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Introduction to Python

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```
import sys, os
try:
    from Bio.PDB import PDBParser
    __biopython_installed__ = True
except ImportError:
    __biopython_installed__ = False

__default_bfactor__ = 0.0      # default B-factor
__default_occupancy__ = 1.0    # default occupancy level
__default_segid__ = ''        # empty segment ID

class EOF(Exception):
    def __init__(self): pass

class FileCrawler:
    """
    Crawl through a file reading back and forth without loading
    anything to memory.
    """
    def __init__(self, filename):
        try:
            self.__fp__ = open(filename)
        except IOError:
            raise ValueError, "Couldn't open file '%s' for reading." % filename
        self.tell = self.__fp__.tell
        self.seek = self.__fp__.seek
    def prevline(self):
        try:
            self.prev()
```



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Agenda

Monday

9:00-9:45	Introduction to Python
9:45-10:30	Exercises
10:30-10:45	Coffee Break
10:45-11:15	Control structures
11:15-12:15	Exercises
12:15-13:00	Lunch break
13:00-13:30	Functions and exceptions
13:30-14:30	Exercises
14:30-14:45	Coffee Break
14:45-15:15	Modules
15:15-16:15	Exercises

Tuesday

9.00-9.45	File I/O and string processing
9.45-10.30	Exercises
10.30-10.45	Coffee break
10:45-11:30	NumPy and simple plotting
11:30-12:15	Exercises
12.15-13.00	Lunch break
13.00-14:00	Object oriented programming
14:00-14:30	Exercises
14.30-14.45	Coffee break
14.45-16.15	Exercises

INTRODUCTION TO PYTHON



What is Python?

- Modern, interpreted, object-oriented, full featured high level programming language
- Portable (Unix/Linux, Mac OS X, Windows)
- Open source, intellectual property rights held by the Python Software Foundation
- Python versions: 2.x and 3.x
 - 3.x is not backwards compatible with 2.x
 - Version 2 spread so wide that adopting version 3 has been a long struggle
 - This course uses 3.x version
 - It is possible and good practice to write programs compatible with both versions

Python Essentials

- Development started in 1989 by Guido van Rossum
 - 2.0 released in 2000, 3.0 in 2008
- Language development overseen by the Python Software Foundation (PSF)
- Most public Python packages available in the Python Package Index (PyPI)



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Python language development

- There is a process for new language features called Python Enhancement Proposals
- Guido (a Dutchman) still retains final say over new features as the *Benevolent Dictator For Life*

There should be one-- and preferably only one --obvious way to do it.

Although that way may not be obvious at first unless you're Dutch.

- quote from Zen of Python

Python ecosystem

- Core Python language features and built-ins
 - Always available, very robust if used correctly
- The Python standard library
 - Available in most standard installations, need to be imported to use
 - Well tested and fairly stable
 - Covers a lot of basic needs, "batteries included"
- The Python Package Index
 - A package exists for almost everything
 - May contain bugs, possibly not actively maintained
 - May solve your problem or sub-problem out of the box

Why Python?

- Fast program development
 - Rapid prototyping and
- Simple syntax
- Easy to write well readable code
- Large standard library
- Lots of third party libraries
 - Numpy, Scipy, Biopython
 - Matplotlib
 - ...

Why not Python?

- Not energy-efficient
 - A factor in doing web-scale things
- Emphasizes programmer cognitive load and development over being close to hardware
 - mitigated by libraries that interface with lower level components
 - Not possible to use on some embedded systems
- Not backed by a single large commercial entity
- The programmer is generally trusted, so not very suitable for security-oriented systems
 - Or security arrangements have to be made at other levels

Information about Python

- www.python.org
- H. P. Langtangen, "Python Scripting for Computational Science", Springer
- www.scipy.org

FIRST GLIMPSE INTO PYTHON

Python basics

- Syntax and code structure
- Data types and data structures
- Control structures
- Functions and modules
- Text processing and IO

Python program

- Typically, a .py ending is used for Python scripts, e.g. *hello.py*:

```
hello.py
print("Hello world!")
```

- Scripts can be executed by the *python* executable:

```
$ python hello.py
Hello world!
```

Interactive python interpreter

- The interactive interpreter can be started by executing python without arguments:

```
$ python3
Python 3.5.2 (v3.5.2:4def2a2901a5, Jun 26 2016, 10:47:25)
[GCC 4.2.1 (Apple Inc. build 5666) (dot 3)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> print("hello")
hello
```

- Useful for testing and learning

Enhanced interactive Python interpreter

- The IPython shell is a more powerful tool for using Python from the command line
 - Autocompletion, details about objects
 - We mostly use the browser version on this course

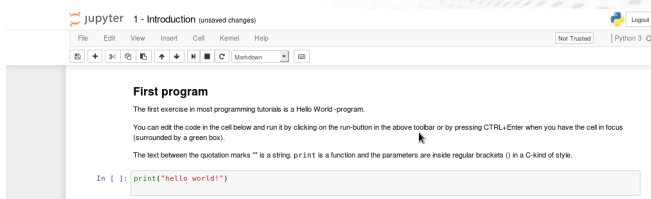
```
$ ipython
Python 3.5.2 (v3.5.2:4def2a2901a5, Jun 26 2016, 10:47:25)
Type "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.

IPython 5.1.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python.
?                -> Introduction and overview of IPython's features.
%quickref        -> Quick reference.
help             -> Python's own help system.
object?         -> Details about 'object', use 'object??' for extra details.

In [1]: print("hello")
hello
```

Jupyter notebooks

- Python environment in a web application
- Notebook can contain program code, explanatory text, and visualisations



Python syntax

- Variable and function names start with a letter and can contain also numbers and underscores, e.g. "my_var", "my_var2"
- Variables may also begin with an underscore but these will be covered later
- Python is case sensitive
- Code blocks are defined by indentation
 - a block is started by a colon :
- Comments start with #

```
example.py
# example
if x > 0:
    x = x + 1 # increase x
    print("increasing x")
else:
    x = x - 1
    print("decreasing x")
print("x is processed")
```

Python style

variable_name
function_name
ClassName
modulename.submodule or
module_name.another_module

Data types

- Python is a dynamically typed language
 - no type declarations for variables
 - easy to make typing errors in variable names
- Variable does have a type
 - incompatible types cannot be combined
 - "In the face of ambiguity, refuse the temptation to guess." - zen of python

```
example.py
print("Starting example")
x = 1.0
for i in range(10):
    x += 1
y = 4 * x
s = "Result"
z = s + y # Error
```


Numeric types

- Integers
- Floats
- Complex numbers
- Basic operations
 - + and -
 - *, / and **
 - implicit type conversions
 - be careful with integer division !

