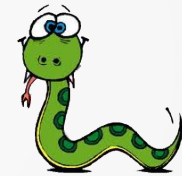




European School of Instrumentation
in Particle & Astroparticle Physics



Python, a short introduction

Jérôme ODIER

Philosophy



- Beautiful is better than ugly
- Explicit is better than implicit
- Simple is better than complex
- Complex is better than complicated
- Readability counts



Python

Appeared in 1991; 24 years ago
Designed by Guido van Rossum
Stable release 2.7.X
3.3.X
URL <http://www.python.org/>
OS cross-platform

What is Python ?



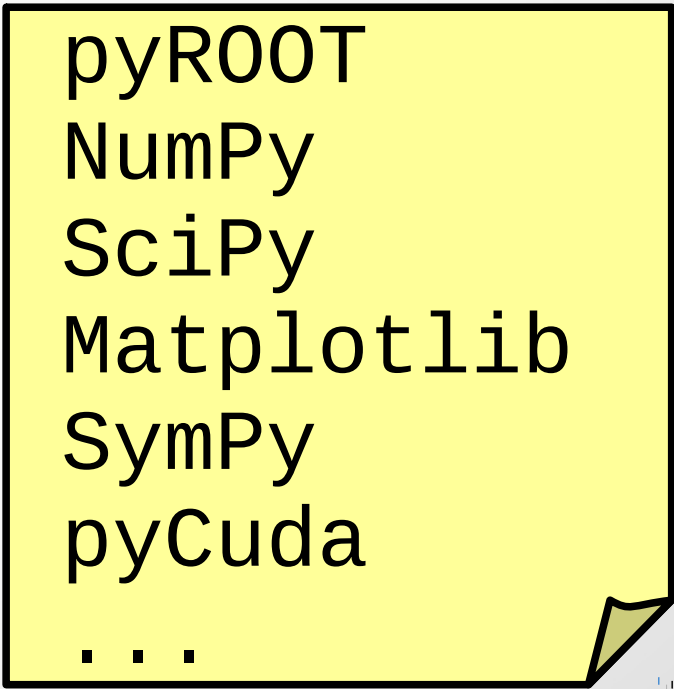
- Python is:
 - structured (if, for, etc...) (see slide part 1)
 - object-oriented (see slide part 3)
 - module-oriented (see slide part 4)
- Modern (garbage collector, introspection)
- Cross-platform Slower than C/C++, but...
- Interpreted (has a bytecode virtual machine)
- Not optimized for performance but easy wrapping with C, C++, Java, etc... (see pyCuda → speed x 100)

Like Java or C#...

Why Python ?



- Python is perfect for:
 - writing scripts
 - command line tools
 - symbolic computation
 - data analysis
 - ...
 - physicists



A yellow sticky note with a black border and a folded bottom-right corner. It contains a list of Python libraries. A blue bracket on the left side of the slide groups the items 'symbolic computation', 'data analysis', and '...' from the list above, with an arrow pointing to this sticky note.

```
pyROOT  
NumPy  
SciPy  
Matplotlib  
SymPy  
pyCuda  
...
```

!!! Important !!!



- There are backwards-incompatibilities between major releases !
- Current stable versions:
 - 2.7.X
 - discussed in this tutorial
 - 3.3.X
 - less used than 2.7.X
 - minor incompatibilities
 - see <http://docs.python.org/2/library/2to3.html>

Plan



- (1) The Python language + exercises
- (2) Data structures + exercises
- (3) Objects + exercises
- (4) Modules + exercises
- (5) The Python standard library and more



The Python language

The Python console



- Running the Python console:

```
$ python

Python 2.7.2 (default, Oct 11 2012, 20:14:37)
[GCC 4.2.1 Compatible Apple Clang 4.0 (tags/Apple/clang-418.0.60)] on darwin
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>>1+1
2
>>CTRL+D

$
```

- Executing a script:

```
$ python hello.py

Hello World !

$
```

hello.py

```
print('Hello World !')
```


Comments



- Writing a comment:

```
# this is a comment
```

- No `/* */` comment in python...

