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C++ Python



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and we will be with you
at every stage to advise,
inform and ultimately
inspire you to
go further.*



Contents



6 Working with Data

- 8 Lists
- 10 Tuples
- 12 Dictionaries
- 14 Splitting and Joining Strings
- 16 Formatting Strings
- 18 Date and Time
- 20 Opening Files
- 22 Writing to Files
- 24 Exceptions
- 26 Python Graphics

28 Using Modules

- 30 Calendar Module
- 32 OS Module
- 34 Random Module
- 36 Tkinter Module
- 38 Pygame Module
- 42 Create Your Own Modules

44 C++ Input/Output

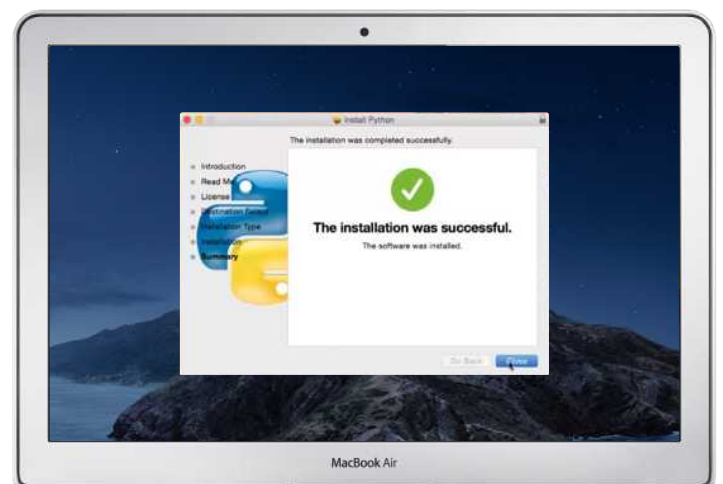
- 46 User Interaction
- 48 Character Literals
- 50 Defining Constants
- 52 File Input/Output

54 Loops and Decision Making

- 56 While Loop
- 58 For Loop
- 60 Do... While Loop
- 62 If Statement
- 64 If... Else Statement

66 Working with Code

- 68 Common Coding Mistakes
- 70 Beginner Python Mistakes
- 72 Beginner C++ Mistakes
- 74 Where Next?





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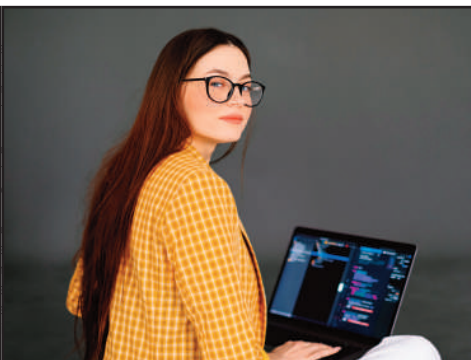


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Working with Data

Data is everything. With it you can display, control, add, remove, create and manipulate Python to your every demand. Over these coming pages we look at how you can create lists, tuples, dictionaries and multi-dimensional lists; and see how to use them to forge exciting and useful programs.

Then, you can learn how to use date and time functions, write to files in your system and even create graphical user interfaces that take your coding skills to new levels and into new project ideas.



Lists

Lists are one of the most common types of data structures you will come across in Python. A list is simply a collection of items, or data if you prefer, that can be accessed as a whole, or individually if wanted.

WORKING WITH LISTS

Lists are extremely handy in Python. A list can be strings, integers and also variables. You can even include functions in lists, and lists within lists.

STEP 1

A list is a sequence of data values called items. You create the name of your list followed by an equals sign, then square brackets and the items separated by commas; note that strings use quotes:

```
numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
mythical_creatures = ["Unicorn", "Balrog", "Vampire", "Dragon", "Minotaur"]
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> mythical_creatures = ["Unicorn", "Balrog", "Vampire", "Dragon", "Minotaur"]
>>> |
```

STEP 3

You can also access, or index, the last item in a list by using the minus sign before the item number [-1], or the second to last item with [-2] and so on. Trying to reference an item that isn't in the list, such as [10] will return an error:

```
numbers[-1]
mythical_creatures[-4]
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> mythical_creatures = ["Unicorn", "Balrog", "Vampire", "Dragon", "Minotaur"]
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> numbers[3]
21
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur']
>>> mythical_creatures[3]
'Dragon'
>>> numbers[-1]
156
>>> numbers[-2]
98
>>> mythical_creatures[-1]
'Minotaur'
>>> mythical_creatures[-4]
'Balrog'
>>> |
```

STEP 2

Once you've defined your list you can call each by referencing its name, followed by a number. Lists start the first item entry as 0, followed by 1, 2, 3 and so on. For example:

```
numbers
```

To call up the entire contents of the list.

```
numbers[3]
```

To call the third from zero item in the list (21 in this case).

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> mythical_creatures = ["Unicorn", "Balrog", "Vampire", "Dragon", "Minotaur"]
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> numbers[3]
21
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur']
>>> mythical_creatures[3]
'Dragon'
>>> |
```

STEP 4

Slicing is similar to indexing but you can retrieve multiple items in a list by separating item numbers with a colon. For example:

```
numbers[1:3]
```

Will output the 4 and 7, being item numbers 1 and 2. Note that the returned values don't include the second index position (as you would numbers[1:3] to return 4, 7 and 21).

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> mythical_creatures = ["Unicorn", "Balrog", "Vampire", "Dragon", "Minotaur"]
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> numbers[3]
21
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur']
>>> mythical_creatures[3]
'Dragon'
>>> numbers[-1]
156
>>> numbers[-2]
98
>>> mythical_creatures[-1]
'Minotaur'
>>> mythical_creatures[-4]
'Balrog'
>>> numbers[1:3]
[4, 7]
>>> numbers[0:4]
[1, 4, 7, 21]
>>> numbers[3:5]
[21, 98]
>>> numbers[1:]
[4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> |
```

**STEP 5**

You can update items within an existing list, remove items and even join lists together. For example, to join two lists you can use:

```
everything = numbers + mythical_creatures
```

Then view the combined list with:

```
everything
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> mythical_creatures = ["Unicorn", "Balrog", "Vampire", "Dragon", "Minotaur"]
>>> everything = numbers + mythical_creatures
>>> everything
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156, 'Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur']
>>>
```

STEP 8

You can view what can be done with lists by entering `dir(list)` into the Shell. The output is the available functions, for example, insert and pop are used to add and remove items at certain positions. To insert the number 62 at item index 4:

```
numbers.insert(4, 62)
```

To remove it:

```
numbers.pop(4)
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> dir(list)
['_add_', '_class_', '_contains_', '_delattr_', '_delitem_', '_dir_', '_doc_', '_eq_', '_format_', '_ge_', '_getattr_', '_getitem_', '_gt_', '_hash_', '_iadd_', '_imul_', '_init_', '_iter_', '_le_', '_len_', '_lt_', '_mul_', '_ne_', '_new_', '_reduce_', '_reduce_ex_', '_repr_', '_reversed_', '_rmul_', '_setattr_', '_setitem_', '_sizeof_', '_str_', '_subclasshook_', '_append_', '_clear_', '_copy_', '_count_', '_extend_', '_index_', '_insert_', '_pop_', '_remove_', '_reverse_', '_sort_']
>>> numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> numbers.insert(4, 62)
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 62, 98, 156]
>>> numbers.pop(4)
62
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>>
```

STEP 6

Items can be added to a list by entering:

```
numbers=numbers+[201]
```

Or for strings:

```
mythical_creatres=mythical_creatures+["Griffin"]
```

Or by using the append function:

```
mythical_creatures.append("Nessie")
numbers.append(278)
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> mythical_creatures = ["Unicorn", "Balrog", "Vampire", "Dragon", "Minotaur"]
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur']
>>> numbers=numbers+[201]
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156, 201]
>>> mythical_creatres=mythical_creatures+["Griffin"]
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur', 'Griffin']
>>> mythical_creatures.append("Nessie")
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur', 'Griffin', 'Nessie']
>>> numbers.append(278)
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156, 201, 278]
>>>
```

STEP 9

You also use the list function to break a string down into its components. For example:

```
list("David")
```

Breaks the name David into 'D', 'a', 'v', 'i', 'd'. This can then be passed to a new list:

```
name=list("David Hayward")
name
age=[44]
user = name + age
user
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> list("David")
['D', 'a', 'v', 'i', 'd']
>>> name=list("David Hayward")
>>> name
['D', 'a', 'v', 'i', 'd', ' ', 'H', 'a', 'y', 'w', 'a', 'r', 'd']
>>> age=[44]
>>> user = name + age
>>> user
['D', 'a', 'v', 'i', 'd', ' ', 'H', 'a', 'y', 'w', 'a', 'r', 'd', 44]
>>>
```

STEP 7

Removal of items can be done in two ways. The first is by the item number:

```
del numbers[7]
```

Alternatively, by item name:

```
mythical_creatures.remove("Nessie")
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> mythical_creatures = ["Unicorn", "Balrog", "Vampire", "Dragon", "Minotaur"]
>>> numbers = [1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156]
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur']
>>> numbers=numbers+[201]
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156, 201]
>>> mythical_creatres=mythical_creatures+["Griffin"]
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur', 'Griffin']
>>> mythical_creatures.append("Nessie")
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur', 'Griffin', 'Nessie']
>>> numbers.append(278)
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156, 201, 278]
>>> del numbers[7]
>>> numbers
[1, 4, 7, 21, 98, 156, 201]
>>> mythical_creatures.remove("Nessie")
>>> mythical_creatures
['Unicorn', 'Balrog', 'Vampire', 'Dragon', 'Minotaur', 'Griffin']
>>>
```

STEP 10

Based on that, you can create a program to store someone's name and age as a list:

```
name=input("What's your name? ")
lname=list(name)
age=int(input("How old are you: "))
lage=[age]
user = lname + lage
```

The combined name and age list is called user, which can be called by entering user into the Shell. Experiment and see what you can do.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> What's your name? Conan of Cimmeria
How old are you: 44
>>> user
['C', 'o', 'n', 'a', 'n', ' ', 'o', 'f', ' ', 'C', 'i', 'm', 'e', 'r', 'i', 'a', ' ', 44]
>>>
```

```
namelist.py - /home/pi/Docu
File Edit Format Run Options Windows
name=input("What's your name? ")
lname=list(name)
age=int(input("How old are you: "))
lage=[age]
user = lname + lage
```




Tuples

Tuples are very much identical to lists. However, where lists can be updated, deleted or changed in some way, a tuple remains a constant. This is called immutable and they're perfect for storing fixed data items.

THE IMMUTABLE TUPLE

Reasons for having tuples vary depending on what the program is intended to do. Normally, a tuple is reserved for something special but they're also used for example, in an adventure game, where non-playing character names are stored.

STEP 1

A tuple is created the same way as a list but in this instance you use curved brackets instead of square brackets. For example:

```
months=("January", "February", "March", "April",  
"May", "June")  
months
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> months=("January", "February", "March", "April", "May", "June")
>>> months
('January', 'February', 'March', 'April', 'May', 'June')
>>> |
```

STEP 2

Just as with lists, the items within a named tuple can be indexed according to their position in the data range, i.e.:

```
months[0]  
months[5]
```

However, any attempt at deleting or adding to the tuple will result in an error in the Shell.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> months=("January", "February", "March", "April", "May", "June")
>>> months
('January', 'February', 'March', 'April', 'May', 'June')
>>> months[0]
'January'
>>> months[5]
'June'
>>> months.append("July")
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#4>", line 1, in <module>
    months.append("July")
AttributeError: 'tuple' object has no attribute 'append'
>>> |
```

STEP 3

You can create grouped tuples into lists that contain multiple sets of data. For instance, here is a tuple called NPC (Non-Playable Characters) containing the character name and their combat rating for an adventure game:

```
NPC=[("Conan", 100), ("Belit", 80), ("Valeria",  
95)]
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> NPC=[("Conan",100), ("Belit", 80), ("Valeria", 95)]
>>> |
```

STEP 4

Each of these data items can be accessed as a whole by entering NPC into the Shell; or they can be indexed according to their position NPC[0]. You can also index the individual tuples within the NPC list:

```
NPC[0][1]
```

Will display 100.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> NPC=[("Conan", 100), ("Belit", 80), ("Valeria", 95)]
>>> NPC
[('Conan', 100), ('Belit', 80), ('Valeria', 95)]
>>> NPC[0]
('Conan', 100)
>>> NPC[0][1]
100
>>> |
```

**STEP 5**

It's worth noting that when referencing multiple tuples within a list, the indexing is slightly different from the norm. You would expect the 95 combat rating of the character Valeria to be `NPC[4][5]`, but it's not. It's actually:

```
NPC[2][1]
```

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> NPC=[("Conan", 100), ("Belit", 80), ("Valeria", 95)]
>>> NPC[2][1]
95
>>> |
```

STEP 8

Now unpack the tuple into two corresponding variables:

```
(name, combat_rating)=NPC
```

You can now check the values by entering name and combat_rating.

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> NPC=[("Conan", 100)]
>>> (name, combat_rating)=NPC
>>> name
'Conan'
>>> combat_rating
100
>>> |
```

STEP 6

This means of course that the indexing follows thus:

0	1, 1
0, 0	2
0, 1	2, 0
1	2, 1
1, 0	

Which as you can imagine, gets a little confusing when you've got a lot of tuple data to deal with.

```
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> NPC=[("Conan", 100), ("Belit", 80), ("Valeria", 95)]
>>> NPC[0]
('Conan', 100)
>>> NPC[0][0]
'Conan'
>>> NPC[0][1]
100
>>> NPC[1]
('Belit', 80)
>>> NPC[1][0]
'Belit'
>>> NPC[1][1]
80
>>> NPC[2]
('Valeria', 95)
>>> NPC[2][0]
'Valeria'
>>> NPC[2][1]
95
>>> |
```

STEP 9

Remember, as with lists, you can also index tuples using negative numbers which count backwards from the end of the data list. For our example, using the tuple with multiple data items, you would reference the Valeria character with:

```
NPC[2][-0]
```

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> NPC=[("Conan", 100), ("Belit", 80), ("Valeria", 95)]
>>> NPC[2][-0]
'Valeria'
>>> |
```

STEP 7

Tuples though utilise a feature called unpacking, where the data items stored within a tuple are assigned variables. First create the tuple with two items (name and combat rating):

```
NPC=("Conan", 100)
```

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> NPC=("Conan", 100)
>>> |
```

STEP 10

You can use the max and min functions to find the highest and lowest values of a tuple composed of numbers. For example:

```
numbers=(10.3, 23, 45.2, 109.3, 6.1, 56.7, 99)
```

The numbers can be integers and floats. To output the highest and lowest, use:

```
print(max(numbers))
print(min(numbers))
```

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> numbers=(10.3, 23, 45.2, 109.3, 6.1, 56.7, 99)
>>> print(max(numbers))
109.3
>>> print(min(numbers))
6.1
>>> |
```




Dictionaries

Lists are extremely useful but dictionaries in Python are by far the more technical way of dealing with data items. They can be tricky to get to grips with at first but you'll soon be able to apply them to your own code.

KEY PAIRS

A dictionary is like a list but instead each data item comes as a pair, these are known as Key and Value. The Key part must be unique and can either be a number or string whereas the Value can be any data item you like.

STEP 1

Let's say you want to create a phonebook in Python. You would create the dictionary name and enter the data in curly brackets, separating the key and value by a colon **Key:Value**. For example:

```
phonebook={"Emma": 1234, "Daniel": 3456, "Hannah": 6789}
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> phonebook={"Emma": 1234, "Daniel": 3456, "Hannah": 6789}
>>>
```

STEP 3

As with lists and tuples, you can check the contents of a dictionary by giving the dictionary a name: phonebook, in this example. This will display the data items you've entered in a similar fashion to a list, which you're no doubt familiar with by now.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> phonebook={"Emma": 1234, "Daniel": 3456, "Hannah": 6789}
>>> phonebook2={"David": "0987 654 321"}
>>> phonebook
{'Hannah': 6789, 'Emma': 1234, 'Daniel': 3456}
>>>
```

STEP 2

Just as with most lists, tuples and so on, strings need be enclosed in quotes (single or double), whilst integers can be left open. Remember that the value can be either a string or an integer, you just need to enclose the relevant one in quotes:

```
phonebook2={"David": "0987 654 321"}
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> phonebook={"Emma": 1234, "Daniel": 3456, "Hannah": 6789}
>>> phonebook2={"David": "0987 654 321"}
>>>
```

STEP 4

The benefit of using a dictionary is that you can enter the key to index the value. Using the phonebook example from the previous steps, you can enter:

```
phonebook["Emma"]
phonebook["Hannah"]
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> phonebook={"Emma": 1234, "Daniel": 3456, "Hannah": 6789}
>>> phonebook2={"David": "0987 654 321"}
>>> phonebook
{'Hannah': 6789, 'Emma': 1234, 'Daniel': 3456}
>>> phonebook["Emma"]
1234
>>> phonebook["Hannah"]
6789
>>>
```

**STEP 5**

Adding to a dictionary is easy too. You can include a new data item entry by adding the new key and value items like:

```
phonebook["David"] = "0987 654 321"
phonebook
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> phonebook={"Emma": 1234, "Daniel": 3456, "Hannah": 6789}
>>> phonebook2={"David": "0987 654 321"}
>>> phonebook
{'Hannah': 6789, 'Emma': 1234, 'Daniel': 3456}
>>> phonebook["Emma"]
1234
>>> phonebook["Hannah"]
6789
>>> phonebook["David"] = "0987 654 321"
>>> phonebook
{'Hannah': 6789, 'Emma': 1234, 'David': '0987 654 321', 'Daniel': 3456}
>>>
```

STEP 6

You can also remove items from a dictionary by issuing the del command followed by the item's key; the value will be removed as well, since both work as a pair of data items:

```
del phonebook["David"]
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> phonebook={"Emma": 1234, "Daniel": 3456, "Hannah": 6789}
>>> phonebook2={"David": "0987 654 321"}
>>> phonebook
{'Hannah': 6789, 'Emma': 1234, 'Daniel': 3456}
>>> phonebook["Emma"]
1234
>>> phonebook["Hannah"]
6789
>>> phonebook["David"] = "0987 654 321"
>>> phonebook
{'Hannah': 6789, 'Emma': 1234, 'David': '0987 654 321', 'Daniel': 3456}
>>> del phonebook["David"]
>>> phonebook
{'Hannah': 6789, 'Emma': 1234, 'Daniel': 3456}
>>>
```

STEP 7

Taking this a step further, how about creating a piece of code that will ask the user for the dictionary key and value items? Create a new Editor instance and start by coding in a new, blank dictionary:

```
phonebook={}
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>>

Dictin.py - /home/pi/Documents/Python Code/Dictin.py (3.4.2)*
File Edit Format Run Options Windows Help
phonebook={}
|
```

STEP 8

Next, you need to define the user inputs and variables: one for the person's name, the other for their phone number (let's keep it simple to avoid lengthy Python code):

```
name=input("Enter name: ")
number=int(input("Enter phone number: "))
```

```
*Dictin.py - /home/pi/Documents/Python Code/Dictin.py (3.4.2)*
File Edit Format Run Options Windows Help
phonebook={}

name=input("Enter name: ")
number=int(input("Enter phone number: "))

|
```

STEP 9

Note we've kept the number as an integer instead of a string, even though the value can be both an integer or a string. Now you need to add the user's inputted variables to the newly created blank dictionary. Using the same process as in Step 5, you can enter:

```
phonebook[name] = number
```

```
*Dictin.py - /home/pi/Documents/Python Code/Dictin.py (3.4.2)*
File Edit Format Run Options Windows Help
phonebook={}

name=input("Enter name: ")
number=int(input("Enter phone number: "))

phonebook[name] = number

|
```

STEP 10

Now when you save and execute the code, Python will ask for a name and a number. It will then insert those entries into the phonebook dictionary, which you can test by entering into the Shell:

```
phonebook
phonebook["David"]
```

If the number needs to contain spaces you need to make it a string, so remove the int part of the input.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>>
Enter phone number: 09876
>>> phonebook
{'David': 9876}
>>> phonebook["David"]
9876
>>>
Enter name:
>>>
Enter phone number: 0987 654 3344
>>> phonebook
{'Bob': ['0987 654 3321 3344']}
>>>

Dictin.py - /home/pi/Documents/Python Code/Dictin.py (3.4.2)*
File Edit Format Run Options Windows Help
phonebook={}

name=input("Enter name: ")
number=int(input("Enter phone number: "))

phonebook[name] = number

|
```




Splitting and Joining Strings

When dealing with data in Python, especially from a user's input, you will undoubtedly come across long sets of strings. A useful skill to learn in Python programming is being able to split those long strings for better readability.

STRING THEORIES

You've already looked at some list functions, using `.insert`, `.remove`, and `.pop` but there are also functions that can be applied to strings.

STEP 1 The main tool in the string function arsenal is `.split()`. With it you're able to split apart a string of data, based on the argument within the brackets. For example, here's a string with three items, each separated by a space:

```
text="Daniel Hannah Emma"
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> text="Daniel Hannah Emma"
>>>
```

STEP 3 Note that the `text.split` part has the brackets, quotes, then a space followed by closing quotes and brackets. The space is the separator, indicating that each list item entry is separated by a space. Likewise, CSV (Comma Separated Value) content has a comma, so you'd use:

```
text="January,February,March,April,May,June"
months=text.split(",")
months
```

```
*Python 3.4.2 Shell*
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> text="January,February,March,April,May,June"
>>> months=text.split(",")
>>> months
['January', 'February', 'March', 'April', 'May', 'June']
>>>
```

STEP 2 Now let's turn the string into a list and split the content accordingly:

```
names=text.split(" ")
```

Then enter the name of the new list, `names`, to see the three items.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> text="Daniel Hannah Emma"
>>> names=text.split(" ")
>>> names
['Daniel', 'Hannah', 'Emma']
>>>
```

STEP 4 You've previously seen how you can split a string into individual letters as a list, using a name:

```
name=list("David")
name
```

The returned value is `'D', 'a', 'v', 'i', 'd'`. Whilst it may seem a little useless under ordinary circumstances, it could be handy for creating a spelling game for example.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> name=list("David")
>>> name
['D', 'a', 'v', 'i', 'd']
>>>
```

**STEP 5**

The opposite of the `.split` function is `.join`, where you will have separate items in a string and can join them all together to form a word or just a combination of items, depending on the program you're writing. For instance:

```
alphabet=""
alphabet="".join(["a","b","c","d","e"])
alphabet
```

This will display 'abcde' in the Shell.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> alphabet="".join(["a","b","c","d","e"])
>>> alphabet
'abcde'
>>>
```

STEP 8

As with the `.split` function, the separator doesn't have to be a space, it can also be a comma, a full stop, a hyphen or whatever you like:

```
colours=["Red", "Green", "Blue"]
col=",".join(colours)
col
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> list=["Conan", "raised", "his", "mighty", "sword", "and", "struck", "the", "demon"]
>>> text=" ".join(list)
>>> text
'Conan raised his mighty sword and struck the demon'
>>> colours=["Red", "Green", "Blue"]
>>> col=",".join(colours)
>>> col
'Red,Green,Blue'
>>>
```

STEP 6

You can therefore apply `.join` to the separated name you made in Step 4, combining the letters again to form the name:

```
name=""
name="".join(name)
name
```

We've joined the string back together, and retained the list called `name`, passing it through the `.join` function.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> name=list("David")
>>> name
['D', 'a', 'v', 'i', 'd']
>>> name="".join(name)
>>> name
'David'
>>>
```

STEP 9

There's some interesting functions you apply to a string, such as `.capitalize` and `.title`. For example:

```
title="conan the cimmerian"
title.capitalize()
title.title()
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> title="conan the cimmerian"
>>> title.capitalize()
'Conan the cimmerian'
>>> title.title()
'Conan The Cimmerian'
>>>
```

STEP 7

A good example of using the `.join` function is when you have a list of words you want to combine into a sentence:

```
list=["Conan", "raised", "his", "mighty", "sword",
"and", "struck", "the", "demon"]
text=" ".join(list)
text
```

Note the space between the quotes before the `.join` function (where there were no spaces in the Step 6's join)

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> list=["Conan", "raised", "his", "mighty", "sword", "and", "struck", "the", "demon"]
>>> text=" ".join(list)
>>> text
'Conan raised his mighty sword and struck the demon'
>>>
```

STEP 10

You can also use logic operators on strings, with the `'in'` and `'not in'` functions. These enable you to check if a string contains (or does not contain) a sequence of characters:

```
message="Have a nice day"
"nice" in message
"bad" not in message
"day" not in message
"night" in message
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> message="Have a nice day"
>>> "nice" in message
True
>>> "bad" not in message
True
>>> "day" not in message
False
>>> "night" in message
False
>>>
```


Formatting Strings

When you work with data, creating lists, dictionaries and objects you may often want to print out the results. Merging strings with data is easy especially with Python 3, as earlier versions of Python tended to complicate matters.

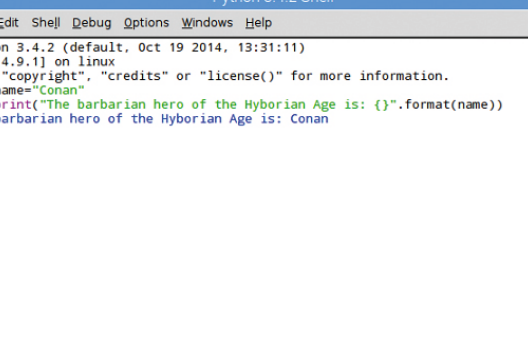
STRING FORMATTING

Since Python 3, string formatting has become a much neater process, using the `.format` function combined with curly brackets. It's a more logical and better formed approach than previous versions.

STEP 1

The basic formatting in Python is to call each variable into the string using the curly brackets:

```
name="Conan"
print("The barbarian hero of the Hyborian Age is:
{}".format(name))
```

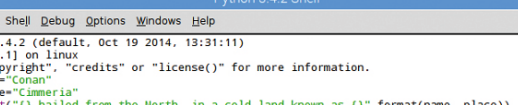
A screenshot of a terminal window titled "Python 3.4.2 Shell". The window has a menu bar with "File", "Edit", "Shell", "Debug", "Options", "Windows", and "Help". The terminal content shows the Python version and GCC version, followed by a prompt to type "copyright", "credits", or "license()". Then, a variable "name" is assigned the value "Conan". Finally, a print statement is executed, displaying "The barbarian hero of the Hyborian Age is: Conan".

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> name="Conan"
>>> print("The barbarian hero of the Hyborian Age is: {}".format(name))
The barbarian hero of the Hyborian Age is: Conan
>>> |
```

STEP 2

STEP 2 Remember to close the print function with two sets of brackets, as you've encased the variable in one, and the print function in another. You can include multiple cases of string formatting in a single print function:

```
name="Conan"
place="Cimmeria"
print("{} hailed from the North, in a cold land
known as {}".format(name, place))
```



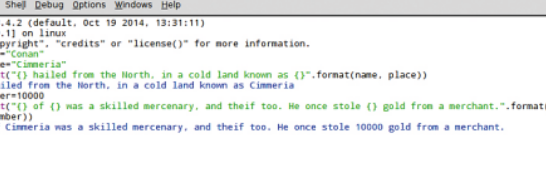
The screenshot shows a terminal window titled "Python 3.4.2 Shell". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Shell", "Debug", "Options", "Windows", and "Help". The terminal output shows the Python version (3.4.2), the default location (Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11), and the GCC version (4.9.1) on Linux. The user enters a multi-line string with a placeholder {} and a variable name "Conan". The program then prints the string with the variable name and a placeholder {} for a place. The user enters "Cimmeria" as the place, and the program prints the final string: "Conan hailed from the North, in a cold land known as Cimmeria".

