

# Python crash course

Slides taken from [AMath 583 slides](#), lectures 25 and 26.

See also other references on

[www.clawpack.org/g2s3/doc/resources.html](http://www.clawpack.org/g2s3/doc/resources.html)

Python is an **object oriented** general-purpose language

## Advantages:

- Can be used interactively from a Python shell (similar to Matlab)
- Can also write scripts to execute from Unix shell
- Little overhead to start programming
- Powerful modern language
- Many **modules** are available for specialized work
- Good graphics and visualization modules
- Easy to combine with other languages (e.g. Fortran)
- Open source and runs on all platforms

# Python

**Disadvantage:** Can be slow to do certain things, such as looping over arrays.

Code is **interpreted** rather than compiled

Need to use suitable modules (e.g. NumPy) for speed.

Can easily create custom modules from compiled code written in Fortran, C, etc.

Can also use extensions such as **Cython** that makes it easier to mix Python with C code that will be compiled.

Python is often used for high-level scripts that e.g., download data from the web, run a set of experiments, collate and plot results.

# Interactive Python

Python can be used in a mode where commands are executed as typed....

Standard Python shell:

```
$ python
Python 2.5.2 (r252:60911, Jul 31 2008, 17:31:22)
>>>
```

Better shell: [ipython](#)

```
$ ipython
IPython 0.8.1 -- An enhanced Interactive Python.
?          -> Introduction to IPython's features.
%magic     -> Information about IPython's 'magic' % functions.
help      -> Python's own help system.
object?   -> Details about 'object'. ?object also works,
           ?? prints more.
```

```
In [1]:
```

Or use [Sage](#) shell or notebook (web interface):

[www.sagemath.org](http://www.sagemath.org)

# Executing Python scripts

Can collect commands in a file `somename.py` (a `script` or `program`) Similar to m-files in Matlab.

Then you can execute the commands either from the Unix prompt:

```
$ python somename.py
```

or in a Python or IPython shell:

```
>>> execfile('somename.py')
```

```
In [13]: execfile('somename.py')
```

```
In [14]: run somename.py # only works in IPython
```

---

Later we'll see you might instead want to `import somename` as a `module`.

# Program structure

Python has no `begin` ... `end` keywords or braces.

Blocks are determined entirely by `indentation`.

Forces you to write readable code!

```
def f(x):  
    """Funny way to define abs(x)."""  
    if x<0:  
        y = -x  
    else:  
        z = 5.*x  
        y = z/5.  
    return y  
  
for x in [-3., 0., 3.]:  
    print "f at ", x, " is ", f(x)
```

# Object-oriented language

Nearly everything in Python is an **object** of some **class**.

The class description tells what **data** the object holds and what operations (**methods** or functions) are defined to interact with the object.

# Object-oriented language

Nearly everything in Python is an **object** of some **class**.

The class description tells what **data** the object holds and what operations (**methods** or functions) are defined to interact with the object.

Every “**variable**” is really just a pointer to some object. You can reset it to point to some other object at will.

So variables don't have “type” (e.g. integer, float, string).  
(But the objects they currently point to do.)



# Object-oriented language

```
>>> x = 3.4
>>> print id(x), type(x) # id() returns memory address
8645588 <type 'float'>
```

```
>>> x = 5
>>> print id(x), type(x)
8401752 <type 'int'>
```

```
>>> x = [4,5,6]
>>> print id(x), type(x)
1819752 <type 'list'>
```

```
>>> x = [7,8,9]
>>> print id(x), type(x)
1843808 <type 'list'>
```

# Object-oriented language

```
>>> x = [7,8,9]
>>> print id(x), type(x)
1843808 <type 'list'>
```

```
>>> x.append(10)
>>> x
[7, 8, 9, 10]
>>> print id(x), type(x)
1843808 <type 'list'>
```

**Note:** Object of type 'list' has a method 'append' that **changes** the object.

A list is a **mutable object**.