```
>>> x = 2
>>> x = 3.0
>>> x = 4.0 + 5.0j
>>>
>>> 2.0 + 5 - 3
4.0
>>> 4.0**2 / 2.0 * (1.0 - 3j)
(8-24j)
```

Strings

- Strings are enclosed by " or '
- Multiline strings can be defined with three double quotes
 - this will include newlines
- Strings inside the same parentheses will be interpreted as one string

```
strings.py
s1 = "very simple string"
s2 = 'same simple string'
s3 = "this isn't so simple string"
s4 = 'is this "complex" string?'
s5 = """This is a long string
expanding to multiple lines,
so it is enclosed by three 's.'"""
s6 = ("This string "
      "has no newlines "
      "in it")
```

Strings

- + and * operators with strings:

```
>>> "Strings can be " + "combined"
'Strings can be combined'
>>>
>>> "Repeat! " * 3
'Repeat! Repeat! Repeat!'
```

Data structures

- Sequence structures
 - Lists
 - Tuples
 - Sets
 - Frozen sets
 - Byte arrays
- Dictionaries

Mutable vs immutable data types

- Mutable data types can be modified after creation e.g.
 - a list can be added to
 - a byte array can be edited
 - a dict can be added to
- Immutable data types cannot be modified, modifying them returns a new object of the same type
 - The original is not changed
- There is no ++-operator as numeric types are immutable

Immutable	Mutable
numeric types	
tuple	list
str	byte array
frozen set	set
	dict

List

- Python lists are dynamic arrays
- List items are indexed (index starts from 0)
- List item can be any Python object, items can be of different type
- New items can be added to any place in the list
- Items can be removed from any place of the list

Lists

- Defining lists
- Accessing list elements
- Modifying list items

```
>>> my_list1 = [3, "egg", 6.2, 7]
>>> my_list2 = [12, [4, 5], 13, 1]
```

```
>>> my_list1[0]
3
>>> my_list2[1]
[4, 5]
>>> my_list1[-1]
7
```

```
>>> my_list1[-2] = 4
>>> my_list1
[3, 'egg', 4, 7]
```

Lists

- Adding items to list
- Accessing list elements
- + and * operators with lists

```
>>> my_list1 = [9, 8, 7, 6]
>>> my_list1.append(11)
>>> my_list1
[9, 8, 7, 6, 11]
>>> my_list1.insert(1,16)
>>> my_list1
[9, 16, 8, 7, 6, 11]
>>> my_list2 = [5, 4]
>>> my_list1.extend(my_list2)
>>> my_list1
[9, 16, 8, 7, 6, 11, 5, 4]
```

```
>>> [1, 2, 3] + [4, 5, 6]
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
>>> [1, 2, 3] * 2
[1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3]
```

Lists

- It is possible to access slices of lists

```
>>> my_list1 = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> my_list1[0:2]
[0, 1]
>>> my_list1[:2]
[0, 1]
>>> my_list1[3:]
[3, 4, 5]
>>> my_list1[0:6:2]
[0, 2, 4]
>>> my_list1[::-1]
[5, 4, 3, 2, 1, 0]
```

- Removing list items

```
>>> second = my_list1.pop(2)
>>> my_list1
[0, 1, 3, 4, 5]
>>> second
2
```

Tuples

- Tuples are immutable lists
- Tuples are indexed and sliced like lists, but cannot be modified

```
>>> t1 = (1, 2, 3)
>>> t1[1] = 4
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in
<module>
TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
```

Dictionaries

- Dictionaries are associative arrays
- Unordered list of key - value pairs
- Values are indexed by keys
- Keys can be strings or numbers
- Value can be any Python object

Dictionaries

- Creating dictionaries

```
>>> grades = {'Alice': 5, 'John': 4, 'Carl': 2}
>>> grades
{'John': 4, 'Alice': 5, 'Carl': 2}
```

- Accessing values

```
>>> grades['John']
4
```

- Adding items

```
>>> grades['Linda'] = 3
>>> grades
{'John': 4, 'Alice': 5, 'Carl': 2, 'Linda': 3}
>>> elements = {}
>>> elements['Fe'] = 26
>>> elements
{'Fe': 26}
```

Converting between basic data types

- Python has built-in functions
 - `type()` for determining the type of a variable
 - `int()`, `float()`, `str()`, `list()`, `dict()`, `set()`, etc. for converting to each type
 - only if possible

```
>>> x = 5
>>> type(x)
<class 'int'>
>>> y = str(x)
>>> type(y)
<class 'str'>
>>> type(z)
<class 'float'>
>>> z
5.0
>>> x + z
10.0
>>> y+z
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in
<module>
TypeError: Can't convert 'float' object to str implicitly
```

Variables

- Python variables are always references
- `my_list1` and `my_list2` are references to the same list
 - Modifying `my_list2` changes also `my_list1`!
- Copy can be made by slicing the whole list