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> name="Conan"
>>> place="Cimmeria"
>>> print("{} hailed from the North, in a cold land known as {}".format(name, place))
Conan hailed from the North, in a cold land known as Cimmeria
>>> |
```

STEP 3

You can of course also include integers into the mix:

```
number=10000
print("{} of {} was a skilled mercenary,
and thief too. He once stole {} gold from a
merchant.".format(name, place, number))
```



The screenshot shows a terminal window titled "Python 3.4.2 Shell". The window has a menu bar with "File", "Edit", "Shell", "Debug", "Options", "Windows", and "Help". The terminal content is as follows:

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> name="Conan"
>>> place="Cimmeria"
>>> print("{} hailed from the North, in a cold land known as {}".format(name, place))
Conan hailed from the North, in a cold land known as Cimmeria
>>> number=10000
>>> print("{} of {} was a skilled mercenary, and thief too. He once stole {} gold from a merchant.".format(name, place, number))
Conan of Cimmeria was a skilled mercenary, and thief too. He once stole 10000 gold from a merchant.
>>>
```

STEP 4

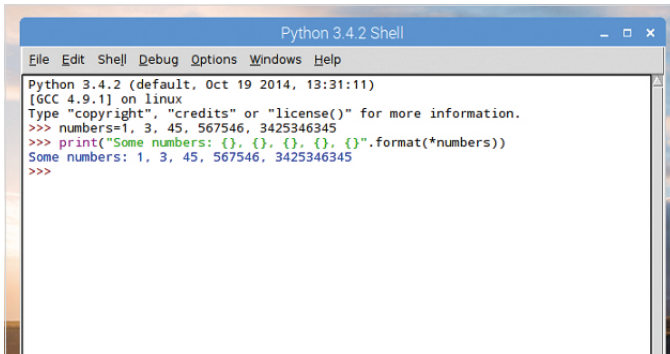
STEP 4 There are many different ways to apply string formatting, some are quite simple, as we've shown you here; others can be significantly more complex. It all depends on what you want from your program. A good place to reference frequently regarding string formatting is the Python Docs webpage, found at www.docs.python.org/3.1/library/string.html. Here, you will find tons of help.



STEP 5

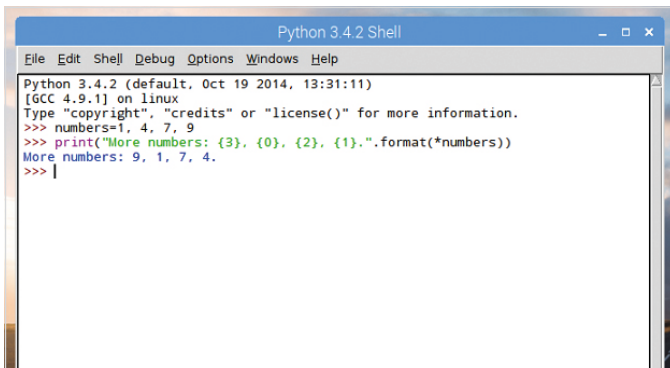
Interestingly you can reference a list using the string formatting function. You need to place an asterisk in front of the list name:

```
numbers=1, 3, 45, 567546, 3425346345
print("Some numbers: {}, {}, {}, {}, {}".format(*numbers))
```


STEP 6

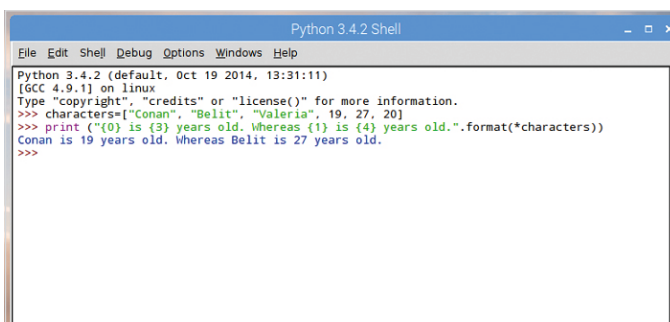
With indexing in lists, the same applies to calling a list using string formatting. You can index each item according to its position (from 0 to however many are present):

```
numbers=1, 4, 7, 9
print("More numbers: {3}, {0}, {2}, {1}.".format(*numbers))
```


STEP 7

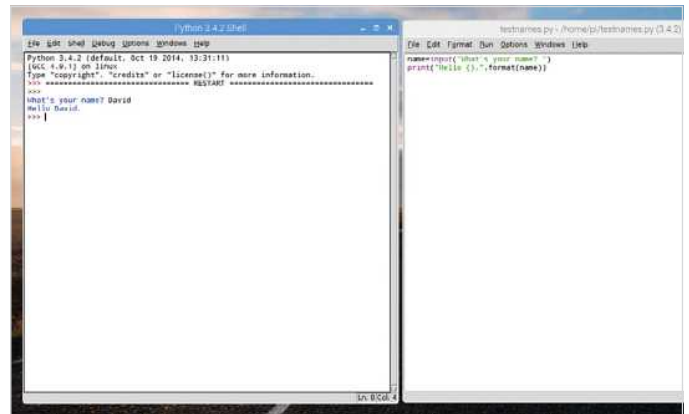
And as you probably suspect, you can mix strings and integers in a single list to be called in the .format function:

```
characters=["Conan", "Belit", "Valeria", 19, 27, 20]
print("{0} is {3} years old. Whereas {1} is {4} years old.".format(*characters))
```


STEP 8

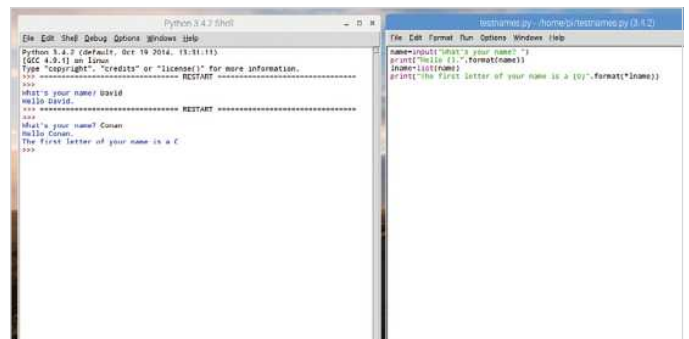
You can also print out the content of a user's input in the same fashion:

```
name=input("What's your name? ")
print("Hello {}".format(name))
```


STEP 9

You can extend this simple code example to display the first letter in a person's entered name:

```
name=input("What's your name? ")
print("Hello {}".format(name))
lname=list(name)
print("The first letter of your name is a {}".format(*lname))
```

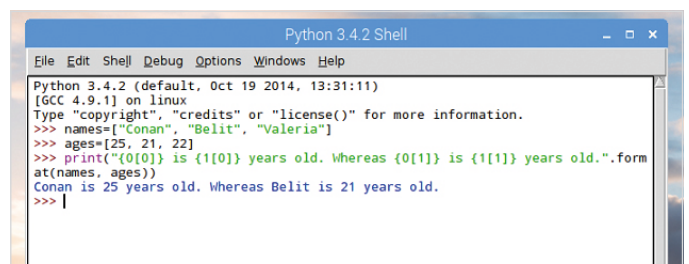

STEP 10

You can also call upon a pair of lists and reference them individually within the same print function. Looking back the code from Step 7, you can alter it with:

```
names=["Conan", "Belit", "Valeria"]
ages=[25, 21, 22]
```

Creating two lists. Now you can call each list, and individual items:

```
print("{0[0]} is {1[0]} years old. Whereas {0[1]} is {1[1]} years old.".format(names, ages))
```





Date and Time

When working with data it's often handy to have access to the time. For example, you may want to time-stamp an entry or see at what time a user logged into the system and for how long. Luckily acquiring the date and time is easy, thanks to the Time module.

TIME LORDS

The time module contains functions that help you retrieve the current system time, reads the date from strings, formats the time and date and much more.

STEP 1

First you need to import the time module. It's one that's built-in to Python 3 so you shouldn't need to drop into a command prompt and pip install it. Once it's imported, you can call the current time and date with a simple command:

```
import time
time.asctime()
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import time
>>> time.asctime()
'Thu Sep 7 08:44:24 2017'
>>> |
```

STEP 3

You can see the structure of how time is presented by entering:

```
time.localtime()
```

The output is displayed as such: `'time.struct_time(tm_year=2017, tm_mon=9, tm_mday=7, tm_hour=9, tm_min=6, tm_sec=13, tm_wday=3, tm_yday=250, tm_isdst=0)'`; obviously dependent on your current time as opposed to the time shown above.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import time
>>> time.localtime()
time.struct_time(tm_year=2017, tm_mon=9, tm_mday=7, tm_hour=9, tm_min=6, tm_sec=13, tm_wday=3, tm_yday=250, tm_isdst=0)
>>> |
```

STEP 2

The time function is split into nine tuples, these are divided up into indexed items, as with any other tuple, and shown in the screen shot below.

Index	Field	Values
0	4-digit year	2016
1	Month	1 to 12
2	Day	1 to 31
3	Hour	0 to 23
4	Minute	0 to 59
5	Second	0 to 61 (60 or 61 are leap-seconds)
6	Day of Week	0 to 6 (0 is Monday)
7	Day of year	1 to 366 (Julian day)
8	Daylight savings	-1, 0, 1, -1 means library determines DST

STEP 4

There are numerous functions built into the time module. One of the most common of these is `.strftime()`. With it, you're able to present a wide range of arguments as it converts the time tuple into a string. For example, to display the current day of the week you can use:

```
time.strftime('%A')
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import time
>>> time.strftime('%A')
'Thursday'
>>> |
```


**STEP 5**

This naturally means you can incorporate various functions into your own code, such as:

```
time.strftime("%a")
time.strftime("%B")
time.strftime("%b")
time.strftime("%H")
time.strftime("%H%M")
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import time
>>> time.strftime("%a")
'Thu'
>>> time.strftime("%B")
'September'
>>> time.strftime("%b")
'Sep'
>>> time.strftime("%H")
'09'
>>> time.strftime("%H%M")
'0941'
>>> |
```

STEP 6

Note the last two entries, with %H and %H%M, as you can see these are the hours and minutes and as the last entry indicates, entering them as %H%M doesn't display the time correctly in the Shell. You can easily rectify this with:

```
time.strftime("%H:%M")
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import time
>>> time.strftime("%a")
'Thu'
>>> time.strftime("%B")
'September'
>>> time.strftime("%b")
'Sep'
>>> time.strftime("%H")
'09'
>>> time.strftime("%H%M")
'0941'
>>> time.strftime("%H:%M")
'09:43'
>>> |
```

STEP 7

This means you're going to be able to display either the current time or the time when something occurred, such as a user entering their name. Try this code in the Editor:

```
import time
name=input("Enter login name: ")
print("Welcome", name, "\n")
print("User:", name, "logged in at", time.
strftime("%H:%M"))
```

Try to extend it further to include day, month, year and so on.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import time
>>> name=input("Enter login name: ")
>>> print("Welcome", name, "\n")
>>> print("User:", name, "logged in at", time.
>>> strftime("%H:%M"))
>>> |
Enter login name: David
Welcome David \n
User: David logged in at 09:47
>>> |
```

STEP 8

You saw at the end of the previous section, in the code to calculate Pi to however many decimal places the users wanted, you can time a particular event in Python. Take the code from above and alter it slightly by including:

```
start_time=time.time()
```

Then there's:

```
endtime=time.time()-start_time
```

```
logintime.py - /home/pi/Documents/Python Code/logintime.py (3.4.2)
import time

start_time=time.time()
name=input("Enter login name: ")
endtime=time.time()-start_time

print("Welcome", name, "\n")
print("User:", name, "logged in at", time.strftime("%H:%M"))
print("It took", name, endtime, "to login to their account.")
```

STEP 9

The output will look similar to the screenshot below. The timer function needs to be either side of the input statement, as that's when the variable name is being created, depending on how long the user took to log in. The length of time is then displayed on the last line of the code as the `endtime` variable.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> ===== RESTART =====
>>> |
Enter login name: David
Welcome David \n
User: David logged in at 09:52
It took David 5.311823129653931 to login to their account.
>>> |
```

STEP 10

There's a lot that can be done with the time module; some of it is quite complex too, such as displaying the number of seconds since January 1st 1970. If you want to drill down further into the time module, then in the Shell enter: `help(time)` to display the current Python version help file for the time module.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import time
>>> help(time)
Help on built-in module time:

NAME
time - This module provides various functions to manipulate time values.

DESCRIPTION
There are two standard representations of time. One is the number of seconds since the Epoch, in UTC (a.k.a. GMT). It may be an integer or a floating point number (to represent fractions of seconds). The Epoch is system-defined; on Unix, it is generally January 1st, 1970. The actual value can be retrieved by calling gmtime(0).

The other representation is a tuple of 9 integers giving local time. The tuple items are:
year (including century, e.g. 1998)
month (1-12)
```



Opening Files

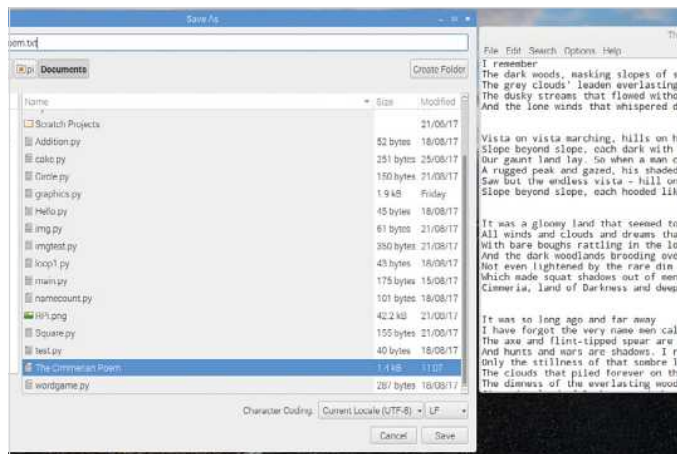
In Python you can read text and binary files in your programs. You can also write to file, which is something we will look at next. Reading and writing to files enables you to output and store data from your programs.

OPEN, READ AND WRITE

In Python you create a file object, similar to creating a variable, only pass in the file using the `open()` function. Files are usually categorised as text or binary.

STEP 1

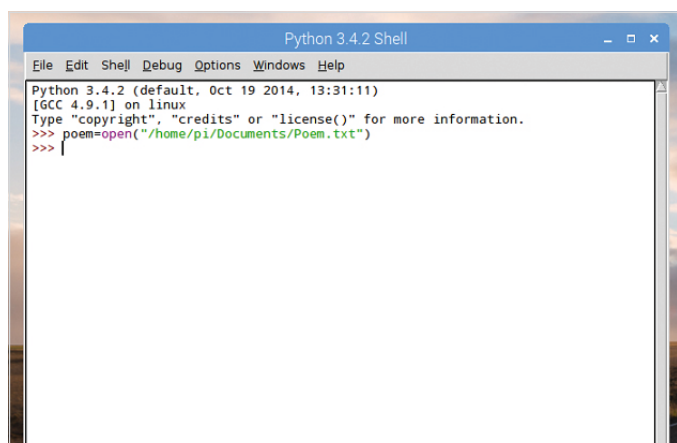
Start by entering some text into your system's text editor. The text editor is best, not a word processor, as word processors include background formatting and other elements. In our example, we have the poem *The Cimmerian*, by Robert E Howard. You need to save the file as `poem.txt`.



STEP 2

You use the `open()` function to pass the file into a variable as an object. You can name the file object anything you like, but you will need to tell Python the name and location of the text file you're opening:

```
poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
```

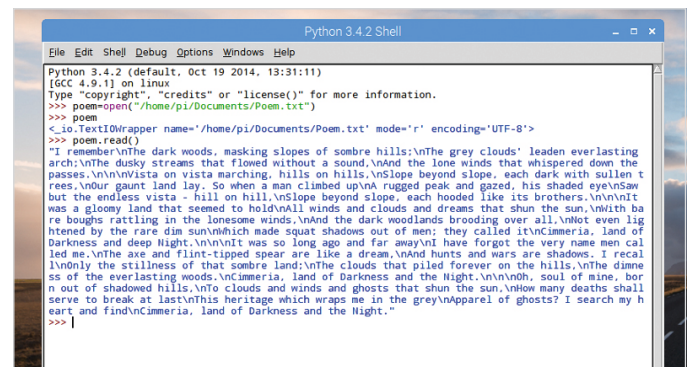


STEP 3

If you now enter `poem` into the Shell, you will get some information regarding the text file you've just asked to be opened. You can now use the `poem` variable to read the contents of the file:

```
poem.read()
```

Note that a `/n` entry in the text represents a new line, as you used previously.



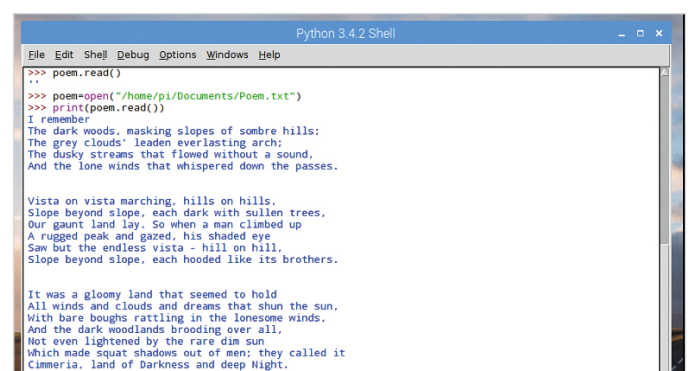
STEP 4

If you enter `poem.read()` a second time you will notice that the text has been removed from the file.

You will need to enter: `poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")` again to recreate the file. This time, however, enter:

```
print(poem.read())
```

This time, the `/n` entries are removed in favour of new lines and readable text.



**STEP 5**

Just as with lists, tuples, dictionaries and so on, you're able to index individual characters of the text. For example:

```
poem.read(5)
```

Displays the first five characters, whilst again entering:

```
poem.read(5)
```

Will display the next five. Entering (1) will display one character at a time.

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
>>> poem.read(5)
'I rem'
>>> poem.read(5)
'embe'
>>> |
```

STEP 8

Extending this further, you can use `readlines()` to grab all the lines of the text and store them as multiple lists. These can then be stored as a variable:

```
poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
lines=poem.readlines()
lines[0]
lines[1]
lines[2]
```

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
>>> lines=poem.readlines()
>>> lines[0]
'I remember\n'
>>> lines[1]
'The dark woods, masking slopes of sombre hills:\n'
>>> lines[2]
'The grey clouds' leaden everlasting arch:\n'
>>> |
```

STEP 6

Similarly, you can display one line of text at a time by using the `readline()` function. For example:

```
poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
poem.readline()
```

Will display the first line of the text with:

```
poem.readline()
```

Displaying the next line of text once more.

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
>>> poem.readline()
'I remember\n'
>>> poem.readline()
'The dark woods, masking slopes of sombre hills:\n'
>>> |
```

STEP 9

You can also use the `for` statement to read the lines of text back to us:

```
for lines in lines:
    print(lines)
```

Since this is Python, there are other ways to produce the same output:

```
poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
for lines in poem:
    print(lines)
```

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
>>> for lines in poem:
>>>     print(lines)

I remember

The dark woods, masking slopes of sombre hills:

The grey clouds' leaden everlasting arch:
```

STEP 7

You may have guessed that you can pass the `readline()` function into a variable, thus allowing you to call it again when needed:

```
poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
line=poem.readline()
line
```

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
>>> line=poem.readline()
>>> line
'I remember\n'
>>> |
```

STEP 10

Let's imagine that you want to print the text one character at a time, like an old dot matrix printer would. You can use the `time` module mixed with what you've looked at here. Try this:

```
import time
poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
lines=poem.read()
for lines in lines:
    print(lines, end="")
    time.sleep(.15)
```

The output is fun to view, and easily incorporated into your own code.

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import time
>>> poem=open("/home/pi/Documents/Poem.txt")
>>> lines=poem.read()
>>> for lines in lines:
>>>     print(lines, end="")
>>>     time.sleep(.15)

I remember

The dark woods, masking slopes of sombre hills:

The grey clouds' leaden everlasting arch:
```




Writing to Files

The ability to read external files within Python is certainly handy but writing to a file is better still. Using the `write()` function, you're able to output the results of a program to a file, that you can then `read()` back into Python.

WRITE AND CLOSE

The `write()` function is slightly more complex than `read()`. Along with the filename you must also include an access mode which determines whether the file in question is in read or write mode.

STEP 1

Start by opening IDLE and enter the following:

```
t=open("/home/pi/Documents/text.txt", "w")
```

Change the destination from `/home/pi/Documents` to your own system. This code will create a text file called `text.txt` in write mode using the variable `t`. If there's no file of that name in the location, it will create one. If one already exists, it will overwrite it, so be careful.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> t=open("/home/pi/Documents/text.txt", "w")
>>>
```

STEP 2

You can now write to the text file using the `write()` function. This works opposite to `read()`, writing lines instead of reading them. Try this:

```
t.write("You awake in a small, square room. A single table stands to one side, there is a locked door in front of you.")
```

Note the 109. It's the number of characters you've entered.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> t=open("/home/pi/Documents/text.txt", "w")
>>> t.write("You awake in a small, square room. A single table stands to one side, there is a locked door in front of you.")
109
>>>
```

STEP 3

However, the actual text file is still blank (you can check by opening it up). This is because you've written the line of text to the file object but not committed it to the file itself. Part of the `write()` function is that you need to commit the changes to the file; you can do this by entering:

```
t.close()
```

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> t=open("/home/pi/Documents/text.txt", "w")
>>> t.write("You awake in a small, square room. A single table stands to one side, there is a locked door in front of you.")
109
>>> t.close()
>>>
```

STEP 4

If you now open the text file with a text editor, you can see that the line you created has been written to the file. This gives us the foundation for some interesting possibilities: perhaps the creation of your own log file or even the beginning of an adventure game.

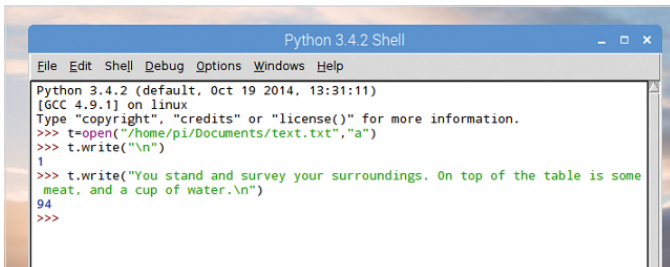
```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> t=open("/home/pi/Documents/text.txt", "w")
>>> t.write("You awake in a small, square room. A single table stands to one side, there is a locked door in front of you.")
109
>>> t.close()
>>>
```

```
File Edit Search Options Help
You awake in a small, square room. A single table stands to one side, there is a locked door in front of you.
```

STEP 5

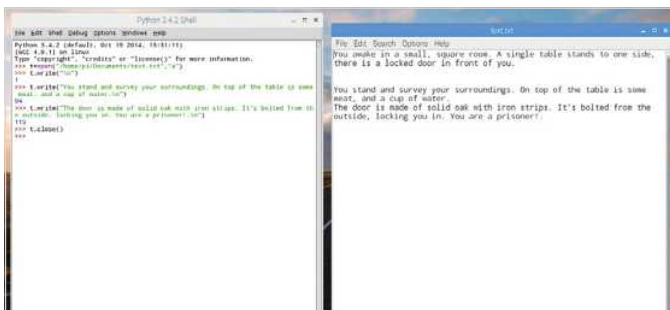
To expand this code, you can reopen the file using 'a', for access or append mode. This will add any text at the end of the original line instead of wiping the file and creating a new one. For example:

```
t=open("/home/pi/Documents/text.txt","a")
t.write("\n")
t.write(" You stand and survey your surroundings.
On top of the table is some meat, and a cup of
water.\n")
```

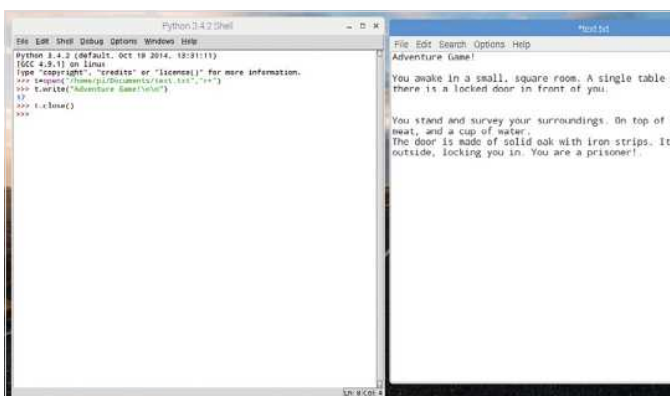

STEP 6

You can keep extending the text line by line, ending each with a new line (\n). When you're done, finish the code with t.close() and open the file in a text editor to see the results:

```
t.write("The door is made of solid oak with iron
strips. It's bolted from the outside, locking you
in. You are a prisoner!\n")
t.close()
```

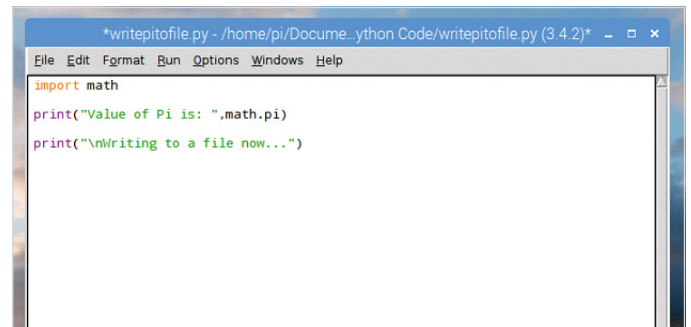

STEP 7

There are various types of file access to consider using the open() function. Each depends on how the file is accessed and even the position of the cursor. For example, r+ opens a file in read and write and places the cursor at the start of the file.


STEP 8

You can pass variables to a file that you've created in Python. Perhaps you want the value of Pi to be written to a file. You can call Pi from the math module, create a new file and pass the output of Pi into the new file:

```
import math
print("Value of Pi is: ",math.pi)
print("\nWriting to a file now..")
```


STEP 9

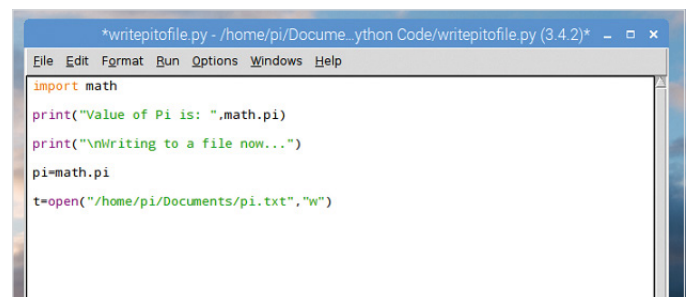
Now let's create a variable called pi and assign it the value of Pi:

