### **Introduction to Python**

Heavily based on presentations by Matt Huenerfauth (Penn State) Guido van Rossum (Google) Richard P. Muller (Caltech)

. . .

# Python

- Open source general-purpose language.
- Object Oriented, Procedural, Functional
- Easy to interface with C/ObjC/Java/Fortran
- Easy-ish to interface with C++ (via SWIG)
- Great interactive environment

- Downloads: <u>http://www.python.org</u>
- Documentation: <u>http://www.python.org/doc/</u>
- Free book: <u>http://www.diveintopython.org</u>

### 2.5.x / 2.6.x / 3.x ???

- "Current" version is 2.6.x
- "Mainstream" version is 2.5.x
- The new kid on the block is 3.x

# You probably want 2.5.x unless you are starting from scratch. Then maybe 3.x

### **Technical Issues**

### **Installing & Running Python**

### **Binaries**

- Python comes pre-installed with Mac OS X and Linux.
- Windows binaries from <a href="http://python.org/">http://python.org/</a>
- You might not have to do anything!

# **The Python Interpreter**

### Interactive interface to Python

#### % python

Python 2.5 (r25:51908, May 25 2007, 16:14:04) [GCC 4.1.2 20061115 (prerelease) (SUSE Linux)] on linux2 Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information. >>>

# Python interpreter evaluates inputs: >>> 3\*(7+2) 27

- Python prompts with '>>>'.
- To exit Python:
  - CTRL-D

### **Running Programs on UNIX**

% python filename.py

You could make the \*.py file executable and add the following #!/usr/bin/env python to the top to make it runnable.

### **Batteries Included**

Large collection of proven modules included in the standard distribution.

http://docs.python.org/modindex.html

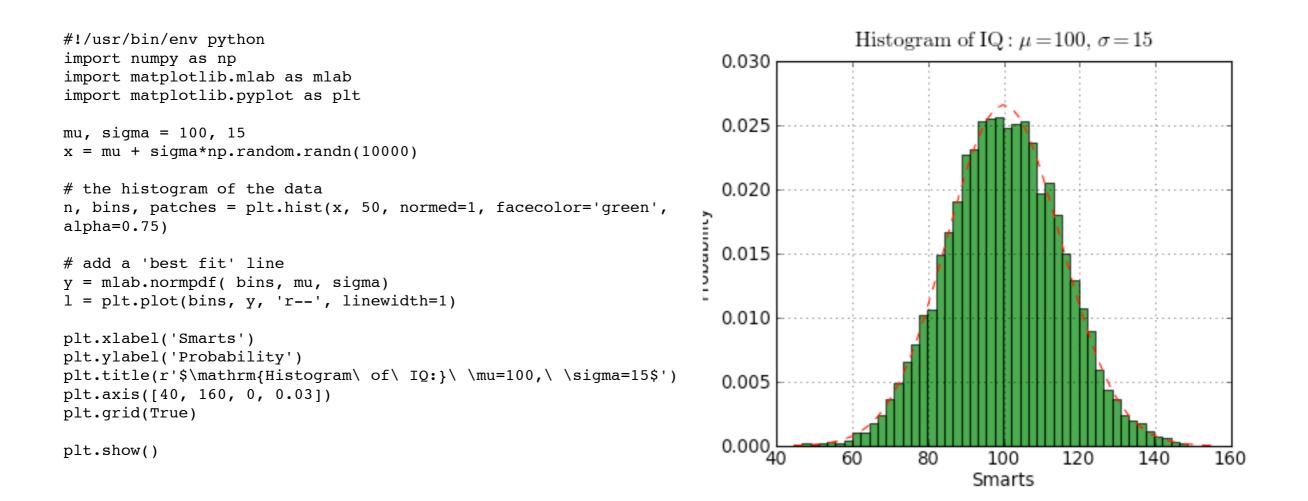
### numpy

- Offers Matlab-ish capabilities within Python
- Fast array operations
- 2D arrays, multi-D arrays, linear algebra etc.

- Downloads: http://numpy.scipy.org/
- Tutorial: http://www.scipy.org/ Tentative\_NumPy\_Tutorial

### matplotlib

### High quality plotting library.



### Downloads: <u>http://matplotlib.sourceforge.net/</u>

# **PyFITS**

### • FITS I/O made simple:

```
>>> import pyfits
>>> hdulist = pyfits.open('input.fits')
>>> hdulist.info()
Filename: test1.fits
No. Name Type Cards Dimensions Format
0 PRIMARY PrimaryHDU 220 () Int16
1 SCI ImageHDU 61 (800, 800) Float32
2 SCI ImageHDU 61 (800, 800) Float32
3 SCI ImageHDU 61 (800, 800) Float32
4 SCI ImageHDU 61 (800, 800) Float32
>>> hdulist[0].header['targname']
'NGC121'
>>> scidata = hdulist[1].data
>>> scidata.shape
(800, 800)
>>> scidata.dtype.name 'float32'
>>> scidata[30:40,10:20] = scidata[1,4] = 999
```