# Object-oriented language — gotcha

```
>>> x = [1,2,3]
>>> print id(x), x
1845768 [1, 2, 3]
```

```
>>> y = x
>>> print id(y), y
1845768 [1, 2, 3]
```

```
>>> y.append(27)
>>> y
[1, 2, 3, 27]
```

```
>>> x
[1, 2, 3, 27]
```

**Note:** x and y point to the same object!

## Making a copy

```
>>> x = [1,2,3]
>>> print id(x), x
1845768 [1, 2, 3]
```

```
>>> y = list(x)      # creates new list object
>>> print id(y), y
1846488 [1, 2, 3]
```

```
>>> y.append(27)
```

```
>>> y
[1, 2, 3, 27]
```

```
>>> x
[1, 2, 3]
```

# integers and floats are immutable

If `type(x) in [int, float]`, then setting `y = x` creates a **new object y** pointing to a new location.

```
>>> x = 3.4
>>> print id(x), x
8645588 3.4
```

```
>>> y = x
>>> print id(y), y
8645572 3.4
```

```
>>> y = y+1
```

```
>>> print id(y), y
8645572 4.4
```

```
>>> print id(x), x
8645588 3.4
```

# Lists

The **elements of a list** can be **any objects**  
(need not be same type):

```
>>> L = [3, 4.5, 'abc', [1,2]]
```

Indexing starts at 0:

```
>>> L[0]  
3
```

```
>>> L[2]  
'abc'
```

```
>>> L[3]  
[1, 2]
```

```
>>> L[3][0] # element 0 of L[3]  
1
```

# Lists

Lists have several built-in methods, e.g. `append`, `insert`, `sort`, `pop`, `reverse`, `remove`, etc.

```
>>> L = [3, 4.5, 'abc', [1,2]]
```

```
>>> L2 = L.pop(2)
```

```
>>> L2
```

```
'abc'
```

```
>>> L
```

```
[3, 4.5, [1, 2]]
```

**Note:** L still points to the same object, but it has changed.

In IPython: Type `L`. followed by `Tab` to see all attributes and methods.

# Lists and tuples

```
>>> L = [3, 4.5, 'abc']
>>> L[0] = 'xy'
>>> L
['xy', 4.5, 'abc']
```

A **tuple** is like a list but is **immutable**:

```
>>> T = (3, 4.5, 'abc')
>>> T[0]
3
>>> T[0] = 'xy'
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support
        item assignment
```



# Python modules

When you start Python it has a few basic built-in types and functions.

To do something fancier you will probably `import` modules.

**Example:** to determine what directory we are in or change directory, we need the module `os` (operating system):

```
>>> import os
>>> os.getcwd()
'/Users/rjl'

>>> os.chdir('uwamath583s11/codes/python')
>>> os.getcwd()
'/Users/rjl/uwamath583s11/codes/python'
```

# Python modules

When type `import modname`, Python looks on its **search path** for the file `modname.py`.

You can add more directories using the Unix environment variable **PYTHONPATH**.

Or, in Python, using the **sys** module:

```
>>> import sys
>>> sys.path # returns list of directories
['', '/usr/bin', ...]

>>> sys.path.append('newdirectory')
```

The empty string "" in the search path means it looks first in the current directory.

# Python modules

Searches first in current directory, e.g.

```
>>> os.getcwd()
'/Users/rjl/uwamath583s11/codes/python'

>>> import myfcns

>>> myfcns.f1
<function f1 at 0x1bf4b0>

>>> myfcns.f1(2.)      # evaluate f1 at 2.
3.0
```

# Python modules

Different ways to import:

```
>>> import os
>>> os.getcwd()
'/Users/rjl/uwamath583s11/codes/python'
```

```
>>> from os import getcwd
>>> getcwd()
'/Users/rjl/uwamath583s11/codes/python'
```

```
>>> from os import *
>>> getcwd()
'/Users/rjl/uwamath583s11/codes/python'
```

```
>>> import myfcns as MF
>>> MF.fl(2.)
3.0
```

# Modules and functions are objects

```
>>> import myfcns
>>> f = myfcns.f1
>>> f(2.)
3.0
```

```
>>> M = myfcns      # M points to module
```

```
>>> L = [f, M.f2]   # a list of functions
```

```
>>> L[0](2.)
3.0
```

Useful if you want to loop over a set of test functions.