Operators



- Arithmetic op.: + - * / % **
 - Example: `x * (y + 1) / z`
- Assignment op.: = += -= *= /=
 - Example: `a = 2`
`a += 1`
- Comparison op.: == < <= > >=
 - Example: `1 == 0` returns **False**
`1 >= 0` returns **True**
- Logical op.: and or not
 - Example: `(x == 0) or (y < 0)`
`not (x == 0)`

Quite similar to C/C++

Multiple assignment:

```
i, j = 1, 2
```

String operators



- String concatenation operator: +
 - Example: 'Hello' + ' ' + 'world'
- String formatting operator: %

```
'integer: %d, real %f, string %s' % (0, 3.14, 'hello')
```

- Returns: integer: 0, real 3.14, string: hello

~ equivalent to:

```
'integer: ' + str(0) + ', real: ' + str(3.14) + ', string: ' + 'hello'
```

```
'%08.4' % 3.14
```

- Returns: 00000003.1400
- cf. C/C++ “printf” function

Special characters in a string



- Line return:
 - `\n`
- Back slash:
 - `\\`
- Simple quote in a string with simple quotes:
 - `\'`
- Double quote in a string with double quotes:
 - `\"`
- Percent in a formatted string:
 - `%%`

cf. C/C++

Variables and types



- The first assignment to a variable creates it

- Integer variables:

- `i = 0`

- Real variables:

- `f = 3.14`

- Strings:

- `s1 = 'hello'`

- `s2 = "world"`

- `s3 = """Once upon a time
the world was round
and you could go on it
around and around.`

"""

4 ways to declare strings

- Boolean variables:

- `b = True`

- `b = False`

- `s4 = """Once upon a time
the world was round
and you could go on it
around and around.`

"""

None



- **None** is frequently used to represent the absence of a value.
- A function that returns nothing returns **None**
- Example:

```
x = None
```

- The operator **is** is used to check if a variable is **None**:

```
x is None → returns True
```

```
not x is None → returns False
```

- **None** ~ **NULL** in C/C++

~~x == None~~

White spaces & blocks



- Whitespace is meaningful in Python: especially **indentation** and **placement of newlines**:
 - use a newline to terminate a line of code.
 - Use `\` when to go to next line prematurely (long lines).
 - no braces `{ }` to mark blocks of code in Python...
Use consistent indentation instead (tabs **xor** spaces).
 - The first line with less indentation is outside of the block.
 - The first line with more indentation starts a nested block.
- A colon `:` appears before a new block (E.g. for function and class definitions, etc...).
- Blocks have to contain at least one instruction
 - The keyword **pass** can be used to write an empty blocks

Functions



- Declaring a function:

```
def my_function(my_1st_parameter, my_2nd_parameter, ...):  
    my_1st_instruction  
    my_2nd_instruction  
    ...
```

Instruction block

```
def sum(a, b):  
    return a + b  
  
print(sum(1, 2))    # will display 3
```

```
def sum(a = 0, b = 32): ...  
  
print(sum())        # will display 32  
print(sum(1))       # will display 33  
print(sum(b = 2))   # will display 2
```