```
>>> my_list1 = [1,2,3,4]
>>> my_list2 = my_list1
```

```
>>> my_list2[0] = 0
>>> my_list1
[0, 2, 3, 4]
```

```
>>> my_list3 = my_list1[:]
>>> my_list3[-1] = 66
>>> my_list1
[0, 2, 3, 4]
>>> my_list3
[0, 2, 3, 66]
```

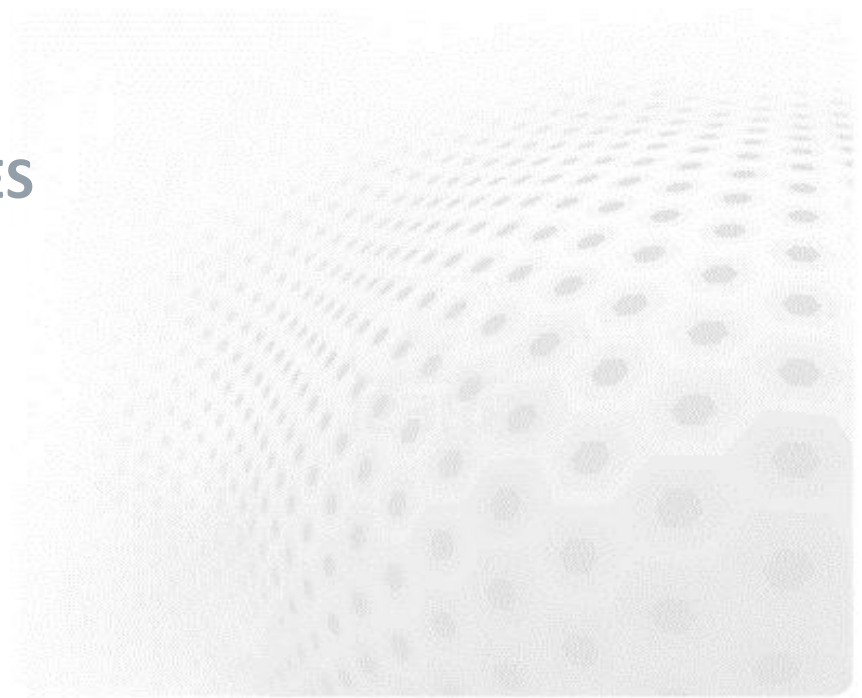
What is an object?

- Object is a software bundle of data (=variables) and related methods
- Data can be accessed directly or only via the methods (=functions) of the object
- In Python, **everything** is an object
- Methods of object are called with the syntax: `obj.method(parameter, parameter)`
- Methods can modify the data of object or return new objects

Summary

- Python syntax: code blocks defined by indentation
- Numeric and string datatypes
- Powerful basic data structures:
 - Lists and dictionaries
- Everything is an object in Python
- Python variables are always references to objects

CONTROL STRUCTURES



Control structures

- **if – else** statements
- **while** loops
- **for** loops

if statement

- **if** statement allows one to execute code block depending on condition
- code blocks are defined by indentation, standard practice is to use four spaces for indentation

```
example.py
if x > 0:
    x += 1
    y = 4 * x
numbers[2] = x
```

- comparison operators: **==**, **!=**, **>**, **<**, **>=**, **<=**
- boolean operators: **and**, **or**, **not**

if statement

- there can be multiple branches of conditions

```
example.py
if x == 0:
    print("x is zero")
elif x < 0:
    print("x is negative")
elif x > 100000:
    print("x is large")
else:
    print("x is something completely different")
```

- Python does not have a switch statement

if statement - oddities

- empty lists, empty strings and 0 evaluate to False for the truth statement

```
example.py
x = []
y = None
z = 0
if not x:
    print("x")
if not y:
    print("y")
if not z:
    print("z")
```

if statement - oddities

- collections and sequences support the **in** keyword

```
example.py
x = "01245"
if "6" in x:
    print("x contains '6'")
elif "5" < 0:
    print("x contains '5'")
else:
    print("x is something completely different")
```

- operator priority can be affected with parentheses
 - preferable to keep it simple

while loop

- **while** loop executes a code block as long as an expression is True

```
example.py
x = 0
cubes = {}
cube = 0
while cube < 100:
    cubes[x] = cube
    x += 1
    cube = x**3
```

for loop

- **for** statement iterates over the items of any sequence (e.g. list)

```
example.py
cars = ['Audi', 'BMW', 'Jaguar', 'Lada']

for car in cars:
    print("Car is ", car)
```

- In each pass, the loop variable **car** gets assigned next value from the sequence
 - Value of loop variable can be any Python object

for loop

- Many sequence-like Python objects support iteration
 - Dictionary: "next" values are dictionary keys

```
example.py
prices = {'Audi' : 50, 'BMW' : 70, 'Lada' : 5}

for car in prices:
    print("Car is ", car)
    print("Price is ", prices[car])
```

- (later on: file as sequence of lines, "next" value of file object is the next line in the file)

for loop

- Items in the sequence can be lists themselves

```
example.py
coordinates = [[1.0, 0.0], [0.5, 0.5], [0.0, 1.0]]
for coord in coordinates:
    print("X=", coord[0], "Y=", coord[1])
```

- Values can be assigned to multiple loop variables

```
example.py
for x, y in coordinates:
    print("X=", x, "Y=", y)
```

- Dictionary method `items()` returns list of key-value pairs

```
example.py
prices = {'Audi': 50, 'BMW' : 70, 'Lada' : 5}
for car, price in prices.items():
    print("Price of", car, "is", price)
```

break & continue

- break** out of the loop

```
example.py
x = 0
while True:
    x += 1
    cube = x**3
    if cube > 100:
        break
```

```
example.py
sum = 0
for p in prices:
    sum += p
    if sum > 100:
        print "too much"
        break
```

- continue** with the next iteration of loop

```
example.py
x = -5
cube = 0
while cube < 100:
    x += 1
    if x < 0:
        continue
    cube = x**3
```

```
example.py
sum = 0
for p in prices:
    if p > 100:
        continue
    sum += p
```

range

- Indices are not idiomatic when they can be avoided
- sometimes they can't be avoided
- range expresses a range of integers with configurable start, stop and step parameters
 - Counting up from 0 with single parameter (stop)
- In Python 3 **range** returns an iterator, in Python 2 a list

```
example.py
print("counting backwards from 10 in steps of 2")
for number in range(10, 1, -2):
    print(number)
```

enumerate

- Built-in function `enumerate` returns tuples of index, [item]

```
example.py
my_list = ["a", "b", "c", "d", "e"]
for index, str_ in enumerate(my_list):
    print("index " + str(index) + " is str " + str(str_))
```

List comprehension

- useful Python idiom for creating lists from existing ones without explicit **for** loops
- creates a new list by performing operations for the elements of list:
newlist = [op(x) for x in oldlist]

```
>>> numbers = range(6)
>>> squares = [x**2 for x in numbers]
>>> squares
[0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25]
```

- a conditional statement can be included

```
>>> odd_squares = [x**2 for x in numbers if x % 2 == 1]
>>> odd_squares
[1, 9, 25]
```

FUNCTIONS AND EXCEPTIONS



Functions

- function is block of code that can be referenced from other parts of the program
- functions have arguments
- functions can **return** values
- functions are defined using the **def** keyword

Function definition

