# 1) High-level summary (quick)

- When Python runs code it typically compiles source (.py) to bytecode (an
  intermediate representation), then the Python Virtual Machine (PVM) executes that
  bytecode.
- Compiled bytecode is stored as .pyc files inside a \_\_pycache\_\_ folder (PEP 3147).
- \_\_pycache\_\_ is created **only for imported modules**, not usually for the top-level script you run directly.
- Many environments (online compilers, notebooks, container-run tools) hide or avoid creating \_\_pycache\_\_ because they run in ephemeral or read-only filesystems, or they disable writing bytecode to reduce noise and I/O.

# 2) Why compile at all? (purpose of bytecode)

- **Speed:** Parsing & syntax-checking a . py file costs time. Bytecode is already parsed/compiled, so re-running is faster.
- **Platform independent intermediate:** Bytecode is not machine code it's a portable, interpreter-friendly format (so CPython's PVM can run it on different OSes/architectures).
- Caching: If a module is imported repeatedly across runs, a cached .pyc avoids repeating the compile step.

But note: bytecode is still interpreted — not native machine instructions. For true machine-code JITs, see PyPy.

# 3) When is \_\_pycache\_\_ created and when not?

\_\_pycache\_\_ is created when:

 A Python module is imported (e.g., import utils) and Python is allowed to write the .pyc file.

\_\_pycache\_\_ is typically NOT created when:

- You directly run a script: python main.py (main/top-level script does not usually create .pyc).
- Bytecode writing is disabled by environment or flags (see next section).
- The runtime doesn't have permission to write files (read-only filesystem).
- The environment is ephemeral or purposely hides build artifacts (e.g., some online compilers, cloud runners).
- The module is loaded from a zipfile, egg, or frozen packaging where .pyc is not written to disk in the normal place.

# 4) How .pyc files are named & where they live

- Location: \_\_pycache\_\_ directory adjacent to the source file.
- Name pattern (example): mymodule.cpython-312.pyc where:
  - cpython = CPython implementation
  - 312 = Python version 3.12 (major+minor)

PEP 3147 standardized this layout to avoid conflicts between versions.

You can get the path programmatically:

```
import importlib.util
importlib.util.cache_from_source('mymodule.py') # returns path to
.pyc
```

# 5) What's inside a .pyc file? (file format summary)

A .pyc file contains:

#### 1. Header:

- o 4-byte magic number (marks Python bytecode version).
- Flags or timestamp/hash for invalidation (PEP 552 changed exact fields).
- Possibly size info.

#### 2. Marshalled code object:

 The compiled code object (function bytecode, constants, names) serialized via Python's marshal module.

When Python imports a module, it:

- Reads .pyc, checks header validity.
- If valid and matches source version/conditions, loads the marshalled code object and executes it.
- If invalid or missing, Python compiles .py to bytecode and may write new .pyc.

Important PEPs:

- PEP 3147: introduced \_\_pycache\_\_ and .pyc naming.
- PEP 552: introduced hash-based .pyc invalidation (instead of relying purely on timestamps), making caches robust when source file timestamps aren't reliable.

# 6) How Python knows a .pyc is up-to-date (pyc invalidation)

Two approaches exist:

- Timestamp-based (older): .pyc stores the source file timestamp. On import, if timestamp differs, .pyc is stale and Python recompiles.
- Hash-based (PEP 552): .pyc stores a hash of the source. Python recomputes hash and verifies. This avoids issues when source timestamps are unreliable (e.g., files copied into containers).

Which one used depends on interpreter version and flags.

# 7) Why some online compilers / tools say it's "hidden" or don't show it

When the video said "mostly hidden" or that they "hide these things," he referred to practical reality in hosted environments:

Common reasons they don't show \_\_pycache\_\_:

- **Ephemeral runtime**: The code runs inside a short-lived container or memory-only FS so build artifacts are not persisted to disk or not presented to the user.
- Cleaner UI: UIs hide internal files (\_\_pycache\_\_) to not confuse beginners.

- Permissions: The runtime may be read-only or deny write access to the project directory.
- Flags or environment variables: The environment runs Python with -B or PYTHONDONTWRITEBYTECODE=1 (explained below), so .pyc files are not written.
- **Sandboxed loaders**: Tools might import modules from memory (not from classic filesystem), so Python doesn't write .pyc.

So "mostly hidden" means: the runtime compiles and executes but the intermediate cache files are not exposed or are suppressed.

# 8) How to control .pyc behavior (commands & envs)

• Disable writing .pyc:

```
Run Python with -B flag:

python -B main.py

Or set env var:

export PYTHONDONTWRITEBYTECODE=1
python main.py
```

• Force compile a module:

```
Single file:
```

#### Whole package:

```
python -m compileall path/to/package
```

#### Show .pyc path:

```
import importlib.util
print(importlib.util.cache_from_source('mymodule.py'))
```

 Run without creating \_\_pycache\_\_ when embedding or packaging: use zipapps or frozen executables.

# 9) Import flow (simplified, step-by-step)

When you import module:

- 1. **Finder** searches sys.path for the module (filesystem finder, zipimport, etc.).
- 2. If found, **loader** obtains the source or bytecode.
- 3. If .pyc exists and is valid  $\rightarrow$  load marshalled code object.
- 4. Else compile .py to bytecode (compile() → code object), optionally write .pyc.
- 5. Create module object, execute the code object in the module's namespace.
- 6. Put module into sys.modules so subsequent imports reuse the loaded module.

Core modules: importlib.machinery, importlib.util, sys.meta\_path (custom finders/loaders can be registered).

# 10) Top-level script vs imported module (why you often don't see .pyc)

- The **top-level script** (the file you run directly with python script.py) is executed but Python typically doesn't cache its bytecode in \_\_pycache\_\_.
- Imported modules are the ones that benefit from caching because they are likely to be reused in multiple runs or imports.

# 11) Edge cases & other behaviors

- Frozen apps / executables (Pylnstaller, zipapps): modules can be bundled; no \_pycache\_ on disk.
- **Zip imports**: modules run from zip files; .pyc might be stored in the zip or not at all.
- Read-only codebase (e.g., packages installed via system package manager): Python
  may not write .pyc next to source (but often it writes to a /\_\_pycache\_\_ sibling under
  site-packages if permitted).
- **Permissions**: if Python cannot write to the folder, it will run without writing the .pyc.
- Different implementations:
  - PyPy may use different caching/format mechanisms.
  - **Jython/IronPython** behave differently (they run on JVM/.NET).