if statement 1/2



- **Syntax:**

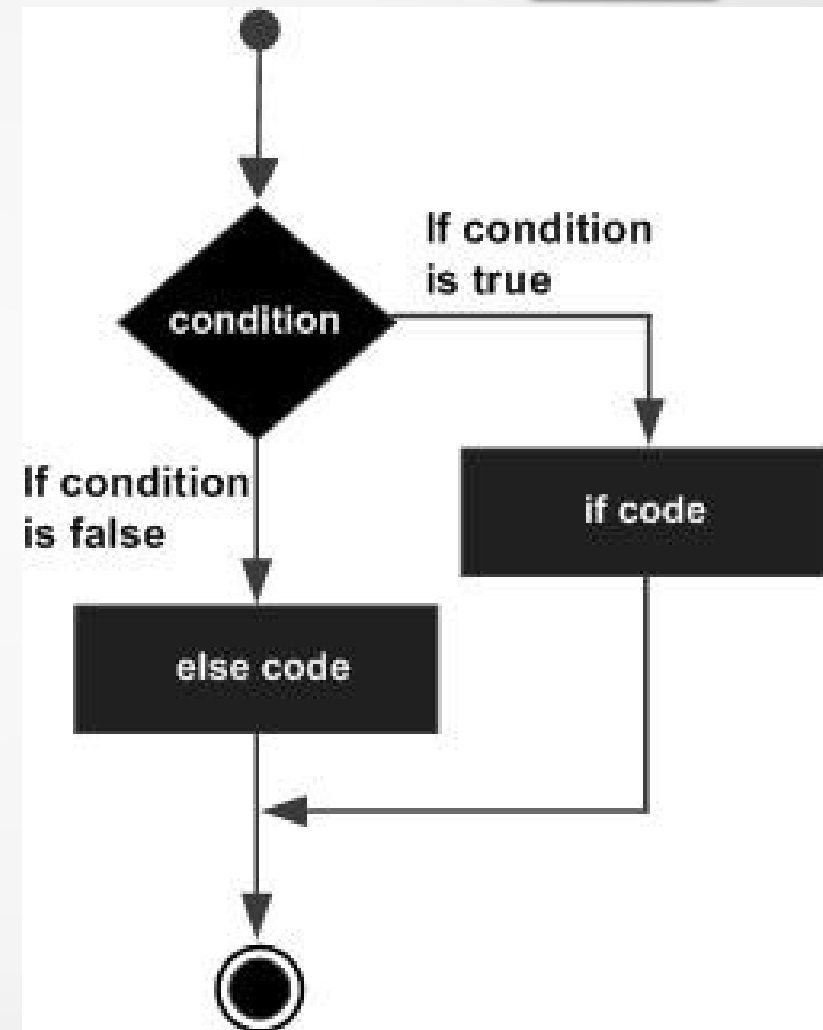
```
if condition:  
    block
```

...

```
if condition:  
    block1  
else:  
    block2
```

...

```
if condition1:  
    block1  
elif condition2:  
    block2  
elif condition3:  
    block3  
else:  
    block4
```



if statement 2/2

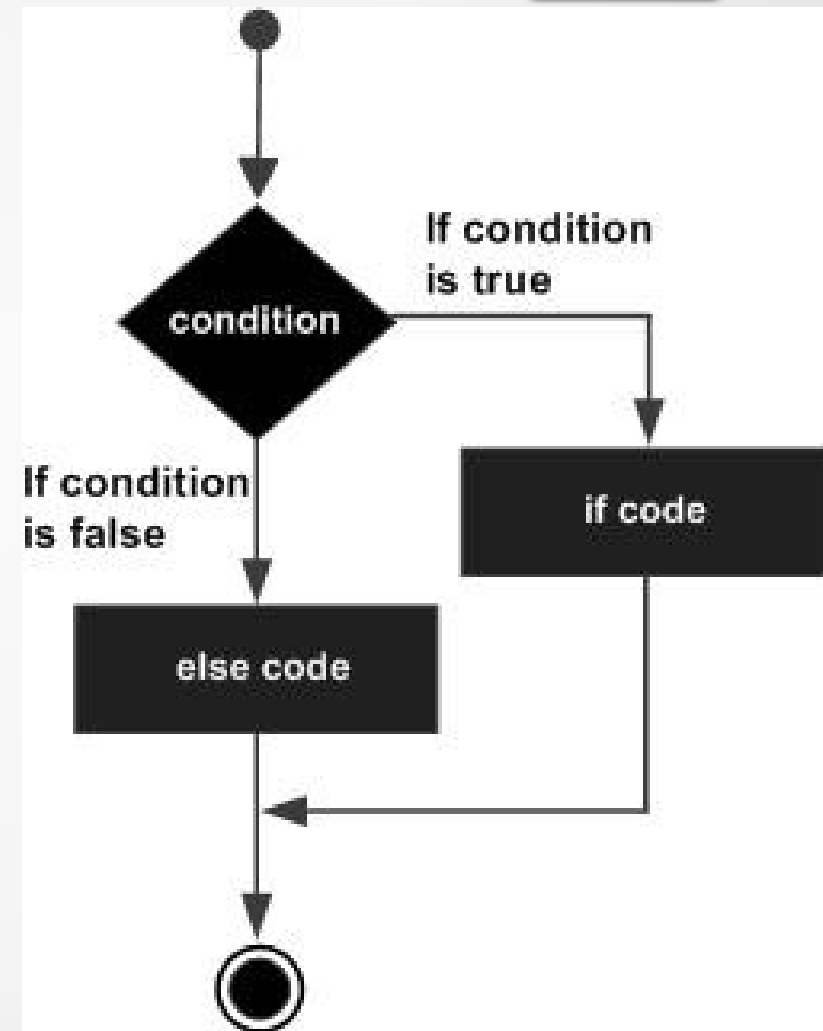


- Example

```
if 1 == 1:  
    print('Yes ! 1 == 1')
```

```
if (x == y) or (x == 0):  
    print('foo')  
else:  
    print('bar')
```

Etc...



