

Introduction to Python III

Overview

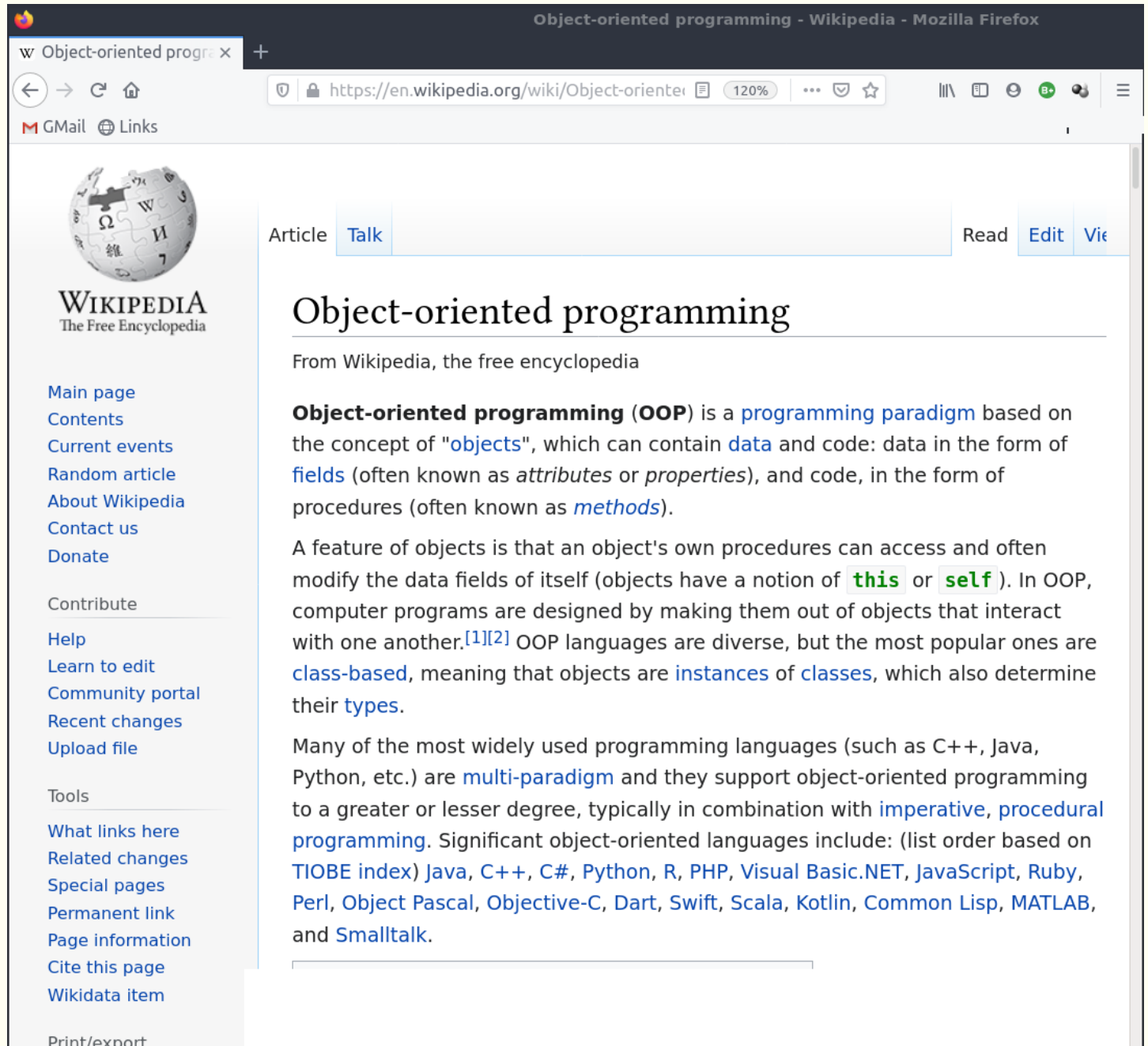
- OOP: classes and objects
- Iterators and generators
- Context managers
- Decorators
- Development process
- The Python Package Index
- IPython
- Python scientific packages (just a mention):
 - numpy
 - matplotlib
 - scipy
 - astropy, astroquery