```
function.py
def add(x, y):
    result = x + y
    return result

u = 3.0
v = 5.0
sum = add(u, v)
```

- name of function is **add**
- **x** and **y** are positional arguments
 - their order matters
- there can be any number of arguments and arguments can be any Python objects
- return value can be any Python object

Keyword arguments

- functions can also be called using keyword arguments

```
function.py
def sub(x=0, y=0):
    result = x - y
    return result

res1 = sub(3.0, 2.0)
res2 = sub(y=3.0, x=2.0)
```

- keyword arguments can improve readability of code
- keyword arguments must always be after positional arguments
 - in function definition
 - in function call
- keyword arguments don't need to be in any particular order

Keyword arguments

- it is possible to have default values for arguments
- function can then be called with varying number of arguments

```
function.py
def add(x, y=1.0):
    result = x + y
    return result

sum1 = add(0.0, 2.0)
sum2 = add(3.0)
```

Modifying function arguments

- as Python variables are always references, function can modify the objects that arguments refer to

```
>>> def switch(mylist):
...     tmp = mylist[-1]
...     mylist[-1] = mylist[0]
...     mylist[0] = tmp
...
>>> l1 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> switch(l1)
>>> l1
[5, 2, 3, 4, 1]
```

- side effects can be intentional or accidental

Exceptions

- Exceptions allow the program to handle errors and other "unusual" situations in a flexible and clean way
- Basic concepts:
 - Raising an exception. Exception can be raised by user code or by system
 - Handling an exception. Defines what to do when an exception is raised, typically in user code.
- There can be different exceptions and they can be handled by different code

exceptions in Python

- Exceptions are caught and handled by **try - except** statements

```
example.py
my_list = [3, 4, 5]
try:
    fourth = my_list[4]
except IndexError:
    print("There is no fourth element")
```

- User code can also **raise** an exception

```
example.py
if solver not in ['exact', 'jacobi', 'cg']:
    raise RuntimeError('Unsupported solver')
```

Exceptions and functions

- Exceptions are a way to return information other than a return value from a function

```
example.py
def divide(first, second):
    if second == 0:
        raise ZeroDivisionError("user tried to divide by zero")
    return first/second

try:
    first = input("Give first number: ")
    second = input("Give second number")
    print(divide(first, second))
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("execution protected from user error")
except Exception:
    print("unknown error occurred!")
```

Error vs Exception

- Not all Exceptions are Errors
 - An error means something went wrong
 - There are exceptions that have other significance, e.g. StopIteration, KeyboardInterrupt or GeneratorExit
- Most of the time programmers are interested in the errors

Generator expressions

- It is often the case that each item of a return value can be processed independently from the rest of the items
- It may not be wise to create large data structures only to immediately destroy them
- Instead of returning a list or similar iterable, you can use the **yield** keyword
- Best used to create items one by one to be consumed one by one
- Sometimes the performance difference is significant

Generator expressions

- When the next value is requested, the execution continues from where it left off
- The use of **yield** instead of return makes this a generator function

```
function.py
def odd_numbers(n):
    counter = 0
    for i in range(n):
        if i % 2 == 1:
            yield result
            counter += 1
        else:
            pass
    print("yielded %d odd numbers" % counter )
sum(odd_numbers(10000000))
```

Summary

- functions help in reusing frequently used code blocks
- functions can have positional and keyword arguments
- functions often **return** values
- functions (and code in general) can **raise** exceptions, most common of which are errors

MODULES AND PACKAGES



Modules

- Modules are extensions that can be imported to Python to provide additional functionality, e.g.
 - new data structures and data types
 - functions
- Python standard library includes several modules
- Third party modules can be installed via system package manager or pip
- User defined modules
 - Python searches for modules
 - in current working directory
 - \$PYTHONPATH
 - relative to the python executable

Importing modules / from modules

import statement

```
example.py
import math
x = math.exp(3.5)

import math as m
x = m.exp(3.5)

from math import exp, pi
x = exp(3.5) + pi

from math import *
x = exp(3.5) + sqrt(pi)

exp = 6.6
from math import *
x = exp + 3.2 # Won't work,
              # exp is now a function
```

Creating modules

- it is possible to make imports from own modules
- in fact, it is recommended to do so to give structure to your code
 - helps to write reusable code
 - forces you to think about what functionality goes where

Creating modules

- it is possible to make imports from own modules
- every .py file in the directory you are in can be imported from
- define a function in file **mymodule.py**
- the function can now be imported in other .py files:

```
mymodule.py
def incx(x):
    return x+1
```

```
test.py
import mymodule

y = mymodule.incx(1)
```

```
test.py
from mymodule import incx

y = incx(1)
```

Module structure

- the presence of file `__init__.py` creates a module
 - file can be empty
- structure improves readability

```
test.py
project
  __init__.py
  module_alpha.py
  module_beta.py
  submodule
    __init__.py
    module_delta.py
```

```
test.py
import project.module_alpha

# the "as" keyword can be helpful when names collide or if name is long
from project.module_alpha import function_alpha as alpha
from project.submodule.module_delta import function_delta
```



Controlling imports (advanced)

- To control what is imported by "import *" you can expose the functions you want in `__init__.py`
- By convention functions and variables beginning with an underscore `_` are not imported
 - This is a hint that someone using your code shouldn't use the function/variable

```
__init__.py
from alpha import first
from alpha import third
```

```
alpha.py
def first():
    ...
def second():
    ...
def third():
    ...
```

```
test.py
from mymodule.alpha import *
# first and third are defined but
# second is not
```

Packages

- Python code is often distributed in packages
- Most python packages are published in the Python Package Index (PyPI), <https://pypi.python.org/pypi>
- A tool called **pip** can be used to install packages

```
$ pip install --user hypothesis
Collecting hypothesis
  Downloading hypothesis-3.26.0.tar.gz (113kB)
    100% |#####| 122kB 3.3MB/s
Requirement already satisfied: enum34 in
/Users/suvileht/Library/Python/2.7/lib/python/site-packages (from hypothesis)
Installing collected packages: hypothesis
Running setup.py install for hypothesis ... done
Successfully installed hypothesis-3.26.0
$
```



pip and virtualenv

- Usually only administrators can install packages for all system users
- You can use the `--user` handle of pip to install only to yourself
- Often one software requires library X to be < 1.0 and another for it to be > 1.5!
- It is often a good idea to isolate requirements for different software installations
- A tool called **virtualenv** is used to create virtual environments



Virtualenv example