# 12) Practical demo you can run locally

1. Create files:

```
echo 'print("hello from module")' > mod.py
echo 'import mod' > main.py
```

2. Run main.py:

```
python main.py
# Output: hello from module
# After this, check: ls __pycache__
```

You should see mod.cpython-3xx.pyc inside \_\_pycache\_\_.

3. Now run top-level script alone:

```
python mod.py
# Output: hello from module
# But no __pycache__ created (because mod.py was executed as top-level
script).
```

4. Try disabling bytecode writing:

```
PYTHONDONTWRITEBYTECODE=1 python main.py
# No __pycache__ created.
```

# 13) Why this matters practically (performance / dev)

- For typical small scripts, presence/absence of .pyc is irrelevant.
- For larger codebases and repeated imports, .pyc reduces startup time.

 Understanding \_\_pycache\_\_ is important for packaging, deployment, CI pipelines, reproducibility, and interviews.

# 14) Recap of key commands & env variables

- python -B script.py → don't write .pyc
- PYTHONDONTWRITEBYTECODE=1 → env var to disable .pyc writing
- python -m py\_compile file.py → compile single file
- python -m compileall  $. \rightarrow$  compile recursively
- importlib.util.cache\_from\_source('a.py') → get .pyc path

# 15) Final note on "mostly hidden"

When the speaker said "mostly hidden", he meant:

- Python and online tools hide the complexity (the \_\_pycache\_\_ creation, .pyc files, internal import steps) from the user to keep things simple.
- Also in many hosted/IDE environments, the .pyc caching either doesn't show up in the UI or doesn't exist because the runtime is ephemeral or writes are disabled.

# The Hidden Inner Working of \_\_pycache\_\_ and .pyc

When people say:

```
"__pycache__ is mostly hidden,"
```

they mean **Python's internal compilation system** works *quietly behind the scenes*. You don't see it unless you look for it.

Let's unwrap this from the ground up



## Step 1: You write a .py file

Say you write:

```
print("Hello, Python")
```

and save it as hello.py.

This is your **source code** — a plain text file that the Python interpreter can read.

# The step 2: When you run it directly

Now you execute:

python hello.py

Here's what really happens (behind the scenes):

- 1. **Python Compiler** reads your .py source code.
- 2. It **converts it into bytecode** a low-level, intermediate representation of your program.
- 3. That bytecode is then **sent directly to the PVM (Python Virtual Machine)**.
- 4. PVM executes it line-by-line.

Your code runs.

X But no \_\_pycache\_\_ folder is created.

### 

Because Python thinks:

"You're just running this once. Why bother saving the compiled result?"

So it compiles it **in memory only**, executes it, and discards it.

That's why in such cases, the speaker said:

"pycache banta nahi folder" — the \_\_pycache\_\_ folder doesn't get created (because no module was imported).



# 🗱 Step 3: When you import a module

Now let's add one more file:

### main.py

import hello

### hello.py

print("Hello from hello.py!")

Now, when you run:

python main.py

this happens:

- 1. The compiler sees import hello.
- 2. It compiles hello.py  $\rightarrow$  bytecode.

This time, Python does save the bytecode in \_\_pycache\_\_ — to avoid recompiling it next time you import hello.

You'll see a folder appear:

```
__pycache__/
    hello.cpython-312.pyc
```

# 🗱 Step 4: Why Python hides it ("mostly hidden")

The \_\_pycache\_\_ folder is **automatically managed** by Python:

- You don't need to touch it.
- You don't need to delete or edit it.
- It contains internal data (bytecode) not meant for humans to read.

That's why it's described as "hidden" — not literally hidden in the OS (you can see it), but hidden in the sense that you don't directly deal with it.

Most developers ignore it completely — Python creates, updates, and uses it silently.

### 🗱 Step 5: What's inside a .pyc file

Let's peek inside (at byte level).

A .pyc file has a binary header, then the actual compiled bytecode.

Roughly:

```
Timestamp / Hash (4-8 b) | \rightarrow When the .py was last modified
Source size info (opt.)
Compiled bytecode
```

#### Example (Python 3.12)

If you open a .pyc file in a hex viewer, you might see:

That's **not random garbage** — it's:

- A **magic number** so Python knows "this bytecode is for version 3.12".
- Some **metadata** (timestamp, size).
- Then actual bytecode instructions.

You can inspect it in Python using:

```
import marshal
import dis
with open('__pycache__/hello.cpython-312.pyc', 'rb') as f:
    f.read(16) # skip header
    code_obj = marshal.load(f)
dis.dis(code_obj)
```

This will disassemble the .pyc into human-readable bytecode instructions.

# 🗱 Step 6: The Smart Caching Logic

When you run a program again:

- Python checks: "Does \_\_pycache\_\_/hello.cpython-312.pyc already exist?"
- If yes, and if hello.py's timestamp hasn't changed,
  - → it skips recompilation and directly loads the .pyc.

That's how Python saves time — it avoids re-parsing unchanged files.

If you modify hello.py,

- → Python detects a newer timestamp
- $\rightarrow$  recompiles it
- $\rightarrow$  updates the .pyc.



# \* Step 7: Cleanup & Auto-regeneration

If you delete the entire \_\_pycache\_\_ folder:

- No issue.
- Python will recreate it automatically the next time it imports something.

That's why it's called mostly hidden and automatically managed you never have to worry about it manually.

# Summary Table

Situation	What Happens	pycache Created?
Run a script directly (python hello.py)	Compiled in memory	<b>X</b> No
Import a module (import hello)	Compiled and cached	✓ Yes
Modify module code	Recompiled	✓ Updated
Deletepycache	Regenerated automatically	✓ Next import



Imagine:

- You're cooking a recipe (.py).
- You prep ingredients (bytecode).
- You don't always store leftovers (\_\_pycache\_\_) unless you'll reuse them later.

So, if you cook once  $\rightarrow$  no need to save.

But if your dish is used by other recipes  $\rightarrow$  you store it for reuse.

That's **exactly** how Python treats your .py and .pyc files.

Excellent — this is the *real heart* of how Python runs under the hood.

Let's go all the way inside and see what exactly lives inside bytecode (.pyc file).

# What is Python Bytecode, really?

Bytecode is a **sequence of low-level instructions** that represent your Python code — but not in human-readable form.