### Downloads: <u>http://www.stsci.edu/resources/</u> <u>software\_hardware/pyfits</u>

### pyds9 / python-sao

- Interaction with DS9
- Display Python 1-D and 2-D arrays in DS9
- Display FITS files in DS9

- Downloads: Ask Eric Mandel :-)
- Downloads: <u>http://code.google.com/p/python-sao/</u>

### Wrappers for Astronomical Packages

- CasaPy (Casa)
- PYGILDAS (GILDAS)
- ParselTongue (AIPS)
- PyRAF (IRAF)
- PyMIDAS (MIDAS)
- PyIMSL (IMSL)

# **Custom Distributions**

### • Python(x,y): <u>http://www.pythonxy.com/</u>

 Python(x,y) is a free scientific and engineering development software for numerical computations, data analysis and data visualization

### Sage: http://www.sagemath.org/

 Sage is a free open-source mathematics software system licensed under the GPL. It combines the power of many existing open-source packages into a common Python-based interface.

### **Extra Astronomy Links**

- iPython (better shell, distributed computing): <u>http://ipython.scipy.org</u>/
- SciPy (collection of science tools): <u>http://www.scipy.org</u>/
- Python Astronomy Modules: <u>http://</u> <u>astlib.sourceforge.net</u>/
- Python Astronomer Wiki: <u>http://macsingularity.org/</u> <u>astrowiki/tiki-index.php?page=python</u>
- AstroPy: <u>http://www.astro.washington.edu/users/</u> <u>rowen/AstroPy.html</u>
- Python for Astronomers: http://www.iac.es/ sieinvens/siepedia/pmwiki.php? n=HOWTOs.EmpezandoPython

### **The Basics**

### A Code Sample

### **Enough to Understand the Code**

- Assignment uses = and comparison uses ==.
- For numbers + \* / % are as expected.
  - Special use of + for string concatenation.
  - Special use of % for string formatting (as with printf in C)
- Logical operators are words (and, or, not) not symbols
- The basic printing command is print.
- The first assignment to a variable creates it.
  - Variable types don't need to be declared.
  - Python figures out the variable types on its own.

# **Basic Datatypes**

#### Integers (default for numbers)

z = 5 / 2 # Answer is 2, integer division.

Floats

x = 3.456

- Strings
  - Can use "" or " to specify.
    "abc" 'abc' (Same thing.)
  - Unmatched can occur within the string.

#### "matt's"

 Use triple double-quotes for multi-line strings or strings than contain both ' and " inside of them:

"""a'b"c"""

### Whitespace

# Whitespace is meaningful in Python: especially indentation and placement of newlines.

### Use a newline to end a line of code.

- Use \ when must go to next line prematurely.
- No braces { } to mark blocks of code in Python... Use consistent indentation instead.
  - The first line with *less* indentation is outside of the block.
  - The first line with *more* indentation starts a nested block
- Often a colon appears at the start of a new block. (E.g. for function and class definitions.)

# Comments

- Start comments with # the rest of line is ignored.
- Can include a "documentation string" as the first line of any new function or class that you define.
- The development environment, debugger, and other tools use it: it's good style to include one.

```
def my_function(x, y):
    """This is the docstring. This
    function does blah blah blah."""
    # The code would go here...
```

- Binding a variable in Python means setting a name to hold a reference to some object.
  - Assignment creates references, not copies
- Names in Python do not have an intrinsic type. Objects have types.
  - Python determines the type of the reference automatically based on the data object assigned to it.
- You create a name the first time it appears on the left side of an assignment expression:

x = 3

 A reference is deleted via garbage collection after any names bound to it have passed out of scope.

### **Accessing Non-Existent Names**

 If you try to access a name before it's been properly created (by placing it on the left side of an assignment), you'll get an error.

```
>>> y
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "<pyshell#16>", line 1, in -toplevel-
        y
NameError: name 'y' is not defined
>>> y = 3
>>> y
3
```

# Multiple Assignment

#### • You can also assign to multiple names at the same time.

## **Naming Rules**

 Names are case sensitive and cannot start with a number. They can contain letters, numbers, and underscores.

bob Bob bob 2 bob bob 2 BoB

• There are some reserved words:

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

# Understanding Reference Semantics in Python

### Assignment manipulates references

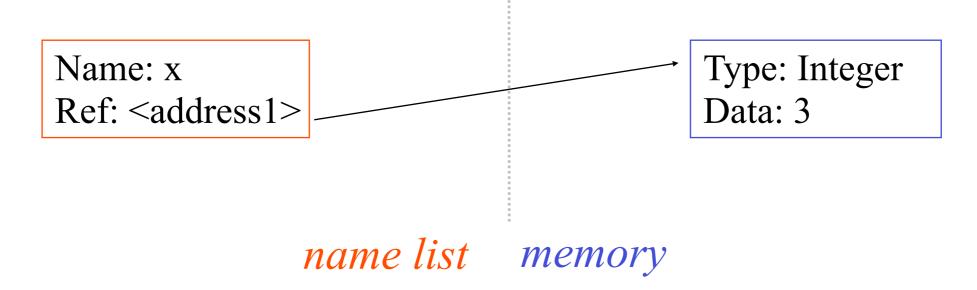
- —x = y **does not make a copy** of the object y references
- -x = y makes x **reference** the object y references
- Very useful; but beware!