```
pi=math.pi
```

You also need to create a new file in which to write Pi to:

```
t=open("/home/pi/Documents/pi.txt","w")
```

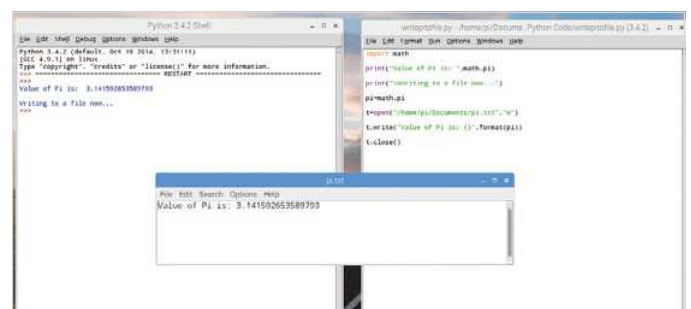
Remember to change your file location to your own particular system setup.


STEP 10

To finish, you can use string formatting to call the variable and write it to the file, then commit the changes and close the file:

```
t.write("Value of Pi is: {}".format(pi))
t.close()
```

You can see from the results that you're able to pass any variable to a file.





Exceptions

When coding, you'll naturally come across some issues that are out of your control. Let's assume you ask a user to divide two numbers and they try to divide by zero. This will create an error and break your code.

EXCEPTIONAL OBJECTS

Rather than stop the flow of your code, Python includes exception objects which handle unexpected errors in the code. You can combat errors by creating conditions where exceptions may occur.

STEP 1

You can create an exception error by simply trying to divide a number by zero. This will report back with the `ZeroDivisionError`: Division by zero message, as seen in the screenshot. The `ZeroDivisionError` part is the exception class, of which there are many.

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> 1/0
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#0>", line 1, in <module>
    1/0
ZeroDivisionError: division by zero
>>> |
```

STEP 2

Most exceptions are raised automatically when Python comes across something that's inherently wrong with the code. However, you can create your own exceptions that are designed to contain the potential error and react to it, as opposed to letting the code fail.

```
BaseException
+-- SystemExit
+-- KeyboardInterrupt
+-- GeneratorExit
+-- Exception
+-- StopIteration
+-- StopAsyncIteration
+-- ArithmeticError
+-- FloatingPointError
+-- OverflowError
+-- ZeroDivisionError
+-- AssertionError
+-- AttributeError
+-- BufferError
+-- EOFError
+-- ImportError
+-- ModuleNotFoundError
+-- LookupError
+-- IndexError
+-- KeyError
+-- MemoryError
+-- NameError
+-- UnboundLocalError
+-- OSError
+-- BlockingIOError
+-- ChildProcessError
+-- ConnectionError
+-- BrokenPipeError
+-- ConnectionAbortedError
+-- ConnectionRefusedError
+-- ConnectionResetError
+-- FileExistsError
+-- FileNotFoundError
+-- InterruptedError
+-- IsADirectoryError
+-- NotADirectoryError
+-- PermissionError
+-- ProcessLookupError
+-- TimeoutError
+-- ReferenceError
+-- RuntimeError
```

STEP 3

You can use the functions `raise` exception to create our own error handling code within Python. Let's assume your code has you warping around the cosmos, too much however results in a warp core breach. To stop the game from exiting due to the warp core going supernova, you can create a custom exception:

`raise Exception("warp core breach")`

```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> raise Exception("warp core breach")
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#0>", line 1, in <module>
    raise Exception("warp core breach")
Exception: warp core breach
>>> |
```

STEP 4

To trap any errors in the code you can encase the potential error within a `try`: block. This block consists of `try`, `except`, `else`, where the code is held within `try`:, then if there's an exception do something, else do something else.

```
*Untitled*
File Edit Format Run Options Windows Help
try:
    Insert your operations here ---->
except Exception 1:
    If there is an exception do this ---->
except Exception 2:
    If there is another exception do this ---->
else:
    If there is no exception, then do this ---->
```


**STEP 5**

For example, use the divide by zero error. You can create an exception where the code can handle the error without Python quitting due to the problem:

try:

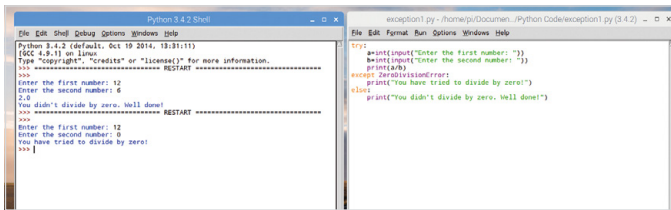
```
a=int(input("Enter the first number: "))
b=int(input("Enter the second number: "))
print(a/b)
```

except ZeroDivisionError:

```
print("You have tried to divide by zero!")
```

else:

```
print("You didn't divide by zero. Well done!")
```

**STEP 6**

You can use exceptions to handle a variety of useful tasks. Using an example from our previous tutorials, let's assume you want to open a file and write to it:

try:

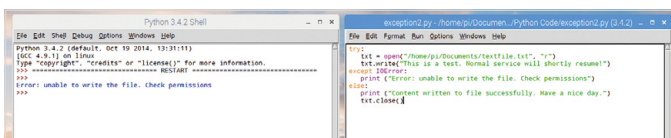
```
txt = open("/home/pi/Documents/textfile.txt", "r")
txt.write("This is a test. Normal service will shortly resume!")
```

except IOError:

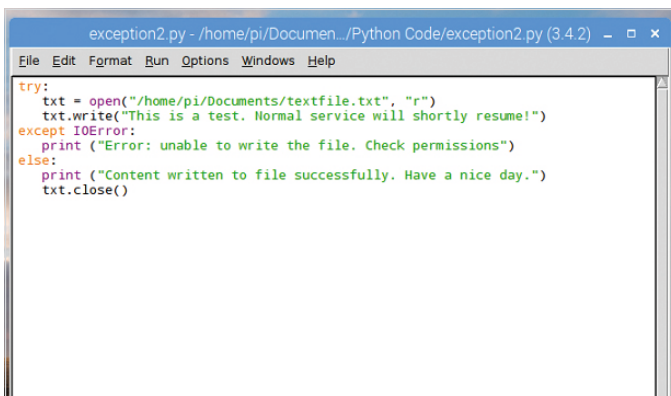
```
print("Error: unable to write the file. Check permissions")
```

else:

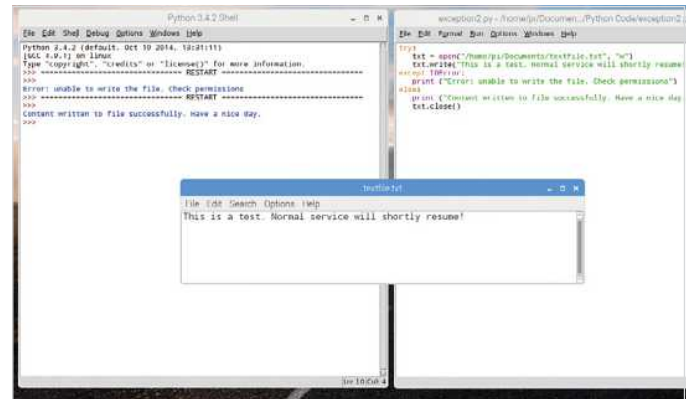
```
print("Content written to file successfully. Have a nice day.")
txt.close()
```

**STEP 7**

Obviously this won't work due to the file textfile.txt being opened as read only (the "r" part). So in this case rather than Python telling you that you're doing something wrong, you've created an exception using the IOError class informing the user that the permissions are incorrect.

**STEP 8**

Naturally, you can quickly fix the issue by changing the "r" read only instance with a "w" for write. This, as you already know, will create the file and write the content then commit the changes to the file. The end result will report a different set of circumstances, in this case, a successful execution of the code.

**STEP 9**

You can also use a finally: block, which works in a similar fashion but you can't use else with it. To use our example from Step 6:

try:

```
txt = open("/home/pi/Documents/textfile.txt", "r")
try:
```

```
txt.write("This is a test. Normal service will shortly resume!")
```

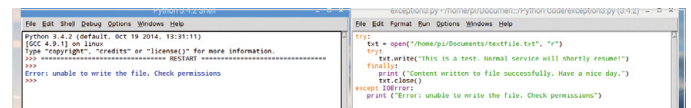
```
finally:
```

```
print("Content written to file successfully. Have a nice day.")
```

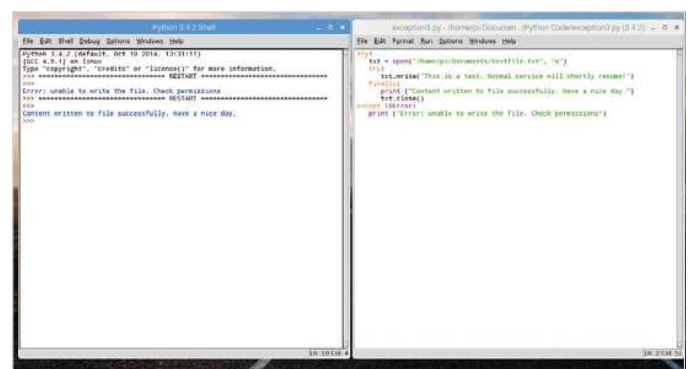
```
txt.close()
```

except IOError:

```
print("Error: unable to write the file. Check permissions")
```

**STEP 10**

As before an error will occur as you've used the "r" read-only permission. If you change it to a "w", then the code will execute without the error being displayed in the IDLE Shell. Needless to say, it can be a tricky getting the exception code right the first time. Practise though, and you will get the hang of it.





Python Graphics

While dealing with text on the screen, either as a game or in a program, is great, there will come a time when a bit of graphical representation wouldn't go amiss. Python 3 has numerous ways in which to include graphics and they're surprisingly powerful too.

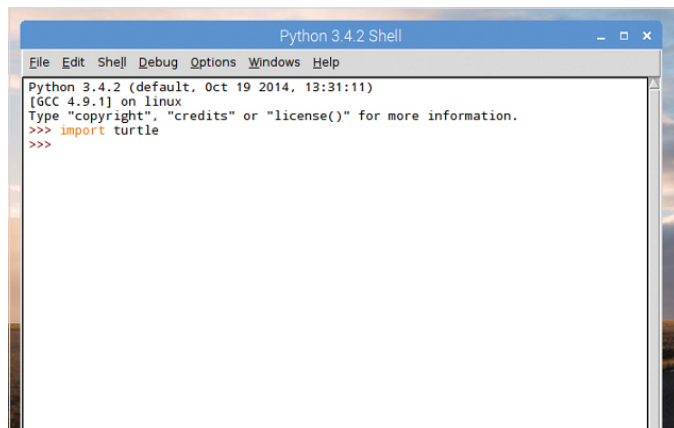
GOING GRAPHICAL

You can draw simple graphics, lines, squares and so on, or you can use one of the many Python modules available, to bring out some spectacular effects.

STEP 1

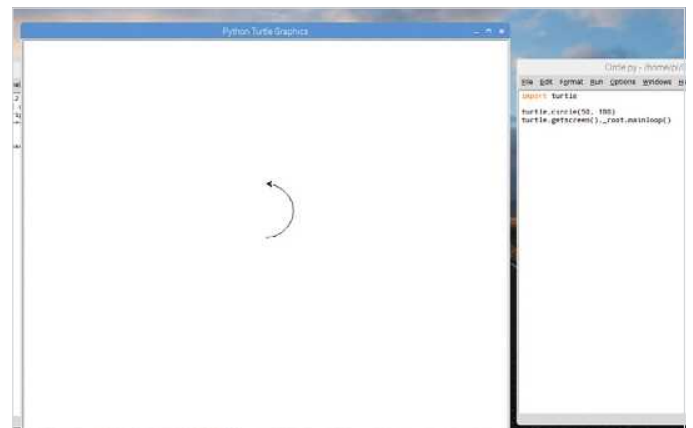
One of the best graphical modules to begin learning Python graphics is Turtle. The Turtle module is, as the name suggests, based on the turtle robots used in many schools, that can be programmed to draw something on a large piece of paper on the floor. The Turtle module can be imported with:

```
import turtle
```



STEP 3

The command `turtle.circle(50)` is what draws the circle on the screen, with 50 being the size. You can play around with the sizes if you like, going up to 100, 150 and beyond; you can draw an arc by entering: `turtle.circle(50, 180)`, where the size is 50, but you're telling Python to only draw 180° of the circle.

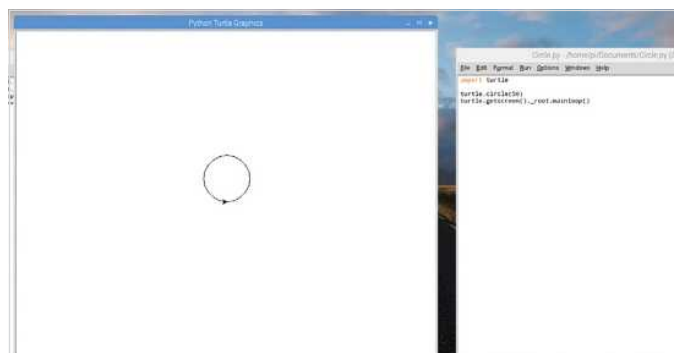


STEP 2

Let's begin by drawing a simple circle. Start a New File, then enter the following code:

```
import turtle
turtle.circle(50)
turtle.getscreen()._root.mainloop()
```

As usual press F5 to save the code and execute it. A new window will now open up and the 'Turtle' will draw a circle.

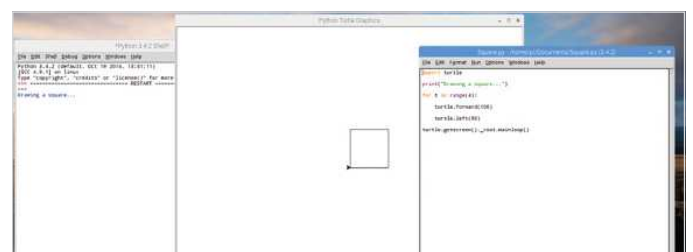


STEP 4

The last part of the circle code tells Python to keep the window where the drawing is taking place to remain open, so the user can click to close it. Now, let's make a square:

```
import turtle
print("Drawing a square...")
for t in range(4):
    turtle.forward(100)
    turtle.left(90)
turtle.getscreen()._root.mainloop()
```

You can see that we've inserted a loop to draw the sides of the square.



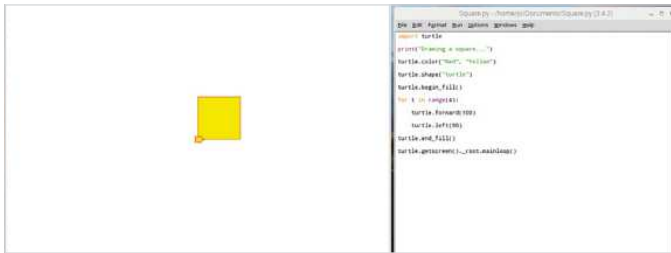
STEP 5 You can add a new line to the square code to add some colour:

```
turtle.color("Red")
```

Then you can even change the character to an actual turtle by entering:

```
turtle.shape("turtle")
```

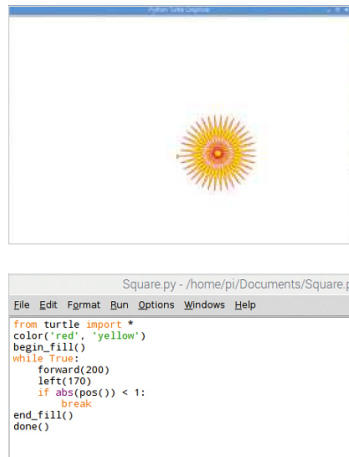
You can also use the command `turtle.begin_fill()`, and `turtle.end_fill()` to fill in the square with the chosen colours; red outline, yellow fill in this case.



STEP 6 You can see that the Turtle module can draw out some pretty good shapes and become a little more complex as you begin to master the way it works. Enter this example:

```
from turtle import *
color('red', 'yellow')
begin_fill()
while True:
    forward(200)
    left(170)
    if abs(pos()) < 1:
        break
end_fill()
done()
```

It's a different method, but very effective.



STEP 7 Another way in which you can display graphics is by using the Pygame module. There are numerous ways in which pygame can help you output graphics to the screen but for now let's look at displaying a predefined image. Start by opening a browser and finding an image, then save it to the folder where you save your Python code.



STEP 8 Now let's get the code by importing the pygame module:

```
import pygame
pygame.init()
```

```
img = pygame.image.load("RPI.png")
```

```
white = (255, 255, 255)
```

```
w = 900
```

```
h = 450
```

```
screen = pygame.display.
```

```
set_mode((w, h))
```

```
screen.fill(white))
```

```
screen.fill(white))
```

```
screen.blit(img,(0,0))
```

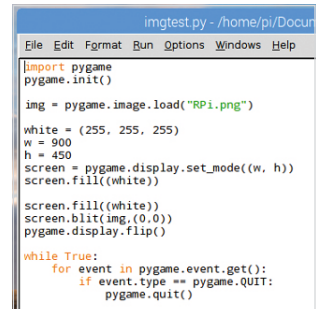
```
pygame.display.flip()
```

```
while True:
```

```
    for event in pygame.event.get():
```

```
        if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
```

```
            pygame.quit()
```



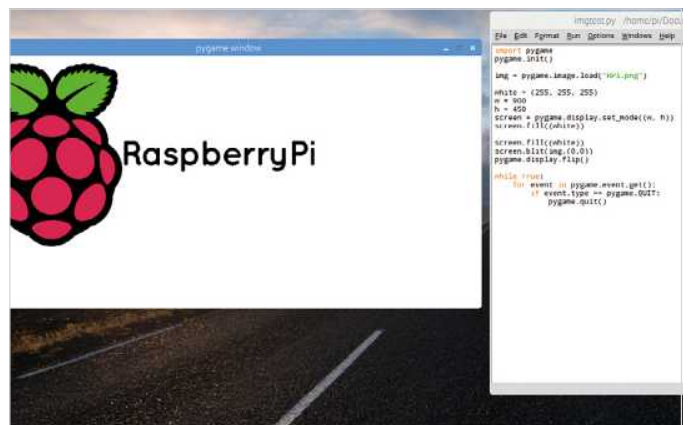
STEP 9 In the previous step you imported pygame, initiated the pygame engine and asked it to import our saved Raspberry Pi logo image, saved as RPI.png. Next you defined the background colour of the window to display the image and the window size as per the actual image dimensions. Finally you have a loop to close the window.

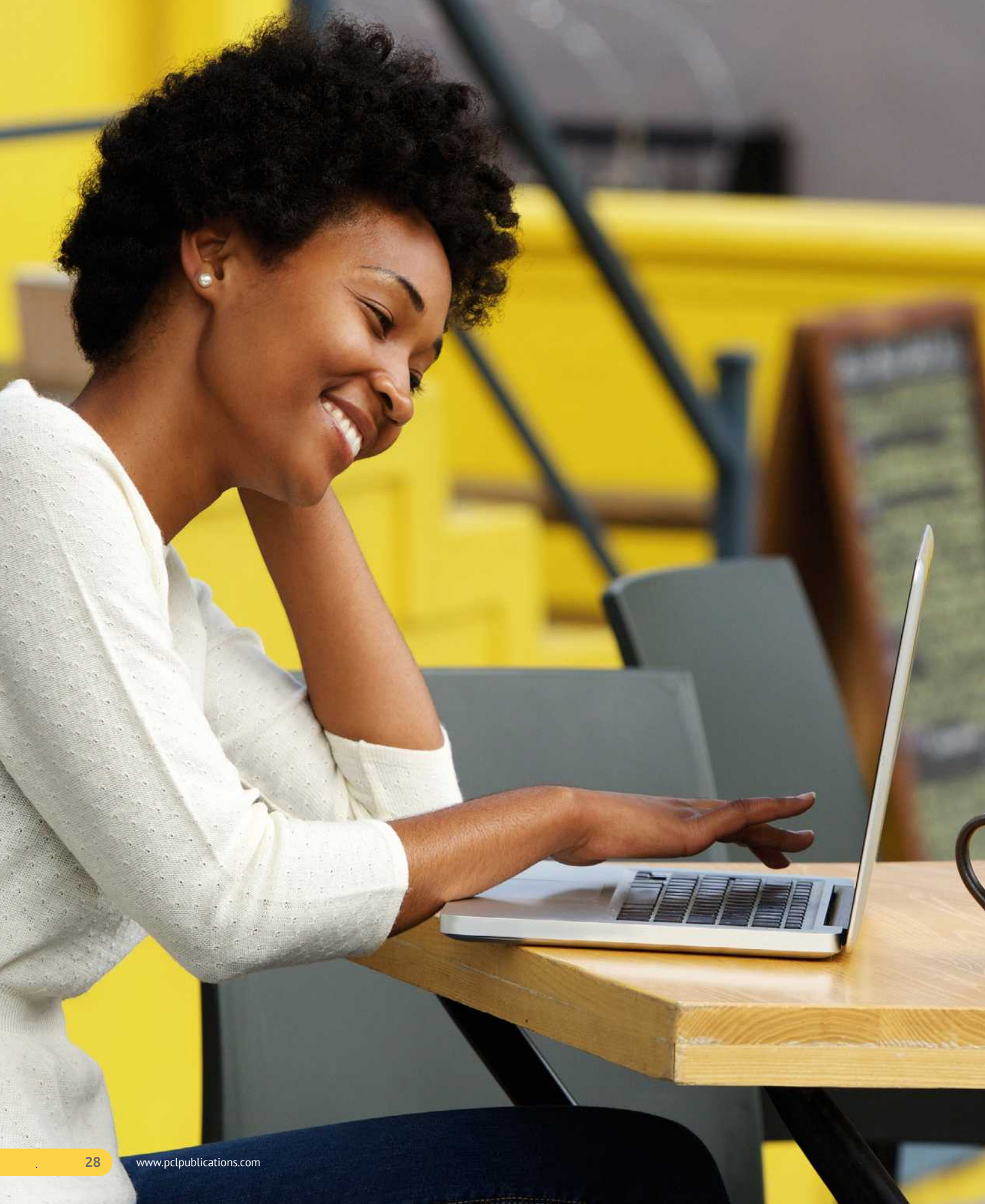
```
w = 900
h = 450
screen = pygame.display.set_mode((w, h))
screen.fill(white))

screen.fill(white))
screen.blit(img,(0,0))
pygame.display.flip())

while True:
    for event in pygame.event.get():
        if event.type == pygame.QUIT:
            pygame.quit()
```

STEP 10 Press F5 to save and execute the code and your image will be displayed in a new window. Have a play around with the colours, sizes and so on and take time to look up the many functions within the pygame module too.







Using Modules

A Python module is simply a Python-created source file which contains the necessary code for classes, functions and global variables. You can bind and reference modules to extend functionality and create even more spectacular Python programs.

Want to see how to improve these modules to add a little something extra to your code? Then read on and learn how they can be used to fashion fantastic code.

Calendar Module

Beyond the time module, the calendar module can produce some interesting results when executed within your code. It does far more than simply display the date in the time module-like format, you can actually call up a wall calendar type display.

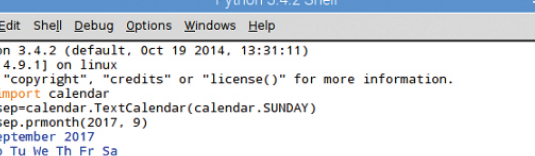
WORKING WITH DATES

The calendar module is built into Python 3. However, if for some reason it's not installed you can add it using `pip install calendar` as a Windows administrator or `sudo pip install calendar` for Linux and macOS.

STEP 1

STEP 1 Launch Python 3 and enter: `import calendar` to call up the module and its inherent functions. Once it's loaded into memory, start by entering:

```
sep=calendar.TextCalendar(calendar.SUNDAY)
sep.prmonth(2017, 9)
```

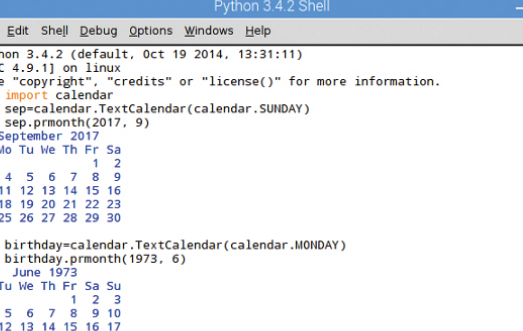


The screenshot shows a terminal window titled "Python 3.4.2 Shell". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Shell", "Debug", "Options", "Windows", and "Help". The terminal output is as follows:

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import calendar
>>> sep=calendar.TextCalendar(calendar.SUNDAY)
>>> sep.prmonth(2017, 9)
September 2017
Su Mo Tu We Th Fr Sa
      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
>>>
```

STEP 2

STEP 2 You can see that the days of September 2017 are displayed in a wall calendar fashion. Naturally you can change the 2017, 9 part of the second line to any year and month you want, a birthday for example (1973, 6). The first line configures TextCalendar to start its weeks on a Sunday; you can opt for Monday if you prefer.



The screenshot shows a terminal window titled "Python 3.4.2 Shell". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Shell", "Debug", "Options", "Windows", and "Help". The terminal output is as follows:

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, 0ct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import calendar
>>> sep=calendar.TextCalendar(calendar.SUNDAY)
>>> sep.prmonth(2017, 9)
September 2017
Su Mo Tu We Th Fr Sa
      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

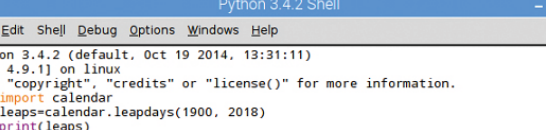
>>> birthday=calendar.TextCalendar(calendar.MONDAY)
>>> birthday.prmonth(1973, 6)
June 1973
Mo Tu We Th Fr Sa Su
      1  2  3
 4  5  6  7  8  9 10
11 12 13 14 15 16 17
18 19 20 21 22 23 24
25 26 27 28 29 30
>>>
```

STEP 3

STEP 3 There are numerous functions within the calendar module that may be of interest to you when forming your own code. For example, you can display the number of leap years between two specific years:

```
leaps=calendar.leapdays(1900, 2018)
print(leaps)
```

The result is 29, starting from 1904 onward.