These instructions are not machine code (like binary CPU ops), but rather **Python Virtual Machine (PVM)** instructions.

#### 

- .py → high-level code (you write)
- .pyc → compiled bytecode (Python executes)

# \* Structure of a .pyc file

A .pyc file (compiled bytecode file) typically has two parts:

Part Purpose

**Header** Metadata — tells Python how to read the file

**Body** Actual bytecode instructions

Let's break that down.

## **★1** Header (first few bytes)

Every .pyc file begins with a **binary header**, used by Python to verify and manage caching.

#### **Example layout (Python 3.12):**

Byte s	Purpose
0–3	Magic number — identifies the Python version
4–11	Flags + timestamp / hash — detects if .py changed
12	(sometimes) source size or checksum

### Example:

If you open a .pyc file in a hex editor, you might see:

42 0D 0D 0A 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 ...

- 42 0D 0D 0A  $\rightarrow$  "magic number" (means Python 3.12)
- The next bytes → timestamp + metadata

### **№2** Body (actual bytecode)

After the header, the **code object** is stored — this contains:

Field Description

The actual bytecode (series of opcodes + operands) co\_code

co\_consts Constants used in the function (like numbers,

strings)

Variable and function names co\_names

co\_varname Local variables

co\_filename File name

co\_firstlinen Line number in source

Mapping from bytecode to source line numbers co\_Inotab



# Example: From Code → Bytecode

Let's see what's actually inside.

# file: demo.py

x = 10

y = 20

print(x + y)

Now run this:

python -m dis demo.py

or, inside Python:

import dis

dis.dis(open("demo.py").read())

#### Output (bytecode disassembly):

1	0 LOAD_CONST	0 (10)
	2 STORE_NAME	0 (x)
2	4 LOAD_CONST	1 (20)
	6 STORE_NAME	1 (y)
3	8 LOAD NAME	2 (print)

10 LOAD_NAME	0 (x)
12 LOAD_NAME	1 (y)
14 BINARY_ADD	
16 CALL_FUNCTION	1
18 POP_TOP	
20 LOAD_CONST	2 (None)
22 RETURN_VALUE	

## **※** What do these mean?

Each line is an instruction to the Python Virtual Machine (PVM).

Opcode	Meaning
LOAD_CONST 0 (10)	Push constant 10 to stack
STORE_NAME x	Store that value in variable x
LOAD_NAME print	Push print() function to stack
BINARY_ADD	Add top two values on the stack
CALL_FUNCTION 1	Call the function with 1 argument
RETURN_VALUE	End of code block

### So, what's really inside .pyc?

Inside .pyc, Python stores:

- The **bytecode sequence** (like LOAD\_CONST, STORE\_NAME, etc.)
- Tables of constants and variable names
- Metadata like line numbers and filenames

Together, these form a "code object".

This object can be executed by:

exec(code\_object)



# Bonus: Visual Model

```
.py file (source)
 ↓ compiled
.pyc file (bytecode)
    Header (magic + timestamp)
    — Code object
       — co_code → bytecode instructions
        — co consts → constants
        — co_names → variable names
        — co_varnames → locals

    co_filename, co_firstlineno, co_lnotab
```

## Fun fact:

You can actually inspect a compiled .pyc file in Python:

import marshal, dis

```
with open('__pycache__/demo.cpython-312.pyc', 'rb') as f:
  f.read(16) # skip header
  code = marshal.load(f)
```

dis.dis(code)

Output  $\rightarrow$  same as before: all bytecode instructions.



Concept

**Description** 

**Bytecode** 

Low-level PVM instructions generated from .py

**.pyc** Binary file storing bytecode + metadata

**Header** Magic number + timestamp for cache management

**Body** Serialized "code object" containing actual bytecode

**PVM** Executes each bytecode instruction

**Stack-based** PVM uses an internal stack for ops (push, pop, add,

**execution** call

# What "Frozen Binaries" Means (in the Transcript Context)

When the person in the video said "frozen binaries", he was referring to how Python packages some modules (and even the interpreter itself) into a *frozen* state — that is, precompiled and bundled into the Python executable, instead of being loaded from separate .py or .pyc files at runtime.

In other words:

"Frozen binaries" = pre-packaged compiled Python modules that live *inside* the Python interpreter binary.

So, even before you run any .py file, **some Python code is already there, "frozen"** into the binary.

# Why "Frozen"?

The term "frozen" means:

"The Python code has been compiled to bytecode and then embedded (frozen) inside a binary file."

It's "frozen" because:

• It no longer exists as a separate .py file on disk.

- It's embedded inside an executable or shared library (python.exe, libpython3.12.so, etc.).
- You can't modify or reload it like normal modules it's fixed ("frozen").



### 🗱 Where You'll See Frozen Binaries in Python

There are two main places this happens:

### **★1** Inside the official Python interpreter itself

The Python runtime (e.g., python.exe) contains some **core modules pre-frozen** — for example:

- The importlib.\_bootstrap and \_bootstrap\_external modules are frozen into the interpreter.
- These handle the entire import system (the mechanism that loads your .py files).

You can verify this by running:

```
import importlib.util
print(importlib.util.find_spec('importlib._bootstrap'))
```

#### Output:

```
ModuleSpec(name='importlib._bootstrap',
loader=<_frozen_importlib._Loader object at 0x...>)
```

```
Notice that loader name: _frozen_importlib <a>I</a>
That's a "frozen module" — not a normal .py or .pyc file on disk.
```

So the Python interpreter doesn't have to import its own core logic from an external .py file it's baked right into the executable for speed and reliability.

## ★2 When you "freeze" your own Python app

#### Tools like:

- **PyInstaller**
- cx\_Freeze
- py2exe
- Nuitka
- pyoxidizer

can take your . py project and freeze it into a standalone binary executable.

#### That means:

- Your .py files  $\rightarrow$  compiled .pyc  $\rightarrow$  bundled into one .exe (with Python runtime).
- You can distribute your app without needing to install Python separately.

#### In this case:

Your entire app (and possibly Python interpreter) becomes a single "frozen binary."

# 🧩 What the Transcript Probably Meant

The transcript likely said something like:

"There are also frozen binaries — modules that are compiled and shipped inside the Python executable itself, so that Python can start and import them instantly."

#### That statement refers to:

- 1. Built-in frozen modules (e.g., importlib.\_bootstrap), and
- 2. The concept of freezing Python code into binaries for packaging.