### • Example:

>>> a = [1, 2, 3] # a now references the list [1, 2, 3]
>> b = a # b now references what a references
>> a.append(4) # this *changes* the list a references
>> print b # if we print what b references,
[1, 2, 3, 4] # SURPRISE! It has changed...

### Why??

- There is a lot going on when we type: x = 3
- First, an integer 3 is created and stored in memory
- A name x is created
- An reference to the memory location storing the 3 is then assigned to the name x
- So: When we say that the value of x is 3
- we mean that **x** now refers to the integer **3**



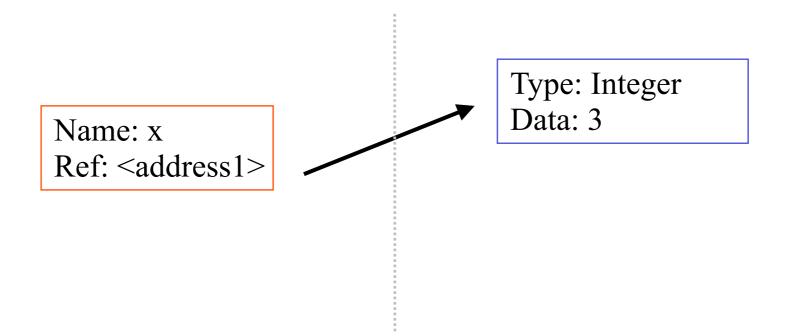
- The data 3 we created is of type integer. In Python, the datatypes integer, float, and string (and tuple) are "immutable."
- This doesn't mean we can't change the value of x, i.e. change what x refers to ...
- For example, we could increment x:

```
>>> x = 3
>>> x = x + 1
>>> print x
4
```

- If we increment x, then what's really happening is:
  - 1. The reference of name **X** is looked up.

>>> x = x + 1

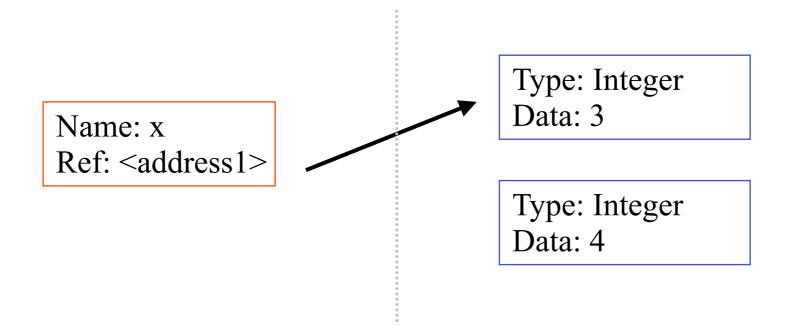
2. The value at that reference is retrieved.



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>>> x = x + 1

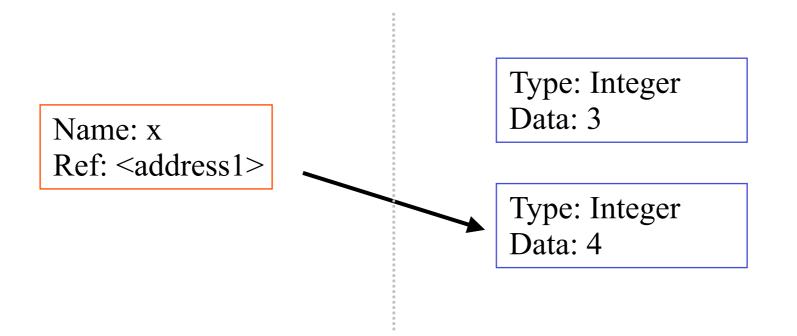
- 2. The value at that reference is retrieved.
- 3. The 3+1 calculation occurs, producing a new data element **4** which is assigned to a fresh memory location with a new reference.



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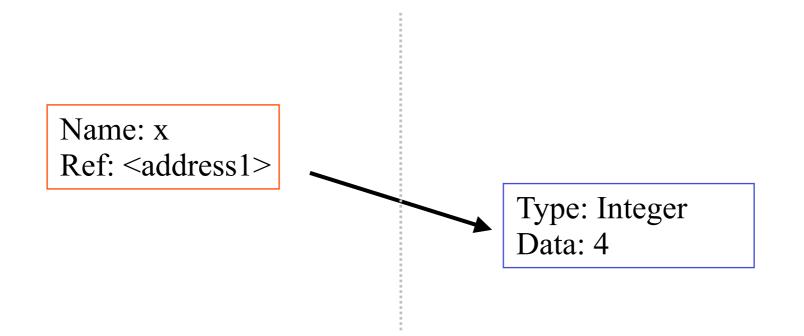
- 2. The value at that reference is retrieved.
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- 4. The name X is changed to point to this new reference.



