

DM587  
Scientific Programming

## Python - Part 1

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*[Based on the booklet "Python Essentials"]*

## 1. Course Organization

## 2. Python

- Basics

- Data Structures

- Control Flow Tools

- Standard Library

- Object Oriented Programming

- Type Annotations

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# Contents in Scientific Programming (DM587)

Course Organization  
Python

Week	Date	Topics and Slides
43	Oct 21	Python - Part 1a: basics, data types, control flow
43	Oct 22	Python - Part 1b: std library, OO progr.
44	Oct 27	Python - Part 2: exceptions, file i/o, numpy
44	Oct 28	Python - Part 3: graphics, data viz, pandas
45	Nov 3	Least Squares Data Fitting
46	Nov 10	Graph Isomorphism and Molecules
47	Nov 17	From Random Polygon to Ellipse
48	Nov 24	Page Rank
49	Dec 1	Principal Component Analysis and Eigenfaces
50	Dec 8	Linear Programming and Numerical Methods

- Six weekly Python assignments (aka [labs](#))
- All scored from 0 to 100 (some with extra points). Hence 600 points overall.
- You must achieve an average score  $> 60\%$  (ie, 360 points) in the labs to be guaranteed to pass
- Final grade: is based on how many points above 360.

- Submissions via **git**
  - Read the Appendix A and B
  - Check that your repository exist in `https://gitlab.sdu.dk`
- Specification files with examples
- Automated tests after submission up to the deadline
  - You can submit as many times as you wish
  - Only the last test before the deadline counts
  - But do not submit without passing the local tests or with syntax errors (this will be noted)
  - Assessment at `https://gitlab.sdu.dk/`
- We will check for plagiarism

By registering to this course, you agree to:

- complete all assignments with your own work;
- acknowledge any and all external sources used in your work;
- refrain from any activity that would dishonestly or fraudulently improve your results or disadvantage others in the course;
- refrain from disclosing answers of assignments to others;
- maintain only one user account and not let anyone else use your username and/or password; and not access or attempt to access any other user's account, or misrepresent or attempt to misrepresent your identity while using the git system.

This Honor Code is not intended to prohibit discussion of course material. While students must submit work that is their own, students should feel free to discuss lectures and exercise sheets or other course material with others either in-person or online.

- Read SDU rules on the topic <https://mitsdu.dk/en/aiatsdu>. They apply here.
- Gen AI makes mistakes, bullshitting?
- Be aware of negative effects on your skills
- First learn, then use, and always check

AI tools are assistants, not replacements. They can suggest code, catch errors, and provide explanations, but you still need to understand the core concepts of the language. Don't solely rely on AI-generated code—sometimes the suggestions are wrong. It's important to always analyze outputs, understand why it works, and learn the underlying principles of the specific language.

Make this course be on learning programming not learning prompt engineering.



# git data transport commands

patrickzahnd.ch



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## A Python script

```
# python_intro.py
"""This is the file header.
The header contains basic information about the file.
"""

if __name__ == "__main__":
    print("Hello, world!\n")    # indent with four spaces (not TAB)
```

- insert in a file with a text editor, for example, emacs, vim, VS code.
- execute from [command prompt](#) on [Terminal](#) on Linux or Mac and [Command Prompt](#) on Windows or [Bash Shell](#) on Windows Subsystem for Linux (WSL)

# Running Python — Interactively

Python:

```
$ python                                # Start the Python interpreter.  
>>> print("This is plain Python.")    # Execute some code.  
This is plain Python.
```

IPython:

```
>>> exit()                             # Exit the Python interpreter.  
$ ipython                               # Start IPython.  
  
In [1]: print("This is IPython!")      # Execute some code.  
This is IPython!  
  
In [2]: %run python_intro.py           # Run a particular Python script.  
Hello, world!
```

# Jupyter (formerly IPython Notebook)

- **Object introspection**: quickly reveals all methods and attributes associated with an object.
- `help()` provides interactive help.

```
# A list is a basic Python data structure. To see the methods associated with  
# a list, type the object name (list), followed by a period, and press tab.
```

```
In [1]: list.    # Press 'tab'.
```

```
append()  count()  insert()  remove()  
clear()   extend() mro()    reverse()  
copy()    index()  pop()     sort()
```

```
# To learn more about a specific method, use a '?' and hit 'Enter'.
```

```
In [1]: list.append?
```

```
Docstring: L.append(object) -> None -- append object to end
```

```
Type:      method_descriptor
```

```
In [2]: help()
```

```
# Start IPython's interactive help utility.
```

```
help> list
```

```
# Get documentation on the list class.
```

```
Help on class list in module __builtin__:
```

```
...
```

```
<<help> quit
```

```
# End the interactive help session.
```

# Which Python Kernel?

Python 3.0 was released on 3 December 2008, and was a major revision and not completely **backward-compatible** with earlier versions, with some new semantics and changed syntax. Python 2.7.18, released in 2020, was the last release of Python 2.<sup>[53]</sup> Several releases in the Python 3.x series have added new syntax to the language, and made a few (considered very minor) backward-incompatible changes.