It's part of the explanation of how Python startup is so fast — because it doesn't have to load its own essential modules from disk each time.

## **Example: See the Frozen Modules in Your Python**

You can inspect all frozen modules like this:

```
import sys
print(sys.frozen if hasattr(sys, "frozen") else "Not a frozen app")
import importlib
for name in sys.builtin_module_names:
    if "_frozen" in name:
        print(name)
```

Or more directly (Python 3.11+):

```
import sys
print(sys.frozen) # True if your program was frozen using PyInstaller
print(sys._xoptions) # may include frozen module hints
```

# \* The Three Kinds of "Modules" Python Can Load

Module Type	Example	Where It Lives	How It's Loaded
Pure Python module	math_utils.py	File on disk	Compiled → .pyc
Extension module	_sqlite3	.pyd or .so (C binary)	Loaded by OS
Frozen module	importlibbootst	Inside python binary	Preloaded



Term	Meaning	Where You'll See It
Frozen module	A Python module whose bytecode is embedded into the binary	<pre>importlibbootstrap, sysinteractivehook, etc.</pre>
Frozen binary	The actual compiled executable (e.g., your app or Python itself) containing frozen modules	python.exe or Pylnstaller-built .exe
Why "frozen"	Because its code is fixed and not read from .py files at runtime	For faster startup, no file I/O
Tools that freeze apps	PyInstaller, cx_Freeze, py2exe, Nuitka	Used for distribution



Imagine you're distributing a Python game:

- Normally, you'd ship .py files + interpreter separately.
  - With freezing, you ship one frozen executable —
     all your code baked inside, like frozen lasagna.

When someone runs it, Python just "heats" it (loads from memory) — no need to unpack .py files.

#### **Introduction and Motivation**

The speaker expresses surprise and excitement about finally understanding Python's inner workings ("behind the scenes"). They critique common Python tutorials that focus only on handwritten notes or surface-level coding without explaining the engineering principles underneath. This, they argue, is essential to maintain interest. The video promises to be enjoyable and insightful, diving into how Python actually operates internally.

#### The Core Problem and Setup

The main issue addressed is what happens when running a simple Python script like "hello\_chai.py" (printing "Hello Chai"). No problems arise initially, but behind the scenes, a

\_\_pycache\_\_ folder appears with files like hello\_chai.cpython-312.pyc. The speaker questions: Where does this come from? Can it be run directly? What happens if the code changes?

They dismiss the ongoing debate about whether Python is an interpreted or compiled language, emphasizing that understanding the actual workflow allows viewers to judge for themselves. The explanation uses a digital whiteboard (iPad view) for theory discussions.

#### **Python's Execution Workflow**

- **Source Code to Execution**: A Python program (or script; the terms are interchangeable) is a .py file containing instructions (e.g., printing, calculations, or web page creation). When executed, Python processes these instructions.
- Behind the Scenes Process:
  - Compilation to Bytecode: The source code is compiled into bytecode. This is an intermediate step, not making Python a fully compiled language—it's a technical term for conversion. Bytecode is a low-level, platform-independent code (not machine code). It runs faster than raw source because most syntax parsing and checks are already done.
    - This bytecode is stored in .pyc files (e.g., hello\_chai.cpython-312.pyc).
    - The naming includes the Python implementation and version (e.g., CPython 3.12) to ensure compatibility.
  - 2. **Execution in Python Virtual Machine (PVM)**: The bytecode is fed into the PVM, where it's executed. The PVM is a simple software with a continuous loop that processes and runs the code from start to end.
    - PVM can handle either source code directly or bytecode.
    - For top-level files (simple scripts with no imports), no .pyc is generated as optimization isn't needed. However, for imported modules, .pyc files are created to optimize loading.

#### The \_\_pycache\_\_ Folder

- This folder organizes compiled bytecode files to prevent clutter in the main directory.
- Files here can be deleted and will regenerate as needed.
- Versions of bytecode are created based on code changes.
- If code changes, Python uses diffing algorithms (similar to Git's change tracking) to update only the modified parts, not recompiling everything from scratch.
- The double underscores (\_\_) in names like \_\_pycache\_\_ indicate internal Python significance—used for organization, optimization, or special roles (more details promised in future videos).

#### **Key Details on Bytecode and Optimization**

• Bytecode is Python-specific and optimized for the PVM—not like Java bytecode but similar in concept.

- It's platform-independent, so the same bytecode can run on Mac, Windows, etc., as long as a PVM is available.
- For imported files (as demonstrated in an earlier video where imports were added beyond just "Hello World"), .pyc files are generated. This was intentional to show the full story, as simple "Hello World" without imports wouldn't trigger this.
- Recent implementation (last 3-4 years): Bytecode generation for imported files enhances optimization when modules are loaded from various places.

#### Python Virtual Machine (PVM) in Depth

- PVM is not complex—it's a basic runtime engine with a loop that executes fed code (bytecode or source).
- Also called the Python interpreter or runtime engine.
- Essential for any language; without it, code can't run (analogy: a car needs an engine, whether diesel, petrol, or electric).
- In ecosystems like Jupyter Notebooks or Miniconda, the same PVM is used under the hood.
- Online compilers often hide \_\_pycache\_\_ and internals, so the speaker recommends local installation to observe these.

#### Interview-Relevant Notes

From an interview perspective (especially for high-end companies or open-source roles):

- Bytecode is **not** machine code—it's not direct hardware instructions (unlike assembly language).
- In any language, bytecode is an intermediate, platform-independent form, not hardware-specific.
- Python's bytecode is tailored for its VM, fully optimized for Python's specifications.
- Rejections in Python interviews are high due to lack of depth; companies ask about internals, not just basic coding.

#### **Python Implementations**

- **CPython**: The standard, default implementation (used in 90%+ cases). Written in C, it's what you get with regular installs (e.g., via package managers).
- Other Variants:
  - Jython (or JPython): For integration with Java binaries/VM.
  - IronPython: For .NET integration.
  - Stackless Python: For concurrency-heavy tasks.
  - PyPy: Performance-oriented (faster execution).
- Many more exist; Python's flexibility makes it interesting. The speaker notes that even a simple "Hello World" triggers significant internal work, but once understood, focus shifts to syntax and features.