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>>> x = x + 1

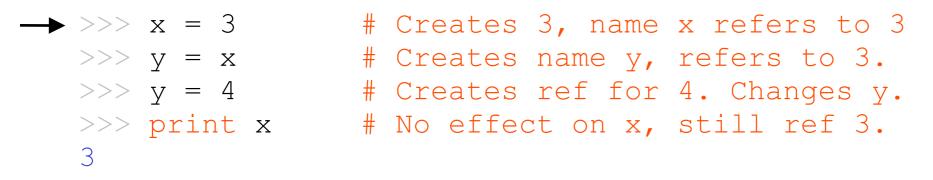
- 2. The value at that reference is retrieved.
- 3. The 3+1 calculation occurs, producing a new data element 4 which is assigned to a fresh memory location with a new reference.
- 4. The name X is changed to point to this new reference.
- 5. The old data  $\mathbf{3}$  is garbage collected if no name still refers to it.

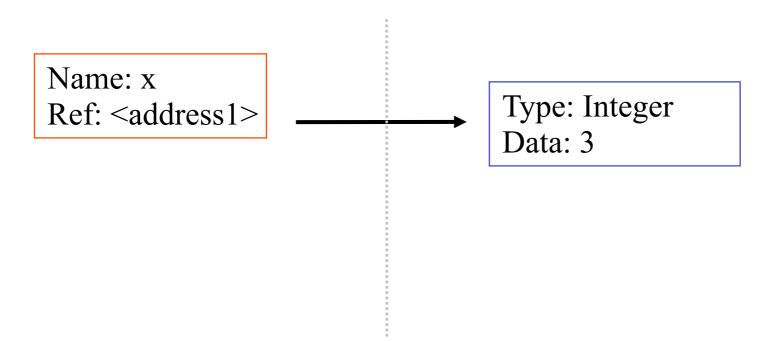


 So, for simple built-in datatypes (integers, floats, strings), assignment behaves as you would expect:

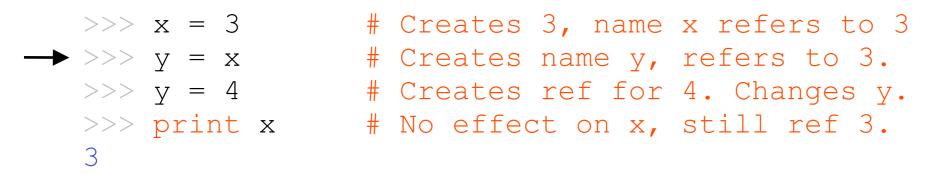
```
>>> x = 3  # Creates 3, name x refers to 3
>>> y = x  # Creates name y, refers to 3.
>>> y = 4  # Creates ref for 4. Changes y.
>>> print x  # No effect on x, still ref 3.
3
```

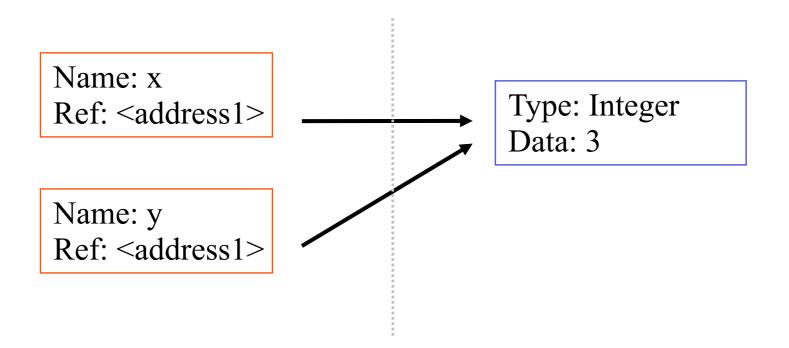
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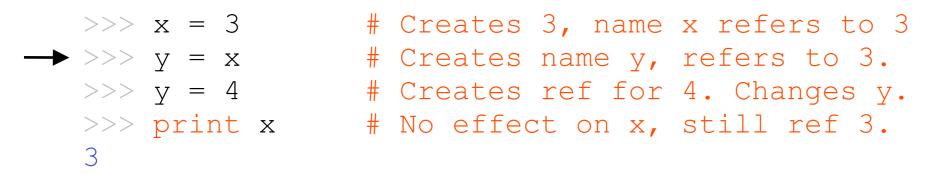