```
$ virtualenv example
New python executable in /private/tmp/example/bin/python
Installing setuptools, pip, wheel...done.
$ source example/bin/activate
(example) $ pip install biopython
Collecting biopython
  Downloading biopython-1.70-cp27-cp27m-macosx_10_6_intel.macosx_10_9_x86_64.macosx_10_10_intel.macosx_10_10_x86_64.whl (2.1MB)
    100% |#####| 2.1MB 258kB/s
Collecting numpy (from biopython)
  Downloading numpy-1.13.1-cp27-cp27m-macosx_10_6_intel.macosx_10_9_x86_64.macosx_10_10_intel.macosx_10_10_x86_64.whl (4.6MB)
    100% |#####| 4.6MB 158kB/s
Installing collected packages: numpy, biopython
Successfully installed biopython-1.70 numpy-1.13.1
(example) $ python
Python 2.7.10 (default, Feb 7 2017, 00:08:15)
[AMD64] 4.2.1 Compatible Apple LLVM 8.0.0 (clang-800.0.34) on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more
>>> from Bio.Seq import Seq
>>> my_seq = Seq("AGTACACTGGT")
>>> print(my_seq)
AGTACACTGGT
>>>
(example) $ deactivate
$
```

Summary

- Modules are used to structure code
- Modules can be single files or multiple structures
- The `import` keyword is used to activate code from modules
- The `pip` command is used to install packages
- It is recommended to isolate package installations to **virtual environments**

FILE I/O AND TEXT PROCESSING



File I/O and text processing

- working with files
- reading and processing file contents
- string formatting and writing to files

Opening and closing files

- opening a file:
`myfile = open(filename, mode)`
 - returns a handle to the file

```
>>> fp = open('example.txt', 'r')
>>>
```

Opening and closing files

- file can opened for
 - reading: `mode='r'` (file has to exist)
 - writing: `mode='w'` (existing file is truncated)
 - appending: `mode='a'`
- closing a file
 - `myfile.close()`

```
example.py
# open file for reading
infile = open('input.dat', 'r')

# open file for writing
outfile = open('output.dat', 'w')

# open file for appending
appfile = open('output.dat', 'a')

# close files
infile.close()
```

Reading from files

- a single line can be read from a file with the `readline()` - function

```
>>> infile = open('inp', 'r')
>>> line = infile.readline()
```

- it is often convenient to iterate over all the lines in a file

```
>>> infile = open('inp', 'r')
>>> for line in infile:
...     # process lines
```

with

- special syntax for letting the interpreter take care of closing the file after use
- ensures that file is closed, even if errors occur inside the with-statement
- other resources can also be accessed using a with-statement

```
output.py
with open('out', 'r') as infile:
    for line in infile:
        print(line.strip().reverse())
```

Processing lines

- generally, a line read from a file is just a string
- a string can be split into a list of strings:

```
>>> infile = open('inp', 'r')
>>> for line in infile:
...     line = line.split()
```

- fields in a line can be assigned to variables and added to e.g. lists or dictionaries

```
>>> for line in infile:
...     line = line.split()
...     x, y = float(line[1]), float(line[3])
...     coords.append((x,y))
```

Processing lines

- sometimes one wants to process only lines containing specific tags or substrings

```
>>> for line in infile:
...     if "Force" in line:
...         line = line.split()
...         x, y, z = float(line[1]), float(line[2]), float(line[3])
...         forces.append((x,y,z))
```

- other way to check for substrings:
 - `str.startswith()`, `str.endswith()`
- Python has also an extensive support for regular expressions in `re`-module

String formatting

- Output is often wanted in certain format
- The string object has `.format` method for placing variables within string
- Replacement fields surrounded by `{}` within the string

```
>>> x, y = 1.6666, 2.3333
print("X is {0} and Y is {1}".format(x, y))
X is 1.6666 and Y is 2.3333
>>> print("Y is {1} and X is {0}".format(x, y))
Y is 2.3333 and X is 1.6666
```

- Possible to use also keywords:

```
>>> print("Y is {val_y} and X is {val_x}".format(val_x=x, val_y=y))
Y is 2.3333 and X is 1.6666
```

String formatting

- Presentation of field can be specified with `{i:[w][.p][t]}`
 - `w` is optional minimum width
 - `.p` gives optional precision (=number of decimals)
 - `t` is the presentation type
- some presentation types
 - `s` string (normally omitted)
 - `d` integer decimal
 - `f` floating point decimal
 - `e` floating point exponential

```
>>> print("X is {0:6.3f} and Y is {1:6.2f}".format(x, y))
X is  1.667 and Y is  2.33
```

String formatting - old style

- Python also has an older style of string formatting, which is still valid but not recommended
- **printf-style syntax**
- Mentioned so you'll recognize it if you see it

```
>>> var = X is %d and Y is %s" % (5, "foo")
>>> print(var)
X is  5 and Y is foo
```

Writing to a file

- data can be written to a file with **print** statements
- file objects have also a **write()** function
- the **outfile.write()** does not automatically add a newline
- file should be closed after writing is finished or the with-keyword used

```
output.py
with open('out', 'w') as outfile :
    print("Header", file=outfile)
    print("{0:6.3f} {0:6.3f}".format(x, y), file=outfile)

outfile = open('out_2', 'w')
outfile.write("Header\n")
outfile.write("{0:6.3f} {0:6.3f}".format(x, y))
outfile.close()
```

Differences between Python 2.X and 3.X

- **print** is a function in 3.X