#### **Additional Topics and Closing**

- Brief mention of memory-related discussions (immutability, mutations) as future topics.
- The video is short, focusing on Python's inner workings.
- Call to Action: If viewers liked it, share it—such in-depth videos are rare because they're shared less, but sharing encourages more creators.
- Assignment: Research more on Python internals, write an article on Hashnode (a developer blogging site), embed this video, and share (optional, no compulsion).
- End with a reminder to enjoy coding with chai (tea), subscribe, and meet in the next video. The series has a casual vibe (e.g., sipping tea/water during talks).

# 1 Single File Execution (Top-Level Script)

Suppose you have just **one file**, hello.py, and you run:

```
python hello.py
```

Here's what happens internally:

#### **Step 1: Compilation to Bytecode**

- Even a single file is compiled to bytecode internally.
- Python creates **bytecode in memory**, but **it does not necessarily create a .pyc file** on disk if it's the top-level script.
- The .pyc file is only written for **imported modules** (or if you explicitly request it using compileall).

So internally:

```
hello.py \rightarrow compiled \rightarrow in-memory bytecode \rightarrow fed to PVM
```

### **Step 2: Execution by Python Virtual Machine**

• The Python Virtual Machine (PVM) executes this bytecode instruction by instruction.

The CPU never sees your Python source directly — it sees the bytecode instructions
executed by the PVM.

### Key Points for a Single File

- 1. **Compilation happens automatically** Python converts your source to bytecode first.
- 2. No .pyc file is created for top-level scripts.
- 3. Execution is always **via PVM**, not direct source interpretation by the hardware.
- 4. If you later import another file/module, Python generates .pyc for that imported file in \_\_pycache\_\_.

#### 💡 Analogy:

- Think of Python source as a **recipe**, bytecode as **prepped ingredients**, and PVM as the **chef cooking the dish**.
- Even if you have only one recipe, the chef still preps the ingredients before cooking.
- .pyc on disk is just saving prepped ingredients for future use.

# 1 Compiler

A compiler is a program that translates the entire source code of a program into machine code (or some intermediate code) before execution.

#### **Key Points:**

- Works on the whole program at once.
- Produces an **executable** (like . exe on Windows or binary files on Linux).

- Errors are shown only after compilation; if there's a syntax error, you won't get any output until you fix it.
- Execution of the compiled program is fast, because the CPU directly runs the machine code.
- Examples: C, C++, Rust, Go.

#### Flow of a Compiler:

```
Source Code (human-readable) \rightarrow Compiler \rightarrow Machine Code (CPU-readable) \rightarrow Execution
```

**Analogy:** Writing a whole book in your language, then translating it completely into another language before anyone reads it.

# 2 Interpreter

An interpreter is a program that translates and executes code line by line, at runtime.

#### **Key Points:**

- Works line by line translates and executes simultaneously.
- Errors are shown immediately as they occur.
- Execution is slower than compiled code because translation happens at runtime.
- Examples: Python, Ruby, JavaScript (Node.js), MATLAB.

#### Flow of an Interpreter:

```
Source Code \rightarrow Interpreter \rightarrow Execute Line 1 \rightarrow Execute Line 2 \rightarrow ... \rightarrow Execute Last Line
```

Analogy: Reading a book in a foreign language and translating each sentence aloud while reading it, instead of translating the whole book first.

# 3 Python's Case

Python is technically both interpreted and compiled:

- 1. Python **compiles source code into bytecode** (an intermediate, platform-independent code).
  - .pyc files are the compiled bytecode for imported modules.
  - o Bytecode is **not machine code** the CPU can't execute it directly.
- 2. The **Python Virtual Machine (PVM)** interprets the bytecode **line by line** and executes it.

#### So:

Python Source → Bytecode (compile step) → PVM executes bytecode (interpret step)

☑ That's why Python is often called an interpreted language with a compilation step.

The good thing about PVM is you can directly feed the python scripts into it, pyc extension file doesn't gets generated for top level files like main file and hello file

- You don't need .pyc for main scripts, since they're executed immediately.
- For modules used in multiple places, caching in .pyc avoids recompiling every time.
- This is why you often see a hidden folder called \_\_pycache\_\_ for imported modules but not for your main script.

1. THE FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEM: What happens after you run a Python program? When you write a simple Python program like: python

print("Hello Chai")

And you run it with python hello.py, several mysterious things happen:

What the YouTuber observed:

- A hidden folder called pycache appeared
- Inside it, a file with a strange name like hello.\_\_pycache\_\_cpython-312.pyc was created
- Questions arose: What is this? Can I run this file? What happens if I change my code?

This is the core mystery the video solves.

2. THE COMPLETE EXECUTION FLOW: Step-by-Step Deep Dive

STEP 1: COMPILATION TO BYTECODE

What is "Compilation" in Python's context?

When people hear "compilation," they think of languages like C/C++ that compile directly to machine code. Python is different.

The Deep Technical Reality:

- Source Code Analysis Phase:
  - Python reads your .py file character by character
  - It performs lexical analysis (breaks code into tokens like keywords, identifiers, operators)
  - Then parsing happens (checks if the syntax follows Python's grammar rules)
  - An Abstract Syntax Tree (AST) is created a tree representation of your code's structure
- Bytecode Generation:
  - The AST is then "compiled down" to bytecode
  - This is NOT machine code
  - It's an intermediate representation lower level than Python source but higher level than machine code

What exactly IS bytecode?

Bytecode is a series of instructions designed specifically for the Python Virtual Machine (PVM). Think of it like this:

- Your Python code: Human-readable, high-level
- Bytecode: PVM-readable, low-level but platform-independent
- Machine code: CPU-readable, hardware-specific

Example breakdown: If you write:

python x = 5 + 3

The bytecode might look like (simplified):

LOAD CONST 0 (5) LOAD CONST 1 (3) **BINARY ADD** STORE NAME 0 (x)

These are instructions the PVM understands. #### \*\*Why is this called "compilation" if Python is "interpreted"?\*\* \*\*This is the CRITICAL confusion point:\*\* - The term "compile to bytecode" is \*\*technical jargon\*\* - It doesn't mean Python is a "compiled language" like C - It means: "Python source is transformed/compiled down into an intermediate form" - This is an \*\*interpretation step\*\*, not traditional compilation \*\*The YouTuber emphasizes:\*\* Don't get stuck in the "interpreted vs compiled" debate. Understand the ACTUAL working. ### \*\*STEP 2: THE .pyc FILES - What Are They Really?\*\* #### \*\*Deep dive into .pyc files:\*\* \*\*Structure of the .pyc file name:\*\* hello. pycache cpython-312.pyc Let's break this down character by character: hello - Your original filename cpython - The Python implementation being used (more on this later) 312 - Python version 3.12 .pyc - "Python compiled" - the bytecode file What's INSIDE a .pyc file? A .pyc file contains: Magic number (4 bytes) A version identifier that changes with each Python version Ensures bytecode from Python 3.12 doesn't run on Python 3.11 incorrectly Timestamp (4 bytes) When the source file was last modified Used to check if recompilation is needed Size of source file (4 bytes) Another verification mechanism The actual bytecode The compiled instructions This is what gets executed Why is bytecode FASTER?