Since 7 October 2025, Python 3.14.0 is the latest stable release, and Python 3.13.9 released a week later all older 3.x versions also had a security update down to Python 3.9.24, the last in 3.9 series. Python 3.10 is the oldest supported branch.<sup>[54]</sup> Releases receive two years of full support followed by three years of security support.

source: wikipedia

- Visual Studio (full version) is a “full-featured” development environment. License: Microsoft proprietary software
- Visual Studio (free “Express” versions - only until 2017) are feature-centered and simplified versions of the full version. Feature-centered meaning that there are different versions (Visual Studio Web Developer, Visual Studio C#, etc.).
- Visual Studio (free Community edition - since 2015) is a simplified version of the full version and replaces the separated express editions used before 2015.
- Visual Studio Code (VSCode) is a cross-platform (Linux, Mac OS, Windows) editor that can be extended with plugins to your needs. License: Proprietary freeware based on open-source project. <https://code.visualstudio.com>

# Set up in VS Code

The screenshot shows the VS Code interface with a file named `sheet1.py` open. The editor displays the following code:

```
1 Run Cell | Run Below | Debug Cell | Go to [1]
2 #%%
3 import numpy as np
4
5 A=np.array([[1,1],[0.045,0.0375]])
6 b=np.array([6300,267.25])
7
8
9 Run Cell | Run Above | Debug Cell
10 # %%
11 x = np.linalg.solve(A,b)
12
13 Run Cell | Run Above | Debug Cell
14 # %%
15 Ax
16
17 np.dot(A,x)
18
19 3/4
20
```

The right-hand pane shows the interactive output for the code:

```
Interactive - sheet1.py x
Interrupt | X Clear All | Restart | Variables | Save | Export | Expand | Python 3.10.2

import numpy as np
[3] ✓ 0.0s

np.matmul?
[4] ✓ 0.0s

...
Call signature: np.matmul(*args, **kwargs)
Type:          ufunc
String form:   <ufunc 'matmul'>
File:          /Library/Frameworks/Python.framework/Versions/3.10/lib/python3.10/site-packages/nu
Docstring:
matmul(x1, x2, /, out=None, *, casting='same_kind', order='K', dtype=None, subok=True[, signature, e

Matrix product of two arrays.

Parameters
-----
x1, x2 : array_like
    Input arrays, scalars not allowed.
out : ndarray, optional
    A location into which the result is stored. If provided, it must have
    a shape that matches the signature `(n,k),(k,m)->(n,m)`. If not
    provided or None, a freshly-allocated array is returned.
**kwargs
    For other keyword-only arguments, see the
    :ref:`ufunc docs <ufuncs.kwargs>`.

.. versionadded:: 1.16
    Now handles ufunc kwargs

Returns
...
`r` will have the shape that the arrays in `x` broadcast to; if `out` is
provided, it will be returned. If not, `r` will be allocated and
may contain uninitialized values. If the function has more than one
output, then the result will be a tuple of arrays.

Output is truncated. View as a scrollable element or open in a text editor. Adjust cell output settings...
```

At the bottom, a button indicates: `Press [Enter] to execute.`



- Alternatively, use IPython side-by-side with a text editor to test syntax and small code snippets quickly.
- VS Code / Spyder3 / JupyterLab
- Consult the internet (eg, [stackoverflow.com](https://stackoverflow.com)) with appropriate keywords;
- The official Python tutorial:  
<http://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/introduction.html>
- PEP8 - Python Enhancement Proposals style guide:  
<http://www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0008/>  
pylint: linter, a static code analysis tool <https://www.pylint.org/>

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- `+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, `**`, and `//` operators.
- `**` exponentiation; `%` modular division.
- underscore character `_` is a variable with the value of the previous command's output

```
>>> 12 * 3
36
>>> _ / 4
9.0
```

- Data comparisons like `<` and `>` act as expected.
- operator `==` checks for numerical equality; operators `<=` and `>=` correspond to  $\leq$  and  $\geq$
- Operators `and`, `or`, and `not` (no need for parenthesis)

```
>>> 3 > 2.99
True
>>> 1.0 <= 1 or 2 > 3
True
>>> 7 == 7 and not 4 < 4
True
```

Basic types: numbers (integer, float), Boolean, string

Dynamically typed language: does not require to specify data type

```
>>> x = 12                                # Initialize x with the integer 12.
>>> y = 2 * 6                             # Initialize y with the integer 2*6 = 12.
>>> x == y                                # Compare the two variable values.
True

>>> x, y = 2, 4                           # Give both x and y new values in one line.
>>> x == y
False
```

# Functions: Syntax

```
>>> def add(x, y):  
...     return x + y           # Indent with four spaces.
```

- mixing tabs and spaces confuses the interpreter and causes problems.
- most text editors set the indentation type to spaces ([soft tabs](#))

Functions are defined with [parameters](#) and called with [arguments](#),

```
>>> def area(width, height):    # Define the function.  
...     return width * height  
...  
>>> area(2, 5)                 # Call the function.  
10
```

```
>>> def arithmetic(a, b):  
...     return a - b, a * b    # Separate return values with commas.  
...  
>>> x, y = arithmetic(5, 2)    # Unpack the returns into two variables.  
>>> print(x, y)  
3 10
```

The keyword `lambda` is a shortcut for creating one-line functions.

```
# Define the polynomials the usual way using 'def'.
>>> def g(x, y, z):
...     return x + y**2 - z**3

# Equivalently, define the polynomials quickly using 'lambda'.
>>> g = lambda x, y, z: x + y**2 - z**3
```

# Functions: Docstrings

```
>>> def add(x, y):  
...     """Return the sum of the two inputs.""" # one-liner  
...     return x + y  
  
>>>def complex(real=0.0, imag=0.0):  
...     """Form a complex number.  
...  
...     Keyword arguments:  
...     real -- the real part (default 0.0)  
...     imag -- the imaginary part (default 0.0)  
...     """ # multi-liner  
...     if imag == 0.0 and real == 0.0:  
...         return complex_zero  
...     ...  
>>> def arithmetic(a, b):  
...     """Return the difference and the product of the two inputs."""  
...     return a - b, a * b
```

Multi-line docstrings consist of a summary line just like a one-line docstring, followed by a blank line, followed by a more elaborate description.