```
differences.py
print "The answer is", 2*2 # 2.X
print("The answer is", 2*2) # 3.X

print >>sys.stderr, "fatal error" # 2.X
print("fatal error", file=sys.stderr) # 3.X
```

Summary

- files are opened and closed with **open()** and **close()**
 - You can handle context using the **with**-statement
- lines can be read by iterating over the file object
- lines can be split into lists and check for existence of specific substrings
- string formatting operators can be used for obtaining specific output
- file output can be done with **print** or **write()**

Useful modules in Python standard library

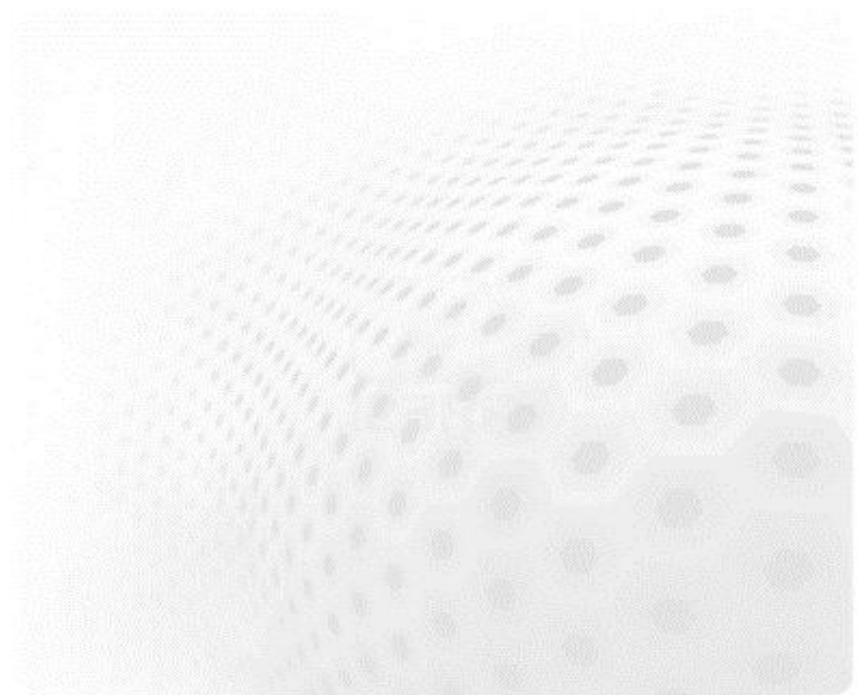
- **math** : "non-basic" mathematical operations
- **os** : operating system services
- **glob** : Unix-style pathname expansion
- **random** : generate pseudorandom numbers
- **pickle** : dump/load Python objects to/from file
- **time** : timing information and conversions
- **xml.dom / xml.sax** : XML parsing
- **json** : JSON parsing
- + many more

<http://docs.python.org/library/>

Useful external modules

- **requests**: HTTP request handling
- **BeautifulSoup**: HTML parsing and scraping
- **Pillow**: image handling
- **OpenCV**: Computer vision (e.g. for OCR)

NUMPY



Numpy – fast array interface

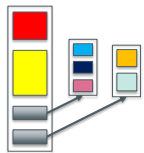
- Standard Python is not well suitable for numerical computations
 - lists are very flexible but also slow to process in numerical computations
- Numpy adds a new **array** data type
 - static, multidimensional
 - fast processing of arrays
 - some linear algebra, random numbers

Numpy arrays

- All elements of an array have the same type
- Array can have multiple dimensions
- The number of elements in the array is fixed, shape can be changed

Python list vs. NumPy array

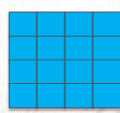
Python list



Memory layout



NumPy array



Memory layout



Creating numpy arrays

- From a list:

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> a = np.array((1, 2, 3, 4), float)
>>> a
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.,  4.])
>>>
>>> list1 = [[1, 2, 3], [4,5,6]]
>>> mat = np.array(list1, complex)
>>> mat
array([[ 1.+0.j,  2.+0.j,  3.+0.j],
       [ 4.+0.j,  5.+0.j,  6.+0.j]])
>>> mat.shape
(2, 3)
>>> mat.size
6
```

Creating numpy arrays

- More ways for creating arrays:

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> a = np.arange(10)
>>> a
array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
>>>
>>> b = np.linspace(-4.5, 4.5, 5)
>>> b
array([-4.5, -2.25,  0.,  2.25,  4.5])
>>>
>>> c = np.zeros((4, 6), float)
>>> c.shape
(4, 6)
>>>
>>> d = np.ones((2, 4))
>>> d
array([[ 1.,  1.,  1.,  1.],
       [ 1.,  1.,  1.,  1.]])
```

Indexing and slicing arrays

- Simple indexing:

```
>>> mat = np.array([[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]])
>>> mat[0,2]
3
>>> mat[1,-2]
5
```

- Slicing:

```
>>> a = np.arange(5)
>>> a[2:]
array([2, 3, 4])
>>> a[:-1]
array([0, 1, 2, 3])
>>> a[1:3] = -1
>>> a
array([0, -1, -1, 3, 4])
```

Indexing and slicing arrays

- Slicing is possible over all dimensions:

```
>>> a = np.arange(10)
>>> a[1:7:2]
array([1, 3, 5])
>>>
>>> a = np.zeros((4, 4))
>>> a[1:3, 1:3] = 2.0
>>> a
array([[ 0.,  0.,  0.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  2.,  2.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  2.,  2.,  0.],
       [ 0.,  0.,  0.,  0.]])
```

Views and copies of arrays

- Simple assignment creates references to arrays
- Slicing creates “views” to the arrays
- Use **copy()** for real copying of arrays

```
example.py
a = np.arange(10)
b = a           # reference, changing values in b changes a
b = a.copy()    # true copy

c = a[1:4]      # view, changing c changes elements [1:4] of a
c = a[1:4].copy() # true copy of subarray
```

Array operations

- Most operations for numpy arrays are done element-wise

— $+$, $-$, $*$, $/$, $**$

```
>>> a = np.array([1.0, 2.0, 3.0])
>>> b = 2.0
>>> a * b
array([ 2.,  4.,  6.])
>>> a + b
array([ 3.,  4.,  5.])
>>> a * a
array([ 1.,  4.,  9.])
```

Array operations

- Numpy has special functions which can work with array arguments
 - \sin , \cos , \exp , $\sqrt{}$, \log , ...