# Modules and functions are objects

Useful if you want to loop over a set of test functions.

```
>>> L = [myfcns.f1, myfcns.f2]
```

```
>>> for f in L:
```

```
...     print f, " evaluated at 2. is ", f(2.)
```

```
...
```

```
<function f1 at 0x1bf4b0>  evaluated at 2. is  3.0  
<function f2 at 0x1bf4f0>  evaluated at 2. is 2980.9579
```

# Lists aren't good as numerical arrays

Lists in Python are quite general, can have arbitrary objects as elements.

Addition and scalar multiplication are defined for lists, but not what we want for numerical computation, e.g.

**Multiplication repeats:**

```
>>> x = [2., 3.]
>>> 2*x
[2.0, 3.0, 2.0, 3.0]
```

**Addition concatenates:**

```
>>> y = [5., 6.]
>>> x+y
[2.0, 3.0, 5.0, 6.0]
```

# NumPy module

Instead, use NumPy arrays:

```
>>> import numpy as np

>>> x = np.array([2., 3.])
>>> 2*x
array([ 4.,  6.])

>>> y = np.array([5., 6.])
>>> x+y
array([ 7.,  9.])
```

Other operations also apply component-wise:

```
>>> np.sqrt(x)
array([ 1.41421356,  1.73205081])
>>> np.cos(x)
array([-0.41614684, -0.9899925  ])
```



# NumPy arrays

Unlike lists, **all elements** of an `np.array` have the **same type**

```
>>> np.array([1, 2, 3])      # all integers
array([1, 2, 3])
```

```
>>> np.array([1, 2, 3.])    # one float
array([ 1.,  2.,  3.])      # they're all floats!
```

**Can explicitly state desired data type:**

```
>>> x = np.array([1, 2, 3], dtype=complex)
>>> print x
[ 1.+0.j,  2.+0.j,  3.+0.j]
```

```
>>> (x + 1.j) * 2.j
array([-2.+2.j, -2.+4.j, -2.+6.j])
```

# NumPy arrays for vectors and matrices

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

```
>>> A
```

```
array([[ 1.,  2.],  
       [ 3.,  4.],  
       [ 5.,  6.]])
```

```
>>> A.shape
```

```
(3, 2)
```

```
>>> A.T
```

```
array([[ 1.,  3.,  5.],  
       [ 2.,  4.,  6.]])
```

```
>>> x = np.array([1., 1.])
```

```
>>> x.T
```

```
array([ 1.,  1.]])
```

# NumPy arrays for vectors and matrices

Can index into multi-dimensional arrays:

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

```
>>> A[1,0]
3.0
```

Better than as list of lists...

```
>>> A[1][0]
3.0
```

# NumPy arrays for vectors and matrices

```
>>> A
array([[ 1.,  2.],
       [ 3.,  4.],
       [ 5.,  6.]])
```

```
>>> x
array([ 1.,  1.] )
```

```
>>> np.dot(A,x)      # matrix-vector product
array([ 3.,  7., 11.] )
```

```
>>> np.dot(A.T, A)   # matrix-matrix product
array([[ 35.,  44.],
       [ 44.,  56.]])
```

# NumPy matrices for vectors and matrices

For Linear algebra, may instead want to use `numpy.matrix`:

```
>>> A = np.matrix([[1.,2], [3,4], [5,6]])
>>> A
matrix([[ 1.,  2.],
        [ 3.,  4.],
        [ 5.,  6.]])
```

Or, Matlab style (as a string that is converted):

```
>>> A = np.matrix("1.,2; 3,4; 5,6")
>>> A
matrix([[ 1.,  2.],
        [ 3.,  4.],
        [ 5.,  6.]])
```

# NumPy matrices for vectors and matrices

Note: vectors are handled as matrices with 1 row or column:

```
>>> x = np.matrix("4.;5.")
>>> x
matrix([[ 4.],
        [ 5.]])
>>> x.T
matrix([[ 4.,  5.]])
>>> A*x
matrix([[ 14.],
        [ 32.],
        [ 50.]])
```

But note that indexing into  $x$  requires two indices:

```
>>> print x[0,0], x[1,0]
4.0 5.0
```

# Which to use, array or matrix?

For linear algebra matrix may be easier (and more like Matlab), but vectors need two subscripts!