# Functions: Returned Values

```
>>> def oops(i):
...     """Increment i (but forget to return anything)."""
...     print(i + 1)
...
>>> def increment(i):
...     """Increment i."""
...     return i + 1
...
>>> x = oops(1999)                # x contains 'None' since oops()
2000                             # doesn't have a return statement.
>>> y = increment(1999)          # However, y contains a value.
>>> print(x, y)
None 2000
```



# Functions: Arguments

Arguments are passed to functions based on **position** or **name**  
Positional arguments must be defined before named arguments.

```
# Correctly define pad() with the named argument after positional arguments.
>>> def pad(a, b, c=0):
...     """Print the arguments, plus a zero if c is not specified."""
...     print(a, b, c)
# Call pad() with 3 positional arguments.
>>> pad(2, 4, 6)
2 4 6
# Call pad() with 3 named arguments. Note the change in order.
>>> pad(b=3, c=5, a=7)
7 3 5
# Call pad() with 2 named arguments, excluding c.
>>> pad(b=1, a=2)
2 1 0
# Call pad() with 1 positional argument and 2 named arguments.
>>> pad(1, c=2, b=3)
1 3 2
```

# Functions: Generalized Input

- `*args` is a list of the positional arguments
- `**kwargs` is a dictionary mapping the keywords to their argument.

```
>>> def report(*args, **kwargs):  
...     for i, arg in enumerate(args):  
...         print("Argument " + str(i) + ":", arg)  
...     for key in kwargs:  
...         print("Keyword", key, "-->", kwargs[key])  
...  
>>> report("TK", 421, exceptional=False, missing=True)  
Argument 0: TK  
Argument 1: 421  
Keyword missing --> True  
Keyword exceptional --> False
```

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Python has four numerical data types: `int`, `long`, `float`, and `complex`.

```
>>> type(3)           # Numbers without periods are integers.
int

>>> type(3.0)         # Floats have periods (3. is also a float).
float
```

Division:

```
>>> 15 / 4             # Float division performs as expected. (but not in Py 2.7!)
3.75

>>> 15 // 4           # Integer division rounds the result down.
3

>>> 15. // 4
3.0
```

Strings are created with " or '

To concatenate two or more strings, use the + operator between string variables or literals.

```
>>> str1 = "Hello" # either single or double quotes.
>>> str2 = 'world'
>>> my_string = str1 + " " + str2 + '!' # concatenation
>>> my_string
'Hello world!'
```

# Slicing

- Strings are arrays of characters. Indexing begins at 0!
- Slicing syntax is [start:stop:step]. Defaults: [0:len():1].

```
>>> my_string = "Hello world!"
>>> my_string[4]           # Indexing begins at 0.
'o'
>>> my_string[-1]         # Negative indices count backward from the end.
'!'
# Slice from the 0th to the 5th character (not including the 5th character).
>>> my_string[:5]
'Hello'
# Slice from the 6th character to the end.
>>> my_string[6:]
'world!'
# Slice from the 3rd to the 8th character (not including the 8th character).
>>> my_string[3:8]
'lo wo'
# Get every other character in the string.
>>> my_string[::2]
'Hlowrd'
```

The built-in data structures:

- tuple, list, set, dict
- `collections` module
- Various built in operations

These are always available:

- all versions of Python
- all operating systems
- all distributions of Python
- you do not need to install any package

Fast development:

- exploring ideas
- building prototypes
- solving one-off problems

If you need performance need to optimize, try  
`pypy` or change language

- aka, record, structure, a row in a database: ordered collection of elements
- packing and unpacking (unfolding) values.

```
# Basic usage
record = (val1, val2, ↪
        ↪val3)
a, b, c = record
val = record[n]
```

```
>>> row = ("Mike", "John", "Mads")
>>> row[1]
"John"
>>> both = arithmetic(5,2) # or get them both as a ↪
        ↪tuple.
>>> print(both)
(3, 10)
```



# Mutable vs Immutable Objects

**Immutable Objects:** built-in types like

`int`, `float`, `bool`, `string`, `tuple`, `frozenset`, `bytes`. Objects of these types can't be changed after they are created.

```
message = "Welcome to DM587/AI511"
message[0] = 'p'
print(message)

# Error :
#
#     message[0] = 'p'
# TypeError: 'str' object does not ↪
#     ↪ support item assignment
```

```
tuple1 = (0, 1, 2, 3)
tuple1[0] = 4
print(tuple1)

# Error :
#
#     tuple1[0]=4
# TypeError: 'tuple' object does not ↪
#     ↪ support item assignment
```

**Mutable Objects:** are the following built-in types `list`, `dict`, `set` and custom classes

Why this matters? Function arguments and Hashability.