Introduction to Python III

Overview

- OOP: classes and objects
- Iterators and generators
- Context managers
- Decorators
- Development process
- The Python Package Index
- IPython
- Python scientific packages (just a mention):
 - numpy
 - matplotlib
 - scipy
 - astropy, astroquery





The screenshot shows a Mozilla Firefox browser window displaying the Wikipedia article for "Object-oriented programming". The browser's address bar shows the URL "https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Object-oriented_programming". The page title is "Object-oriented programming - Wikipedia - Mozilla Firefox". The Wikipedia logo is visible on the left side of the page. The article content is displayed in the main area, starting with the heading "Object-oriented programming" and a subheading "From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia". The article text describes Object-oriented programming (OOP) as a programming paradigm based on the concept of "objects", which can contain data and code: data in the form of fields (often known as attributes or properties), and code, in the form of procedures (often known as methods). It also mentions that OOP languages are diverse, but the most popular ones are class-based, meaning that objects are instances of classes, which also determine their types. A list of significant object-oriented languages is provided, including Java, C++, C#, Python, R, PHP, Visual Basic.NET, JavaScript, Ruby, Perl, Object Pascal, Objective-C, Dart, Swift, Scala, Kotlin, Common Lisp, MATLAB, and Smalltalk.

Object-oriented programming - Wikipedia - Mozilla Firefox

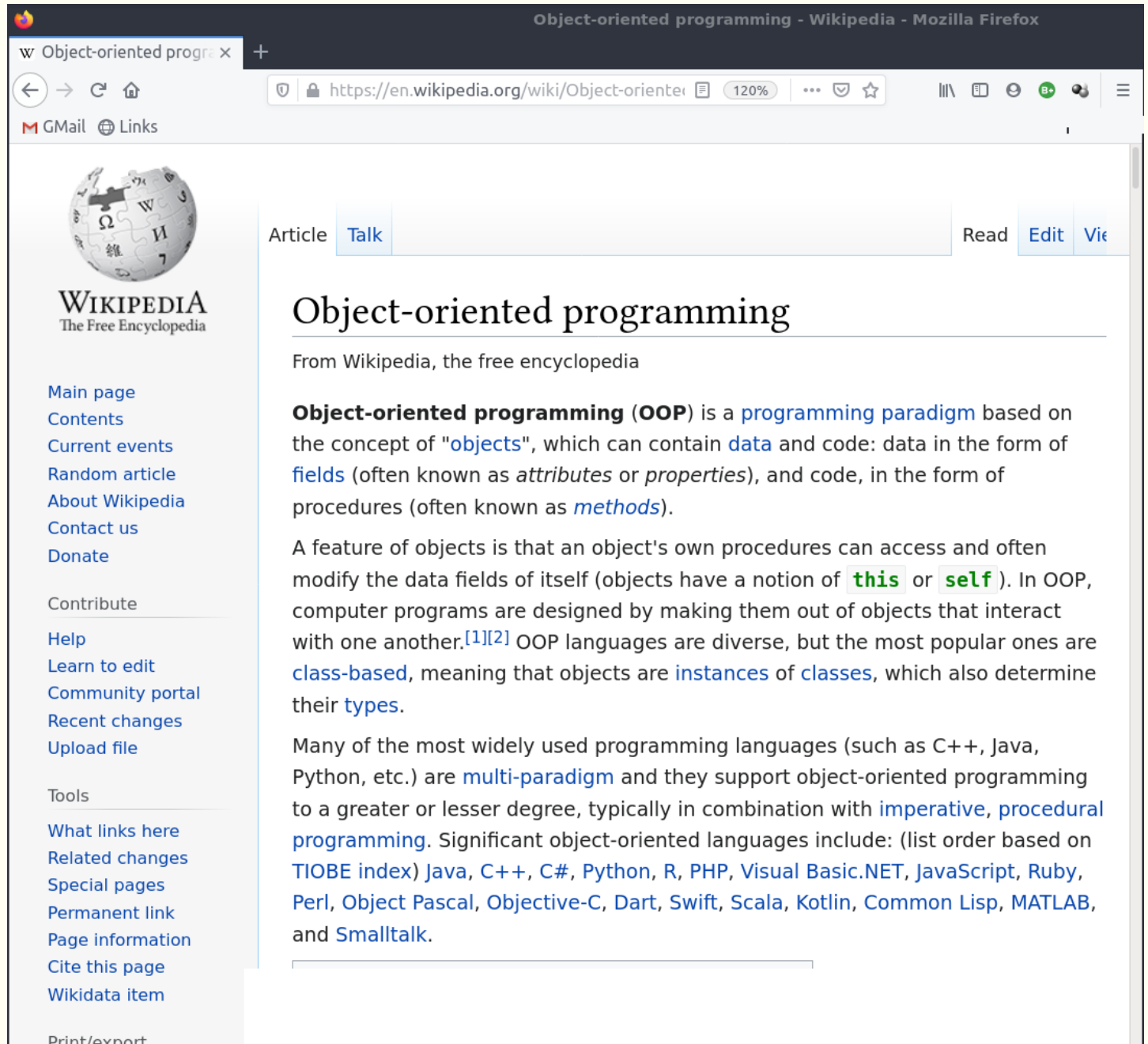
Object-oriented programming

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Object-oriented programming (OOP) is a [programming paradigm](#) based on the concept of "[objects](#)", which can contain [data](#) and code: data in the form of [fields](#) (often known as *attributes* or *properties*), and code, in the form of procedures (often known as *methods*).

A feature of objects is that an object's own procedures can access and often modify the data fields of itself (objects have a notion of [this](#) or [self](#)). In OOP, computer programs are designed by making them out of objects that interact with one another.^{[1][2]} OOP languages are diverse, but the most popular ones are [class-based](#), meaning that objects are [instances](#) of [classes](#), which also determine their [types](#).