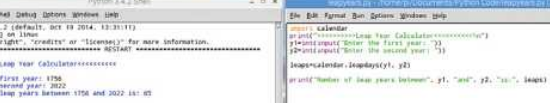
The screenshot shows a terminal window titled "Python 3.4.2 Shell". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Shell", "Debug", "Options", "Windows", and "Help". The terminal output is as follows:

```
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import calendar
>>> leaps=calendar.leapdays(1900, 2018)
>>> print(leaps)
29
>>>
>>> |
```

STEP 4

STEP 4 You could even fashion that particular example into a piece of working, user interactive Python code:

```
import calendar  
print(">>>>>>>>Leap Year  
Calculator<<<<<<<<\n")y1=int(input("Enter the  
first year: "))  
y2=int(input("Enter the second year: "))  
leaps=calendar.leapdays(y1, y2)  
print("Number of leap years between", y1, "and",  
y2, "is:", leaps)
```



```

Python 3.4.3 Shell

File Edit Shell Debug Options Window Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
GCC 4.8.1 on Linux
Type "copyright", "credits()" or "license()" for more information.
>>> ##### Leap Year Calculator #####
>>>
##### Leap Year Calculator #####
Enter the first year: 1756
Enter the second year: 2022
Number of leap years between 1756 and 2022 is: 61
175

```

```

File Edit Format Shell Debug Options Window Help
##### Leap Year Calculator #####
y1=input("Enter the first year: ")
y2=input("Enter the second year: ")
leap=leapyear(leapyr=y1, y2)
print("Number of leap years between", y1, "and", y2, "is:", leap)

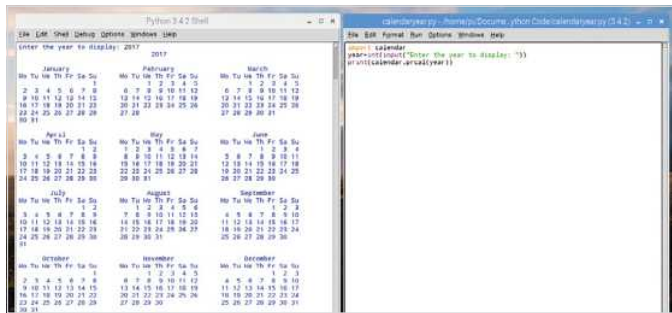
```


**STEP 5**

You can also create a program that will display all the days, weeks and months within a given year:

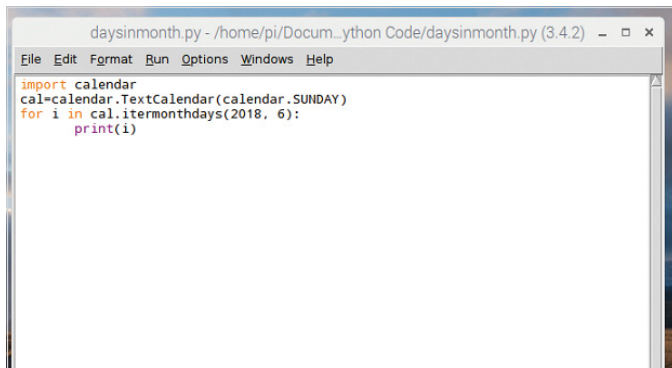
```
import calendar
year=int(input("Enter the year to display: "))
print(calendar.prcal(year))
```

We're sure you'll agree that's quite a handy bit of code to have to hand.

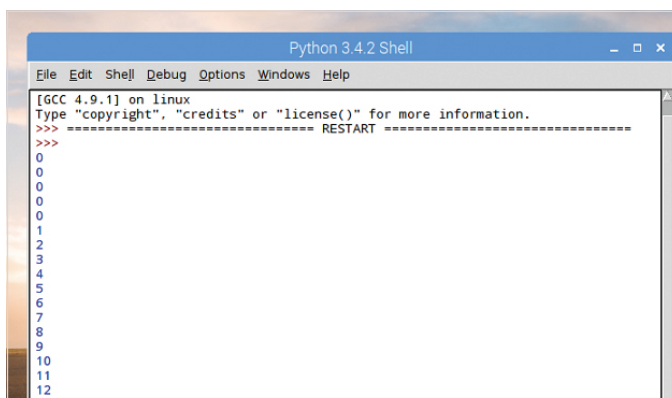
**STEP 6**

Interestingly we can also list the number of days in a month by using a simple for loop:

```
import calendar
cal=calendar.TextCalendar(calendar.SUNDAY)
for i in cal.itermonthdays(2018, 6):
    print(i)
```

**STEP 7**

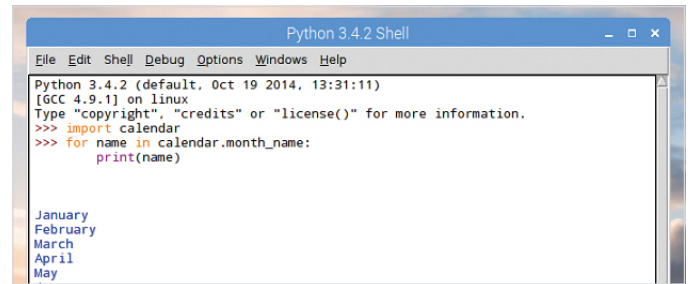
You can see that code produced some zeros at the beginning, this is due to the starting day of the week, Sunday in this case, and overlapping days from the previous month. So the counting of the days will start on Friday 1st June 2018 and will total 30 as the output correctly displays.

**STEP 8**

You're also able to print the individual months or days of the week:

```
import calendar
for name in calendar.month_name:
    print(name)

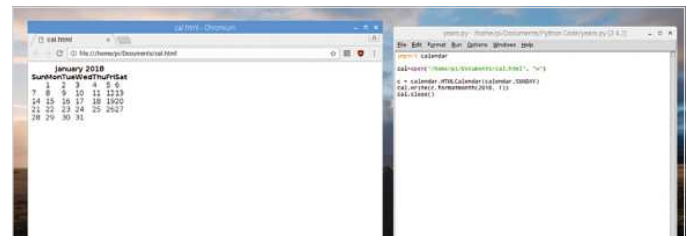
import calendar
for name in calendar.day_name:
    print(name)
```

**STEP 9**

The calendar module also allows us to write the functions in HTML, so that you can display it on a website. Let's start by creating a new file:

```
import calendar
cal=open("/home/pi/Documents/cal.html", "w")
c=calendar.HTMLCalendar(calendar.SUNDAY)
cal.write(c.formatmonth(2018, 1))
cal.close()
```

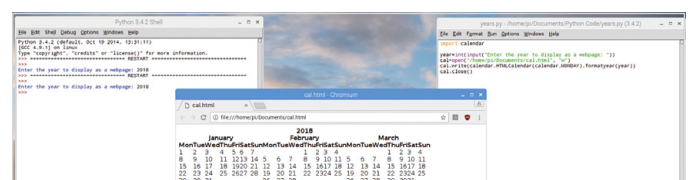
This code will create an HTML file called cal, open it with a browser and it displays the calendar for January 1918.

**STEP 10**

Of course, you can modify that to display a given year as a web page calendar:

```
import calendar
year=int(input("Enter the year to display as a webpage: "))
cal=open("/home/pi/Documents/cal.html", "w")
cal.write(calendar.HTMLCalendar(calendar.MONDAY).formatyear(year))
cal.close()
```

This code asks the user for a year, then creates the necessary webpage. Remember to change your file destination.





OS Module

The OS module allows you to interact directly with the built-in commands found in your operating system. Commands vary depending on the OS you're running, as some will work with Windows whereas others will work with Linux and macOS.

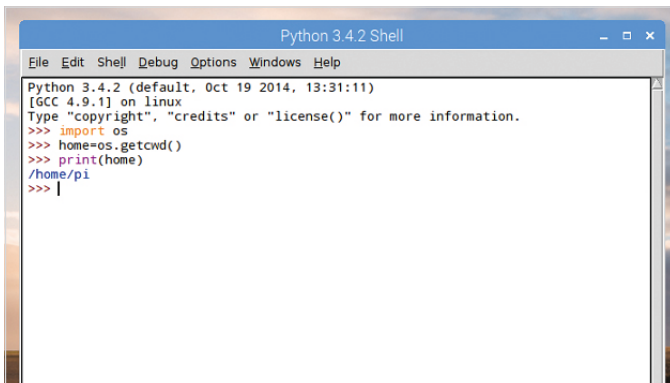
INTO THE SYSTEM

One of the primary features of the OS module is the ability to list, move, create, delete and otherwise interact with files stored on the system, making it the perfect module for backup code.

STEP 1

You can start the OS module with some simple functions to see how it interacts with the operating system environment that Python is running on. If you're using Linux or the Raspberry Pi, try this:

```
import os
home=os.getcwd()
print(home)
```



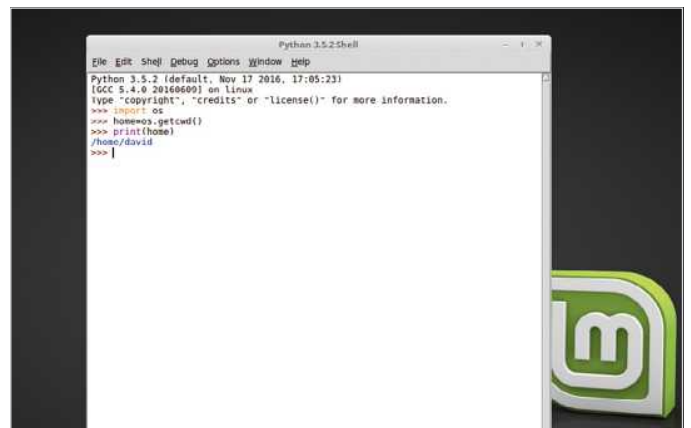
STEP 2

The returned result from printing the variable home is the current user's home folder on the system. In our example that's /home/pi; it will be different depending on the user name you log in as and the operating system you use. For example, Windows 10 will output: C:\Program Files (x86)\Python36-32.



STEP 3

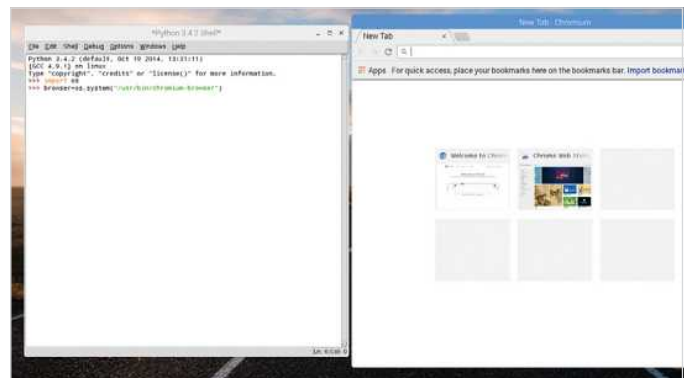
The Windows output is different as that's the current working directory of Python, as determined by the system; as you might suspect, the os.getcwd() function is asking Python to retrieve the Current Working Directory. Linux users will see something along the same lines as the Raspberry Pi, as will macOS users.



STEP 4

Yet another interesting element to the OS module, is its ability to launch programs that are installed in the host system. For instance, if you wanted to launch the Chromium browser from within a Python program you can use the command:

```
import os
browser=os.system("/usr/bin/chromium-browser")
```



STEP 5

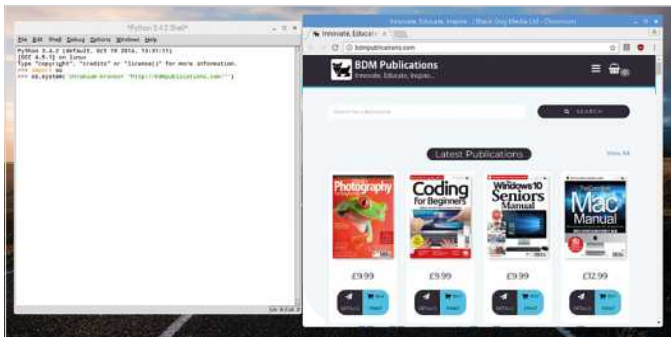
The `os.system()` function is what allows interaction with external programs; you can even call up previous Python programs using this method. You will obviously need to know the full path and program file name for it to work successfully. However, you can use the following:

```
import os
os.system('start chrome "https://www.youtube.com/feed/music"')
```

**STEP 6**

For Step 5's example we used Windows, to show that the OS module works roughly the same across all platforms. In that case, we opened YouTube's music feed page, so it is therefore possible to open specific pages:

```
import os
os.system('chromium-browser "http://bdmpublications.com/"')
```

**STEP 7**

Note in the previous step's example the use of single and double-quotes. The single quotes encase the entire command and launching Chromium, whereas the double quotes open the specified page. You can even use variables to call multiple tabs in the same browser:

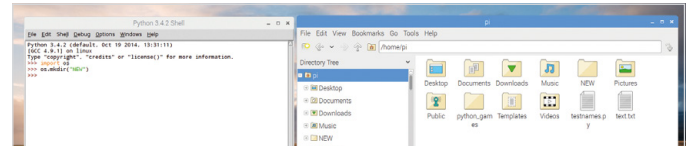
```
import os
a=('chromium-browser "http://bdmpublications.com/"')
b=('chromium-browser "http://www.google.co.uk"')
os.system(a + b)
```

**STEP 8**

The ability to manipulate directories, or folders if you prefer, is one of the OS module's best features. For example, to create a new directory you can use:

```
import os
os.mkdir("NEW")
```

This creates a new directory within the Current Working Directory, named according to the object in the `mkdir` function.

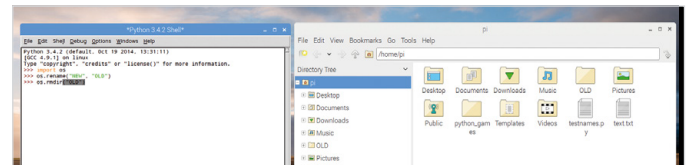
**STEP 9**

You can also rename any directories you've created by entering:

```
import os
os.rename("NEW", "OLD")
```

To delete them:

```
import os
os.rmdir("OLD")
```

**STEP 10**

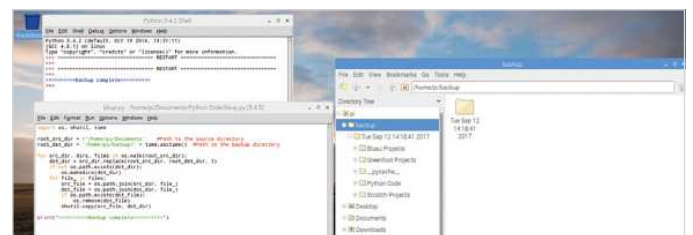
Another module that goes together with OS is `shutil`. You can use the `shutil` module together with OS and `time` to create a time-stamped backup directory, and copy files into it:

```
import os, shutil, time

root_src_dir = r'/home/pi/Documents'
root_dst_dir = '/home/pi/backup/' + time.asctime()

for src_dir, dirs, files in os.walk(root_src_dir):
    dst_dir = src_dir.replace(root_src_dir, root_dst_dir, 1)
    if not os.path.exists(dst_dir):
        os.makedirs(dst_dir)
    for file_ in files:
        src_file = os.path.join(src_dir, file_)
        dst_file = os.path.join(dst_dir, file_)
        if os.path.exists(dst_file):
            os.remove(dst_file)
        shutil.copy(src_file, dst_dir)

print(">>>>>>>>>Backup complete<<<<<<<<<<<<<")
```





Random Module

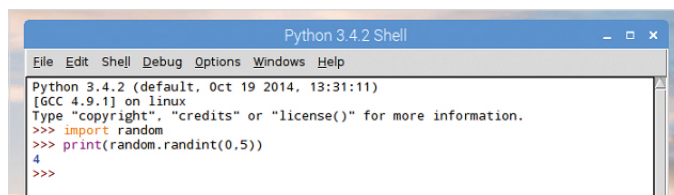
The random module is one you will likely come across many times in your Python programming lifetime; as the name suggests, it's designed to create random numbers or letters. However, it's not exactly random but it will suffice for most needs.

RANDOM NUMBERS

There are numerous functions within the random module, which when applied can create some interesting and very useful Python programs.

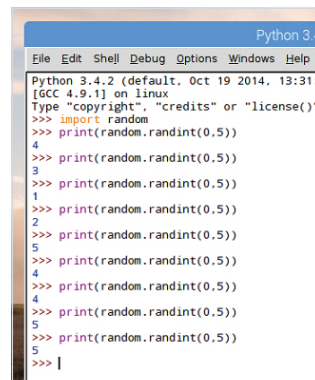
STEP 1 Just as with other modules you need to import random before you can use any of the functions we're going to look at in this tutorial. Let's begin by simply printing a random number from 1 to 5:

```
import random
print(random.randint(0,5))
```



```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import random
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
4
>>>
```

STEP 2 In our example the number four was returned. However, enter the print function a few more times and it will display different integer values from the set of numbers given, zero to five. The overall effect, although pseudo-random, is adequate for the average programmer to utilise in their code.

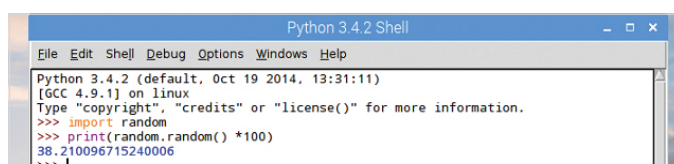


```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import random
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
4
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
2
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
3
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
1
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
2
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
5
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
4
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
4
>>> print(random.randint(0,5))
5
>>>
```

STEP 3 For a bigger set of numbers, including floating point values, you can extend the range by using the multiplication sign:

```
import random
print(random.random() * 100)
```

Will display a floating point number between 0 and 100, to the tune of around fifteen decimal points.

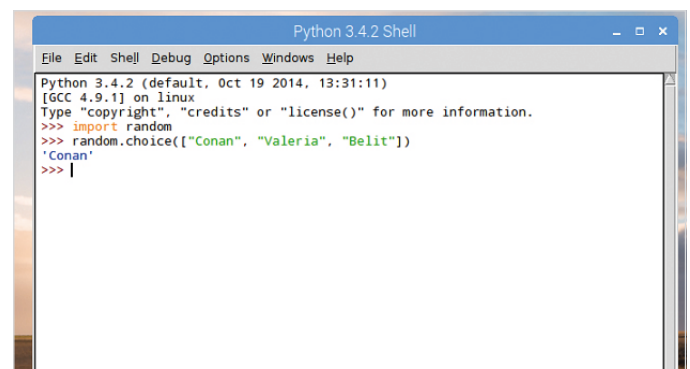


```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import random
>>> print(random.random() * 100)
38.210096715240006
>>>
```

STEP 4 However, the random module isn't used exclusively for numbers. You can use it to select an entry from a list from random, and the list can contain anything:

```
import random
random.choice(["Conan", "Valeria", "Belit"])
```

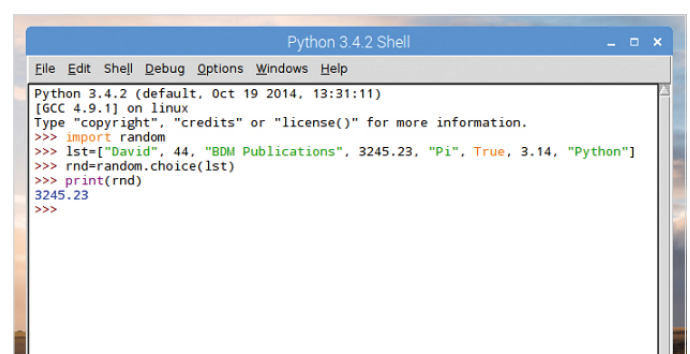
This will display one of the names of our adventurers at random, which is a great addition to a text adventure game.



```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import random
>>> random.choice(["Conan", "Valeria", "Belit"])
'Conan'
>>>
```

STEP 5 You can extend the previous example somewhat by having random.choice() select from a list of mixed variables. For instance:

```
import random
lst=["David", 44, "BDM Publications", 3245.23,
"Pi", True, 3.14, "Python"]
rnd=random.choice(lst)
print(rnd)
```



```
Python 3.4.2 Shell
File Edit Shell Debug Options Windows Help
Python 3.4.2 (default, Oct 19 2014, 13:31:11)
[GCC 4.9.1] on linux
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> import random
>>> lst=["David", 44, "BDM Publications", 3245.23, "Pi", True, 3.14, "Python"]
>>> rnd=random.choice(lst)
>>> print(rnd)
3245.23
>>>
```




Tkinter Module

While running your code from the command line, or even in the Shell, is perfectly fine, Python is capable of so much more. The Tkinter module enables the programmer to set up a Graphical User Interface to interact with the user, and it's surprisingly powerful too.

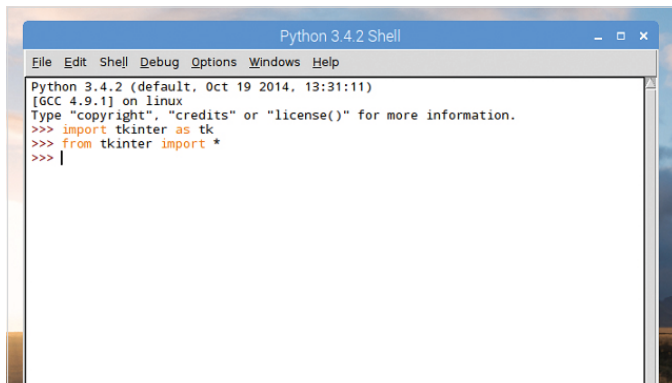
GETTING GUI

Tkinter is easy to use but there's a lot more you can do with it. Let's start by seeing how it works and getting some code into it. Before long you will discover just how powerful this module really is.

STEP 1

Tkinter is usually built into Python 3. However, if it's available when you enter: `import tkinter`, then you need to `pip install tkinter` from the command prompt. We can start to import modules differently than before, to save on typing and by importing all their contents:

```
import tkinter as tk
from tkinter import *
```

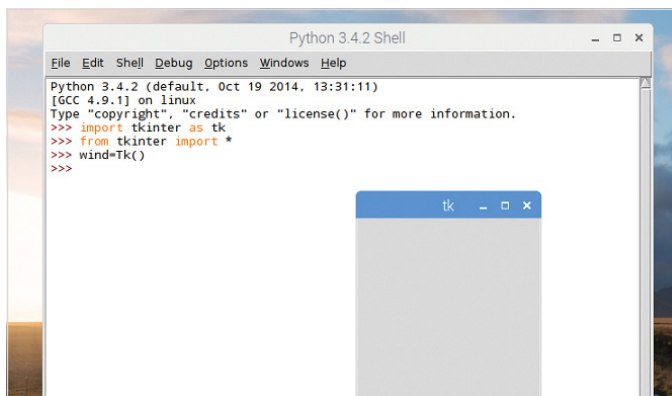


STEP 2

It's not recommended to import everything from a module using the asterisk but it won't do any harm normally. Let's begin by creating a basic GUI window, enter:

```
wind=Tk()
```

This creates a small, basic window. There's not much else to do at this point but click the X in the corner to close the window.

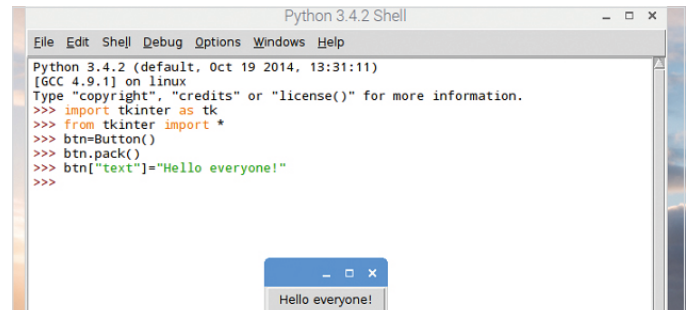


STEP 3

The ideal approach is to add `mainloop()` into the code to control the Tkinter event loop, but we'll get to that soon. You've just created a Tkinter widget and there are several more we can play around with:

```
btn=Button()
btn.pack()
btn["text"]="Hello everyone!"
```

The first line focuses on the newly created window. Click back into the Shell and continue the other lines.



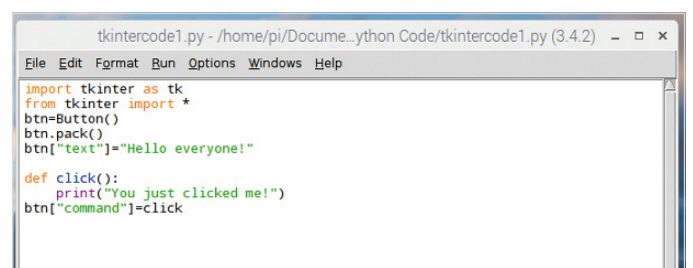
STEP 4

You can combine the above into a New File:

```
import tkinter as tk
from tkinter import *
btn=Button()
btn.pack()
btn["text"]="Hello everyone!"
```

Then add some button interactions:

```
def click():
    print("You just clicked me!")
btn["command"]=click
```





Pygame Module

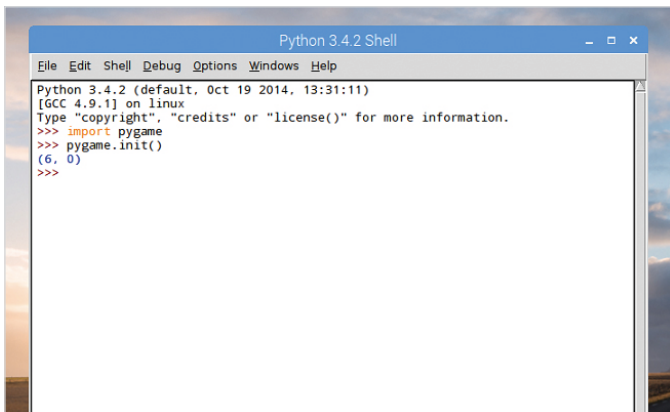
We've had a brief look at the Pygame module already but there's a lot more to it that needs exploring. Pygame was developed to help Python programmers create either graphical or text-based games.

PYGAMING

Pygame isn't an inherent module to Python but those using the Raspberry Pi will already have it installed. Everyone else will need to use: **pip install pygame** from the command prompt.

STEP 1 Naturally you need to load up the Pygame modules into memory before you're able to utilise them. Once that's done Pygame requires the user to initialise it prior to any of the functions being used:

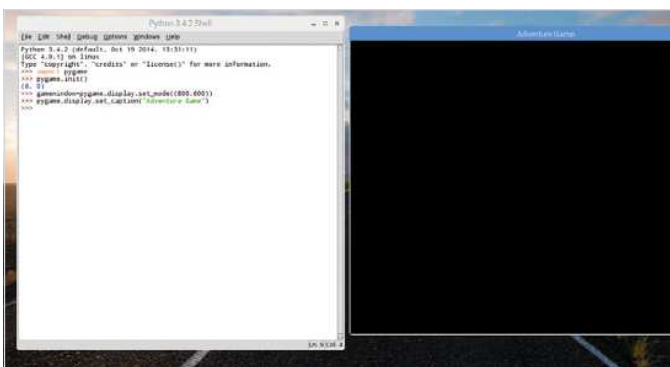
```
import pygame
pygame.init()
```



STEP 2 Let's create a simple game ready window, and give it a title:

```
gamewindow=pygame.display.set_mode((800,600))
pygame.display.set_caption("Adventure Game")
```

You can see that after the first line is entered, you need to click back into the IDLE Shell to continue entering code; also, you can change the title of the window to anything you like.