- Mutable sequence, array
- Enforcing order

```
# Basic usage
items = [val1, val2, .., ↪
        ↪val3]
x = items[n]
items[n] = x
del items[n]
items.append(value)
items.sort()
items.insert(n, value)
items.remove(value)
items.pop()
```

```
>>> my_list = ["Hello", 93.8, "world", 10]
>>> my_list[0]
'Hello'
>>> my_list[-2]
'world'
>>> my_list[:2]
['Hello', 93.8]
```

```
>>> my_list = [1, 2]           # Create a simple list of two integers.
>>> my_list.append(4)          # Append the integer 4 to the end.
>>> my_list.insert(2, 3)       # Insert 3 at location 2.
>>> my_list
[1, 2, 3, 4]
>>> my_list.remove(3)          # Remove 3 from the list.
>>> my_list.pop()              # Remove (and return) the last entry.
4
>>> my_list
[1, 2]
```

Slicing is also very useful for replacing values in a list.

```
>>> my_list = [10, 20, 30, 40, 50]
>>> my_list[0] = -1
>>> my_list[3:] = [8, 9]
>>> print(my_list)
[-1, 20, 30, 8, 9]
```

The `in` operator quickly checks if a given value is in a list (or another [iterable](#), including strings).

```
>>> my_list = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
>>> 2 in my_list
True
>>> 6 in my_list
False
>>> 'a' in "xylophone"           # 'in' also works on strings.
False
```

- unordered sequence
- uniqueness, membership test

```
# Basic usage
s = {val1, val2, ..., valn}
s.add(val)
s.discard(val)
s.remove(val) # throws exception if the element is not present in the set
val in s
s.union({val})
s.intersection({val})
s.difference({val})
s.symmetric_difference({val})
```

```
# Initialize some sets. Repeats are not added.
>>> gym_members = {"John", "John", "Jane", "Bob"}
>>> print(gym_members)
{'John', 'Bob', 'Jane'}

>>> gym_members.add("Josh")
>>> gym_members.discard("John")
>>> print(gym_members)
{'Josh', 'Bob', 'Jane'}

>>> gym_members.intersection({"Josh", "Ian", "Jared"})
{'Josh'}

>>> gym_members.difference({"Bob", "Sarah"})
{'Josh', 'Jane'}
```

- mapping, associative (key,value) array (implemented as a hash table)
- unordered
- lookup table, indices, key values need to be [immutable](#)

## # Basic usage

```
d = { key1: val1, key2: ↪  
      ↪val2, key3: val3 }  
val = d[key]  
d[key] = val  
del d[key]  
key in d  
d.keys()  
d.values()  
d.pop(key)  
d.items()
```

```
>>> my_dictionary = {"business": 4121, "math": ↪  
                    ↪2061, "visual arts": 7321}  
>>> print(my_dictionary["math"])  
2061  
  
>>> my_dictionary["science"] = 6284  
>>> my_dictionary.pop("business")  
4121  
>>> print(my_dictionary)  
{'math': 2061, 'visual arts': 7321, 'science': ↪  
  ↪6284}
```

```
>>> my_dictionary.keys()  
dict_keys(['math', 'visual arts', 'science'])  
>>> my_dictionary.values()  
dict_values([2061, 7321, 6284])
```

```
>>> from collections import namedtuple
>>> Person = namedtuple('Person', ['first', 'last', 'address'])
>>> row = Person('Marco', 'Chiarandini', 'Campusvej')
>>> row.first
'Marco'
```

```
>>> from collections import Counter # histograms
>>> c = Counter('xyzzzy')
>>> c
Counter({'x': 1, 'y': 2, 'z': 3})
```

```
>>> from collections import defaultdict # multidict, one-many relationships
>>> d = defaultdict(list)
>>> d['spam'].append(42)
>>> d['blah'].append(13)
>>> d['spam'].append(10)
>>> d
{'blah': [42], 'spam': [13, 10]}
```

```
>>> from collections import OrderedDict # remembers the order entries were ↪
    ↪added
>>> # regular unsorted dictionary
>>> d = {'banana': 3, 'apple': 4, 'pear': 1, 'orange': 2}

>>> # dictionary sorted by key
>>> OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: t[0]))
OrderedDict([('apple', 4), ('banana', 3), ('orange', 2), ('pear', 1)])

>>> # dictionary sorted by value
>>> OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: t[1]))
OrderedDict([('pear', 1), ('orange', 2), ('banana', 3), ('apple', 4)])

>>> # dictionary sorted by length of the key string
>>> OrderedDict(sorted(d.items(), key=lambda t: len(t[0])))
OrderedDict([('pear', 1), ('apple', 4), ('orange', 2), ('banana', 3)])
```



```
# Cast numerical values as different kinds of numerical values.
```

```
>>> x = int(3.0)
```

```
>>> y = float(3)
```

```
# Cast a list as a set and vice versa.
```

```
>>> set([1, 2, 3, 4, 4])
```

```
{1, 2, 3, 4}
```

```
>>> list({'a', 'a', 'b', 'b', 'c'})
```

```
['a', 'c', 'b']
```

```
# Cast other objects as strings.
```

```
>>> str(['a', str(1), 'b', float(2)])
```

```
"['a', '1', 'b', 2.0]"
```

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# The If Statement

```
>>> food = "bagel"
>>> if food == "apple":                # As with functions, the colon denotes
...     print("72 calories")           # the start of each code block.
... elif food == "banana" or food == "carrot":
...     print("105 calories")
... else:
...     print("calorie count unavailable")
...
calorie count unavailable
```

# Structural pattern matching (switch)

from Python 3.10

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Python

```
lang = input("What's the programming language you want to learn? ")

match lang:
    case "JavaScript":
        print("You can become a web developer.")

    case "Python":
        print("You can become a Data Scientist")

    case "PHP":
        print("You can become a backend developer")

    case "Solidity":
        print("You can become a Blockchain developer")

    case "Java":
        print("You can become a mobile app developer")

    case _:
        print("The language doesn't matter, what matters is solving problems.")
```

# The While Loop

```
>>> i = 0
>>> while True: # i < 10
...     print(i, end=' ')
...     i += 1
...     if i >= 10:
...         break                # Exit the loop.
...
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

>>> i = 0
>>> while i < 10:
...     i += 1
...     if i % 3 == 0:
...         continue            # Skip multiples of 3.
...     print(i, end=' ')
1 2 4 5 7 8 10
```