Critical understanding:

When you run Python code:
First time: Source → Parse → Check syntax → Generate AST → Compile to bytecode → Execute
Subsequent times with .pyc: Load bytecode → Execute
What's saved:
<ul><li>Lexical analysis</li></ul>
Syntax checking
<ul> <li>AST generation</li> </ul>
Bytecode compilation
What still happens:
Bytecode execution (still interpreted line by line by PVM)
This is why .pyc is faster - you skip the preprocessing steps.
STEP 3: THE pycache FOLDER - Why Does It Exist?
Deep organizational understanding:
The Problem Without pycache: Imagine you have 50 Python modules. Each module might:
Be modified multiple times
Generate multiple versions of .pyc files
Create clutter in your main directory
The Solution:
Python creates a hidden folder calledpycache
ALL bytecode files go here
Keeps your project directory clean
The Double Underscore Convention:
In Python,anything (double underscore at start and end) has special meaning:
<ul><li>init Constructor</li><li>main Entry point</li></ul>
pycache Python's internal cache directory
name - Module name
The rule: Double underscores indicate "this is special to Python itself" or "Python uses this
internally."
STEP 4: SOURCE CHANGE DETECTION - The Diffing Algorithm
How Python knows when to recompile:
The Smart System:
1. First run:
Python checks: Does hello.pyc exist?
Answer: No

Action: Compile hello.py → Generate hello.pyc

Python checks: Has hello.py changed since hello.pyc was created?

Python checks: Does hello.pyc exist?

Second run (no changes):

Answer: Yes

Answer: No

```
Action: Skip compilation, directly load bytecode
       Third run (with changes):
              Python checks: Has hello.py changed?
              Answer: Yes
              Action: Recompile to generate new bytecode
The Diffing Algorithm Deep Dive:
Python uses a differential algorithm similar to Git:
python
# Simplified concept:
def should recompile(source file, bytecode file):
  if not bytecode file.exists():
    return True
  source_mtime = source_file.last_modified_time()
  bytecode mtime = bytecode file.stored timestamp()
  if source_mtime > bytecode_mtime:
    return True # Source is newer
  return False # Bytecode is up to date
Why differential?
       Git doesn't push entire repositories, only changes
       Similarly, Python doesn't reprocess unchanged modules
       Only modified files trigger recompilation
STEP 5: WHEN .pyc FILES ARE CREATED - The Critical Rule
The Most Important Point:
.pyc files are ONLY created for IMPORTED modules, NOT for the main script.
Deep explanation:
Scenario 1: Single file script
python
# main.py
print("Hello World")
Run: python main.py
       Result: No .pyc file created
       Why? This is the "top-level" file, executed directly
       No need for caching because you're explicitly running it
Scenario 2: Module being imported
python
# hello chai.py
def greet():
  print("Hello Chai")
# main.py
```

```
import hello_chai
hello_chai.greet()
Run: python main.py
```

- Result: pycache /hello chai.cpython-312.pyc is created
  - Why? hello chai.py is IMPORTED, might be imported by multiple files
  - Caching saves time on repeated imports

The Logic Behind This:

For top-level scripts:

- You're explicitly running it once
- No performance benefit from caching
- Direct execution is fine

For imported modules:

- Might be imported by 10 different scripts
- Each script would need to recompile the module
- Huge waste of time
- Solution: Compile once, cache, reuse

This is optimization at work.

#### 3. THE PYTHON VIRTUAL MACHINE (PVM) - The Engine

What IS the PVM Really?

Conceptual Understanding:

Think of the PVM as a software CPU:

- A real CPU executes machine code
- The PVM executes Python bytecode

The YouTuber's Simple Explanation:

"It's just a small piece of software with a continuously running loop. Feed it a file, it executes it. That's all."

Deep Technical Reality:

The PVM is an interpreter loop:

python

# Conceptual representation:

while True:

```
instruction = fetch_next_bytecode()
```

```
if instruction == LOAD CONST:
```

value = get\_constant(instruction.arg)

push\_to\_stack(value)

elif instruction == BINARY\_ADD:

right = pop\_from\_stack()

left = pop\_from\_stack()

result = left + right

push to stack(result)

```
elif instruction == STORE_NAME:
    value = pop_from_stack()
    store_variable(instruction.arg, value)
  # ... hundreds of other instructions ...
**The PVM:**
1. **Fetches** one bytecode instruction
2. **Decodes** what operation it represents
3. **Executes** that operation
4. **Repeats** for the next instruction
**It's a loop - nothing magical.**
### **Why is it called a "Virtual Machine"?**
#### **Deep Computer Science Concept:**
**A Virtual Machine creates an abstraction layer:**
   Python Source Code (.py)
   Python Bytecode (.pyc)
  Operating System
```

Physical Hardware (CPU)	
-------------------------	--

#### The "virtual" part:

- The PVM acts like a machine (CPU)
- But it's implemented in software
- It's "virtual" because it doesn't physically exist

#### The benefit:

- Platform independence
- The same bytecode runs on Windows, Mac, Linux
- Only the PVM implementation needs to be platform-specific
- Your bytecode doesn't care about the underlying hardware

### PVM as a Runtime Engine:

Every language needs a runtime:

- JavaScript: V8 Engine (Chrome), SpiderMonkey (Firefox)
- Java: JVM (Java Virtual Machine)
- Python: PVM (Python Virtual Machine)
- .NET: CLR (Common Language Runtime)

### Without a runtime:

- You can't execute code
  - It's like having a car without an engine

The PVM IS Python's engine.