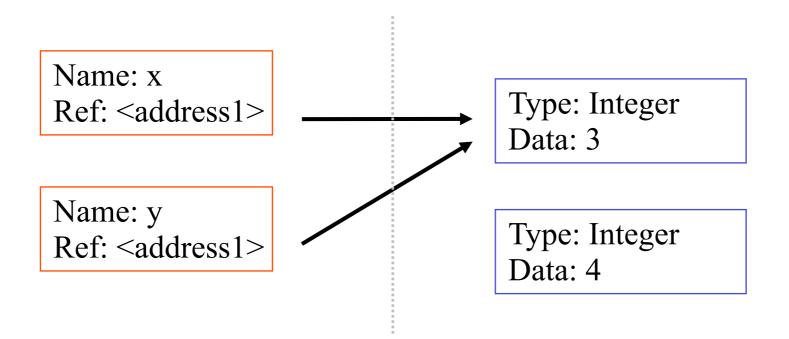
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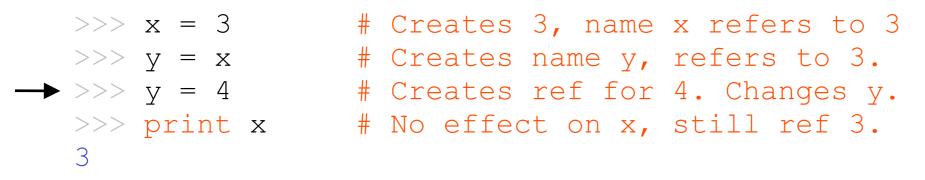


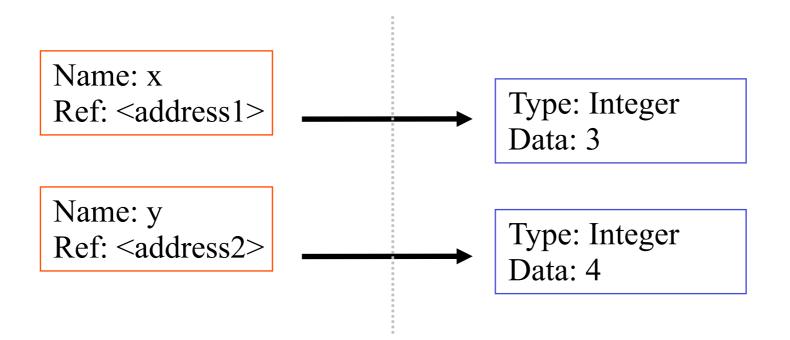
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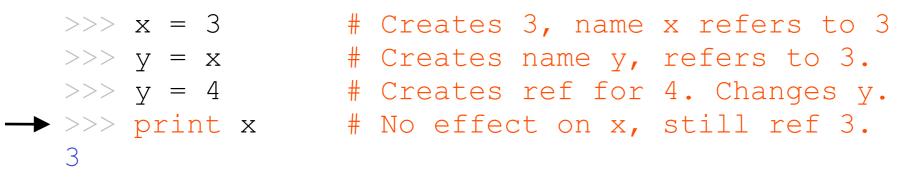


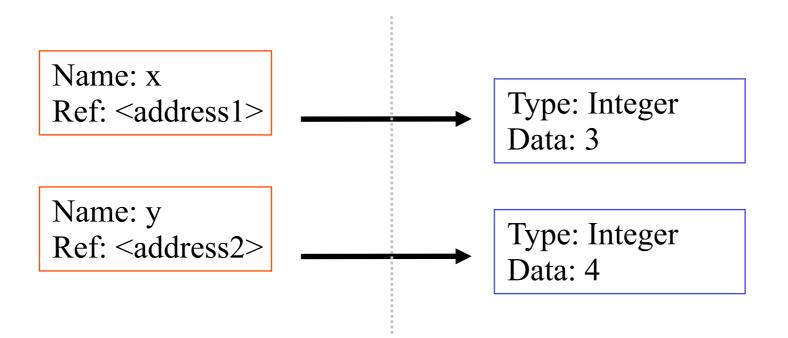
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 For other data types (lists, dictionaries, user-defined types), assignment works differently.

- These datatypes are "mutable."
- When we change these data, we do it *in place*.
- We don't copy them into a new memory address each time.
- If we type y=x and then modify y, both x and y are changed.