- A `for` loop iterates over the items in any `iterable`.
- Iterables include (but are not limited to) strings, lists, sets, and dictionaries.

```
>>> colors = ["red", "green", "blue", "yellow"]
>>> for entry in colors:
...     print(entry + "!")
...
red!
green!
blue!
yellow!
```

- The `break` and `continue` statements also work in for loops
- but a `continue` in a for loop will automatically increment the index or item

- ➊ `range(start, stop, step)`: Produces a sequence of integers, following slicing syntax.
- ➋ `zip()`: Joins multiple sequences so they can be iterated over simultaneously.
- ➌ `enumerate()`: Yields both a count and a value from the sequence. Typically used to get both the index of an item and the actual item simultaneously.
- ➍ `reversed()`: Reverses the order of the iteration.
- ➎ `sorted()`: Returns a new list of sorted items that can then be used for iteration.

```
# Iterate through the list in sorted (alphabetical) order.
>>> for item in sorted(colors):
...     print(item, end=' ')
...
blue purple red white yellow
```

They (except for `sorted()`) are **generators** and return an **iterator**.

To put the items of the sequence in a collection, use `list()`, `set()`, or `tuple()`.

Useful to iterate over a potentially large sequence of values without having to store them all in memory at once. Generate values on-the-fly.

```
( expression for x in iterable if condition )
```

```
>>> nums = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
>>> squares = (i*i for i in nums)
>>> squares
<generator object <genexpr> at 0x110468200>
>>> for n in squares:
    print(n)
1
4
9
16
25
36
```



# Generators via yield

yield used in generator functions to create iterators.

```
def count_up_to(limit):  
    count = 1  
    while count <= limit:  
        yield count  
        count += 1  
  
# Using the generator function  
for num in count_up_to(5):  
    print(num)
```

```
counter = count_up_to(3)  
print(next(counter))  # Output: 1  
print(next(counter))  # Output: 2  
print(next(counter))  # Output: 3
```

# List Comprehension

```
>>> loop_output = []
>>> for i in range(5):
...     loop_output.append(i**2)
...
>>> list_output = [i**2 for i in range(5)]
```

```
[ expression for x in iterable if conditions ] # list
{ expression for x in iterable if conditions } # set
{ key: val for key, val in iterable if conditions } # dict
```

```
>>> colors = ["red", "blue", "yellow"]
>>> {"bright " + c for c in colors}
{'bright blue', 'bright red', 'bright yellow'}

>>> {c[0]:c for c in colors}
{'y': 'yellow', 'r': 'red', 'b': 'blue'}
```

# Decorators — Function Wrappers

```
>>> def typewriter(func):  
...     """Decorator for printing the type of output a function returns"""  
...     def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):  
...         output = func(*args, **kwargs)      # Call the decorated function.  
...         print("output type:", type(output)) # Process before finishing.  
...         return output                       # Return the function output.  
...     return wrapper
```

```
>>> @typewriter  
... def combine(a, b, c):  
...     return a*b // c
```

```
>>> combine = typewriter(combine)
```

Now calling `combine()` actually calls `wrapper()`, which then calls the original `combine()`.

```
>>> combine(3, 4, 6)  
output type: <class 'int'>  
2  
>>> combine(3.0, 4, 6)  
output type: <class 'float'>  
2.0
```

# Decorators with Arguments

```
>>> def repeat(times):
...     """Decorator for calling a function several times."""
...     def decorator(func): # we need one more layer of function nesting
...         def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
...             for _ in range(times):
...                 output = func(*args, **kwargs)
...                 return output
...         return wrapper
...     return decorator
...
>>> @repeat(3)
... def hello_world():
...     print("Hello, world!")
...
>>> hello_world()
Hello, world!
Hello, world!
Hello, world!
```

- Logging
- Access control / authentication
- Performance measurement
- Memoization (`@functools.lru_cache`)
- Flask route mapping (`@app.route("/home")`)
- Data validation and pre/post processing

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Common built-in functions for numerical calculations:

Function	Returns
<code>input()</code>	Gets input from console
<code>abs()</code>	The absolute value of a real number, or the magnitude of a complex number.
<code>min()</code>	The smallest element of a single iterable, or the smallest of several arguments. Strings are compared based on lexicographical order: numerical characters first, then upper-case letters, then lower-case letters.
<code>max()</code>	The largest element of a single iterable, or the largest of several arguments.
<code>len()</code>	The number of items of a sequence or collection.
<code>round()</code>	A float rounded to a given precision in decimal digits.
<code>sum()</code>	The sum of a sequence of numbers.

See <https://docs.python.org/3/library/functions.html> for more detailed documentation on all of Python's built-in functions.

Function	Description
<code>all()</code>	Return True if <code>bool(entry)</code> evaluates to True for <b>every</b> entry in the input iterable.
<code>any()</code>	Return True if <code>bool(entry)</code> evaluates to True for <b>any</b> entry in the input iterable.
<code>bool()</code>	Evaluate a single input object as True or False.
<code>eval()</code>	Execute a string as Python code and return the output.
<code>map()</code>	Apply a function to every item of the input iterable and return an iterable of the results.
<code>filter()</code>	Apply a filter to the elements of the input iterable and return an set.