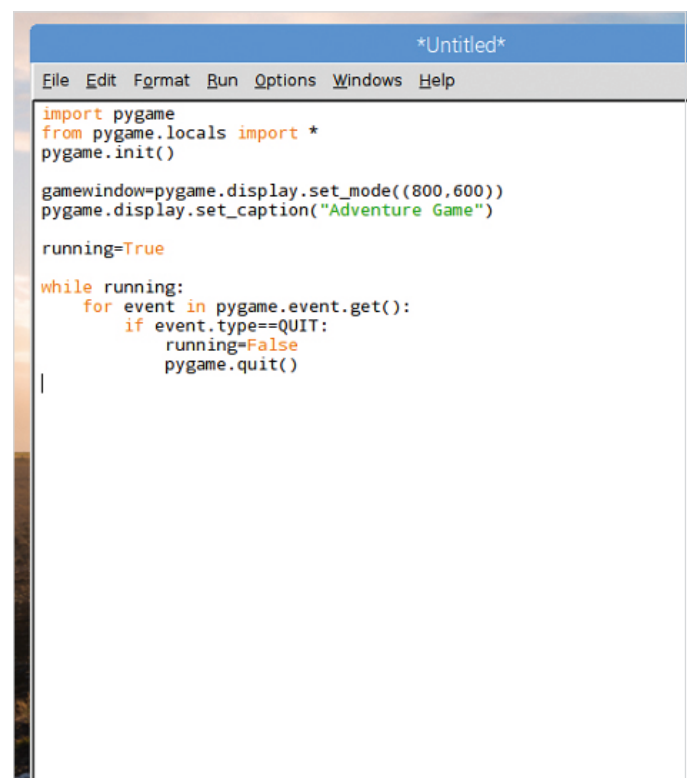
STEP 3 Sadly you can't close the newly created Pygame window without closing the Python IDLE Shell, which isn't very practical. For this reason, you need to work in the editor (New > File) and create a True/False while loop:

```
import pygame
from pygame.locals import *
pygame.init()

gamewindow=pygame.display.set_mode((800,600))
pygame.display.set_caption("Adventure Game")

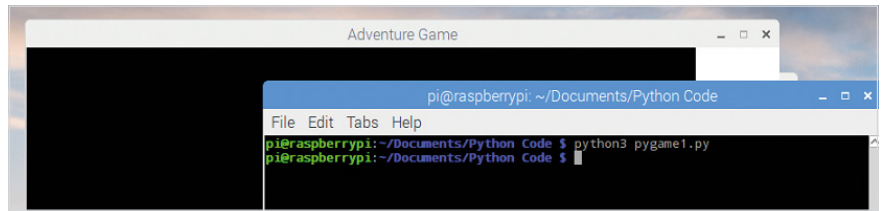
running=True

while running:
    for event in pygame.event.get():
        if event.type==QUIT:
            running=False
            pygame.quit()
```



**STEP 4**

If the Pygame window still won't close don't worry, it's just a discrepancy between the IDLE (which is written with Tkinter) and the Pygame module. If you run your code via the command line, it closes perfectly well.

**STEP 5**

You're going to shift the code around a bit now, running the main Pygame code within a while loop; it makes it neater and easier to follow. We've downloaded a graphic to use and we need to set some parameters for pygame:

```
import pygame
pygame.init()
running=True
while running:
    gamewindow=pygame.display.set_mode((800,600))
    pygame.display.set_caption("Adventure Game")
    black=(0,0,0)
    white=(255,255,255)
```

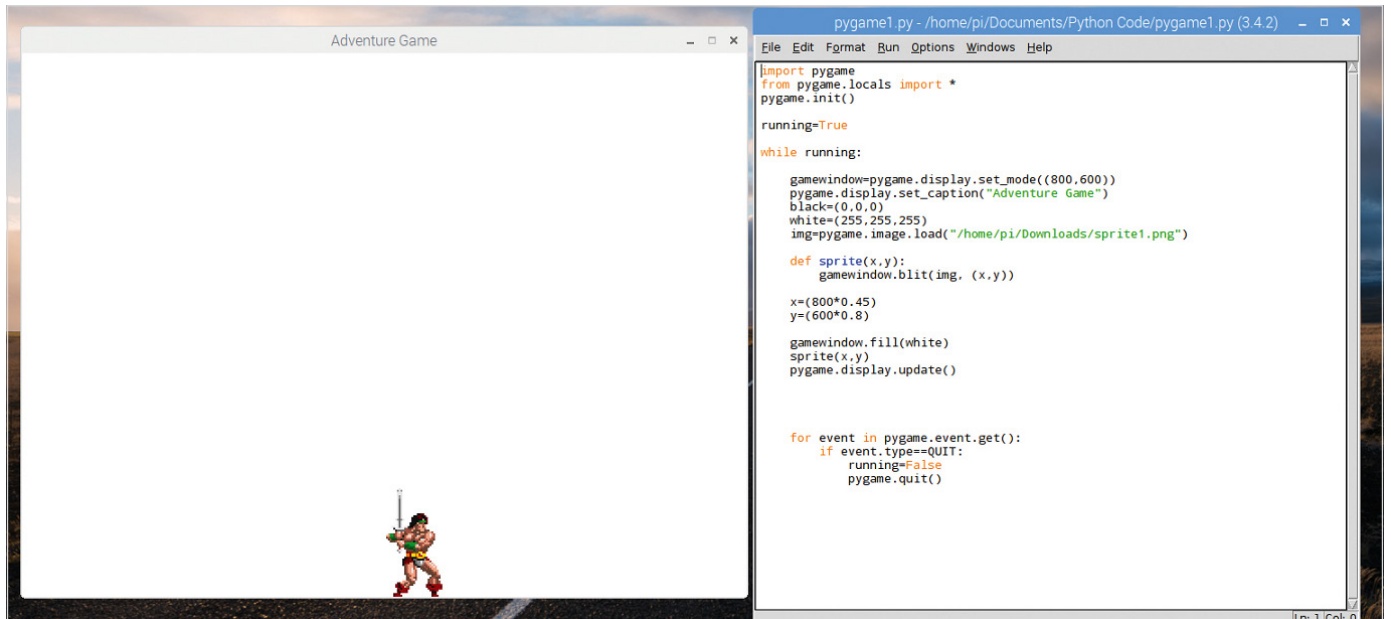
```
img=pygame.image.load("/home/pi/Downloads/
sprite1.png")
```

```
def sprite(x,y):
    gamewindow.blit(img, (x,y))
```

```
x=(800*0.45)
y=(600*0.8)
```

```
gamewindow.fill(white)
sprite(x,y)
pygame.display.update()
```

```
for event in pygame.event.get():
    if event.type==pygame.QUIT:
        running=False
```

**STEP 6**

Let's quickly go through the code changes. We've defined two colours, black and white together with their respective RGB colour values. Next we've loaded the

downloaded image called sprite1.png and allocated it to the variable img; and also defined a sprite function and the Blit function will allow us to eventually move the image.

```
import pygame
from pygame.locals import *
pygame.init()
running=True
while running:
    gamewindow=pygame.display.set_mode((800,600))
    pygame.display.set_caption("Adventure Game")
    black=(0,0,0)
    white=(255,255,255)
    img=pygame.image.load("/home/pi/Downloads/sprite1.png")
    def sprite(x,y):
        gamewindow.blit(img, (x,y))
```

```
x=(800*0.45)
y=(600*0.8)
gamewindow.fill(white)
sprite(x,y)
pygame.display.update()
for event in pygame.event.get():
    if event.type==pygame.QUIT:
        running=False
        pygame.quit()
```




STEP 7

Now we can change the code around again, this time containing a movement option within the while loop, and adding the variables needed to move the sprite around the screen:

```
import pygame
from pygame.locals import *
pygame.init()

running=True

gamewindow=pygame.display.set_mode((800,600))
pygame.display.set_caption("Adventure Game")
black=(0,0,0)
white=(255,255,255)
img=pygame.image.load("/home/pi/Downloads/sprite1.png")

def sprite(x,y):
    gamewindow.blit(img, (x,y))

x=(800*0.45)
y=(600*0.8)

xchange=0
```

```
imgspeed=0

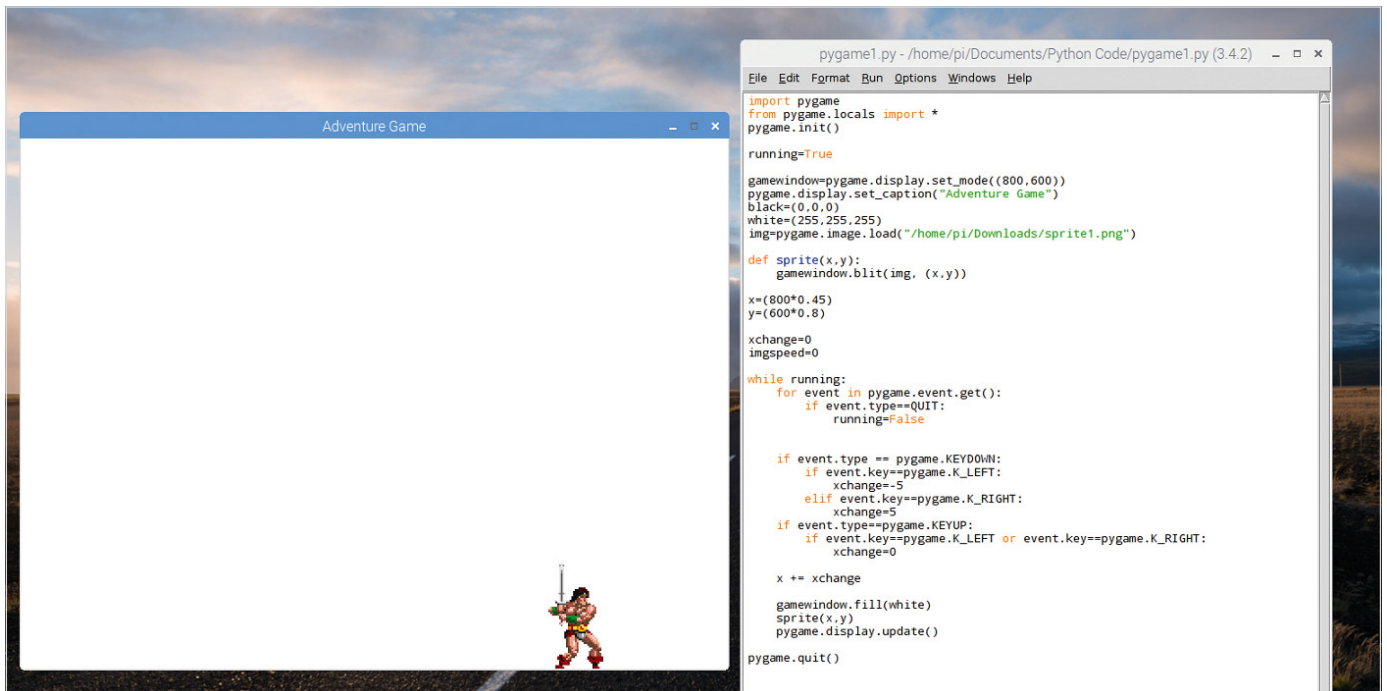
while running:
    for event in pygame.event.get():
        if event.type==QUIT:
            running=False

    if event.type == pygame.KEYDOWN:
        if event.key==pygame.K_LEFT:
            xchange=-5
        elif event.key==pygame.K_RIGHT:
            xchange=5
    if event.type==pygame.KEYUP:
        if event.key==pygame.K_LEFT or event
key==pygame.K_RIGHT:
            xchange=0

    x += xchange

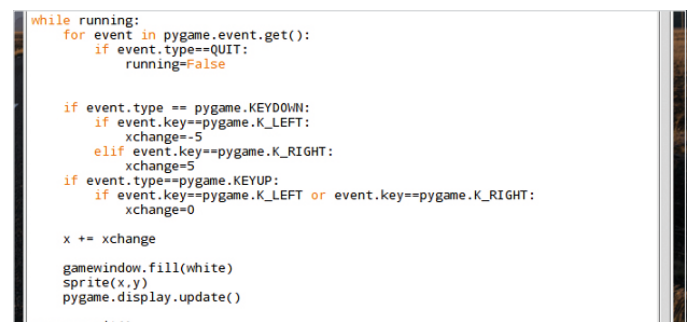
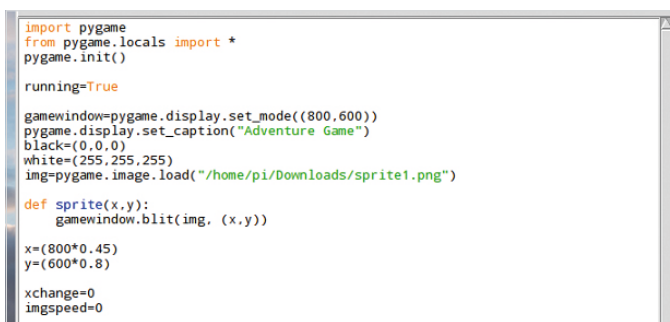
    gamewindow.fill(white)
    sprite(x,y)
    pygame.display.update()

pygame.quit()
```



STEP 8

Copy the code down and using the left and right arrow keys on the keyboard you can move your sprite across the bottom of the screen. Now, it looks like you have the makings of a classic arcade 2D scroller in the works.



**STEP 9**

You can now implement a few additions and utilise some previous tutorial code. The new elements are the subprocess module, of which one function allows us to launch a second Python script from within another; and we're going to create a New File called pygametxt.py:

```
import pygame
import time
import subprocess
pygame.init()
screen = pygame.display.set_mode((800, 250))
clock = pygame.time.Clock()

font = pygame.font.Font(None, 25)
pygame.time.set_timer(pygame.USEREVENT, 200)

def text_generator(text):
    tmp = ''
    for letter in text:
        tmp += letter
        if letter != ' ':
            yield tmp

class DynamicText(object):
    def __init__(self, font, text, pos,
    autoreset=False):
        self.done = False
        self.font = font
        self.text = text
        self._gen = text_generator(self.text)
        self.pos = pos
        self.autoreset = autoreset
        self.update()

    def reset(self):
        self._gen = text_generator(self.text)
        self.done = False
        self.update()

    def update(self):
        if not self.done:
            try: self.rendered = self.font.
render(next(self._gen), True, (0, 128, 0))
            except StopIteration:
                self.done = True
                time.sleep(10)
                subprocess.Popen("python3 /home/pi/Documents/
Python\ Code/pygame1.py 1", shell=True)

    def draw(self, screen):
        screen.blit(self.rendered, self.pos)

text=("A long time ago, a barbarian strode from the
frozen north. Sword in hand...")
message = DynamicText(font, text, (65, 120),
autoreset=True)

while True:
    for event in pygame.event.get():
        if event.type == pygame.QUIT: break
        if event.type == pygame.USEREVENT: message.
update()
    else:
        screen.fill(pygame.color.Color('black'))
        message.draw(screen)
```

```
pygame.display.flip()
clock.tick(60)
continue
break
pygame.quit()
```

```
*pygametxt.py - /home/pi/Documents/Python Code/pygametxt.py (3.4.2)*
File Edit Format Run Options Windows Help
import pygame
import time
import subprocess
pygame.init()
screen = pygame.display.set_mode((800, 250))
clock = pygame.time.Clock()

font = pygame.font.Font(None, 25)
pygame.time.set_timer(pygame.USEREVENT, 200)

def text_generator(text):
    tmp = ''
    for letter in text:
        tmp += letter
        if letter != ' ':
            yield tmp

class DynamicText(object):
    def __init__(self, font, text, pos, autoreset=False):
        self.done = False
        self.font = font
        self.text = text
        self._gen = text_generator(self.text)
        self.pos = pos
        self.autoreset = autoreset
        self.update()

    def reset(self):
        self._gen = text_generator(self.text)
        self.done = False
        self.update()

    def update(self):
        if not self.done:
            try: self.rendered = self.font.render(next(self._gen), True, (0, 128, 0))
            except StopIteration:
                self.done = True
                time.sleep(10)
                subprocess.Popen("python3 /home/pi/Documents/Python\ Code/pygame1.py 1", shell=True)

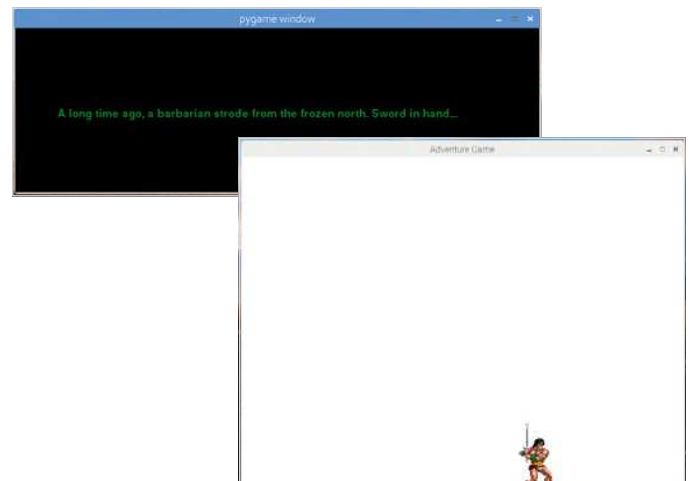
    def draw(self, screen):
        screen.blit(self.rendered, self.pos)

text=("A long time ago, a barbarian strode from the frozen north. Sword in hand...")
message = DynamicText(font, text, (65, 120), autoreset=True)

while True:
    for event in pygame.event.get():
        if event.type == pygame.QUIT: break
        if event.type == pygame.USEREVENT: message.update()
    else:
        screen.fill(pygame.color.Color('black'))
        message.draw(screen)
```

STEP 10

When you run this code it will display a long, narrow Pygame window with the intro text scrolling to the right. After a pause of ten seconds, it then launches the main game Python script where you can move the warrior sprite around. Overall the effect is quite good but there's always room for improvement.





Create Your Own Modules

Large programs can be much easier to manage if you break them up into smaller parts and import the parts you need as modules. Learning to build your own modules also makes it easier to understand how they work.

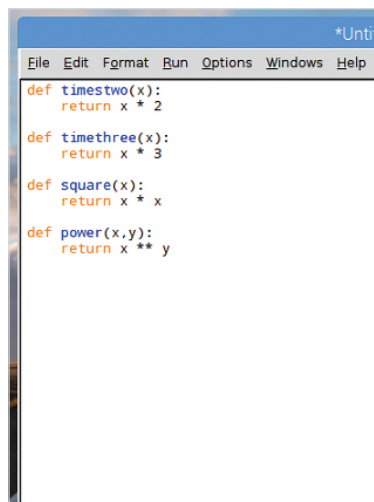
BUILDING MODULES

Modules are Python files, containing code, that you save using a .py extension. These are then imported into Python using the now familiar import command.

STEP 1

Let's start by creating a set of basic mathematics functions. Multiply a number by two, three and square or raise a number to an exponent (power). Create a New File in the IDLE and enter:

```
def timestwo(x):  
    return x * 2  
  
def timesthree(x):  
    return x * 3  
  
def square(x):  
    return x * x  
  
def power(x,y):  
    return x ** y
```

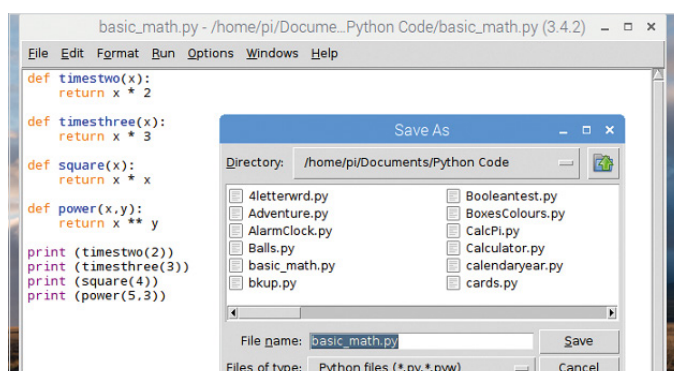


STEP 2

Under the above code, enter functions to call the code:

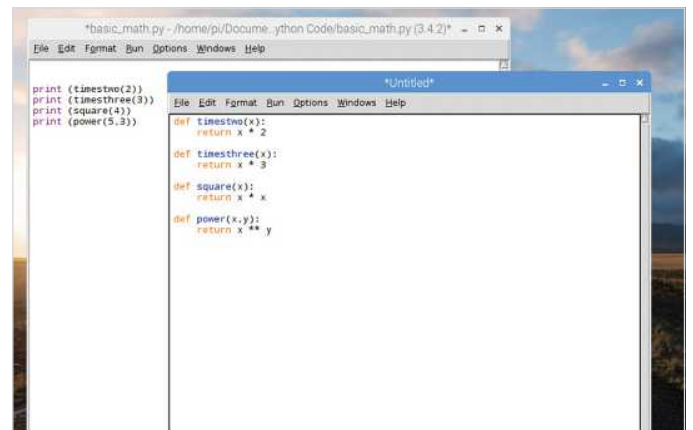
```
print (timestwo(2))  
print (timesthree(3))  
print (square(4))  
print (power(5,3))
```

Save the program as basic_math.py and execute it to get the results.



STEP 3

Now you're going to take the function definitions out of the program and into a separate file. Highlight the function definitions and choose Edit > Cut. Choose File > New File and use Edit > Paste in the new window. You now have two separate files, one with the function definitions, the other with the function calls.



STEP 4

If you now try and execute the basic_math.py code again, the error '**NameError: name 'timestwo' is not defined**' will be displayed. This is due to the code no longer having access to the function definitions.

```
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "/home/pi/Documents/Python Code/basic_math.py", line 3, in <module>  
    print (timestwo(2))  
NameError: name 'timestwo' is not defined  
>>> |
```

STEP 5

Return to the newly created window containing the function definitions, and click File > Save As. Name this **minimath.py** and save it in the same location as the original **basic_math.py** program. Now close the minimath.py window, so the basic_math.py window is left open.

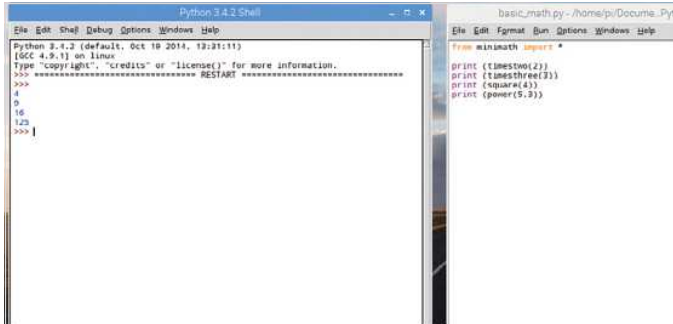


**STEP 6**

Back to the basic_math.py window: at the top of the code enter:

```
from minimath import *
```

This will import the function definitions as a module. Press F5 to save and execute the program to see it in action.

**STEP 7**

You can now use the code further to make the program a little more advanced, utilising the newly created module to its full. Include some user interaction. Start by creating a basic menu the user can choose from:

```
print("Select operation.\n")
print("1.Times by two")
print("2.Times by Three")
print("3.Square")
print("4.Power of")
```

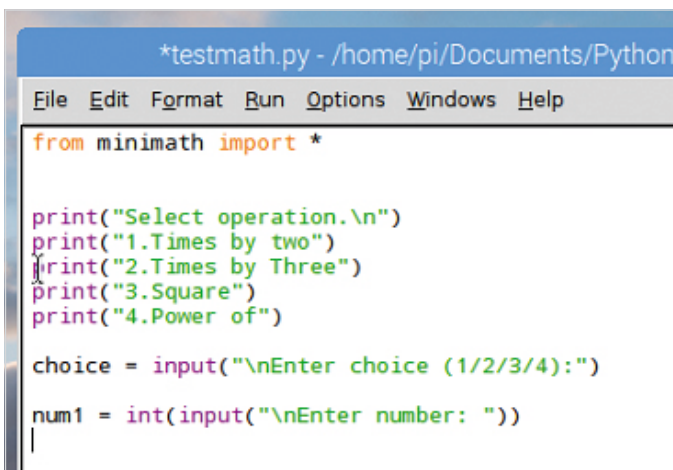
```
choice = input("\nEnter choice (1/2/3/4):")
```

**STEP 8**

Now we can add the user input to get the number the code will work on:

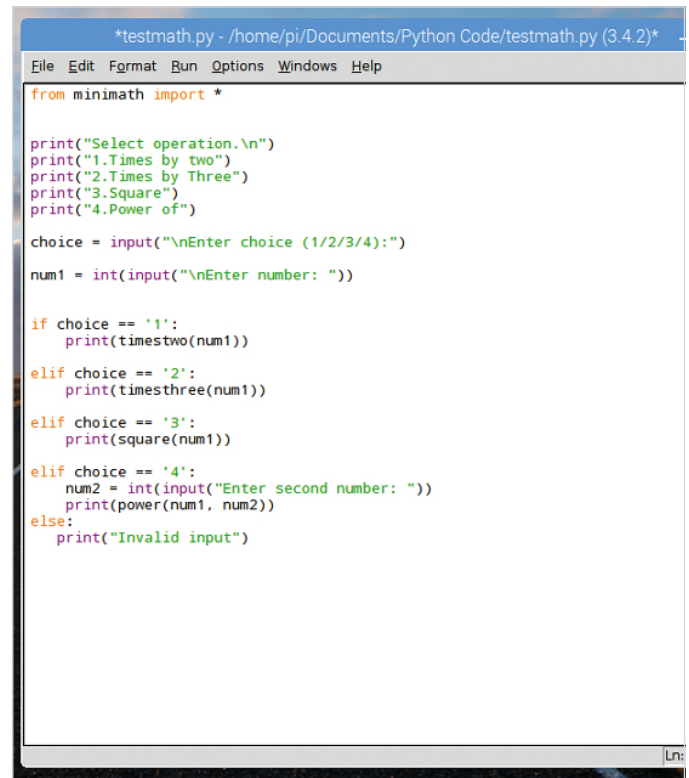
```
num1 = int(input("\nEnter number: "))
```

This will save the user-entered number as the variable num1.

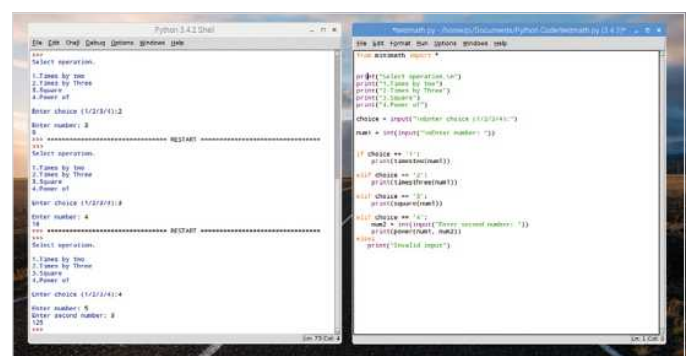
**STEP 9**

Finally, you can now create a range of if statements to determine what to do with the number and utilise the newly created function definitions:

```
if choice == '1':
    print(timestwo(num1))
elif choice == '2':
    print(timesthree(num1))
elif choice == '3':
    print(square(num1))
elif choice == '4':
    num2 = int(input("Enter second number: "))
    print(power(num1, num2))
else:
    print("Invalid input")
```

**STEP 10**

Note that for the last available options, the Power of choice, we've added a second variable, num2. This passes a second number through the function definition called power. Save and execute the program to see it in action.







C++ Input/ Output

There's a satisfying feeling when you program code that asks the user for input, then uses that input to produce something that the user can see. Even if it's simply asking for someone's name, and displaying a personal welcome message, it's a big leap forward.

User interaction, character literals, defining constants and file input and output are all covered in the following pages. All of which help you to understand how a C++ program works better.



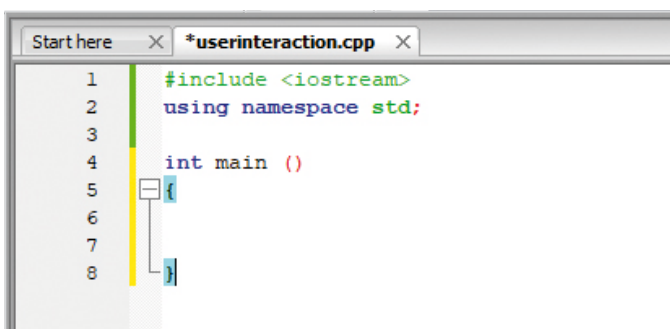
User Interaction

There's nothing quite as satisfying as creating a program that responds to you. This basic user interaction is one of the most taught aspects of any language and with it you're able to do much more than simply greet the user by name.