while statement



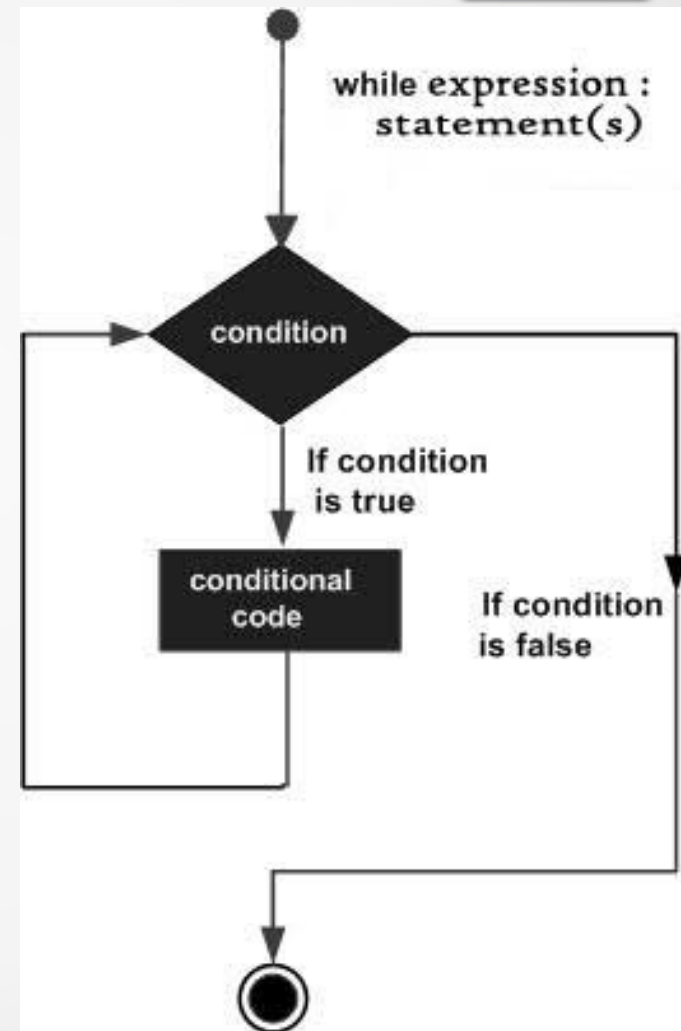
- **Syntax:**

```
while condition:  
    block
```

- **Example:**

```
i = 10  
  
while i > 0:  
    i -= 1  
    print(i)
```

will display: 9, 8, 7, 6, 5,
4, 3, 2, 1, 0



for statement



List, dictionary, tuple, iterable... see slide 28

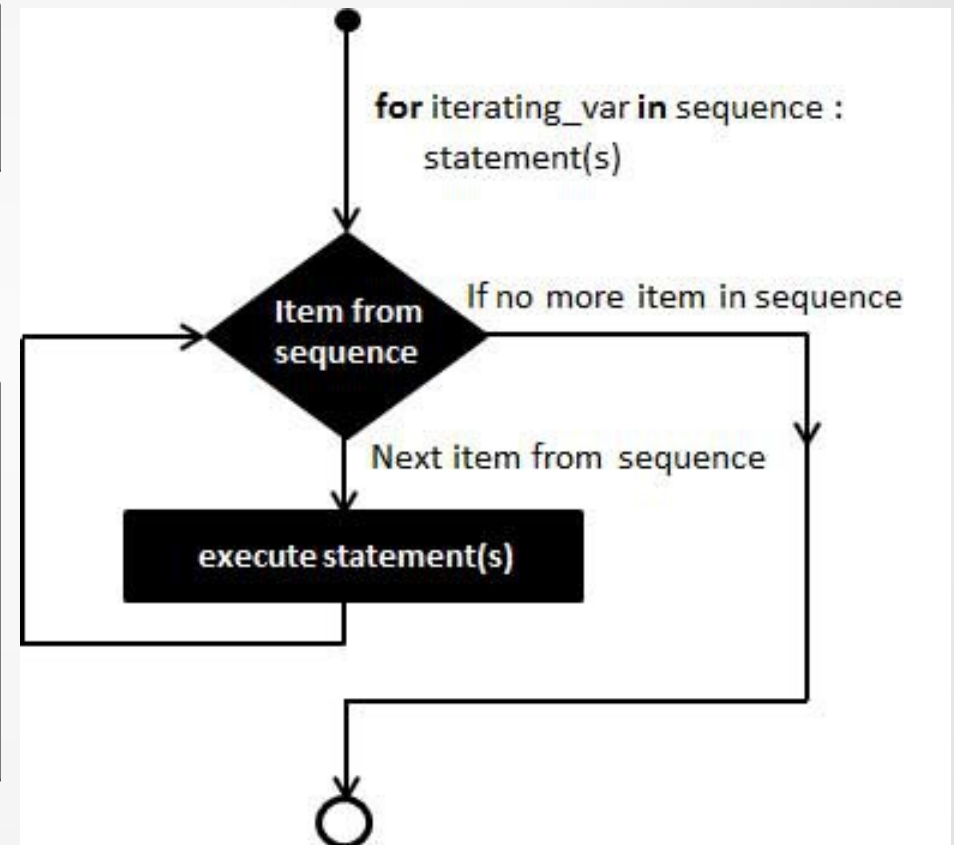
- **Syntax:**

```
for item in sequence:  
    block
```