- A **module** is a Python file containing code that is meant to be used in some other setting
  - All **import** statements should occur at the top of the file, below the header but before any other code.
- ❶ **import** <module> makes the specified module available under the alias of its own name.

```
>>> import math                # The name 'math' now gives
>>> math.sqrt(2)               # access to the math module.
1.4142135623730951
```

- ❷ **import** <module> as <name> creates an alias for an imported module. The alias is added to the current namespace, but the module name itself is not.

```
>>> import numpy as np         # The name 'np' gives access to the numpy
>>> np.sqrt(2)                 # module, but the name 'numpy' does not.
1.4142135623730951
>>> numpy.sqrt(2)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
NameError: name 'numpy' is not defined
```

3. `from <module> import <<<object>>>` loads the specified object into the namespace without loading anything else in the module or the module name itself. This is used most often to access specific functions from a module. The `as` statement can also be tacked on to create an alias.

```
>>> from random import randint # The name 'randint' gives access to the
>>> r = randint(0, 10000)      # randint() function, but the rest of
>>> random.seed(r)             # the random module is unavailable.
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
NameError: name 'random' is not defined
```

# Running and Importing

```
# example1.py

data = list(range(4))
def display():
    print("Data:", data)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    display()
    print("This file was executed from the command line or an interpreter.")
else:
    print("This file was imported.")
```

```
$ python example1.py
Data: [0, 1, 2, 3]
This file was executed from the command line or an interpreter.
```

Module	Description
<code>cmath</code>	Mathematical functions for complex numbers.
<code>csv</code>	Comma Separated Value (CSV) file parsing and writing.
<code>itertools</code>	Tools for iterating through sequences in useful ways.
<code>math</code>	Standard mathematical functions and constants.
<code>sys</code>	Tools for interacting with the interpreter.
<code>os</code>	Tools for interacting with the operating system.
<code>pathlib</code>	Tools for interacting with the interpreter.
<code>string</code>	Common string literals.
<code>random</code>	Random variable generators.
<code>functools</code>	Tools for higher-order functions: functions that act on or return other functions.
<code>time</code>	Time value generation and manipulation.
<code>timeit</code>	Measuring execution time of small code snippets.
<code>argparse</code>	Parsing command line parameters.

Explore the documentation

- A package is simply a folder that contains a file called `__init__.py`.
- This file is always executed first whenever the package is used.
- A package must also have a file called `__main__.py` in order to be executable.
- Executing the package will run `__init__.py` and then `__main__.py`
- Importing the package will only run `__init__.py`
- Use `from <subpackage.module> import <<<object>>>` to load a module within a subpackage.
- Once a name has been loaded into a package's `__init__.py`, other files in the same package can load the same name with `from . import <<<object>>>` or `from name_package.file_name import <<<object>>>`.

File `pyproject.toml` contains build system requirements

```
[build-system]
requires = ["flit_core>=3.4"]
build-backend = "flit_core.buildapi"

[project]
name = "examino"
version = "0.0.1"
authors = [ { name="Marco Chiarandini", email="marco@imada.sdu.dk" }, ]
description = "A program to schedule exams"
readme = "README.md"
requires-python = ">=3.7"
classifiers = [
    "Programming Language :: Python :: 3",
    "License :: OSI Approved :: MIT License" ]

[project.urls]
"Homepage" = "https://git.imada.sdu.dk/march/Exams"
"Bug Tracker" = "https://git.imada.sdu.dk/march/Exams/issues"
```

Generate requirements file: `pipreqs src/examino` Or `pip freeze > requirements.txt`

Install a package from the public repository <https://pypi.org/> using:

Package Installer for Python, `pip`

```
$ pip3 install -r requirements.txt
$ pip3 install -e . # . the local package, -e makes the installation editable
$ pip3 list # lists the packages installed
```

To execute a package, run Python from the shell with the flag `-m` (for “module-name”) and exclude the extension `.py`.

```
$ python -m package_name
```

A good idea to use a [Python Virtual Environment](#)

```
$ python -m venv venv
$ . bin/activate
$ deactivate
```

See <https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/modules.html#packages> for more.

To install, manage packages and create isolated environment with its own Python interpreter and dependencies:

- venv, pip, pip-tools, pipx, pyenv, twine, virtualenv, and more.
- uv, poetry



# Mutable vs Immutable Objects

- a mutable object can be changed after it is created, and an immutable object can't.
- Objects of built-in types like (int, float, bool, str, tuple, unicode) are **immutable**
- Objects of built-in types like (list, set, dict) are **mutable**

```
>>> x = "Holberton"
>>> y = "Holberton"
>>> id(x)
140135852055856
>>> id(y)
140135852055856
>>> print(x is y)  '''comparing the types'''
True

>>> a = 50
>>> type(a)
<class: 'int'>
>>> b = "Holberton"
>>> type(b)
<class: 'string'>
```

# Mutable vs Immutable Objects

```
>>> holy = {"moly": 1.99, "hand_grenade": 3, "grail": 1975.41}
>>> tax_prices = holy          # Try to make a copy for processing.
>>> for item, price in tax_prices.items():
...     # Add a 7 percent tax, rounded to the nearest cent.
...     tax_prices[item] = round(1.07 * price, 2)
...
# Now the base prices have been updated to the total price.
>>> print(tax_prices)
{'moly': 2.13, 'hand_grenade': 3.21, 'grail': 2113.69}

# However, dictionaries are mutable, so 'holy' and 'tax_prices' actually
# refer to the same object. The original base prices have been lost.
>>> print(holy)
{'moly': 2.13, 'hand_grenade': 3.21, 'grail': 2113.69}
```

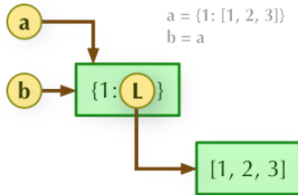
To avoid this problem, explicitly create a copy of the object by casting it as a new structure.

```
>>> tax_prices = dict(holy)
```

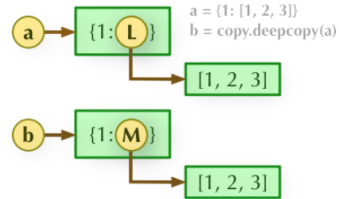
- A **pointer** refers to a variable by storing the address in memory where the corresponding object is stored.
- Python names are essentially pointers, and traditional pointer operations and cleanup are done automatically.
- Python automatically deletes objects in memory that have no names assigned to them (no pointers referring to them). This feature is called **garbage collection**.
- All mutable objects that are arguments of functions are **passed by reference** while immutable objects are **passed by value**.