HELLO, DAVE

You have already used `cout`, the standard output stream, throughout our code. Now you're going to be using `cin`, the standard input stream, to prompt a user response.

STEP 1 Anything that you want the user to input into the program needs to be stored somewhere in the system memory, so it can be retrieved and used. Therefore, any input must first be declared as a variable, so it's ready to be used by the user. Start by creating a blank C++ file with headers.



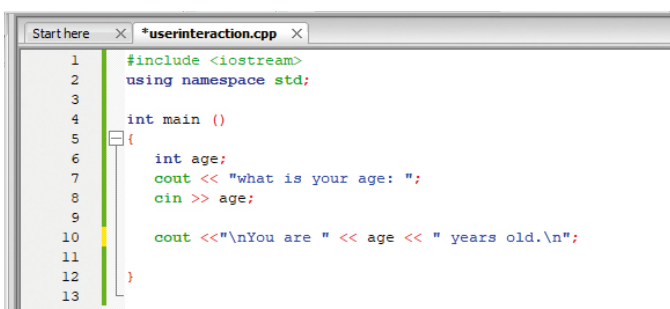
```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main ()
5 {
6
7
8 }
```

STEP 2 The data type of the variable must also match the type of input you want from the user. For example, to ask a user their age, you would use an integer like this:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

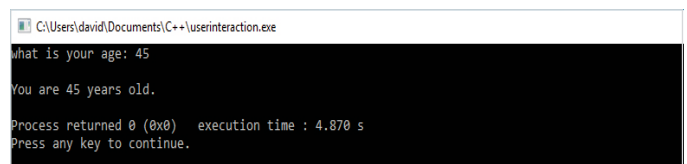
int main ()
{
    int age;
    cout << "what is your age: ";
    cin >> age;

    cout << "\nYou are " << age << " years old.\n";
}
```



```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main ()
5 {
6     int age;
7     cout << "what is your age: ";
8     cin >> age;
9
10    cout << "\nYou are " << age << " years old.\n";
11
12 }
13
```

STEP 3 The `cin` command works in the opposite way from the `cout` command. With the first `cout` line you're outputting 'What is your age' to the screen, as indicated with the chevrons. `Cin` uses opposite facing chevrons, indicating an input. The input is put into the integer `age` and called up in the second `cout` command. Build and run the code.



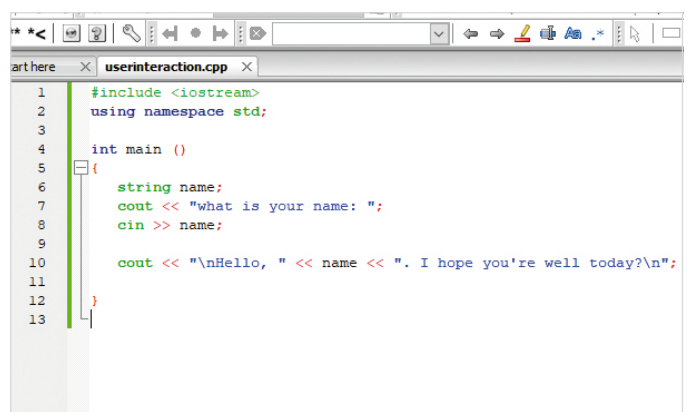
```
C:\Users\david\Documents\C++\userinteraction.exe
what is your age: 45
You are 45 years old.
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 4.870 s
Press any key to continue.
```

STEP 4 If you're asking a question, you need to store the input as a string; to ask the user their name, you would use:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    string name;
    cout << "what is your name: ";
    cin >> name;

    cout << "\nHello, " << name << ". I hope you're well today?\n";
}
```



```
1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main ()
5 {
6     string name;
7     cout << "what is your name: ";
8     cin >> name;
9
10    cout << "\nHello, " << name << ". I hope you're well today?\n";
11
12 }
13
```

**STEP 5**

The principal works the same as the previous code. The user's input, their name, is stored in a string, because it contains multiple characters, and retrieved in the second cout line. As long as the variable 'name' doesn't change, then you can recall it wherever you like in your code

```
C:\Users\david\Documents\C++\userinteraction.exe
What is your name: David
Hello, David. I hope you're well today?
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 2.153 s
Press any key to continue.
```

STEP 6

You can chain input requests to the user but just make sure you have a valid variable to store the input to begin with. Let's assume you want the user to enter two whole numbers:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    int num1, num2;

    cout << "Enter two whole numbers: ";
    cin >> num1 >> num2;

    cout << "you entered " << num1 << " and " <<
    num2 << "\n";
}
```

```
Start here  userinteraction.cpp
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main ()
5  {
6      int num1, num2;
7
8      cout << "Enter two whole numbers: ";
9      cin >> num1 >> num2;
10
11     cout << "you entered " << num1 << " and " << num2 << "\n";
12
13 }
```

STEP 7

Likewise, inputted data can be manipulated once you have it stored in a variable. For instance, ask the user for two numbers and do some maths on them:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    float num1, num2;

    cout << "Enter two numbers: \n";
    cin >> num1 >> num2;

    cout << num1 << " + " << num2 << " is: " <<
    num1 + num2 << "\n";
}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main ()
5  {
6      float num1, num2;
7
8      cout << "Enter two numbers: \n";
9      cin >> num1 >> num2;
10
11     cout << num1 << " + " << num2 << " is: " << num1 + num2 << "\n";
12
13 }
```

STEP 8

While cin works well for most input tasks, it does have a limitation. Cin always considers spaces as a terminator, so it's designed for just single words not multiple words. However, getline takes cin as the first argument and the variable as the second:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    string mystr;
    cout << "Enter a sentence: \n";
    getline(cin, mystr);

    cout << "Your sentence is: " << mystr.size() <<
    " characters long.\n";
}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main ()
5  {
6
7      string mystr;
8      cout << "Enter a sentence: \n";
9      getline(cin, mystr);
10
11     cout << "Your sentence is: " << mystr.size() << " characters long.\n";
12 }
```

STEP 9

Build and execute the code, then enter a sentence with spaces. When you're done the code reads the number of characters. If you remove the getline line and replace it with cin >> mystr and try again, the result displays the number of characters up to the first space.

```
C:\Users\david\Documents\C++\userinteraction.exe
Enter a sentence:
BDM Publications Python and C++ for Beginners
Your sentence is: 45 characters long.
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 27.054 s
Press any key to continue.
```

STEP 10

Getline is usually a command that new C++ programmers forget to include. The terminating white space is annoying when you can't figure out why your code isn't working. In short, it's best to use getline(cin, variable) in future:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    string name;
    cout << "Enter your full name: \n";
    getline(cin, name);

    cout << "\nHello, " << name << "\n";
}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main ()
5  {
6
7      string name;
8      cout << "Enter your full name: \n";
9      getline(cin, name);
10
11     cout << "\nHello, " << name << "\n";
12 }
```



Character Literals

In C++ a literal is an object or variable that once defined remains the same throughout the code. However, a character literal is defined by a backslash, such as the `\n` you've been using at the end of a `cout` statement to signify a new line.

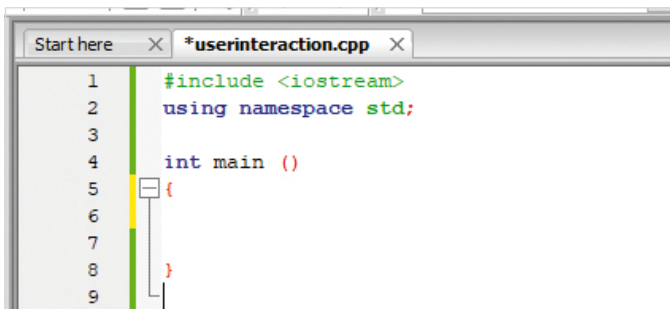
ESCAPE SEQUENCE

When used in something like a `cout` statement, character literals are also called Escape Sequence Codes. They allow you to insert a quote, an alert, new line and much more.

STEP 1 Create a new C++ file and enter the relevant headers:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

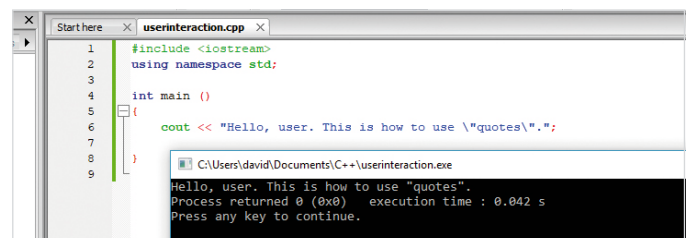
int main ()
{
}
```



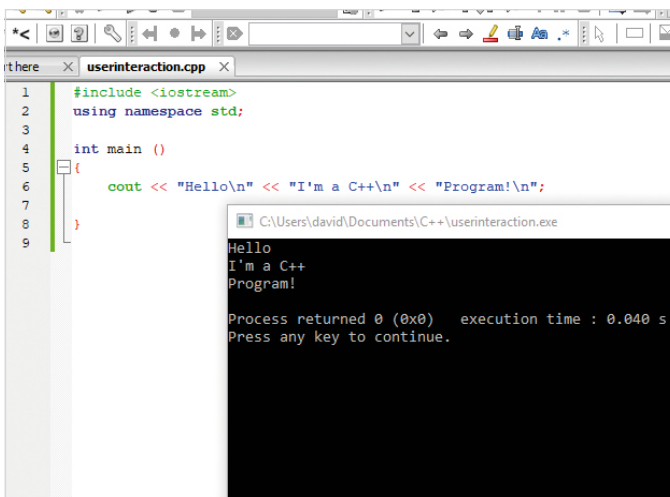
STEP 3 If you wanted to insert speech quotes inside a `cout` statement, you would have to use a backslash as it already uses quotes:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    cout << "Hello, user. This is how to use
    \"quotes\".";
}
```



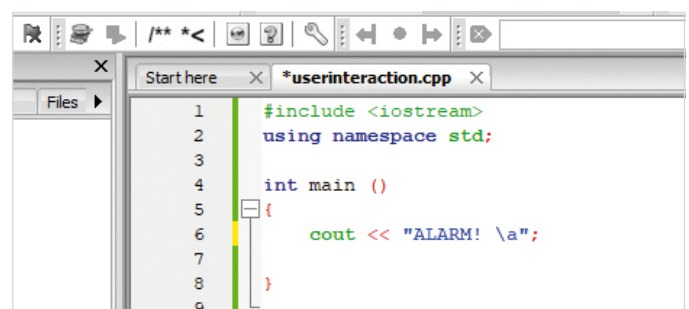
STEP 2 You've already experienced the `\n` character literal placing a new line wherever it's called. The line: `cout << "Hello\n" << "I'm a C++\n" << "Program!\n";` outputs three lines of text, each starting after the last `\n`.



STEP 4 There's even a character literal that can trigger an alarm. In Windows 10, it's the notification sound that chimes when you use `\a`. Try this code, and turn up your sound.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    cout << "ALARM! \a";
}
```





A HANDY CHART

There are numerous character literals, or escape sequence codes, to choose from. We therefore thought it would be good for you to have a handy chart available, for those times when you need to insert a code.

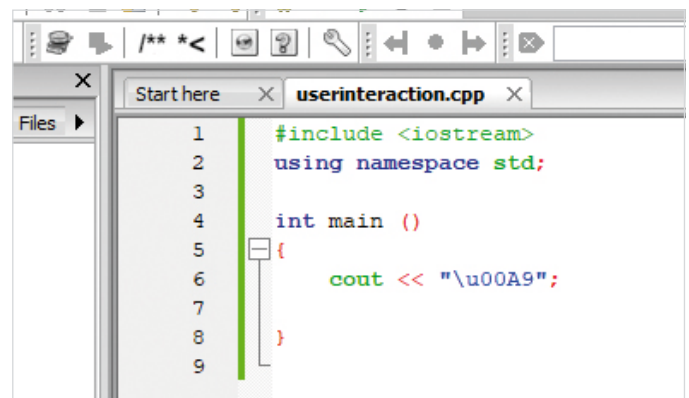
ESCAPE SEQUENCE CODE	CHARACTER
\\	Backslash
\'	Single Quote
\"	Double Quote (Speech Marks)
\?	Question Mark
\a	Alert/Alarm
\b	Backspace
\f	Form Feed
\n	New Line
\r	Carriage Return
\t	Horizontal Tab
\v	Vertical Tab
\0	Null Character
\uxxxx	Unicode (UTF-8)
\Uxxxxxxxx	Unicode (UTF-16)

UNICODE CHARACTERS (UTF-8)

Unicode characters are symbols or characters that are standard across all platforms. For example, the copyright symbol, that can be entered via the keyboard by entering the Unicode code, followed by ALT+X. In the case of the copyright symbol enter: 00A9 Alt+X. In C++ code, you would enter:

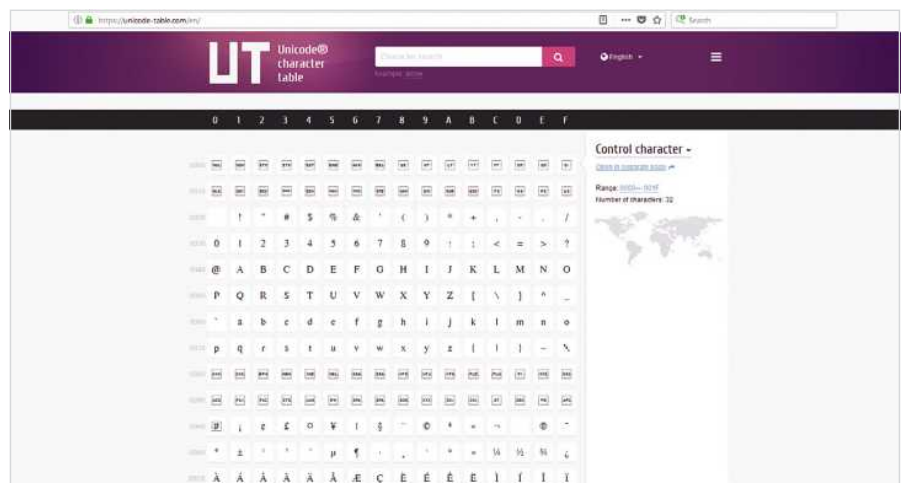
```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    cout << "\u00A9";
}
```



UNICODE CHARACTER TABLE

A complete list of the available Unicode characters can be found at www.unicode-table.com/en/. Hover your mouse over the character to see its unique code to enter in C++.





Defining Constants

Constants are fixed values in your code. They can be any basic data type but as the name suggests their value remains constant throughout the entire code. There are two separate ways to define a constant in C++, the `#define` pre-processor and `const`.

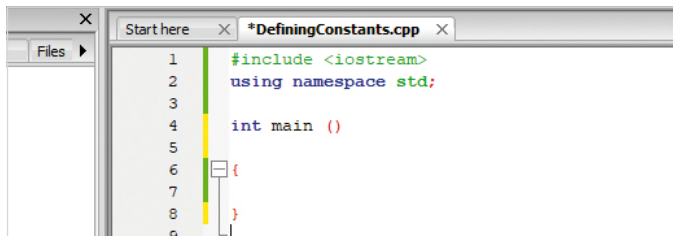
#DEFINE

The pre-processors are instructions to the compiler to pre-process the information before it goes ahead and compiles the code. `#include` is a pre-processor as is `#define`.

STEP 1 You can use the `#define` pre-processor to define any constants you want in our code. Start by creating a new C++ file complete with the usual headers:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

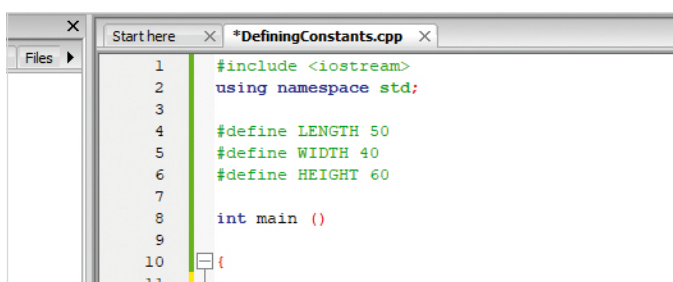
int main ()
{
}
```



STEP 2 Now let's assume your code has three different constants: length, width and height. You can define them with:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
#define LENGTH 50
#define WIDTH 40
#define HEIGHT 60

int main ()
{
}
```

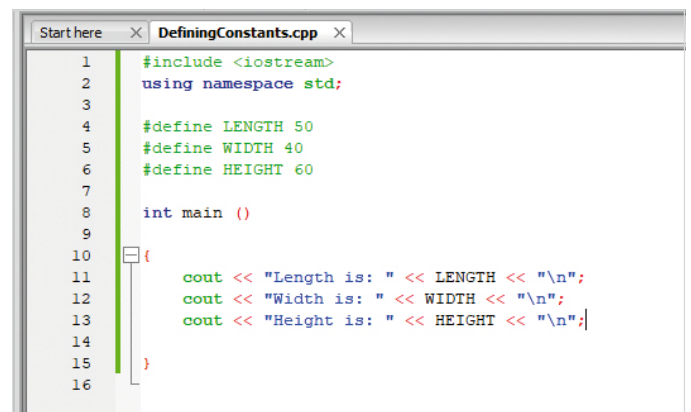


STEP 3 Note the capitals for defined constants, it's considered good programming practise to define all constants in capitals. Here, the assigned values are 50, 40 and 60, so let's call them up:

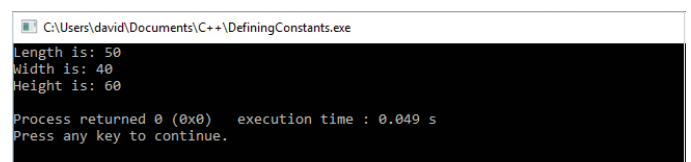
```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

#define LENGTH 50
#define WIDTH 40
#define HEIGHT 60

int main ()
{
    cout << "Length is: " << LENGTH << "\n";
    cout << "Width is: " << WIDTH << "\n";
    cout << "Height is: " << HEIGHT << "\n";
}
```



STEP 4 Build and run the code. Just as expected, it displays the values for each of the constants created. It's worth noting that you don't need a semicolon when you're defining a constant with the `#define` keyword.



**STEP 5**

You can also define other elements as a constant. For example, instead of using `\n` for a newline in the `cout` statement, you can define it at the start of the code:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

#define LENGTH 50
#define WIDTH 40
#define HEIGHT 60
#define NEWLINE '\n'

int main ()
{
    cout << "Length is: " << LENGTH << NEWLINE;
    cout << "Width is: " << WIDTH << NEWLINE;
    cout << "Height is: " << HEIGHT << NEWLINE;
}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  #define LENGTH 50
5  #define WIDTH 40
6  #define HEIGHT 60
7  #define NEWLINE '\n'
8
9  int main ()
10
```

STEP 6

The code, when built and executed, does exactly the same as before, using the new constant `NEWLINE` to insert a newline in the `cout` statement. Incidentally, creating a newline constant isn't a good idea unless you're making it smaller than `\n` or even the `endl` command.

```
16  C:\Users\david\Documents\C++\DefiningConstants.exe
Length is: 50
Width is: 40
Height is: 60
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 0.044 s
Press any key to continue.
```

STEP 7

Defining a constant is a good way of initialising your base values at the start of your code. You can define that your game has three lives, or even the value of `PI` without having to call up the C++ math library:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

#define PI 3.14159

int main ()
{
    cout << "The value of Pi is: " << PI << endl;
}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  #define PI 3.14159
5
6  int main ()
7  {
8      cout << "The value of Pi is: " << PI << endl;
9  }
```

STEP 8

Another method of defining a constant is with the `const` keyword. Use `const` together with a data type, variable and value: `const type variable = value`. Using `PI` as an example:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    const double PI = 3.14159;
    cout << "The value of Pi is: " << PI << endl;
}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main ()
5  {
6      const double PI = 3.14159;
7      cout << "The value of Pi is: " << PI << endl;
8  }
```

STEP 9

Because you're using `const` within the main block of code, you need to finish the line with a semicolon. You can use either, as long as the names and values don't clash, but it's worth mentioning that `#define` requires no memory, so if you're coding to a set amount of memory, `#define` is your best bet.

```
5  {
6      const double PI = 3.14159;
7      cout << "The value of Pi is: " << PI << endl;
8  }
```

```
C:\Users\david\Documents\C++\DefiningConstants.exe
The value of Pi is: 3.14159
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 0.046 s
Press any key to continue.
```

STEP 10

`Const` works in much the same way as `#define`. You can create static integers and even newlines:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    const int LENGTH = 50;
    const int WIDTH = 40;
    const char NEWLINE = '\n';

    int area;
    area = LENGTH * WIDTH;

    cout << "Area is: " << area << NEWLINE;
}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main()
5  {
6      const int LENGTH = 50;
7      const int WIDTH = 40;
8      const char NEWLINE = '\n';
9
10     int area;
11     area = LENGTH * WIDTH;
12
```




File Input/Output

The standard `iostream` library provides C++ coders with the `cin` and `cout` input and output functionality. However, to be able to read and write from a file you need to utilise another C++ library, called `fstream`.

FSTREAMS

There are two main data types within the `fstream` library that are used to open a file, read from it and write to it, `ofstream` and `ifstream`. Here's how they work.

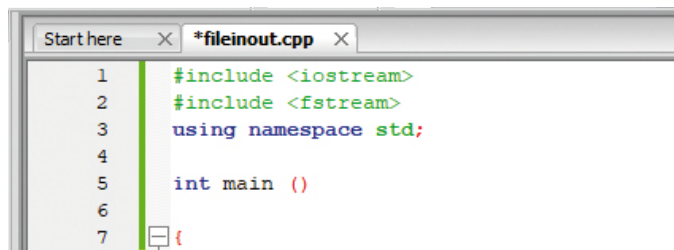
STEP 1 The first task is to create a new C++ file and along with the usual headers you need to include the new `fstream` header:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
using namespace std;
```

```
int main ()
```

```
{
```

```
}
```



STEP 2 Begin by asking a user for their name and writing that information to a file. You need the usual `string` to store the name, and `getline` to accept the input from the user.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    string name;
    ofstream newfile;
    newfile.open("name.txt");

    cout << "Enter your name: " << endl;
    getline(cin, name);

    newfile << name << endl;
    newfile.close();
}
```

STEP 3 We've included comments in the screenshot of step 2 to help you understand the process. You created a `string` called `name`, to store the user's inputted name. You also created a text file called `name.txt` (with the `ofstream newfile` and `newfile.open` lines), asked the user for their name and stored it and then written the data to the file.

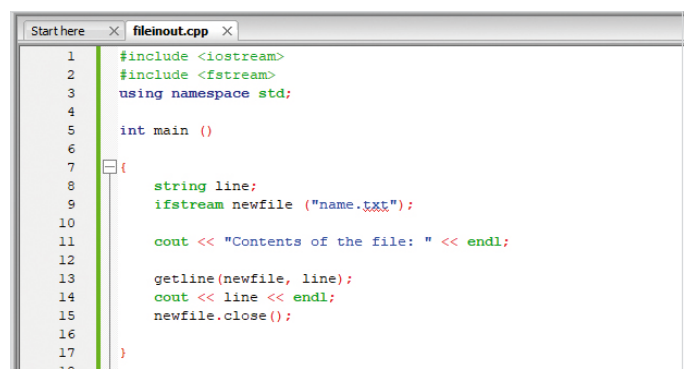


STEP 4 To read the contents of a file, and output it to the screen, you need to do things slightly differently. First you need to create a `string` variable to store the file's contents (line by line), then open the file, use `getline` to read the file line by line and output those lines to the screen. Finally, close the file.

```
string line;
ifstream newfile ("name.txt");

cout << "Contents of the file: " << endl;

getline(newfile, line);
cout << line << endl;
newfile.close();
```



**STEP 5**

The code above is great for opening a file with one or two lines but what if there are multiple lines? Here we opened a text file of the poem Cimmeria, by Robert E Howard:

```
string line;
ifstream newfile ("c:\\users\\david\\
Documents\\Cimmeria.txt");

cout << "Cimmeria, by Robert E Howard: \n" <<
endl;

while (getline(newfile, line))
cout << line << endl;

newfile.close();
```

STEP 6

You can no doubt see that we've included a while loop, which we cover in a few pages time. It means that while there are lines to be read from the text file, C++ getlines them. Once all the lines are read, the output is displayed on the screen and the file is closed.

STEP 7

You can also see that the location of the text file Cimmeria.txt isn't in the same folder as the C++ program. When we created the first name.txt file, it was written to the same folder where the code was located; this is done by default. To specify another folder, you need to use double-back slashes, as per the character literals/escape sequence code.

```
6
7
8 string line;
9 ifstream newfile ("c:\\users\\david\\Documents\\Cimmeria.txt");
10
11 cout << "Cimmeria, by Robert E Howard: \n" << endl;
12
```

STEP 8

Just as you might expect, you can write almost anything you like to a file, for reading either in Notepad or via the console through the C++ code:

```
string name;
int age;

ofstream newfile;
newfile.open("name.txt");

cout << "Enter your name: " << endl;
getline(cin, name);

newfile << name << endl;

cout << "\nHow old are you: " << endl;
cin >> age;

newfile << age << endl;

newfile.close();
```

STEP 9

The code from step 8 differs again, but only where it comes to adding the age integer. Notice that we used cin >> age, instead of the previous getline(cin, variable). The reason for this is that the getline function handles strings, not integers; so when you're using a data type other than a string, use the standard cin.

STEP 10

Here's an exercise: see if you can create code to write several different elements to a text file. You can have a user's name, age, phone number etc. Maybe even the value of Pi and various mathematical elements. It's all good practice.





Loops and Decision Making

Loops and repetition are one of the most important factors of any programming language. Good use of a loop creates a program that does exactly what you want it to and delivers the desired outcome without issues or errors.

Without loops and decision making events within the code, your program will never be able to offer the user any choice. It's this understanding of choice that elevates your skills as a programmer and makes for much better code.



While Loop

A while loop's function is to repeat a statement, or a group of statements, while a certain condition remains true. When the while loop starts, it initialises itself by testing the condition of the loop and the statements within, before executing the rest of the loop.

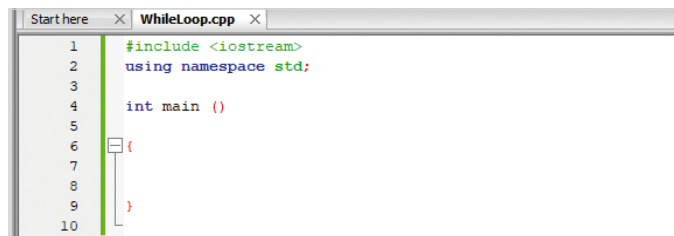
TRUE OR FALSE?

While loops are one of the most popular form of C++ code looping. They repeatedly run the code contained within the loop while the condition is true. Once it proves false, the code continues as normal.

STEP 1 Clear what you've done so far and create a new C++ file. There's no need for any extra headers at the moment, so add the standard headers as per usual:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
}
```

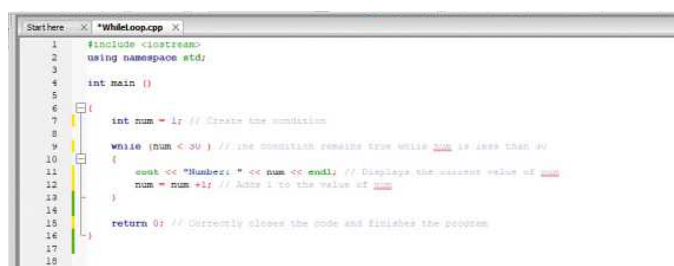


STEP 2 Create a simple while loop. Enter the code below, build and run (we've added comments to the screen shot):

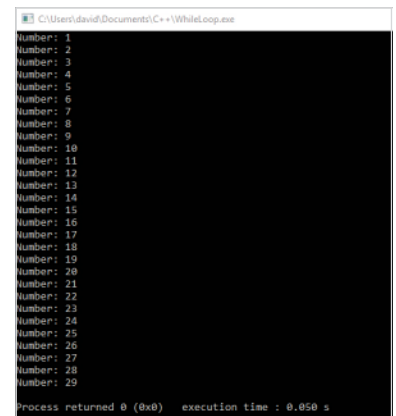
```
{
    int num = 1;

    while (num < 30 )
    {
        cout << "Number: " << num << endl;
        num = num +1;
    }

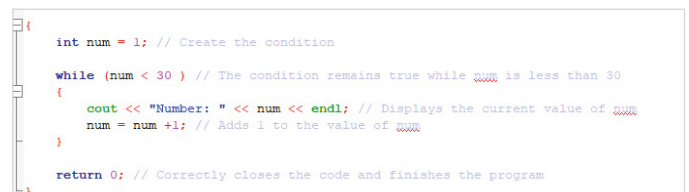
    return 0;
}
```



STEP 3 First you need to create a condition, so use a variable called num and give it the value 1. Now create the while loop, stating that as long as num is less than 30, the loop is true. Within the loop the value of num is displayed and adds 1 until it's more than 30.