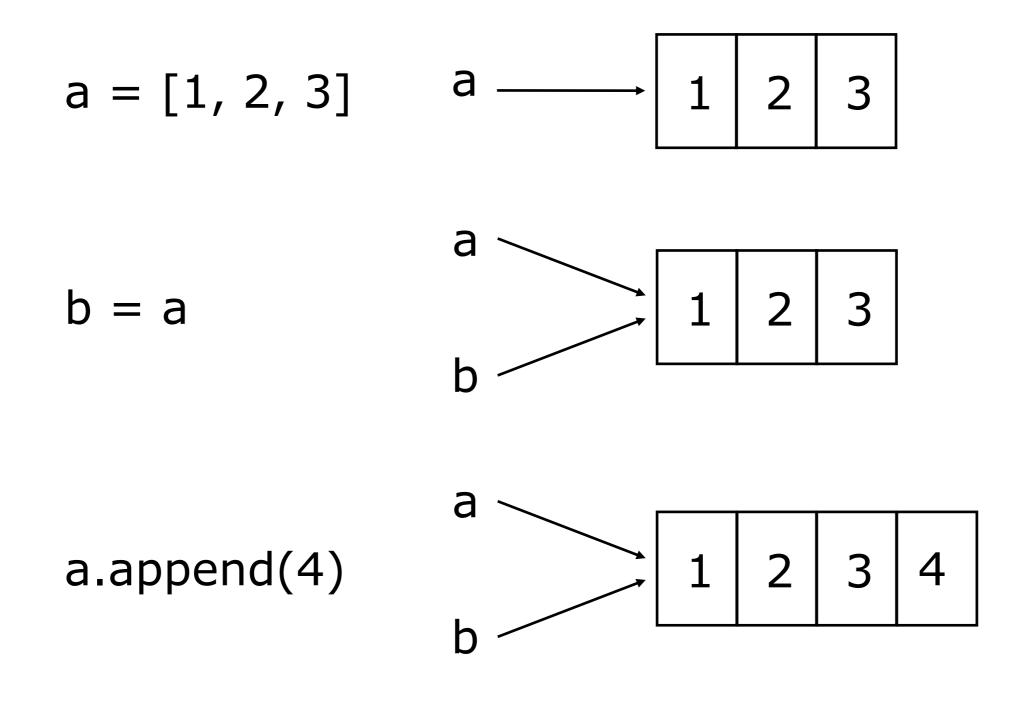
#### immutable

#### mutable

>>>	Х	=	3	
>>>	У	=	Х	
>>>	У	=	4	
>>>	pı	cir	nt	Х
3				

x = some mutable object
y = x
make a change to y
look at x
x will be changed as well

## Why? Changing a Shared List



### Our surprising example surprising no more...

• So now, here's our code:

>>> a = [1, 2, 3]	# a now references the list [1, 2, 3]
>>> b = a	# b now references what a references
>>> a.append(4)	# this changes the list a references
>>> print b	# if we print what b references,
[1, 2, 3, 4]	# SURPRISE! It has changed

### Sequence types: Tuples, Lists, and Strings

## **Sequence Types**

- 1. Tuple
  - A simple *immutable* ordered sequence of items
  - Items can be of mixed types, including collection types
- 2. Strings
  - Immutable
  - Conceptually very much like a tuple
- 3. List
  - *Mutable* ordered sequence of items of mixed types

# **Similar Syntax**

- All three sequence types (tuples, strings, and lists) share much of the same syntax and functionality.
- Key difference:
  - Tuples and strings are *immutable*
  - Lists are *mutable*
- The operations shown in this section can be applied to <u>all</u> sequence types
  - most examples will just show the operation performed on one

## **Sequence Types 1**

Tuples are defined using parentheses (and commas).

>>> tu = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')

• Lists are defined using square brackets (and commas).
>>> li = ["abc", 34, 4.34, 23]

```
• Strings are defined using quotes (", ', or """").
>>> st = "Hello World"
>>> st = 'Hello World'
>>> st = """This is a multi-line
string that uses triple quotes."""
```

## **Sequence Types 2**

- We can access individual members of a tuple, list, or string using square bracket "array" notation.
- Note that all are 0 based...

## **Positive and negative indices**

#### >>> t = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')

#### Positive index: count from the left, starting with 0.

>>> t[1] 'abc'

#### Negative lookup: count from right, starting with –1.

>>> t[-3] 4.56 >>> t = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')

Return a copy of the container with a subset of the original members. Start copying at the first index, and stop copying <u>before</u> the second index.

>>> t[1:4]
('abc', 4.56, (2,3))

You can also use negative indices when slicing.

>>> t[1:-1]
('abc', 4.56, (2,3))

```
>>> t = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')
```

Omit the first index to make a copy starting from the beginning of the container.

>>> t[:2]
(23, 'abc')

Omit the second index to make a copy starting at the first index and going to the end of the container.

```
>>> t[2:]
(4.56, (2,3), 'def')
```

### **Copying the Whole Sequence**

To make a *copy* of an entire sequence, you can use [:].

>>> t[:]
(23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')

# Note the difference between these two lines for mutable sequences:

```
>>> list2 = list1  # 2 names refer to 1 ref
    # Changing one affects both
```

>>> list2 = list1[:] # Two independent copies, two refs

### The 'in' Operator

Boolean test whether a value is inside a container:

```
>>> t = [1, 2, 4, 5]
>>> 3 in t
False
>>> 4 in t
True
>>> 4 not in t
False
```

#### For strings, tests for substrings

```
>>> a = 'abcde'
>>> 'c' in a
True
>>> 'cd' in a
True
>>> 'ac' in a
False
```

 Be careful: the *in* keyword is also used in the syntax of for loops and list comprehensions.