# Shallow vs Deep Copy

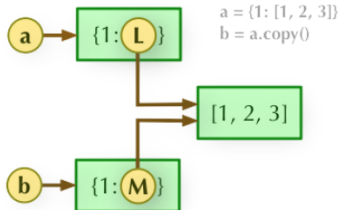
1. `b = a` : Reference assignment, Make `a` and `b` points to the same object.



3. `b = copy.deepcopy(a)` : Deep copying, `a` and `b`'s structure and content become completely isolated.



2. `b = a.copy()` : Shallow copying, `a` and `b` will become two isolated objects, but their contents still share the same reference



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A `class` is a template for an object that binds together specified variables and routines.

```
class Backpack:
    """A Backpack object class. Has a name and a list of contents.

    Attributes:
        name (str): the name of the backpack's owner.
        contents (list): the contents of the backpack.
    """
    def __init__(self, name):          # This function is the constructor.
        """Set the name and initialize an empty list of contents.

        Parameters:
            name (str): the name of the backpack's owner.
        """
        self.name = name               # Initialize some attributes.
        self.contents = []
```

```
# Import the Backpack class and instantiate an object called 'my_backpack'.
>>> from object_oriented import Backpack
>>> my_backpack = Backpack("Fred")
>>> type(my_backpack)
<class 'object_oriented.Backpack'>

# Access the object's attributes with a period and the attribute name.
>>> print(my_backpack.name, my_backpack.contents)
Fred []

# The object's attributes can be modified after instantiation.
>>> my_backpack.name = "George"
>>> print(my_backpack.name, my_backpack.contents)
George []
```

```
class Backpack:
    # ...
    def put(self, item):
        """Add an item to the backpack's list of contents."""
        self.contents.append(item) # Use 'self.contents', not just 'contents'.

    def take(self, item):
        """Remove an item from the backpack's list of contents."""
        self.contents.remove(item)
```

```
>>> my_backpack.put("notebook")           # my_backpack is passed implicitly to
>>> my_backpack.put("pencils")             # Backpack.put() as the first argument.
>>> my_backpack.contents
['notebook', 'pencils']

# Remove an item from the backpack.         # This is equivalent to
>>> my_backpack.take("pencils")            # Backpack.take(my_backpack, "pencils")
>>> my_backpack.contents
['notebook']
```



Superclass  $\rightsquigarrow$  Subclass

```
class Knapsack(Backpack): # Inherit from the Backpack class in the class  $\hookrightarrow$ 
     $\hookrightarrow$ definition
    """Attributes:
        name (str): the name of the knapsack's owner.
        color (str): the color of the knapsack.
        max_size (int): the maximum number of items that can fit inside.
        contents (list): the contents of the backpack.
        closed (bool): whether or not the knapsack is tied shut.
    """
    def __init__(self, name, color, max_size=3):
        """Use the Backpack constructor to initialize the name, color,
        and max_size attributes. A knapsack only holds 3 items by default.
        """
        Backpack.__init__(self, name, color, max_size)
        self.closed = True
```

- all methods defined in the superclass class are available to instances of the subclass.
- methods from the superclass can be changed for the subclass by **override**
- New methods can be included normally.

```
>>> from object_oriented import Knapsack
>>> my_knapsack = Knapsack("Brady", "brown")

# A Knapsack is a Backpack, but a Backpack is not a Knapsack.
>>> print(issubclass(Knapsack, Backpack), issubclass(Backpack, Knapsack))
True False
>>> isinstance(my_knapsack, Knapsack) and isinstance(my_knapsack, Backpack)
True

# The Knapsack class has a weight() method, but the Backpack class does not.
>>> print(hasattr(my_knapsack, 'weight'), hasattr(my_backpack, 'weight'))
True False
```

- special methods used to make an object behave like a built-in data type.
- begin and end with two underscores, like the constructor `__init__()`.
- all variables and routines of a class are **public**
- magic methods are hidden

```
In [1]: %run object_oriented.py
In [2]: b = Backpack("Oscar", "green")
In [3]: b.          # Press 'tab' to see standard methods and attributes.
        color      max_size take()
        contents name
        dump()     put()

In [3]: b.__        # Press 'tab' to see special methods and hidden attributes.
        __getattr__  _ _new__()          __class__
        __delattr__  _ _hash__          __reduce_ex__()
        __dict__     _ _init__()         __repr__
        __dir__()    _ _init_subclass__() __setattr__
        __doc__      _ _sizeof__()       __reduce__()
        __str__      _ _format__()       __module__
        __subclasshook__() __weakref__
```