For most other uses, arrays more natural, e.g.

```
>>> x = np.linspace(0., 3., 100) # 100 points
>>> y = x**5 - 2.*sqrt(x)*cos(x) # 100 values
>>> plot(x,y)
```

`np.linspace` returns an `array`, which is what is needed here.

We will always use arrays. If you want to specify Matlab-style:

```
>>> B = np.matrix("1,2; 3,4").A
>>> B
array([[1, 2],
       [3, 4]])
```

# Rank of an array

The **rank** of an array is the number of subscripts it takes:

```
>>> A = np.ones((4,4))
```

```
>>> A
```

```
array([[ 1.,  1.,  1.,  1.],  
       [ 1.,  1.,  1.,  1.],  
       [ 1.,  1.,  1.,  1.],  
       [ 1.,  1.,  1.,  1.]])
```

```
>>> np.rank(A)
```

```
2
```

**Warning:** This is not the rank of the matrix in the linear algebra sense (dimension of the column space)!



# Rank of an array

Scalars have rank 0:

```
>>> z = np.array(7.)
>>> z
array(7.0)
```

NumPy arrays of any dimension are supported, e.g. rank 3:

```
>>> T = np.ones((2,2,2))
>>> T
array([[[ 1.,  1.],
        [ 1.,  1.]],

       [[ 1.,  1.],
        [ 1.,  1.]])
>>> T[0,0,0]
1.0
```

# Linear algebra with NumPy

```
>>> A = np.array([[1., 2.], [3, 4]])
```

```
>>> A
```

```
array([[ 1.,  2.],  
       [ 3.,  4.]])
```

```
>>> b = np.dot(A, np.array([8., 9.]))
```

```
>>> b
```

```
array([ 26.,  60.]])
```

Now solve  $Ax = b$ :

```
>>> from numpy.linalg import solve
```

```
>>> solve(A,b)
```

```
array([ 8.,  9.]])
```

# Eigenvalues

```
>>> from numpy.linalg import eig

>>> eig(A) # returns a tuple (evals, evecs)

(array([-0.37228132,  5.37228132]),
 array([[ -0.82456484, -0.41597356],
        [ 0.56576746, -0.90937671]]))

>>> evals, evecs = eig(A) # unpacks tuple

>>> evals
array([-0.37228132,  5.37228132])

>>> evecs
array([[ -0.82456484, -0.41597356],
        [ 0.56576746, -0.90937671]])
```

# Function inputs and outputs

A sample function with 1 required input, 2 optional inputs,  
and 2 outputs:

```
>>> def f(x, y=2, z=None):  
...     val = x+y  
...     if z:  
...         val = val + z  
...     return val, y    # or return (val, y)  
...  
>>> f(1)  
(3, 2)  
  
>>> f(1, 6, 10)  
(17, 6)  
  
>>> f(1, z=5)  
(8, 2)
```

# Function inputs and outputs

f returns two values, so we could also do:

```
>>> v1, v2 = f(1, z=5)
>>> v1
8
>>> v2
2
```

x has no default value, so it must always be specified:

```
>>> f()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: f() takes at least
    1 argument (0 given)
```

# A function with no output

This function does not **return** any value:

```
>>> def f2(x):  
...     y = x**2  
...     print "The square is ", y  
...
```

```
>>> f2(3)  
The square is 9
```

```
>>> y = f2(100)  
The square is 10000
```

```
>>> print y  
None
```

Note: **None** is a special pre-defined object in Python

# Quadrature (numerical integration)

Estimate  $\int_0^2 x^2 dx = 8/3$ :

```
>>> from scipy.integrate import quad  
  
>>> def f(x):  
...     return x**2  
...  
>>> quad(f, 0., 2.)  
(2.6666666666666667, 2.960594732333751e-14)
```

returns (value, error estimate).