#### **The + Operator**

 The + operator produces a new tuple, list, or string whose value is the concatenation of its arguments.

```
>>> (1, 2, 3) + (4, 5, 6)
(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
>>> [1, 2, 3] + [4, 5, 6]
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
>>> "Hello" + " " + "World"
'Hello World'
```

### The \* Operator

 The \* operator produces a new tuple, list, or string that "repeats" the original content.

```
>>> (1, 2, 3) * 3
(1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3)
>>> [1, 2, 3] * 3
[1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3]
>>> "Hello" * 3
'HelloHelloHello'
```

## Mutability: Tuples vs. Lists

## **Tuples: Immutable**

```
>>> t = (23, 'abc', 4.56, (2,3), 'def')
>>> t[2] = 3.14
```

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
   File "<pyshell#75>", line 1, in -toplevel-
      tu[2] = 3.14
TypeError: object doesn't support item assignment
```

You can't change a tuple.

You can make a fresh tuple and assign its reference to a previously used name.

>>> t = (23, 'abc', 3.14, (2,3), 'def')

```
>>> li = ['abc', 23, 4.34, 23]
>>> li[1] = 45
>>> li
['abc', 45, 4.34, 23]
```

- We can change lists in place.
- Name *li* still points to the same memory reference when we're done.
- The mutability of lists means that they aren't as fast as tuples.

## **Operations on Lists Only 1**

```
>>> li = [1, 11, 3, 4, 5]
```

>>> li.append(`a') # Our first exposure to method syntax
>>> li
[1 11 3 4 5 24]

```
[1, 11, 3, 4, 5, `a']
```

```
>>> li.insert(2, `i')
>>>li
[1, 11, `i', 3, 4, 5, `a']
```

## The extend method vs the + operator.

- + creates a fresh list (with a new memory reference)
- extend operates on list li in place.

```
>>> li.extend([9, 8, 7])
>>>li
[1, 2, 'i', 3, 4, 5, 'a', 9, 8, 7]
```

#### **Confusing:**

- Extend takes a list as an argument.
- Append takes a singleton as an argument.

```
>>> li.append([10, 11, 12])
>>> li
[1, 2, `i', 3, 4, 5, `a', 9, 8, 7, [10, 11, 12]]
```

## **Operations on Lists Only 3**

```
>>> li = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'b']
```

```
>>> li.index('b')  # index of first occurrence
1
```

```
>>> li.count('b')  # number of occurrences
2
```

```
>>> li.remove('b')  # remove first occurrence
>>> li
  ['a', 'c', 'b']
```

## **Operations on Lists Only 4**

```
>>> li = [5, 2, 6, 8]
```

```
>>> li.reverse()  # reverse the list *in place*
>>> li
   [8, 6, 2, 5]
>>> li.sort()  # sort the list *in place*
>>> li
```

```
[2, 5, 6, 8]
```

```
>>> li.sort(some_function)
# sort in place using user-defined comparison
```

## **Tuples vs. Lists**

#### • Lists slower but more powerful than tuples.

- Lists can be modified, and they have lots of handy operations we can perform on them.
- Tuples are immutable and have fewer features.
- To convert between tuples and lists use the list() and tuple() functions:

li = list(tu)

tu = tuple(li)

### **Dictionaries**

## **Dictionaries: A Mapping type**

- Dictionaries store a mapping between a set of keys and a set of values.
  - Keys can be any immutable type.
  - Values can be any type
  - A single dictionary can store values of different types
- You can define, modify, view, lookup, and delete the key-value pairs in the dictionary.

## **Using dictionaries**

```
>>> d = {`user':`bozo', `pswd':1234}
>>> d[`user']
`bozo'
>>> d[`pswd']
1234
>>> d[`bozo']
```

Traceback (innermost last):
 File `<interactive input>' line 1, in ?
KeyError: bozo

```
>>> d = { 'user': 'bozo', 'pswd':1234}
>>> d[ 'user'] = 'clown'
>>> d
{ 'user': 'clown', 'pswd':1234}
```

```
>>> d[`id'] = 45
>>> d
{`user':`clown', `id':45, `pswd':1234}
```

### **Functions**

## **Functions**

- def creates a function and assigns it a name
- return sends a result back to the caller
- Arguments are passed by assignment
- Arguments and return types are not declared

```
def <name>(arg1, arg2, ..., argN):
    <statements>
    return <value>
def times(x,y):
```

```
return x*y
```

## **Passing Arguments to Functions**

- Arguments are passed by assignment
- Passed arguments are assigned to local names
- Assignment to argument names don't affect the caller
- Changing a mutable argument may affect the caller

# **Optional Arguments**

#### Can define defaults for arguments that need not be passed