Method	Arithmetic Operator	Method	Comparison Operator
<code>__add__()</code>	<code>+</code>	<code>__lt__()</code>	<code>&lt;</code>
<code>__sub__()</code>	<code>-</code>	<code>__le__()</code>	<code>&lt;=</code>
<code>__mul__()</code>	<code>*</code>	<code>__gt__()</code>	<code>&gt;</code>
<code>__pow__()</code>	<code>**</code>	<code>__ge__()</code>	<code>&gt;=</code>
<code>__truediv__()</code>	<code>/</code>	<code>__eq__()</code>	<code>==</code>
<code>__floordiv__()</code>	<code>//</code>	<code>__ne__()</code>	<code>=</code>

Operator overloading:

```
class Backpack:  
    def __add__(self, other):  
        return len(self.contents) + len(other.contents)
```

```
class Backpack(object)  
    def __lt__(self, other):  
        return len(self.contents) < len(other.contents)
```

Static attributes and methods are defined without `self` and can be accessed both with and without instantiation

```
class Backpack:  
    # ...  
    brand = "Adidas"                # Backpack.brand is a static attribute.
```

```
class Backpack:  
    # ...  
    @staticmethod  
    def origin():                    # Do not use 'self' as a parameter.  
        print("Manufactured by " + Backpack.brand + ", inc.")
```

# Getters, Setters and Deleters

- Attributes that start by underscore are private
- the decorator `@property` is used to define getters, setters, and deleters.
- by defining properties, you can change the internal implementation of a class without affecting the interface, so you can add getters, setters, and deleters that act as intermediaries “behind the scenes” to avoid accessing or modifying the data directly.

```
class House:
    def __init__(self, price):
        self._price = price

    @property
    def price(self):
        return self._price

    @price.deleter
    def price(self):
        del self._price
```

```
@price.setter
def price(self, new_price):
    if new_price > 0 and isinstance(↪
        ↪new_price, float):
        self._price = new_price
    else:
        print("Please enter a valid price")
```

```
>>> house = House(50000.0) # Create
>>> house.price # Access value
>>> house.price = 45000.0 # Update value
>>> del house.price # Delete attribute
```

# More Special Methods and Hashing

Method	Operation	Trigger Function
<code>__bool__()</code>	Truth value	<code>bool()</code>
<code>__len__()</code>	Object length or size	<code>len()</code>
<code>__repr__()</code>	Object representation	<code>repr()</code>
<code>__getitem__()</code>	Indexing and slicing	<code>self[index]</code>
<code>__setitem__()</code>	Assignment via indexing	<code>self[index] = x</code>
<code>__iter__()</code>	Iteration over the object	<code>iter()</code>
<code>__reversed__()</code>	Reverse iteration over the object	<code>reversed()</code>
<code>__contains__()</code>	Membership testing	<code>in</code>

A **hash value** is an integer that uniquely identifies an object.

If the `__hash__()` method is not defined, the default hash value is the object's memory address (accessible via the built-in function `id()`) divided by 16, rounded down to the nearest integer.

```
class Backpack:
    def __hash__(self):
        return hash(self.name) ^ hash(self.color) ^ hash(len(self.contents))
```

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# Type Annotations

- Statically typed: type checking at compile-time; requires datatype declarations.
- Dynamically typed: type checking at runtime; does **not** require datatype declarations.

Python is dynamically typed. Type annotations are used to indicate the datatypes of variables and input/outputs of functions and methods.

```
# This is how you declare the type of a variable type in Python 3.6
age: int = 1

# You don't need to initialize a variable to annotate it
a: int # Ok (no value at runtime until assigned)

# The latter is useful in conditional branches
child: bool
if age < 18:
    child = True
else:
    child = False
```

# Built-in Types (I)

```
# For simple built-in types, just use the name of the type
x: int = 1
x: float = 1.0
x: bool = True
x: str = "test"
x: bytes = b"test"

# For collections, the type of the collection item is in brackets
# (Python 3.9+)
x: list[int] = [1]
x: set[int] = {6, 7}
# In Python 3.8 and earlier, the name of the collection type is
# capitalized, and the type is imported from the 'typing' module
from typing import List, Set, Dict, Tuple, Optional
x: List[int] = [1]
x: Set[int] = {6, 7}
```

# Built-in Types (II)

```
from typing import List, Set, Dict, Tuple, Optional
# For mappings, we need the types of both keys and values
x: dict[str, float] = {"field": 2.0} # Python 3.9+
x: Dict[str, float] = {"field": 2.0}

# For tuples of fixed size, we specify the types of all the elements
x: tuple[int, str, float] = (3, "yes", 7.5) # Python 3.9+
x: Tuple[int, str, float] = (3, "yes", 7.5)

# For tuples of variable size, we use one type and ellipsis
x: tuple[int, ...] = (1, 2, 3) # Python 3.9+
x: Tuple[int, ...] = (1, 2, 3)

# Use Optional[] for values that could be None
x: None | str = some_function()
x: Optional[str] = some_function()
```

```
def add(x: int, y: int) -> int:  
    return x + y
```

To allow multiple datatypes, we can use type union operators. Pre-Python 3.10 this would look like:

```
from typing import Union  
def add(x: Union[int, float], y: Union[int, float]) -> Union[int, float]:  
    return x + y
```

Here, we allow either int or float datatypes!

With Python 3.10, we can replace Union with the new union operator |:

```
def add(x: int | float, y: int | float) -> int | float:  
    return x + y
```

Python does not check types but IDE do and can provide warnings. From command line we can use the `mypy` tool

```
pip install mypy
mypy main.py
```

```
# Mypy understands a value can't be None in an if-statement
if x is not None:
    print(x.upper())
# If a value can never be None due to some invariants, use an assert
assert x is not None
print(x.upper())
```

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