- **Example:**

```
for item in [0, 1, 2, 3]:  
    print(item)  
  
# or equivalently  
for item in xrange(4):  
    print(item)
```

both will display : 0, 1, 2, 3



break and continue



- In a while/for loop:
 - **break** to terminate the loop
 - **continue** to skip the current iteration

```
i = 0                                # i is set to zero

while True:                            # infinite loop
    print(i)                            # display i
    i += 1                               # increment i
    if i == 4:                           # if i = 4
        break                            # terminate loop
```

Gives: 0, 1, 2, 3

```
for item in [0, 1, 2, 3]: # iterate on 0-3
    if item == 1:         # skip i = 1
        continue         #
    print(i)              # display i
```

Gives: 0, 2, 3

Exceptions



- Methodology:
 - When an error occurs, the program raises an exception and its execution is suspended:
 - If the exception is not caught, the program terminates.
 - If the exception is caught, the program resumes its execution in the exception handler.

- Raising an exception:

String message
describing
the exception

```
raise MyException(message)
```

Exceptions



- Common exceptions:

```
Exception      # All user-defined exceptions should be derived from it.  
SyntaxError    # Syntax error.  
IOError        # I/O exception (file not found, disk full, ...).  
OSError        # System-related error (see module os).  
KeyError       # Dictionary error (see part 2).
```

- User-defined exceptions:

```
class MyException(Exception):  
    pass
```

Exceptions



- Using exceptions

```
try:                                     # Exception-protected session
...
    if error:
        raise MyException(message)      # Raise MyException
...
except MyException as e:                # Print message
    print(e)
```

Jumps here

```
try:                                     # Exception-protected session
...
    if error1:
        raise MyException1(message1)    # Raise MyException1
...
    if error2:
        raise MyException2(message1)    # Raise MyException2
...
except MyException1 as e:               # Print message1
    print(e)
except MyException2 as e:               # Print message2
    print(e)
```


Anatomy of a script files



- example.py

```
#!/usr/bin/env python                # interpret with python
import sys                          # load module `sys`
def my_entry_point(argv):           # program entry point
    print(argv)                    # print cmdline argument list
    return 0                        # no error, EE if error
if __name__ == '__main__':
    sys.exit(my_entry_point(sys.argv))
```

```
$ chmod a+x example.py
```

Useful functions



- Printing a string, an integer, etc... to screen:
 - `print(obj1,[obj2,...])`
- Reading a string from keyboard:
 - `raw_input([prompt])`
- See the complete list of builtin functions:
 - <http://docs.python.org/2/library/functions.html>
- Terminate the program:
 - `import sys`
 - `sys.exit(0) # if success`
 - `sys.exit(n) # if error with
n != 0`

1st exercice (~20min)



- Write a cmdline program that append a line (read from keyboard) to a file.
- In the shell:

```
$ ./append.py file.txt
```

- Reading a file content:

```
f = open('file.txt', 'r')  
content = f.read()  
f.close()
```

- Writing a file content:

```
f = open('file.txt', 'w')  
f.write(content)  
f.close()
```

These functions can raise IOError

- `len(argv)` is the number of cmdline arguments.
`argv[1]` is the first argument.