Other keyword arguments to set error tolerance, for example.

# Lambda functions

In the last example,  $f$  is so simple we might want to just include its definition directly in the call to `quad`.

We can do this with a `lambda function`:

```
>>> f = lambda x: x**2
>>> f(4)
16
```

This defines the same  $f$  as before. But instead we could do:

```
>>> quad(lambda x: x**2, 0., 2.)
(2.6666666666666667, 2.960594732333751e-14)
```



# Random numbers

```
In [36]: from numpy.random import uniform
```

```
In [37]: uniform?
```

Docstring:

```
uniform(low=0.0, high=1.0, size=1)
```

```
Draw samples from a uniform distribution.
```

```
etc.
```

```
In [38]: uniform()
```

```
Out [38]: 0.052044690516633407
```

```
In [39]: uniform(size=(2,3)) # NOTE: keyword arg.
```

```
Out [39]:
```

```
array([[ 0.95581274,  0.07874926,  0.30454462],  
       [ 0.53318419,  0.27670149,  0.16840566]])
```

# Python loops

**Example:** iterating over items of a list

```
for j in [1,2,3]:  
    print "j is now ", j  
    print "this is also in loop"  
print "the loop has ended"
```

**produces:**

```
j is now 1  
this is also in loop  
j is now 2  
this is also in loop  
j is now 3  
this is also in loop  
the loop has ended
```

**Remember:** Indentation determines what's in the loop.

# Python loops

More generally:

```
for j in some_iterable_object:  
    # contents of loop
```

Certain types or classes of objects are **iterable**.

Requires a pre-defined way to loop over the contents.

**Lists** and **tuples** are iterable, as in last example.

**Strings** are iterable:

```
for j in 'abc':  
    print "j is now ", j
```

produces:

```
j is now  a  
j is now  b  
j is now  c
```

# Python loops

To loop over the indices rather than over the values, use:

```
L = [12, 5, 7]
for j in range(len(L)):
    print "j = %s, L[%s] is %s" % (j, j, L[j])
```

produces

```
j = 0, L[0] is 12
j = 1, L[1] is 5
j = 2, L[2] is 7
```

Note that:

```
>>> len(L)
3
>>> range(3)
[0, 1, 2]
```

So `range(len(L))` produces a list with the proper indices.

# enumerate

Another way to do this is with `enumerate`:

```
L = [12, 5, 7]
for j, value in enumerate(L):
    print "L[%s] is %s" % (j, value)
```

also produces

```
L[0] is 12
L[1] is 5
L[2] is 7
```

# Python if-then-else

```
x = 2
if x < 1:
    print "x is less than 1"
elif x > 3:
    print "x is larger than 3"
else:
    print "x is between 1 and 3"
```

produces:

```
x is between 1 and 3
```

Note indentation!

There can be 1 or more **elif** (else if) statements, or none.

The **else** is also optional.

# Booleans

An object of type `bool` has value `True` or `False`.

```
>>> x = 2
>>> large = x > 100

>>> large
False
>>> type(large)
<type 'bool'>
```

Any boolean can go in the test of the `if` or `elif` clauses.

**Note:** To test equality, use `==` and for inequality, `!=`

```
>>> x==2
True
>>> x!=2
False
```

# Booleans

Can use:

and or &  
or or |

```
>>> x = 0.5  
>>> ((x>3) and (x<4)) or ((x>0) and (x<1))  
True
```

is the same as

```
>>> ((x>3) & (x<4)) | ((x>0) & (x<1))  
True
```



# Booleans

Other objects can also go in the test of the if or elif clauses.

In general, object acts as True unless it is:

- a boolean with value False,
- a integer with value 0, float with value 0.,
- an empty list [ ], empty string "", etc.
- the special object None.

```
y = None
if y:
    print "y is ", y
else:
    y = 0.
    print "initialized y"
```

produces:

```
initialized y
```

**Note:** If y is not defined at all this will give an error.  
(i.e., raise an exception)