.split()
# sort the list
words.sort()
# display the sorted words
for word in words:
    print(word)
```

Output

Enter a string: this is my second python book to read

book

is

my

python

read

second

this

to

Python Program to Swap Two Variables

```
# Python program to swap two variables
# provided by the user
x = input('Enter value of x: ')
y = input('Enter value of y: ')
# create a temporary variable
# and swap the values
temp = x
x = y
y = temp
print('The value of x after swapping: {}'.format(x))
print('The value of y after swapping: {}'.format(y))
```

Output

```
Enter value of x: 8
Enter value of y: 15
The value of x after swapping: 15
The value of y after swapping: 8
```

Python Program to Transpose a Matrix

```
# Program to transpose a matrix
# using nested loop
X = [[12,7],
      [4 ,5],
      [3 ,8]]
```

```
result = [[0,0,0],
           [0,0,0]]

# iterate through rows
for i in range(len(X)):
    # iterate through columns
    for j in range(len(X[0])):
        result[j][i] = X[i][j]

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

Output

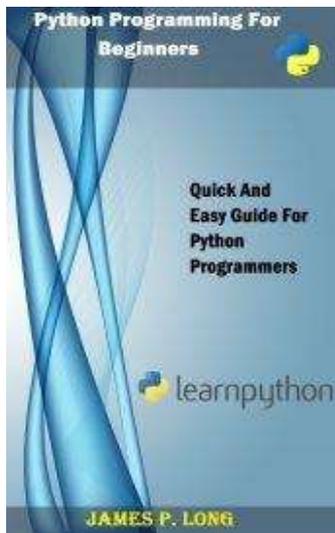
```
[12, 4, 3]
```

```
[7, 5, 8]
```

NOTE

This is all about Python Programming. These things are must to understand if you are a beginner in learning Python Program Language. I Hope you liked the book and learned a lot from it. I have also shared basic python programs in this book, so what are you waiting for?? Turn on your system and start creating your Python Programs.

MORE FROM AUTHOR



[Python Programming For Beginners: Quick And Easy Guide For Python Programmers](#)

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