```
def func(a, b, c=10, d=100):
    print a, b, c, d
>>> func(1,2)
1 2 10 100
>>> func(1,2,3,4)
1,2,3,4
```

## Gotchas

- All functions in Python have a return value
  - even if no return line inside the code.
- Functions without a return return the special value None.
- There is no function overloading in Python.
  - Two different functions can't have the same name, even if they have different arguments.
- Functions can be used as any other data type.
   They can be:
  - Arguments to function
  - Return values of functions
  - Assigned to variables
  - Parts of tuples, lists, etc

## **Control of Flow**

### **Examples**

if x == 3: print "X equals 3." elif x == 2: print "X equals 2." else: print "X equals 2." print "X equals something else." print "This is outside the 'if'."

 $\mathbf{x} = 3$ for x in range(10): while x < 10: if x > 7: if x > 7: x += 2 x += 2 continue continue  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{1}$  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{1}$ print "Still in the loop." print "Still in the loop." if x == 8:if x == 8:break break print "Outside of the loop." print "Outside of the loop."

## Modules

# Why Use Modules?

### Code reuse

- Routines can be called multiple times within a program
- Routines can be used from multiple programs

### Namespace partitioning

Group data together with functions used for that data

### Implementing shared services or data

Can provide global data structure that is accessed by multiple subprograms

# Modules

- Modules are functions and variables defined in separate files
- Items are imported using from or import

```
from module import function
function()
```

```
import module
module.function()
```

#### Modules are namespaces

Can be used to organize variable names, i.e.

atom.position = atom.position - molecule.position

## **Classes and Objects**

# What is an Object?

- A software item that contains variables and methods
- Object Oriented Design focuses on
  - Encapsulation:
    - -dividing the code into a public interface, and a private implementation of that interface
  - Polymorphism:
    - -the ability to overload standard operators so that they have appropriate behavior based on their context
  - Inheritance:
    - -the ability to create subclasses that contain specializations of their parents

# Example

```
>>> at.symbol()
```

'C'

# **Atom Class**

- Overloaded the default constructor
- Defined class variables (atno,position) that are persistent and local to the atom object
- Good way to manage shared memory:
  - instead of passing long lists of arguments, encapsulate some of this data into an object, and pass the object.
  - much cleaner programs result
- Overloaded the print operator
- We now want to use the atom class to build molecules...

## **Molecule Class**

```
class molecule:
    def __init__(self,name='Generic'):
        self.name = name
        self.atomlist = []
    def addatom(self,atom):
        self.atomlist.append(atom)
    def __repr__(self):
        str = 'This is a molecule named %s\n' % self.name
        str = str+'It has %d atoms\n' % len(self.atomlist)
        for atom in self.atomlist:
             str = str + `atom` + '\n'
        return str
```

# **Using Molecule Class**

```
>>> mol = molecule('Water')
>>> at = atom(8,0.,0.,0.)
>>> mol.addatom(at)
>>> mol.addatom(atom(1,0.,0.,1.))
>>> mol.addatom(atom(1,0.,1.,0.))
>>> print mol
This is a molecule named Water
It has 3 atoms
8  0.000 0.000 0.000
1  0.000 0.000
1  0.000 1.000
1  0.000 1.000
```

# Note that the print function calls the atoms print function

 Code reuse: only have to type the code that prints an atom once; this means that if you change the atom specification, you only have one place to update.

# Inheritance

```
class qm_molecule(molecule):
    def addbasis(self):
        self.basis = []
        for atom in self.atomlist:
            self.basis = add_bf(atom,self.basis)
```

- \_\_init\_\_, \_\_repr\_\_, and \_\_addatom\_\_ are taken from the parent class (molecule)
- Added a new function addbasis() to add a basis set
- Another example of code reuse
  - Basic functions don't have to be retyped, just inherited
  - Less to rewrite when specifications change

# Overloading

```
class qm_molecule(molecule):
  def __repr__(self):
    str = 'QM Rules!\n'
    for atom in self.atomlist:
       str = str + `atom` + '\n'
    return str
```

- Now we only inherit \_\_init\_\_ and addatom from the parent
- We define a new version of \_\_repr\_\_ specially for QM

# **Adding to Parent Functions**

#### Sometimes you want to extend, rather than replace, the parent functions.

```
class qm_molecule(molecule):
    def __init__(self,name="Generic",basis="6-31G**"):
        self.basis = basis
        super(qm_molecule, self).__init__(name)
```

# **Public and Private Data**

 In Python anything with two leading underscores is private

\_a, \_my\_variable

 Anything with one leading underscore is semiprivate, and you should feel guilty accessing this data directly.

\_b

 Sometimes useful as an intermediate step to making data private

## The Extra Stuff...

# File I/O, Strings, Exceptions...

```
\rightarrow try:
... 1/0
... except:
    print('That was silly!')
. . .
... finally:
        print('This gets executed no matter what')
. . .
That was silly!
This gets executed no matter what
                                              fileptr = open(`filename')
                                              somestring = fileptr.read()
                                              for line in fileptr:
                                                 print line
                                              fileptr.close()
>>> a = 1
>>> b = 2.4
>>> c = 'Tom'
>>> '%s has %d coins worth a total of $%.02f' % (c, a, b)
'Tom has 1 coins worth a total of $2.40'
```