Many of the most widely used programming languages (such as C++, Java, Python, etc.) are [multi-paradigm](#) and they support object-oriented programming to a greater or lesser degree, typically in combination with [imperative](#), [procedural programming](#). Significant object-oriented languages include: (list order based on TIOBE index) [Java](#), [C++](#), [C#](#), [Python](#), [R](#), [PHP](#), [Visual Basic.NET](#), [JavaScript](#), [Ruby](#), [Perl](#), [Object Pascal](#), [Objective-C](#), [Dart](#), [Swift](#), [Scala](#), [Kotlin](#), [Common Lisp](#), [MATLAB](#), and [Smalltalk](#).



The screenshot shows a Mozilla Firefox browser window displaying the Wikipedia article for "Object-oriented programming". The browser's address bar shows the URL "https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Object-oriented_programming". The page title is "Object-oriented programming - Wikipedia - Mozilla Firefox". The Wikipedia logo is visible on the left side of the page. The article content is displayed in the main area, starting with the heading "Object-oriented programming" and a subheading "From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia". The article text describes Object-oriented programming (OOP) as a programming paradigm based on the concept of "objects", which can contain data and code: data in the form of fields (often known as attributes or properties), and code, in the form of procedures (often known as methods). It also mentions that OOP languages are diverse, but the most popular ones are class-based, meaning that objects are instances of classes, which also determine their types. A list of significant object-oriented languages is provided, including Java, C++, C#, Python, R, PHP, Visual Basic.NET, JavaScript, Ruby, Perl, Object Pascal, Objective-C, Dart, Swift, Scala, Kotlin, Common Lisp, MATLAB, and Smalltalk.

Object-oriented programming - Wikipedia - Mozilla Firefox

Object-oriented programming

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Object-oriented programming (OOP) is a [programming paradigm](#) based on the concept of "[objects](#)", which can contain [data](#) and code: data in the form of [fields](#) (often known as *attributes* or *properties*), and code, in the form of procedures (often known as *methods*).