4. BYTECODE vs MACHINE CODE - Critical Distinction

The Most Important Point for Interviews:

Bytecode ≠ Machine Code

Deep Comparison:

Aspect	Machine Code	Python Bytecode
Target	Physical CPU	Python Virtual Machine
Format	Binary (0s and 1s)	Platform-independent instructions
Example	mov eax, 5 (x86 assembly)	LOAD_CONST 0 (PVM instruction)
Platform	Hardware-specific	Platform-independent
Direct execution	Yes, by CPU	No, needs interpreter (PVM)
Speed	Fastest possible	Slower (interpreted)

Why This Matters: Machine Code:

```
assembly
; x86 Assembly (machine code representation)
mov eax, 5 ; Move value 5 into register eax
mov ebx, 3
             ; Move value 3 into register ebx
add eax, ebx; Add ebx to eax
- This talks **directly to your CPU**
- Intel CPU understands this differently than ARM CPU
- **Not portable**
**Python Bytecode:**
LOAD CONST 0 (5)
LOAD_CONST 1 (3)
BINARY_ADD
- This talks to the **PVM**
- PVM translates this to appropriate machine operations
- **Portable across platforms**
### **The Layered Execution:**
Python Code: x = 5 + 3
Bytecode: LOAD_CONST 0
        LOAD CONST 1
        BINARY_ADD
        STORE_NAME 0
PVM:
          (Interprets each instruction)
Machine Code: mov eax, 5
        mov ebx, 3
        add eax, ebx
        mov [mem_x], eax
Each layer adds abstraction but reduces performance.
5. PYTHON IMPLEMENTATIONS - CPython and Others
What is CPython?
Deep Understanding:
CPython = Python implementation written in C language
The confusion: People think "Python" is one thing. It's not.
```

## Python has TWO parts:

- Python Language Specification
  - Syntax rules: how to write if, for, def
  - Semantics: what these constructs mean
  - Standard library: what functions/modules exist
- Python Implementation
  - The actual software that runs Python code
  - Multiple implementations exist

## Why CPython is "Standard":

## CPython characteristics:

Python Source (.py)

Jython Compiler

- Written in C programming language
- Maintained by Python's core developers
- Reference implementation (defines the standard)
- Ships with python.org downloads
- 90%+ of Python users use this

When you download Python from python.org, you get CPython.

```
Alternative Python Implementations:
1. Jython (JPython):
What it is:
       Python implemented in Java
       Runs on the Java Virtual Machine (JVM)
Why it exists:
python
# Python code
def calculate(x):
  return x * 2
# Can interact with Java code:
from java.util import ArrayList
list = ArrayList()
list.add(calculate(5))
**Use case:**
- You have existing Java infrastructure
- Need to call Java libraries from Python
- Want Java's threading model
**How it works:**
```

```
Java Bytecode (.class)
Java Virtual Machine (JVM)
Execution
2. IronPython:
What it is:
       Python for .NET framework
       Written in C#
Use case:
python
# Python code that uses .NET libraries
import clr
clr.AddReference("System.Windows.Forms")
from System. Windows. Forms import MessageBox
MessageBox.Show("Hello from Python!")
Benefit:
       Integration with Microsoft ecosystem
       Use .NET libraries in Python
3. PyPy:
What it is:
       Python written in Python (RPython specifically)
       Performance-oriented
Key feature: JIT Compilation
Deep explanation:
CPython: Interprets bytecode instruction by instruction PyPy:
       Monitors which code runs frequently ("hot paths")
       Compiles hot paths to machine code using JIT (Just-In-Time compilation)
       Future executions run at machine code speed
Performance difference:
python
# Fibonacci calculation
def fib(n):
  if n < 2:
    return n
  return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
result = fib(35)
# CPython: ~5 seconds
# PyPy: ~0.5 seconds (10x faster for this code)
```

Why everyone doesn't use PyPy:

- Compatibility issues with some C extensions
- Higher memory usage
- Longer startup time

### 4. Stackless Python:

What it is:

Modified CPython focused on concurrency

Key feature: Microthreads (Tasklets)

Problem it solves: Normal Python threads are heavy. Stackless Python allows:

python

# You can create THOUSANDS of lightweight tasklets

# Not possible with standard threads

```
import stackless
```

```
def worker(id):
  for i in range(5):
    print(f"Worker {id}: step {i}")
    stackless.schedule() # Yield to other tasklets
```

# Create 10,000 tasklets (lightweight threads)

```
for i in range(10000):
stackless.tasklet(worker)(i)
```

stackless.run()

Use case:

- Massively concurrent applications
- Game servers
- Network servers handling many connections

## 6. PLATFORM INDEPENDENCE - Why Bytecode Matters

The Deep Concept:

Problem with compiled languages like C:

```
c
// hello.c
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    printf("Hello\n");
    return 0;
}
Compile on Windows:
```

gcc hello.c -o hello.exe # Creates Windows executable

#### Result:

- hello.exe runs ONLY on Windows
- Won't run on Mac or Linux
- Must recompile for each platform

```
Python's Solution:
python
# hello.py
print("Hello")
No compilation needed by user:
bash
# Works on Windows
python hello.py
# Same code works on Mac
python hello.py
# Same code works on Linux
python hello.py
**Behind the scenes:**
Windows: hello.py → Bytecode → Windows PVM → Windows machine code
       hello.py \rightarrow Bytecode \rightarrow Mac PVM \rightarrow Mac machine code
Linux: hello.py \rightarrow Bytecode \rightarrow Linux PVM \rightarrow Linux machine code
**The bytecode is identical across all platforms.**
**Only the PVM is platform-specific.**
### **This is the POWER of bytecode:**
**Write once, run anywhere** (WORA)
- Java popularized this concept
- Python implements it through bytecode + PVM
- Your `.pyc` files can theoretically run on any platform with compatible Python
## **7. PERFORMANCE IMPLICATIONS - Why This Matters**
```

```
### **The Speed Hierarchy:**
FASTEST: Machine code (C, Rust compiled binaries)
        JIT-compiled code (PyPy hot paths, Java after warmup)
FAST:
MEDIUM: Bytecode interpretation (CPython, standard Python)
SLOW: Direct source interpretation (no bytecode caching)
Why CPython is "Slow":
The interpretation overhead:
python
# Simple Python code
total = 0
for i in range(1000000):
  total += i
What happens (simplified):
In C (compiled):
С
// Compiles to ~10 machine instructions
// Executes in microseconds
**In CPython:**
For EACH iteration:
1. Fetch LOAD CONST bytecode
2. Interpret what LOAD CONST means
3. Fetch value from constant pool
4. Push to stack
5. Fetch LOAD_NAME bytecode
6. Interpret what LOAD NAME means
7. Look up variable in namespace
8. Push to stack
9. Fetch BINARY_ADD bytecode
10. Interpret what BINARY_ADD means
11. Pop two values
12. Add them
13. Push result
14. Fetch STORE_NAME bytecode
15. Interpret what STORE NAME means
16. Pop value
17. Store in namespace
```

18. Repeat 1,000,000 times

...