Data structures

References:

<http://docs.python.org/2/tutorial/datastructures.html>

03/15/16

Lists



- Lists are Python's workhorse datatype.
- Creating a list:

```
L1 = [] # an empty list
L2 = list() # an empty list
L3 = [1, 2, 3, 4] # or quickly L = range(1, 5)
L4 = L3 # is just a reference to L3
L5 = list(L3) # L5 is a clone of L3
L6 = 3 * [1, 2] # returns [1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 2]
```

- Accessing items:

```
L = [1, 2, 3, 4]
L[0] # returns 1
L[3] # returns 4
L[-1] # returns 4
L[-2] # returns 3
L[1: ] # returns [2, 3, 4]
L[1: 3] # returns [2, 3]
L[1: -1] # returns [2, 3]
L[: 3] # returns [1, 2, 3]
L[:] # returns [1, 2, 3, 4]
L[4] # raise IndexError
```

} slicing

Lists



- Append an item to the end of the list:

```
L.append(item)
```

- Insert an item at the given position:

```
L.insert(position, item)
```

- Extend the list by appending all the items of the given list:

```
L.extend(L2)
```

- Remove the first item from the list whose value is x:

```
L.remove(item)
```

- Remove the last item, and get it:

```
L.pop([i])
```

Lists



- Return the index of the first item whose value is x:

```
L.index(item)          # on error raise ValueError
```

- Return the number of times that x appears in the list:

```
L.count(x)
```

- Number of items in the list:

```
len(L)
```

- Check if an item is in the list:

```
if item in L:
```

- Iterate over the list content:

```
for item in L:
```

range and xrange



- range(stop)
- range(start, stop[, step=1])
 - Returns [start, start + step, start + 2 * step, ..., stop - 1]

```
range(7)           # returns [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
range(0, 7)        # returns [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
range(1, 7)        # returns [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
range(0, 7, 2)     # returns [0, 2, 4, 6]
```

- xrange(stop)
- xrange(start, stop[, step=1])
- This function is very similar to **range()**, but it returns an **xrange** object instead of a list. This is an opaque sequence type which yields the same values as the corresponding list, without storing them all simultaneously. → see python iterators

Dictionaries (associative arrays, hash map, map)



- Unlike lists, which are indexed by numbers, dictionaries are indexed by keys, which can be any immutable type; strings and numbers can always be keys...
- Creating a dictionary:

```
D1 = {} # an empty dict
D2 = dict() # an empty dict
D3 = {'foo': 1, 'bar': 2} #
D4 = L3 # is just a reference on D3
D5 = dict(L3) # D5 is a clone of D3
```

- Accessing items:

```
D = {'foo': 1, 'bar': 2}
D['foo'] # returns 1
D['bar'] # returns 2
D['foobar'] # raise NameError
```

Dictionaries



- Add an item to the end of the dict:

```
D['key'] = value
```

- Remove the item of then given key:

```
del D['key']
```

- Extend the dict by appending all the items in the given dict:

```
D.update(D2)
```

- Returns a list of all the keys in the dictionary:

```
D.keys()
```

- Check if a key exists:

```
D.has_key('key') or 'key' in D.keys()
```

Dictionaries



- Iterate the list of all the keys used in the dictionary:

```
for key in D:           or           for key in D.keys():
```

- Example:

```
D = {'foo': 1, 'bar': 2}

for keys in D:
    print('%s: %s' % (key, D[key]))
```

- Gives:

```
bar: 2
foo: 1
```

!!! keys are in arbitrary order !!!
in a dictionary

Sets and tuples



- Sets: A set is an unordered collection with no duplicate elements...
 - Methods: add, remove, pop, update, intersection_update, difference_update, symmetric_difference_update, issubset, issuperset, union, intersection, difference, symmetric_difference,...
 - Create a set: set(L), set([1, 2, 4]), {1, 2, 3}
- Tuples: A tuple comma-separated set of values (of different types)...
 - Create a tuple: T = 1, 2, 3
 - A tuple can be returned by a function:

```
def foo():  
    return 1, 'Hello !'  
  
a, b = foo()  
my_tuple = foo()  
print(tuple)           # returns 'Hello !'
```

Strings



- Strings can be ~seen as a list of bytes:

```
s = 'Example'  
s[0]           # returns 'E'  
s[-1]         # returns 'e'  
s[1: ]        # returns 'xample'  
etc...
```

- Common methods:

- s.lower/upper()

- Returns a copy of s, converted to lower/upper case.

- s.split(sep)

- Returns a list of the words of the string s.

'foo,bar'.split(',') gives ['foo', 'bar']

- s.find|index(sub[, start[, end]])

- Returns the lowest index in s where the substring sub is found such that sub is wholly contained in s[start: end].
- index() is like find() but raise ValueError if the substring is not found.