STEP 4 We're introducing a few new elements here. The first are the opening and closing braces for the while loop. This is because our loop is a compound statement, meaning a group of statements; note also, there's no semicolon after the while statement. You now also have return 0, which is a clean and preferred way of ending the code.



STEP 5 If you didn't need to see the continually increasing value of num, you could have done away with the compound while statement and instead just added num by itself until it reached 30, and then displayed the value:

```
{
    int num = 1;

    while (num < 30 )
        num++;

    cout << "Number: " << num << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

**STEP 6**

It's important to remember not to add a semicolon at the end of a while statement. Why? Well, as you know, the semicolon represents the end of a C++ line of code. If you place one at the end of a while statement, your loop will be permanently stuck until you close the program.

```

1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main ()
5 {
6     int num = 1;
7
8     while (num < 30); // <--- DON'T ADD A SEMICOLON HERE!!!
9     {
10         cout << "Number: " << num << endl;
11         num = num + 1;
12     }
13
14     return 0;
15 }
16
17
18

```

STEP 7

In our example, if we were to execute the code the value of num would be 1, as set by the int statement. When the code hits the while statement it reads that while the condition of 1 being less than 30 is true, loop. The semicolon closes the line, so the loop repeats; but it never adds 1 to num, as it won't continue through the compound statement.

```

1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main ()
5 {
6     int num = 1;
7
8     while (num < 30); // <--- DON'T ADD A SEMICOLON HERE!!!
9     {
10         cout << "Number: " << num << endl;
11         num = num + 1;
12     }
13
14     return 0;
15 }
16
17
18

```

STEP 8

You can manipulate the while statement to display different results depending on what code lies within the loop. For example, to read the poem, Cimmeria, word by word, you would enter:

```

#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    string word;
    ifstream newfile ("C:\\users\\david\\
Documents\\Cimmeria.txt");

    cout << "Cimmeria, by Robert E Howard: \n" <<
endl;

    while (newfile >> word)
    {
        cout << word << endl;
    }

    return 0;
}

```

STEP 9

You can further expand the code to enable each word of the poem to appear every second. To do so, you need to pull in a new library, <windows.h>. This is a Windows only library and within it you can use the Sleep() function:

```

#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
#include <windows.h>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    string word;
    ifstream newfile ("C:\\users\\david\\
Documents\\Cimmeria.txt");

    cout << "Cimmeria, by Robert E Howard: \n" <<
endl;

    while (newfile >> word)
    {
        cout << word << endl;
        Sleep(1000);
    }

    return 0;
}

```

```

1 #include <iostream>
2 #include <fstream>
3 #include <windows.h>
4 using namespace std;
5
6 int main ()
7 {
8     string word;
9     ifstream newfile ("C:\\users\\david\\Documents\\Cimmeria.txt");
10
11     cout << "Cimmeria, by Robert E Howard: \n" << endl;
12
13     while (newfile >> word)
14     {
15         cout << word << endl;
16         Sleep(1000);
17     }
18
19     return 0;
20 }
21
22

```

STEP 10

Sleep() works in milliseconds, so Sleep(1000) is one second, Sleep(10000) is ten seconds and so on. Combining the sleep function (along with the header it needs) and a while loop enables you to come up with some interesting countdown code.

```

#include <iostream>
#include <windows.h>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    int a = 10;

    while (a != 0)
    {
        cout << a << endl;
        a = a - 1;
        Sleep(1000);
    }

    cout << "\nBlast Off!" << endl;

    return 0;
}

```




For Loop

In some respects, a for loop works in a very similar way to that of a while loop, although its structure is different. A for loop is split into three stages: an initialiser, a condition and an incremental step. Once set up, the loop repeats itself until the condition becomes false.

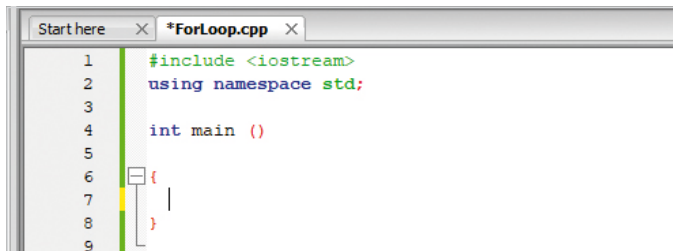
LOOPY LOOPS

The initialise stage of a for loop is executed only once and this sets the point reference for the loop. The condition is evaluated by the loop to see if it's true or false and then the increment is executed. The loop then repeats the second and third stage.

STEP 1 Create a new C++ file, with the standard headers:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

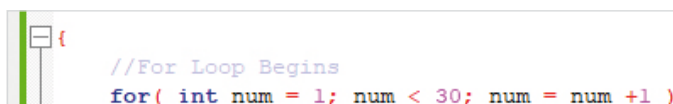
int main ()
{
}
```



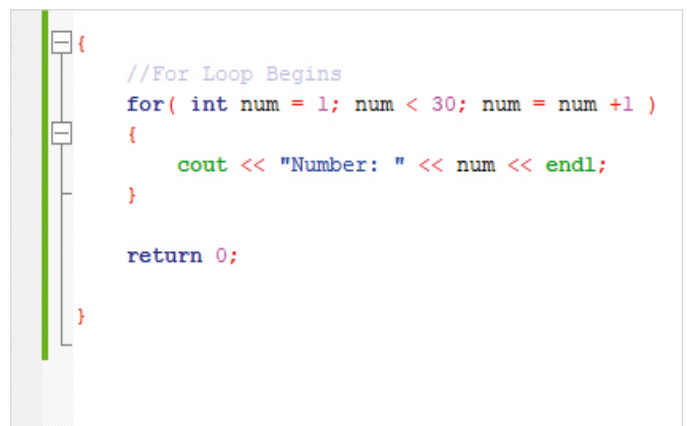
STEP 2 Start simple and create a for loop that counts from 1 to 30, displaying the value to the screen with each increment:

```
{
    //For Loop Begins
    for( int num = 1; num < 30; num = num +1 )
    {
        cout << "Number: " << num << endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

STEP 3 Working through the process of the for loop, begin by creating an integer called num and assigning it a value of 1. Next, set the condition, in this case num being less than 30. The last stage is where you create the increments; here it's the value of num being added by 1.



STEP 4 After the loop, you created a compound statement in braces (curly brackets), that displays the current value of the integer num. Every time the for loop repeats itself, the second and third stages of the loop, it adds 1 until the condition <30 is false. The loop then ends and the code continues, ending neatly with return 0.



STEP 5 A for loop is quite a neat package in C++, all contained within its own brackets, while the other elements outside of the loop are displayed below. If you want to create a 10-second countdown, you could use:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <windows.h>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    //For Loop Begins
    for( int a = 10; a != 0; a = a -1 )
    {
        cout << a << endl;
        Sleep(1000);
    }

    cout << "\nBlast Off!" << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

**STEP 6**

With the countdown code, don't forget to include the windows.h library, so you can use the Sleep command. Build and run the code; in the command console you can see the numbers 10 to 1 countdown in one second increments, until it reaches zero and Blast Off! appears.

```
C:\Users\david\Documents\C++\ForLoop.exe
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
Blast Off!
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 10.049 s
Press any key to continue.
```

STEP 7

Naturally you can include a lot more content into a for loop, including some user input:

```
int i, n, fact = 1;
cout << "Enter a whole number: ";
cin >> n;
for (i = 1; i <= n; ++i) {
    fact *= i;
}
cout << "\nFactorial of " << n << " = " << fact << endl;
return 0;
```

```
Start here  x  ForLoop.cpp  x
1  #include <iostream>
2  #include <windows.h>
3  using namespace std;
4
5  int main ()
6  {
7      int i, n, fact = 1;
8
9      cout << "Enter a whole number: ";
10     cin >> n;
11
12     for (i = 1; i <= n; ++i) {
13         fact *= i;
14     }
15
16     cout << "\nFactorial of " << n << " = " << fact << endl;
17
18     return 0;
19 }
20
21
22
```

STEP 8

The code from step 7, when built and run, asks for a number, then displays the factorial of that number through the for loop. The user's number is stored in the integer n, followed by the integer i which is used to check if the condition is true or false, adding 1 each time and comparing it to the user's number, n.

```
C:\Users\david\Documents\C++\ForLoop.exe
Enter a whole number: 8
Factorial of 8 = 40320
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 2.898 s
Press any key to continue.
```

STEP 9

Here's an example of a For loop displaying the multiplication tables of a user inputted number. Handy for students:

```
{
    int n;

    cout << "Enter a number to view its times
table: ";
    cin >> n;

    for (int i = 1; i <= 12; ++i) {
        cout << n << " x " << i << " = " << n * i
<< endl;
    }

    return 0;
}
```

```
Start here  x  *ForLoop.cpp  x
1  #include <iostream>
2  #include <windows.h>
3  using namespace std;
4
5  int main ()
6  {
7      int n;
8
9      cout << "Enter a number to view its times table: ";
10     cin >> n;
11
12     for (int i = 1; i <= 12; ++i) {
13         cout << n << " x " << i << " = " << n * i << endl;
14     }
15
16     return 0;
17 }
18
19
20
```

STEP 10

The value of the integer i can be expanded from 12 to whatever number you want, displaying a very large multiplication table in the process (or a small one). Of course the data type within a for loop doesn't have to be an integer; as long as it's valid, it works.

```
for ( float i = 0.00; i < 1.00; i += 0.01)
{
    cout << i << endl;
}

return 0;
```

```
Start here  x  ForLoop.cpp  x
1  #include <iostream>
2  #include <windows.h>
3  using namespace std;
4
5  int main ()
6  {
7      for ( float i = 0.00; i < 1.00; i += 0.01)
8      {
9          cout << i << endl;
10     }
11
12     return 0;
13 }
14
15
16
```



Do... While Loop

A do... while loop differs slightly from that of a for or even a while loop. Both for and while set and examine the state of the condition at the start of the loop, or the top of the loop if you prefer. However, a do... while loop, is similar to a while loop but instead checks the condition at the bottom of the loop.

DO LOOPS

The good thing about a do... while loop is that it's guaranteed to run through at least once. It's structure is: **do**, followed by statements, **while** condition is true. This is how it works.

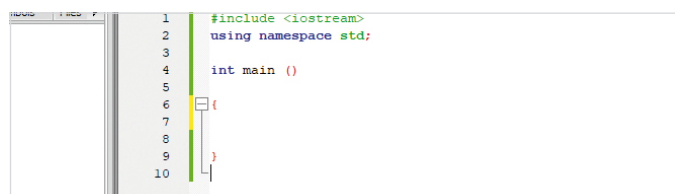
STEP 1 Begin with a new, blank C++ file and enter the standard headers:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
```

```
int main ()
```

```
{
```

```
}
```

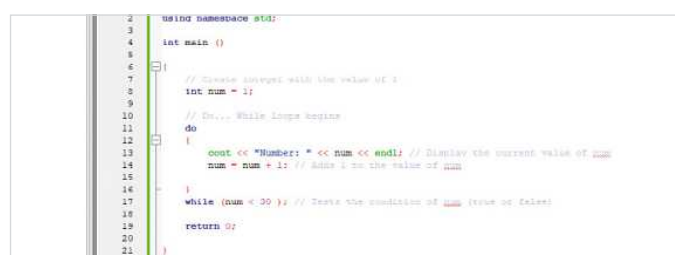


STEP 2 Begin with a simple number count:

```
{
    int num = 1;

    do
    {
        cout << "Number: " << num << endl;
        num = num + 1;
    }
    while (num < 30 );

    return 0;
}
```

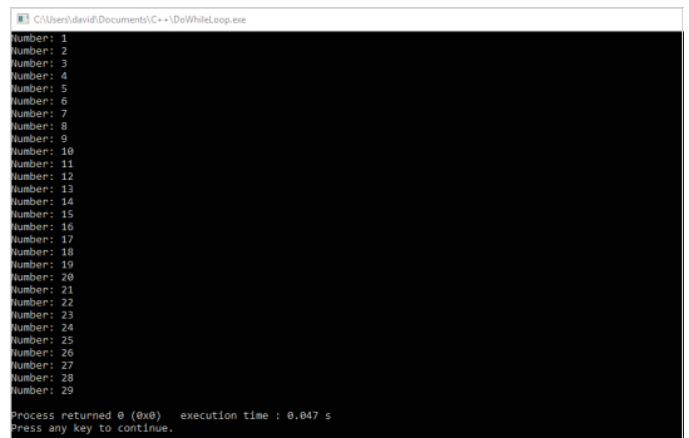


STEP 3 Now, here's a look at the structure of a do... while loop. First you create an integer called num, with the value of 1. Now the do... while loops begins. The code inside the body of the loop is executed at least once, then the condition is checked for either true or false.

```
// Create integer with the value of 1
int num = 1;

// Do... While loops begins
do
{
    cout << "Number: " << num << endl; // Display the current value of num
    num = num + 1; // Adds 1 to the value of num
}
while (num < 30 ); // Tests the condition of num (true or false)
```

STEP 4 If the condition is true, the loop is executed. This continues until the condition is false. When the condition has been expressed as false, the loop terminates and the code continues. This means you can create a loop where the code continues until the user enters a certain character.



**STEP 5**

If you want code to add up user inputted numbers until the user enters zero:

```
{
    float number, sum = 0.0;
    cout << "**** Program to execute a Do...
While loop continuously ****" << endl;
    cout << "\nEnter 0 to stop and display the
sum of all the numbers entered\n" << endl;
    cout << "\n-----\n" << endl;
    do {
        cout<<"\nPlease enter a number: ";
        cin>>number;
        sum += number;
    }
    while(number != 0.0);

    cout<<"Total sum of all numbers: "<<sum;

    return 0;
}
```

STEP 6

The code from Step 5 works as follows: two floating point variables are assigned, number and sum, both with the value of 0.0. There is a brief set of instructions for the user, then the do... while loop begins.

```
{
    float number, sum = 0.0;
    cout << "**** Program to execute a Do... While loop continuously ****" << endl;
    cout << "\nEnter 0 to stop and display the sum of all the numbers entered\n" << endl;
    cout << "\n-----\n" << endl;
```

STEP 7

The do... while loop in this instance asks the user to input a number, which you assigned to the float variable, number. The calculation step uses the second floating point variable, sum, which adds the value of number every time the user enters a new value.

```
do {
    cout << "\nPlease enter a number: ";
    cin >> number;
    sum += number;
```

STEP 8

Finally, the while statement checks the condition of the variable number. If the user has entered zero, then the loop is terminated, if not then it continues indefinitely. When the user finally enters zero, the value of sum, the total value of all the user's input, is displayed. The loop, and the program, then ends.

STEP 9

Using the countdown and Blast Off! code used previously, a do... while loop would look like:

```
{
    int a = 10;

    do
    {
        cout << a << endl;
        a = a - 1;
    }
    while ( a != 0);

    cout << "\nBlast Off!" << endl;

    return 0;
}
```

STEP 10

The main advantage of using a do... while loop is because it's an exit-condition loop; whereas a while loop is an entry-control loop. Therefore, if your code requires a loop that needs to be executed at least once (for example, to check the number of lives in a game), then a do... while loop is perfect.



If Statement

The decision making statement 'if' is probably one of the most used statements in any programming language, regardless of whether it's C++, Python, BASIC or anything else. It represents a junction in the code, where IF one condition is true, do this; or IF it's false, do that.

IF ONLY

If uses a Boolean expression within its statement. If the Boolean expression is true, the code within the statement is executed. If not, then the code after the statement is executed instead.

STEP 1 First, create a new C++ file and enter the relevant standard headers, as usual:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{

}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main ()
5  {
6
7
8
9  }
```

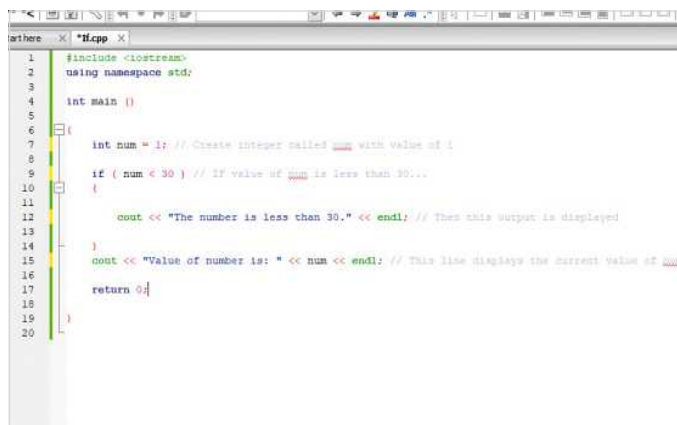
STEP 2 If is best explained when you use a number-based condition:

```
{
    int num = 1;
    if ( num < 30 )
    {
        cout << "The number is less than 30." <<
endl;
    }
    cout << "Value of number is: " << num << endl;
    return 0;
}
```

STEP 3 What's going on here? To begin, an integer called num was created and assigned with the value of 1. The if statement comes next, and in this case we've instructed the code that if the condition, the value, of num is less than 1, then the code within the braces should be executed.

```
int num = 1; // Create integer called num with value of 1
if ( num < 30 ) // IF value of num is less than 30...
{
    cout << "The number is less than 30." << endl; // Then this output is displayed
}
```

STEP 4 The second cout statement displays the current value of num and the program terminates safely. It's easy to see how the if statement works if you were to change the initial value of num from 1 to 31.



```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    int num = 1; // Create integer called num with value of 1
    if ( num < 30 ) // IF value of num is less than 30...
    {
        cout << "The number is less than 30." << endl; // Then this output is displayed
    }
    cout << "Value of number is: " << num << endl; // This line displays the current value of num
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
    int num = 31; // Change the value of num
    if ( num < 30 ) // IF value of num is less than 30...
    {
        // Code to be executed if condition is true
    }
}
```

**STEP 5**

When you change the value to anything above 30, then build and run the code, you can see that the only line to be outputted to the screen is the second cout statement, displaying the current value of num. This is because the initial if statement is false, so it ignores the code within the braces.

```

C:\Users\david\Documents\C++\if.exe
Value of number is: 31
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 0.046 s
Press any key to continue.

```

STEP 6

You can include an if statement within a do... while loop. For example:

```

{
    float temp;

    do
    {
        cout << "\nEnter the temperature (or
-10000 to exit): " << endl;
        cin >> temp;
        if (temp <= 0 )
        {
            cout << "\nBrrrr, it's really cold!"
<< endl;
        }
        if (temp > 0 )
        {
            cout << "\nAt least it's not
freezing!" << endl;
        }
    }
    while ( temp != -10000 );

    cout << "\nGood bye\n" << endl;

    return 0;
}

```

```

1 #include <iostream>
2 using namespace std;
3
4 int main ()
5 {
6     float temp;
7
8     do
9     {
10
11         cout << "\nEnter the temperature (or -10000 to exit): " << endl;
12         cin >> temp;
13         if (temp <= 0 )
14         {
15             cout << "\nBrrrr, it's really cold!" << endl;
16         }
17         if (temp > 0 )
18         {
19             cout << "\nAt least it's not freezing!" << endl;
20         }
21     }
22     while ( temp != -10000 );
23
24     cout << "\nGood bye\n" << endl;
25
26     return 0;
27 }
28
29

```

STEP 7

The code in Step 6 is simplistic but effective. First we created a floating point integer called temp, then a do... while loop that asks the user to enter the current temperature.

```

5 {
6
7     float temp;
8
9     do
10    {
11        cout << "\nEnter the temperature (or -10000 to exit): " << endl;
12        cin >> temp;
13    }
14    while ( temp != -10000 );
15
16    cout << "\nGood bye\n" << endl;
17
18    return 0;
19 }

```

STEP 8

The first if statement checks to see if the user's inputted value is less than or equal to zero. If it is, then the output is 'Brrrr, it's really cold!'. Otherwise, if the input is greater than zero, the code outputs 'At least it's not freezing!'.

```

do
{
    cout << "\nEnter the temperature (or -10000 to exit): " << endl;
    cin >> temp;
    if (temp <= 0 )
    {
        cout << "\nBrrrr, it's really cold!" << endl;
    }
    if (temp > 0 )
    {
        cout << "\nAt least it's not freezing!" << endl;
    }
}
while ( temp != -10000 );

```

STEP 9

Finally, if the user enters the value -10000, which is impossibly cold so is therefore an unrealistic value, the do... while loop is terminated and a friendly 'Good bye' is displayed to the screen.

```

{
    float temp;

    do
    {
        cout << "\nEnter the temperature (or -10000 to exit): " << endl;
        cin >> temp;
        if (temp <= 0 )
        {
            cout << "\nBrrrr, it's really cold!" << endl;
        }
        if (temp > 0 )
        {
            cout << "\nAt least it's not freezing!" << endl;
        }
    }
    while ( temp != -10000 );

    cout << "\nGood bye\n" << endl;

    return 0;
}

```

STEP 10

Using if is quite powerful, if it's used correctly. Just remember that if the condition is true then the code executes what's in the braces. If not, it continues on its merry way. See what else you can come up with using if and a combination of loops.

```

Enter the temperature (or -10000 to exit):
34
At least it's not freezing!
Enter the temperature (or -10000 to exit):
2
At least it's not freezing!
Enter the temperature (or -10000 to exit):
-10000
Brrrr, it's really cold!
Enter the temperature (or -10000 to exit):
0
Brrrr, it's really cold!
Enter the temperature (or -10000 to exit):
-10000
Brrrr, it's really cold!
Good bye
Process returned 0 (0x0)   execution time : 17.323 s
Press any key to continue.

```




If... Else Statement

There is a much better way to use an if statement in your code, with if... else. If... else works in much the same way as a standard if statement. If the Boolean expression is true, the code within the braces is executed. Else, the code within the next set of braces is used instead.

IF YES, ELSE NO

There are two sections of code that can be executed depending on the outcome in an if... else statement. It's quite easy to visualise once you get used to its structure.

STEP 1 Begin with a new C++ file and the standard headers:

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main ()
{
}
```

```
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main ()
5  {
6
7
8  }
9
```

STEP 2 Let's expand the code from the If Statement on the previous page:

```
{
    int num = 1;
    if ( num < 30 )
    {
        cout << "The number is less than 30!" <<
endl;
    }
    else
    {
        cout << "The number is greater than 30!"
<< endl;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

```
Starthere x *IfElse.cpp x
1  #include <iostream>
2  using namespace std;
3
4  int main ()
5  {
6      int num = 1;
7
8      if ( num < 30 )
9      {
10         cout << "The number is less than 30!" << endl;
11     }
12     else
13     {
14         cout << "The number is greater than 30!" << endl;
15     }
16
17     return 0;
18 }
19
20
21
```

STEP 3 The first line in the code creates the integer called num and gives it a value of 1. The if statement checks to see if the value of num is less than thirty and if it is it outputs "The number is less than 30!" to the console.

```
if ( num < 30 )
{
    cout << "The number is less than 30!" << endl;
}
```

STEP 4 The else companion to if checks if the number is greater than 30 and if so, then displays "The number is greater than 30!" to the console; and finally, the code is terminated satisfactorily.