```
>>> import numpy, math
>>> a = numpy.linspace(-math.pi, math.pi, 8)
>>> a
array([-3.14159265, -2.24399475, -1.34639685, -0.44879895,
        0.44879895, 1.34639685, 2.24399475, 3.14159265])
>>> numpy.sin(a)
array([-1.22464680e-16, -7.81831482e-01, -9.74927912e-01,
        -4.33883739e-01,  4.33883739e-01,  9.74927912e-01,
        7.81831482e-01,  1.22464680e-16])
>>> math.sin(a)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
TypeError: only length-1 arrays can be converted to Python scalars
```

Vectorized operations

- for loops in Python are slow
- Use “vectorized” operations when possible
- Example: difference

```
example.py
# brute force using a for loop
arr = np.arange(1000)
dif = np.zeros(999, int)
for i in range(1, len(arr)):
    dif[i-1] = arr[i] - arr[i-1]

# vectorized operation
arr = np.arange(1000)
dif = arr[1:] - arr[:-1]

— for loop is ~80 times slower!
```



I/O with Numpy

- Numpy provides functions for reading data from file and for writing data into the files
- Simple text files
 - `numpy.loadtxt`
 - `numpy.savetxt`
 - Data in regular column layout
 - Can deal with comments and different column delimiters

Linear algebra

- Numpy can calculate matrix and vector products efficiently: `dot`, `vdot`, ...
- Eigenproblems: `linalg.eig`, `linalg.eigvals`, ...
- Linear systems and matrix inversion: `linalg.solve`, `linalg.inv`

```
>>> A = np.array([(2, 1), (1, 3)])
>>> B = np.array([(2, 4.2), (4.2, 6)])
>>> C = np.dot(A, B)
>>>
>>> b = np.array((1, 2))
>>> np.linalg.solve(C, b) # solve C x = b
array([ 0.04453441,  0.06882591])
```

Numpy performance

- Matrix multiplication
 - $C = A * B$
 - matrix dimension 200
- pure python: 5.30 s
- naive C: 0.09 s
- numpy.dot: 0.01 s

Summary

- Numpy provides a static array data structure
- Multidimensional arrays
- Fast mathematical operations for arrays
- Arrays can be broadcasted into same shapes
- Tools for linear algebra and random numbers

SIMPLE PLOTTING WITH MATPLOTLIB

Matplotlib

- 2D plotting library for python
- Can be used in scripts and in interactive shell
- Publication quality in various hardcopy formats
- “Easy things easy, hard things possible”
- Some 3D functionality

Matplotlib interfaces

- Simple command style functions similar to Matlab

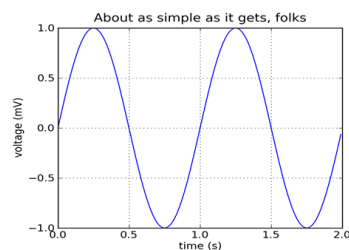
```
plot.py
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
...
plt.plot(x, y)
```

- Powerful object oriented API for full control of plotting

Basic concepts

- Figure: the main container of a plot
- Axes: the “plotting” area, a figure can contain multiple Axes
- graphical objects: lines, rectangles, text
- Command style functions are used for creating and manipulating figures, axes, lines, ...
- The command style interface is stateful:
 - track is kept about current figure and plotting area

Simple plot



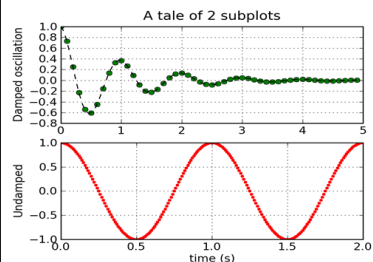
```
plot.py
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
...
plt.plot(x, y)
plt.title('About as simple')
plt.xlabel('time (s)')
```

- **plot** : create a simple plot. Figure and axes are created if needed

Interactive vs. batch mode

- In many installations batch mode is default
 - Figures do not show up without **show()** function
 - Batch mode is useful e.g. for writing out files during simulation and for heavy rendering
- Mode can be controlled as:
 - **ion()** : turn on interactive mode
 - **ioff()** : turn on interactive mode
- IPython has more extensive support for interactive usage
 - %matplotlib magic command
 - Start as “ipython - -matplotlib”

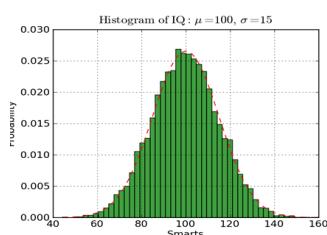
Multiple subplots



```
subplot.py
plt.subplot(211) #2x1 plot, use 1st
plt.plot(x, y1)
...
plt.subplot(212) #use 2nd
plt.plot(x, y2)
```

- **subplot** : create multiple axes in the figure and switch between subplots

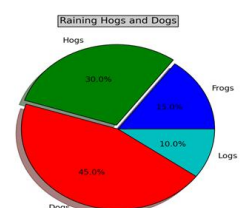
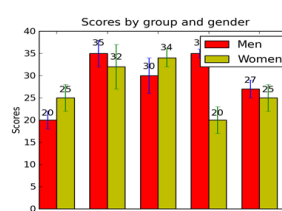
Histograms



```
histogram.py
mu, sigma = 100, 15
x = mu + sigma*np.random.rand(1000)
plt.hist(x, 50)
#use raw strings for Latex
plt.title(r'Distribution, $\mu$')
```

- **hist** : create histogram
- Latex can be used with matplotlib

Bar and pie charts



- **bar** : bar charts
- **pie** : pie charts

Summary of basic functions

- Simple plot: `plot`
- Interactive vs. batch mode: `ion` / `ioff`
- Hardcopies: `savefig`
- Multiple plots: `subplot`
- Histograms: `hist`
- Bar charts: `bar`
- Pie charts: `pie`
- Switch plotting on top of existing figure: `hold`
- Contour plots: `contour`, `contourf`

Summary

- Matplotlib provides a simple command style interface for creating publication quality figures
- Interactive plotting and different output formats (.png, .pdf, .eps)
- Simple plots, multiplot figures, decorations
- Possible to use Latex in text

OBJECT ORIENTED PROGRAMMING WITH PYTHON



Object oriented programming with Python

- Basic concepts
- Classes in Python
- Inheritance
- Special methods

Programming paradigms

- There is no one right way to structure programs
- Some ways have been found to be better than others, especially because of
 - reusability
 - testability
 - readability
 - programmer efficiency
- Multiple programming paradigms exist and Python actually supports several

OOP concepts

- Object Oriented Programming (OOP) is programming paradigm
 - data and functionality are wrapped inside of an “object”
 - Objects provide methods which operate on (the data of) the object
 - Method is a function that is tied to the data of an object
- Encapsulation
 - User accesses objects only through methods
 - Organization of data inside the object is hidden from the user

Examples

- String as an object
 - Data is the contents of string
 - Methods could be lower/uppercasing the string
- Two dimensional vector
 - Data is the x and y components
 - Method could be the norm of vector

Examples

- An object in a 3D game
 - Data are the location of the object and it's shape, color, state, etc.
 - Methods could be interacting with the object
 - Multiple objects may be parts of a larger object
- A bank account in banking software
 - Data are the account number, account balance and a list of account transactions
 - A transaction needs to be it's own type of object
 - A likely method is recording a new transaction on an account

OOP in Python

- In Python **everything** is an object
 - Example: **open** function returns a file object
 - data includes e.g. the name of the file
- ```
>>> f = open('foo', 'w')
>>> f.name
'foo'
```
- methods of the file object referred by **f** are **f.read()**, **f.readlines()**, **f.close()**, ...
  - Also lists and dictionaries are objects (with some special syntax)
  - Even functions are objects!

## OOP concepts

- class
  - defines the object, i.e. the data and the methods belonging to the object
  - there is only single definition for given object type
  - e.g. the string-class
- instance
  - there can be several instances of the object
  - each instance can have different data, but the methods are the same
  - e.g. string instances "example" and "foobar"

## Class definition in Python

- When defining class methods in Python the first argument to method is always **self**
- **self** refers to the particular instance of the class
- **self** is not included when calling the class method
- Data of the particular instance is handled with **self**