- \*\*Each bytecode instruction requires:\*\*
- Interpretation (what does this instruction do?)
- Memory access
- Stack operations
- Namespace lookups

```
**This is why Python is slower than C.**
```

\_\_\_

### \*\*When .pyc Files Actually Help:\*\*

\*\*Scenario 1: Large project startup\*\*

### Without .pyc:

- Start application
- Import 50 modules
- Parse and compile all 50 modules
- Total startup: 5 seconds

## With .pyc:

- Start application
- Import 50 modules
- Load pre-compiled bytecode for all 50
- Total startup: 1 second

٠.,

\*\*Benefit: Faster application startup\*\*

\*\*Scenario 2: Development workflow\*\*

# Developer workflow:

- 1. Run program (compilation happens)
- 2. Make small change
- 3. Run again (only changed modules recompile)
- 4. Repeat 100 times during development

Without .pyc: Full compilation every time = SLOW With .pyc: Incremental compilation = FAST

## 8. INTERVIEW PERSPECTIVE - Critical Points

Common Interview Questions and Deep Answers:

Q1: Is Python interpreted or compiled?

Shallow Answer (WRONG): "Python is an interpreted language."

Deep Answer (CORRECT): "Python is both compiled and interpreted. The source code is first compiled to bytecode (an intermediate representation), which is then interpreted by the Python Virtual Machine. The compilation step is implicit and automatic. So technically, it's a compiled language with bytecode interpretation."

Q2: What are .pyc files?

Shallow Answer: "Compiled Python files."

Deep Answer: ".pyc files contain Python bytecode - a low-level, platform-independent representation of your source code. They include a magic number for version checking, a timestamp for change detection, and the actual bytecode instructions. Python automatically generates these for imported modules to avoid recompilation overhead. They're stored in the pycache directory and significantly speed up module imports."

Q3: Why doesn't my main script create a .pyc file?

Shallow Answer: "I don't know."

Deep Answer: "Python only creates .pyc files for imported modules, not for the top-level script being executed directly. The reason is optimization - imported modules might be used by multiple scripts, so caching the bytecode saves compilation time. The main script is executed once per run, so there's no benefit from caching it. The PVM can directly interpret both source code and bytecode."

Q4: What's the difference between bytecode and machine code?

Shallow Answer: "Bytecode is intermediate code."

Deep Answer: "Bytecode is a platform-independent intermediate representation targeting the Python Virtual Machine, while machine code is platform-specific binary instructions targeting the physical CPU. Bytecode still requires interpretation by the PVM, adding overhead, whereas machine code executes directly on hardware. Bytecode enables Python's 'write once, run anywhere' capability but at the cost of execution speed compared to machine code."

#### 9. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR DEVELOPERS

What You Should Do:

1. Don't commit pycache to version control:

bash

# .gitignore

\_pycache\_\_/

- \*.pyc
- \*.pyo
- \*.pyd

Why:

- These are generated files
- Platform/version specific
- Create noise in diffs

Can be regenerated automatically

```
2. Clean up .pyc files when needed:
bash
# Remove all .pyc files recursively
find . -type f -name "*.pyc" -delete
# Remove all __pycache__ directories
find . -type d -name "__pycache__" -delete
# Or use Python itself:
python -Bc "import pathlib; [p.unlink() for p in pathlib.Path('.').rglob('*.pyc')]"
When to do this:
       After switching Python versions
       When experiencing strange import issues
       Before deploying
3. Understanding import behavior:
python
# project/
# main.py
# utils.py
# helpers.py
# main.py
import utils # Creates utils.pyc
import helpers # Creates helpers.pyc
# First run: Slow (compilation)
# Subsequent runs: Fast (uses .pyc)
# If you modify utils.py:
# - Only utils.pyc is regenerated
# - helpers.pyc is reused
4. Force recompilation:
bash
# Run with -B flag to ignore .pyc files
python -B main.py
# This forces recompilation even if .pyc exists
# Useful for debugging compilation issues
```

```
Bytecode Inspection:
You can actually LOOK at the bytecode:
python
import dis
def add_numbers(a, b):
  return a + b
# Disassemble to see bytecode
dis.dis(add numbers)
**Output:**
 2
        0 LOAD_FAST
                                0 (a)
        2 LOAD_FAST
                               1 (b)
        4 BINARY_ADD
        6 RETURN VALUE
This shows:
      Line numbers
      Bytecode offsets
   Instruction names
   Arguments
You can learn:
      How Python implements features
      Performance characteristics
      Optimization opportunities
Compilation Flags:
Python has compilation flags affecting bytecode:
bash
# -O: Basic optimization (removes assertions)
python -O script.py
# Creates .pyo files
# -OO: Remove docstrings too
python -OO script.py
# These create different bytecode
Manual Compilation:
python
```

import py\_compile

```
# Manually compile a file
py_compile.compile('hello.py')
# Compile entire directory
import compileall
compileall.compile dir('mypackage/')
**Use cases:**
- Pre-compiling before deployment
- Catching syntax errors early
- Creating bytecode-only distributions
## **SUMMARY: The Complete Picture**
1. You write Python source code (.py)
2. Python parser reads and analyzes it
3. AST (Abstract Syntax Tree) is created
4. Bytecode is generated from AST
5. For imported modules, bytecode is saved as .pyc
6. .pyc files are stored in pycache /
7. Future imports load .pyc directly (if source unchanged)
8. Python Virtual Machine interprets bytecode
9. PVM executes instructions one by one
10. Output is produced
Key Takeaways:
Python compiles to bytecode, then interprets it
.pyc files are cached bytecode
Only imported modules get .pyc files
Bytecode is platform-independent
PVM is the interpreter engine
CPython is the standard implementation
```

This is the complete, in-depth explanation of everything the YouTuber covered. Every concept has been expanded with technical details, examples, and practical implications. This level of understanding will help you in interviews and real-world Python development.

✓ Bytecode ≠ machine code

This design enables portability at the cost of speed