```
    cout << "The number is less than 30!" << endl;
}
else
{
    cout << "The number is greater than 30!" << endl;
}
```

STEP 5 You can change the value of num in the code or you can improve the code by asking the user to enter a value:

```
{
    int num;
    cout << "Enter a number: ";
    cin >> num;

    if ( num < 30 )
    {
        cout << "The number is less than 30!" <<
endl;
    }
    else
    {
        cout << "The number is greater than 30!"
<< endl;
    }

    return 0;
}
```

**STEP 6**

The code works the same way, as you would expect, but what if you wanted to display something if the user entered the number 30? Try this:

```
{
    int num;

    cout << "Enter a number: ";
    cin >> num;

    if ( num < 30 )
    {
        cout << "The number is less than 30!" <<
endl;
    }
    else if ( num > 30 )
    {
        cout << "The number is greater than 30!"
<< endl;
    }
    else if ( num == 30 )
    {
        cout << "The number is exactly 30!" <<
endl;
    }

    return 0;
}
```

STEP 7

The new addition to the code is what's known as a nested if... else statement. This allows you to check for multiple conditions. In this case, if the user enters a number less than 30, greater than 30 or actually 30 itself, a different outcome is presented to them.

STEP 8

You can take this up a notch and create a two-player number guessing game. Begin by creating the variables:

```
int num, guess, tries = 0;

    cout << "***** Two-player number guessing game
****" << endl;
    cout << "\nPlayer One, enter a number for
Player Two to guess: " << endl;
    cin >> num;
    cout << string(50, '\n');
```

STEP 9

The `cout << string(50, '\n')` line clears the screen so Player Two doesn't see the entered number. Now you can create a do... while loop, together with if... else:

```
do
{
    cout << "\nPlayer Two, enter your guess: ";
    cin >> guess;
    tries++;
    if (guess > num)
    {
        cout << "\nToo High!\n" << endl;
    }
    else if (guess < num)
    {
        cout << "\nToo Low!\n" << endl;
    }
    else if (guess == num)
    {
        cout << "Well done! You got it in " <<
tries << " guesses!" << endl;
    }
} while (guess != num);

return 0;
```

STEP 10

Grab a second player, then build and run the code. Player One enters the number to be guessed, then Player Two can take as many guesses as they need to get the right number. Want to make it harder? Maybe use decimal numbers.





Working with Code

By now you should have the essential building blocks of how to program in both Python and C++. You can create code, store data, ask the user questions, offer them a choice and repeat functions until they prove true and provide the correct output. What next then?

This final section looks at some of the more common coding mistakes that Python and C++ beginners make and where you can turn to next to continue your programming adventure.



When you start something new you're inevitably going to make mistakes, this is purely down to inexperience and those mistakes are great teachers in themselves. However, even experts make the occasional mishap. Thing is, to learn from them as best you can.

There are many pitfalls for the programmer to be aware of, far too many to be listed here. Being able to recognise a mistake and fix it is when you start to move into more advanced territory.



EASY VARIABLES

```
1 var points = 1023;
2 var lives = 3;
3 var totalTime = 45;
4 write("Points: "+points);
5 write("Lives: "+lives);
6 write("Total Time: "+totalTime+" secs");
7 write("-----");
8 var totalScore = 0;
9 write("Your total Score is: "+totalScore);
```



```

52     orig += 2;
53     target += 2;
54     --n;
55 }
56 #endif
57 if (n == 0)
58     return;
59
60 //
61 // Loop unrolling. Here be dragons.
62 //
63
64 // (n & (~3)) is the greatest multiple of 4 n
65 // In the while loop ahead, orig will move ov
66 // increments (4 elements of 2 bytes).
67 // end marks our barrier for not falling outs
68 char const * const end = orig + 2 * (n & (~3))
69
70 // See if we're aligned for writting in
71 #if ACE_SIZEOF_LONG == 8 && \
72     !defined( amd64 ) || defined( x

```

PLAN AHEAD

```

graph TD
    START([START]) --> OpeningCutscene[Opening Cutscene]
    OpeningCutscene --> MainMenu([Main Menu])
    MainMenu --> QUIT([QUIT])
    MainMenu --> GameSetup[Game Setup]
    GameSetup --> LoadingScreen[Loading Screen]
    LoadingScreen --> Environment[Environment]
    Environment --> Editor[Editor]
    Editor --> LoadingScreen
    Editor --> MainMenu
    Editor --> Options[Options]
    Editor --> Extras[Extras]
    Editor --> Tools[Tools]
    Environment --> LoadGame[Load Game]
    LoadGame --> MainMenu
    Options --> MainMenu
    Extras --> MainMenu
    Tools --> MainMenu
  
```

The flowchart illustrates the game development process. It begins with a 'START' terminal, leading to an 'Opening Cutscene' process. This leads to the 'Main Menu', which is a central hub. From the 'Main Menu', users can 'QUIT', go to 'Game Setup', or access 'Tools', 'Extras', and 'Options'. 'Game Setup' leads to the 'Loading Screen', which then leads to the 'Environment' process. The 'Environment' process leads to the 'Editor'. The 'Editor' is a complex hub that can lead back to the 'Loading Screen', the 'Main Menu', or access 'Options', 'Extras', 'Tools', and 'Load Game'. 'Load Game' leads back to the 'Main Menu'. 'Options', 'Extras', and 'Tools' also lead back to the 'Main Menu'.



Beginner Python Mistakes

Python is a relatively easy language to get started in where there's plenty of room for the beginner to find their programming feet. However, as with any other programming language, it can be easy to make common mistakes that'll stop your code from running.

DEF BEGINNER(MISTAKES=10)

Here are ten common Python programming mistakes most beginners find themselves making. Being able to identify these mistakes will save you headaches in the future.

VERSIONS

To add to the confusion that most beginners already face when coming into programming, Python has two live versions of its language available to download and use. There is Python version 2.7.x and Python 3.6.x. The 3.6.x version is the most recent, and the one we'd recommend starting. But, version 2.7.x code doesn't always work with 3.6.x code and vice versa.



INDENTS, TABS AND SPACES

Python uses precise indentations when displaying its code. The indents mean that the code in that section is a part of the previous statement, and not something linked with another part of the code. Use four spaces to create an indent, not the Tab key.

```
MOVESPEED = 11
MOVE = 1
SHOOT = 15

# set up counting
score = 0

# set up font
font = pygame.font.SysFont('calibri', 50)

def makeplayer():
    player = pygame.Rect(370, 635, 60, 25)
    return player

def makeinvaders(invaders):
    y = 0
    for i in invaders:
        x = 0
        for j in range(11):
            invader = pygame.Rect(75+x, 75+y, 50, 20)
            i.append(invader)
            x += 60
            y += 45
        return invaders

def makewalls(walls):
    wall1 = pygame.Rect(60, 520, 120, 30)
    wall2 = pygame.Rect(246, 520, 120, 30)
    wall3 = pygame.Rect(432, 520, 120, 30)
    wall4 = pygame.Rect(618, 520, 120, 30)
```

THE INTERNET

Every programmer has and does at some point go on the Internet and copy some code to insert into their own routines. There's nothing wrong with using others' code, but you need to know how the code works and what it does before you go blindly running it on your own computer.



COMMENTING

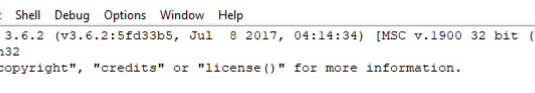
Again we mention commenting. It's a hugely important factor in programming, even if you're the only one who is ever going to view the code, you need to add comments as to what's going on. Is this function where you lose a life? Write a comment and help you, or anyone else, see what's going on.

```
# set up pygame
pygame.init()
mainClock = pygame.time.Clock()

# set up the window
width = 800
height = 700
screen = pygame.display.set_mode((width, height), 0, 32)
pygame.display.set_caption('caption')

# set up movement variables
moveLeft = False
moveRight = False
moveUp = False
moveDown = False

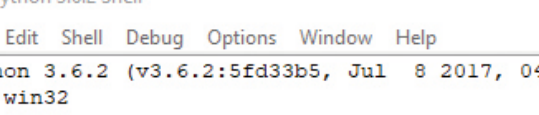
# set up direction variables
DOWNLEFT = 1
DOWNRIGHT = 3
```



The screenshot shows a Windows command prompt window titled "Python 3.6.2 Shell". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Shell", "Debug", "Options", "Window", and "Help". The command prompt shows the following text:

```
Python 3.6.2 (v3.6.2:5fd33b5, Jul 8 2017, 04:14:34) [MSC v.1900 32 bit (Intel)]
on win32
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>>
===== RESTART: C:\Users\david\Documents\Python\Space Invaders.py =====
>>> n = list(range(1, 11))
>>> print(n)
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
>>>
```

Python is a case sensitive programming language, so you will need to check any variables you assign. For example, `Lives=10` is a different variable to `lives=10`, calling the wrong variable in your code can have unexpected results.



The screenshot shows a Python 3.6.2 Shell window. The title bar reads "Python 3.6.2 Shell". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Shell", "Debug", "Options", "Window", and "Help". The main text area displays the following content:

```
Python 3.6.2 (v3.6.2:5fd33b5, Jul 8 2017, 04:14:30)
on win32
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more
>>> Lives=10
>>> lives=9
>>> print(Lives, lives)
10 9
>>>
```

Everyone forgets to include that extra bracket they should have added to the end of the statement. Python relies on the routine having an equal amount of closed brackets to open brackets, so any errors in your code could be due to you forgetting to count your brackets; including square brackets.

```
def print_game_status(self):
    print (board[len(self.missed_letters)])
    print ('Word: ' + self.hide_word())
    print ('Letters Missed: ',)
    for letter in self.missed_letters:
        print (letter,)
    print ()
    print ('Letters Guessed: ',)
    for letter in self.guessed_letters:
        print (letter,)
    print ()
```

It's common for beginners to forget to add a colon to the end of a structural statement, such as:

```
class Hangman:
    def guess(self, letter):
```

And so on. The colon is what separates the code, and creates the indents to which the following code belongs to.

```

class Hangman:
    def __init__(self, word):
        self.word = word
        self.missed_letters = []
        self.guessed_letters = []

    def guess(self, letter):
        if letter in self.word and letter not in self.guessed_letters:
            self.guessed_letters.append(letter)
        elif letter not in self.word and letter not in self.missed_letters:
            self.missed_letters.append(letter)
        else:
            return False
        return True

    def hangman_over(self):
        return self.hangman_won() or (len(self.missed_letters) == 6)

    def hangman_won(self):
        if '_' not in self.hide_word():
            return True
        return False

    def hide_word(self):
        rtn = ''
        for letter in self.word:
            if letter not in self.guessed_letters:
                rtn += '_'
            else:
                rtn += letter
        return rtn

```

Using the wrong operator is also a common mistake to make. When you're performing a comparison between two values, for example, you need to use the equality operator (a double equals, `==`). Using a single equal (`=`) is an assignment operator that places a value to a variable (such as, `lives=10`).

```
1 b = 5
2 c = 10
3 d = 10
4 b == c #false because 5 is not equal to 10
5 c == d #true because 10 is equal to 10
```

Writing code for multiple platforms is difficult, especially when you start to utilise the external commands of the operating system. For example, if your code calls for the screen to be cleared, then for Windows you would use `cls`. Whereas, for Linux you need to use `clear`. You need to solve this by capturing the error and issuing it with an alternative command.

```
# Code to detect error for using a different OS
run=1
while(run==1):
    try:
        os.system('clear')
    except OSError:
        os.system('cls')
print('\n>>>>>>>>>Python 3 File Manager<<<<<<<<\n')
```



Beginner C++ Mistakes

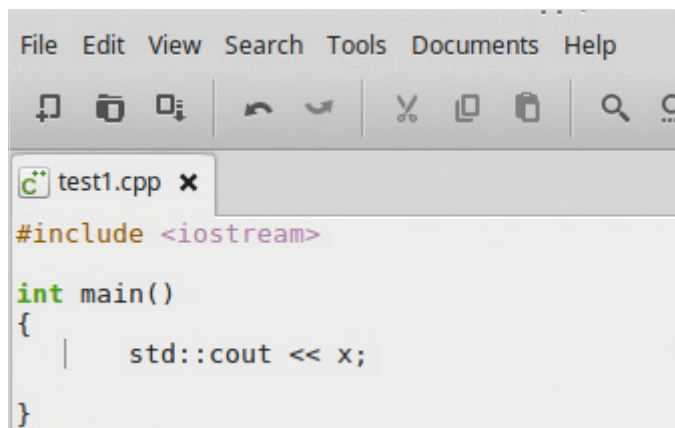
There are many pitfalls the C++ developer can encounter, especially as this is a more complex and often unforgiving language to master. Beginners need to take C++ a step at a time and digest what they've learned before moving on.

VOID(C++, MISTAKES)

Admittedly it's not just C++ beginners that make the kinds of errors we outline on these pages, even hardened coders are prone to the odd mishap here and there. Here are some common issues to try and avoid.

UNDECLARED IDENTIFIERS

A common C++ mistake, and to be honest a common mistake with most programming languages, is when you try and output a variable that doesn't exist. Displaying the value of x on-screen is fine but not if you haven't told the compiler what the value of x is to begin with.



```
File Edit View Search Tools Documents Help
test1.cpp x
#include <iostream>

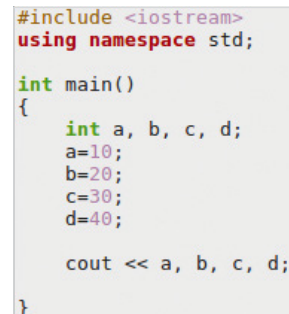
int main()
{
    std::cout << x;
}
```

STD NAMESPACE

Referencing the Standard Library is common for beginners throughout their code, but if you miss the std:: element of a statement, your code errors out when compiling. You can combat this by adding:

```
using namespace std;
```

Under the #include part and simply using cout, cin and so on from then on.



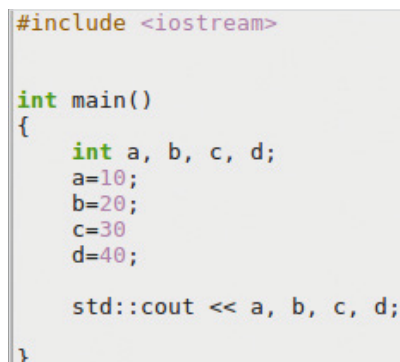
```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    int a, b, c, d;
    a=10;
    b=20;
    c=30;
    d=40;

    cout << a, b, c, d;
}
```

SEMICOLONS

Remember that each line of a C++ program must end with a semicolon. If it doesn't then the compiler treats the line with the missing semicolon as the same line with the next semicolon on. This creates all manner of problems when trying to compile, so don't forget those semicolons.



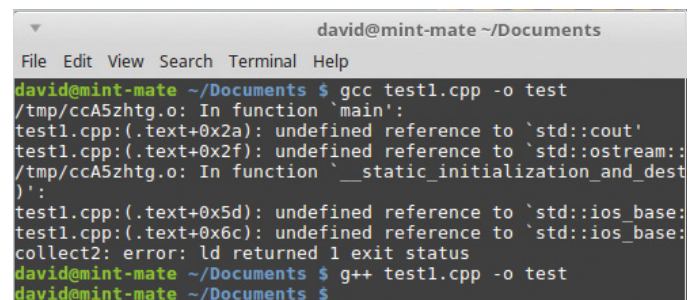
```
#include <iostream>

int main()
{
    int a, b, c, d;
    a=10;
    b=20;
    c=30;
    d=40;

    std::cout << a, b, c, d;
}
```

GCC OR G++

If you're compiling in Linux then you will no doubt come across gcc and g++. In short, gcc is the Gnu Compiler Collection (or Gnu C Compiler as it used to be called) and g++ is the Gnu ++ (the C++ version) of the compiler. If you're compiling C++ then you need to use g++, as the incorrect compiler drivers will be used.



```
david@mint-mate ~/Documents
File Edit View Search Terminal Help
david@mint-mate ~/Documents $ gcc test1.cpp -o test
/tmp/ccA5zhtg.o: In function 'main':
test1.cpp:(.text+0x2a): undefined reference to `std::cout'
test1.cpp:(.text+0x2f): undefined reference to `std::ostream::
/tmp/ccA5zhtg.o: In function `__static_initialization_and_dest
)':
test1.cpp:(.text+0x5d): undefined reference to `std::ios_base:
test1.cpp:(.text+0x6c): undefined reference to `std::ios_base:
collect2: error: ld returned 1 exit status
david@mint-mate ~/Documents $ g++ test1.cpp -o test
david@mint-mate ~/Documents $
```




COMMENTS (AGAIN)

Indeed the mistake of never making any comments on code is back once more. As we've previously bemoaned, the lack of readable identifiers throughout the code makes it very difficult to look back at how it worked, for both you and someone else. Use more comments.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
#include <algorithm>
using namespace std;

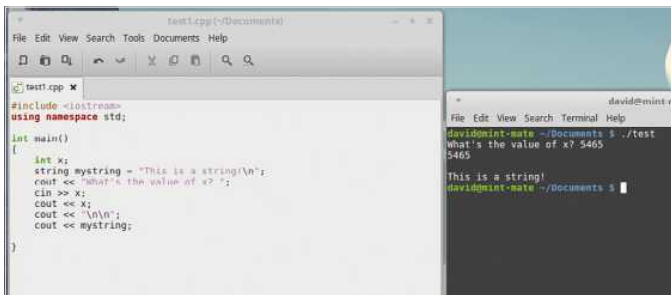
int main()
{
    vector<double> v;

    double d;
    while(cin>>d) v.push_back(d); // read elements
    if (!cin.eof()) { // check if input failed
        cerr << "format error\n";
        return 1; // error return
    }

    cout << "read " << v.size() << " elements\n";
    reverse(v.begin(),v.end());
    cout << "elements in reverse order:\n";
    for (int i = 0; i<v.size(); ++i) cout << v[i] << '\n';
    return 0; // success return
}
```

QUOTES

Missing quotes is a common mistake to make, for every level of user. Remember that quotes need to encase strings and anything that's going to be outputted to the screen or into a file, for example. Most compilers errors are due to missing quotes in the code.



EXTRA SEMICOLONS

While it's necessary to have a semicolon at the end of every C++ line, there are some exceptions to the rule. Semicolons need to be at the end of every complete statement but some lines of code aren't complete statements. Such as:

```
#include
if lines
switch lines
```

If it sounds confusing don't worry, the compiler lets you know where you went wrong.

```
// Program to print positive number entered by the user
// If user enters negative number, it is skipped
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    int number;
    cout << "Enter an integer: ";
    cin >> number;

    // checks if the number is positive
    if ( number > 0)
    {
        cout << "You entered a positive integer: " << number << endl;
    }

    cout << "This statement is always executed.";
    return 0;
}
```

TOO MANY BRACES

The braces, or curly brackets, are beginning and ending markers around blocks of code. So for every { you must have a }. Often it's easy to include or miss out one or the other facing brace when writing code; usually when writing in a text editor, as an IDE adds them for you.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    int x;
    string mystring = "This is a string!\n";
    cout << "What's the value of x? ";
    cin >> x;
    cout << x;
    {
        cout << "\n\n";
        cout << mystring;
    }
}
```

INITIALISE VARIABLES

In C++ variables aren't initialised to zero by default. This means if you create a variable called x then, potentially, it is given a random number from 0 to 18,446,744,073,709,551,616, which can be difficult to include in an equation. When creating a variable, give it the value of zero to begin with: **x=0**.

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int main()
{
    int x;
    x=0;

    cout << x;
}
```

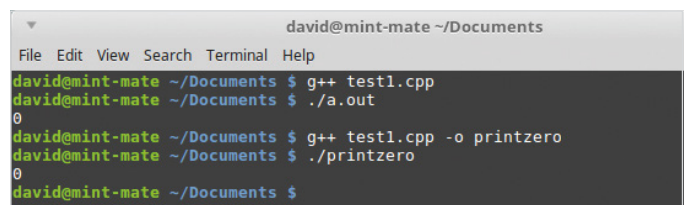
A.OUT

A common mistake when compiling in Linux is forgetting to name your C++ code post compiling. When you compile from the Terminal, you enter:

```
g++ code.cpp
```

This compiles the code in the file code.cpp and create an a.out file that can be executed with ./a.out. However, if you already have code in a.out then it's overwritten. Use:

```
g++ code.cpp -o nameofprogram
```





Where Next?

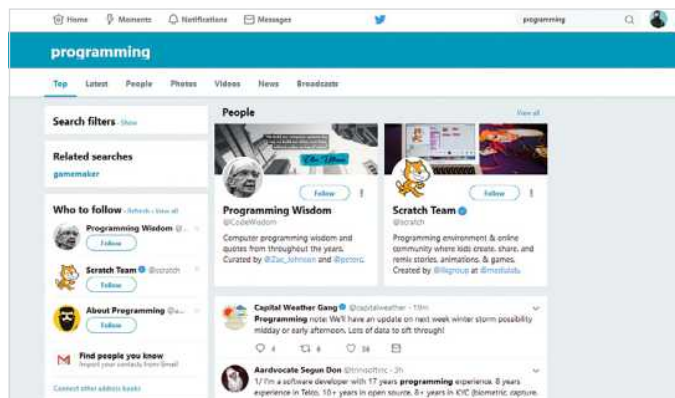
Coding, like most subjects, is a continual learning experience. You may not class yourself as a beginner any more but you still need to test your code, learn new tricks and hacks to make it more efficient and even branch out and learn another programming language.

#INCLUDE<KEEP ON LEARNING>

What can you do to further your skills, learn new coding practises, experiment and present your code and even begin to help others using what you've experienced so far?

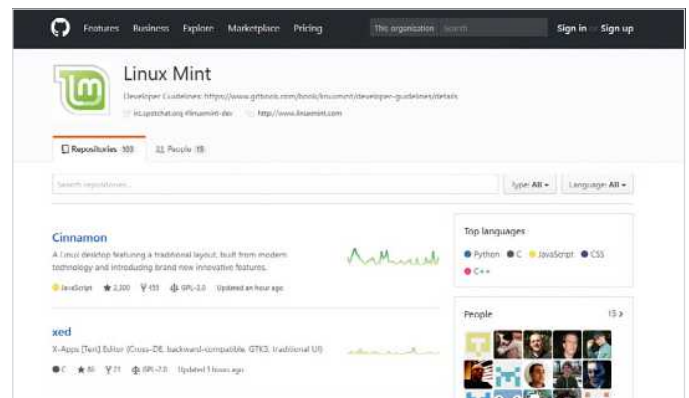
TWITTER

Twitter isn't all trolls and antagonists, among the well-publicised vitriol are some genuine people who are more than willing to spread their coding knowledge. We recommend you find a few who you can relate to and follow them. Often they post great tips, hacks and fixes for common coding problems.



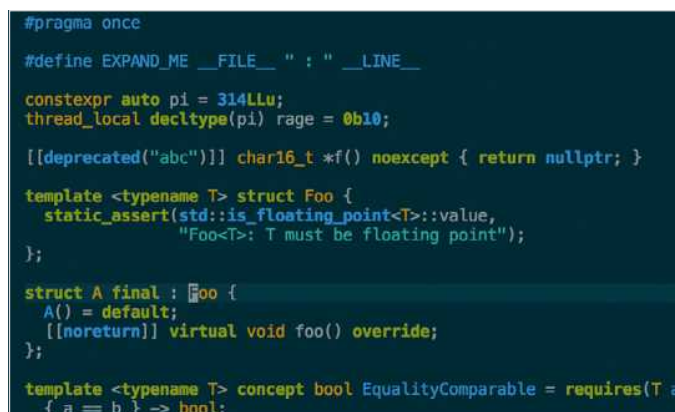
OPEN PROJECTS

Look for open source projects that you like the sound of and offer to contribute to the code to keep it alive and up to date. There are millions of projects to choose from, so contact a few and see where they need help. It may only be a minor code update but it's a noble occupation for coders to get into.



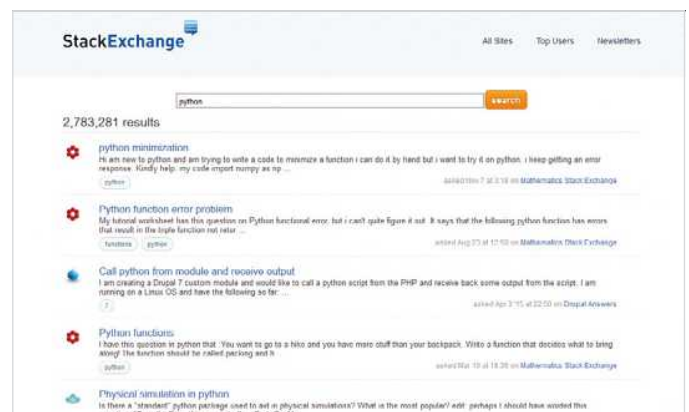
KEEP CODING

If you've mastered Python fairly well, then turn your attention to C++ or even C#. Still keep your Python skills going but learning a new coding language keeps the old brain ticking over nicely and give you a view into another community, and how they do things differently.



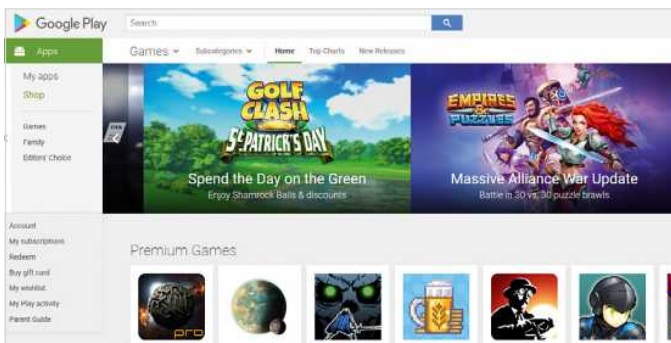
SHARE SKILLS

Become more active on coding and development knowledge sites, such as StackExchange. If you have the skills to start and help others out, not only will you feel really good for doing so but you can also learn a lot yourself by interacting with other members.



GOING MOBILE

The mobile market is a great place to test your coding skills and present any games or apps you've created. If your app is good, then who knows, it could be the next great thing to appear on the app stores. It's a good learning experience nevertheless, and something worth considering.



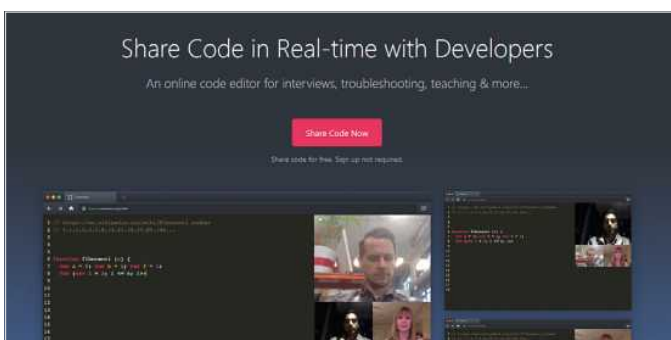
ONLINE LEARNING

Online courses are good examples of where to take your coding skills next, even if you start from the beginner level again. Often, an online course follows a strict coding convention, so if you're self-taught then it might be worth seeing how other developers lay out their code, and what's considered acceptable.



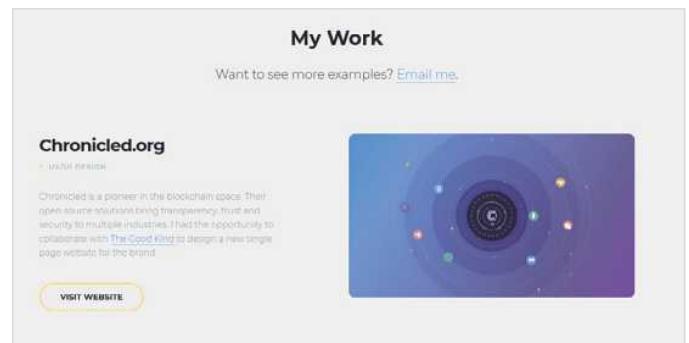
SHARE CODE

Get sharing, even if you think your code isn't very good. The criticism, advice and comments you receive back help you iron out any issues with your code, and you add them all to your checklist. Alternatively your code might be utterly amazing but you won't know unless you share it.



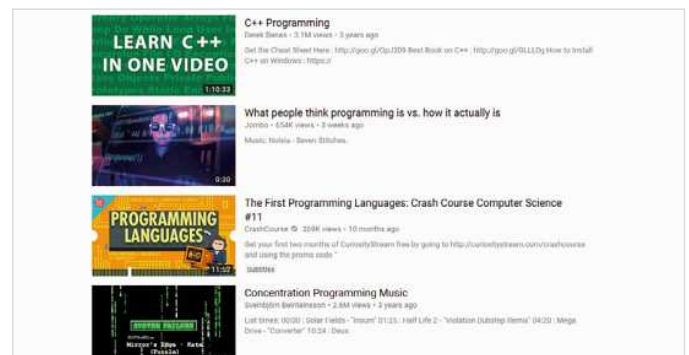
PORTFOLIOS

If you've learned how to code with an eye for a developer job in the future, then it's worth starting to build up an online portfolio of code. Look at job postings and see what skills they require, then learn and code something with those skills and add it to the portfolio. When it comes to applying, include a link to the portfolio.



TEACH CODE

Can you teach? If your coding skills are spot on, consider approaching a college or university to see if they have need for a programming language teacher, perhaps a part-time or evening course. If not teaching, then consider creating your own YouTube how to code channel.



HARDWARE PROJECTS

Contributing to hardware projects is a great resource for proving your code with others and learning from other contributors. Many of the developer boards have postings for coders to apply to for hardware projects, using unique code to get the most from the hardware that's being designed.



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