```
students.py
class Student(object):
 def set_name(self, name):
 self.name = name

 def say_hello(self):
 print("Hello, my name is ", self.name)
```

## Class definition in Python

```
students.py
class Student(object):
 def set_name(self, name):
 self.name = name
 def say_hello(self):
 print("Hello, my name is ", self.name)

creating an instance of student
stu = Student()
calling a method of class
stu.set_name('Jussi')
creating another instance of student
stu2 = Student()
stu2.set_name('Martti')
the two instances contain different data
stu.say_hello()
stu2.say_hello()
```

## Passing data to object

- Data can be passed to an object at the point of creation by defining a special method `__init__`
- `__init__` is always called when creating the instance

```
students.py
class Student(object):
 def __init__(self, name):
 self.name = name
 ...
```

- In Python, one can also refer directly to data attributes

```
>>> from students import Student
>>> stu1 = Student('Jussi')
>>> stu2 = Student('Martti')
>>> print(stu1.name, stu2.name)
'Jussi', 'Martti'
```

## Python classes as data containers

- classes can be used for C-struct or Fortran-Type like data structures

```
students.py
class Student(object):
 def __init__(self, name, age):
 self.name = name
 self.age = age
```

- instances can be used as items in e.g. lists

```
>>> stu1 = Student('Jussi', 27)
>>> stu2 = Student('Martti', 25)
>>> student_list = [stu1, stu2]
>>> print(student_list[1].age)
```

## Encapsulation in Python

- Generally, OOP favours separation of internal data structures and implementation from the interface
- In some programming languages attributes and methods can be defined to be accessible only from other methods of the object.
- Python does not enforce encapsulation
- Leading underscore in a method or data attribute name can be used to hint that it is not intended for external use

## Inheritance

- New classes can be derived from existing ones by inheritance
- The derived class "inherits" the attributes and methods of parent
- The derived class can define new methods
- The derived class can override existing methods
- All classes should explicitly inherit the "object" class

## Inheritance - example

- Suppose you are making a mobile game with multiple objects that are all drawn in 2D → class `WorldObject`
- `WorldObjects` have a location and a shape and they can move (have speed and direction) and they can collide with other world objects, they can also draw themselves on a display using a method `draw()`
- You then create object types `Bird` and `Pig`, which inherit `WorldObject` but are drawn differently and a `Bird` colliding with a `Pig` destroys the `Pig`, they override the method `collide()` and `draw()`
- Then you create multiple subclasses of `Bird` which perform differently
- Through all this you only had to handle movement and other basic stuff once

## Inheriting classes in Python

```
inherit.py
class Student(object):
 ...

class PhDStudent(Student):
 # override __init__ but use __init__ of base class!
 def __init__(self, name, age, thesis_project):
 self.thesis = thesis_project
 super(PhDStudent, self).__init__(self, name, age)

 # define a new method
 def get_thesis_project(self):
 return self.thesis

stu = PhDStudent('Pekka', 20, 'Theory of everything')
use a method from the base class
stu.say_hello()
use a new method
proj = stu.get_thesis_project()
```

## Multiple inheritance

- In Python classes can inherit from multiple classes
- Very powerful when used correctly
  - Possible to create mixin classes
- Method Resolution Order determines in which order the calls to `super()` are processed

```
inherit.py
class Vehicle(object):
 ...
class Car(object):
 ...
class Volvo(Vehicle, Car):
 ...
```



## Special methods

- class can define methods with special names to implement operations by special syntax (operator overloading)
- Examples
  - `__add__`, `__sub__`, `__mul__`, `__div__`
    - for arithmetic operations (+, -, \*, /)
  - `__cmp__` for comparisons, e.g. sorting
  - `__setitem__`, `__getitem__` for list/dictionary like syntax using []



## Special methods

```
special.py
class Vector(object):
 def __init__(self, x, y):
 self.x = x
 self.y = y

 def __add__(self, other):
 new_x = self.x + other.x
 new_y = self.y + other.y
 return Vector(new_x, new_y)

v1 = Vector(2, 4)
v2 = Vector(-3, 6)
v3 = v1 + v2
```

```
special.py
class Student(object):
 ...
 def __lt__(self, other):
 return self.age < other.age

 def __eq__(self, other):
 return self.age == other.age

students = [Student('Jussi', 29),
 Student('Aaron', 27)]
students.sort()
```

## Exceptions

- Exceptions are just classes that inherit from Exception
- Creating new exceptions is easy, because most of the things are handled in the parent classes

```
exceptions.py
def addition(a, b):
 return a + b

try:
 addition("5", 10)
except TypeError as ex:
 print("Error: ", str(ex))

class BadDayException(Exception):
 pass

raise BadDayException("programmer "
 "is having a bad day")
```

## Summary

- Objects contain both data and functionality
- class is the definition of the object
- instance is a particular realization of object
- class can be inherited from other class(es)
- Python provides a comprehensive support for object oriented programming ("Everything is an object")
- Exceptions inherit from the base class Exception
- Python is a *multiparadigm* programming language, you don't have to use classes
  - Most programmers know OOP so it may be the path of least resistance to follow it in larger projects