A feature of objects is that an object's own procedures can access and often modify the data fields of itself (objects have a notion of [this](#) or [self](#)). In OOP, computer programs are designed by making them out of objects that interact with one another.^{[1][2]} OOP languages are diverse, but the most popular ones are [class-based](#), meaning that objects are [instances](#) of [classes](#), which also determine their [types](#).

Many of the most widely used programming languages (such as C++, Java, Python, etc.) are [multi-paradigm](#) and they support object-oriented programming to a greater or lesser degree, typically in combination with [imperative](#), [procedural programming](#). Significant object-oriented languages include: (list order based on [TIOBE index](#)) [Java](#), [C++](#), [C#](#), [Python](#), [R](#), [PHP](#), [Visual Basic.NET](#), [JavaScript](#), [Ruby](#), [Perl](#), [Object Pascal](#), [Objective-C](#), [Dart](#), [Swift](#), [Scala](#), [Kotlin](#), [Common Lisp](#), [MATLAB](#), and [Smalltalk](#).



The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: number.py

```
class Number:
    "An example of class: Number()"
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four',
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n):
        self.name=Number.names[n]
        self.value=n

    def lower(self):
        return self.name

    def upper(self):
        return self.name.upper()
```

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: number.py

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: number.py

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

1 Definition of class **Number**

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: `number.py`

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

- 1 Definition of class **Number**
- 2 Class documentation string

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: `number.py`

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

- 1 Definition of class **Number**
- 2 Class documentation string
- 3 **names**: class attribute

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: `number.py`

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

- 1 Definition of class **Number**
- 2 Class documentation string
- 3 **names**: class attribute
- 4 Special method `__init__()`: **constructor**

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: `number.py`

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

- 1 Definition of class **Number**
- 2 Class documentation string
- 3 **names**: class attribute
- 4 Special method `__init__()`: **constructor**
- 5 `self.name`, `self.value`: instance attributes

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: `number.py`

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

- 1 Definition of class **Number**
- 2 Class documentation string
- 3 **names**: class attribute
- 4 Special method `__init__()`: **constructor**
- 5 `self.name`, `self.value`: instance attributes
- 6 Method: `lower()`

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: `number.py`

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

- 1 Definition of class **Number**
- 2 Class documentation string
- 3 **names**: class attribute
- 4 Special method `__init__()`: **constructor**
- 5 `self.name`, `self.value`: instance attributes
- 6 Method: `lower()`
- 7 Method: `upper()`

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: `number.py`

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

- 1 Definition of class **Number**
- 2 Class documentation string
- 3 **names**: class attribute
- 4 Special method `__init__()`: **constructor**
- 5 `self.name`, `self.value`: instance attributes
- 6 Method: `lower()`
- 7 Method: `upper()`
- 8 **Note**: in all methods the first argument (strictly required) refers to the instance (it's usually named: `self`)

The **class** is the tool which allows a programmer to define her/his own objects.

file: `number.py`

```
class Number: ← 1
    "An example of class: Number()" ← 2
    names=('zero', 'one', 'two', 'three', 'four', ← 3
           'five', 'six', 'seven', 'eight', 'nine')

    def __init__(self, n): ← 4,8
        self.name=Number.names[n] ← 5
        self.value=n ← 5

    def lower(self): ← 6,8
        return self.name

    def upper(self): ← 7,8
        return self.name.upper()
```

- 1 Definition of class **Number**
- 2 Class documentation string
- 3 **names**: class attribute
- 4 Special method `__init__()`: **constructor**
- 5 `self.name`, `self.value`: instance attributes
- 6 Method: `lower()`
- 7 Method: `upper()`
- 8 **Note**: in all methods the first argument (strictly required) refers to the instance (it's usually named: `self`)



How to use class Number:

```
>>> from number import Number
>>> a=Number(2)
>>> b=Number(3)
>>> a
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695f8>
>>> b
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695c0>
>>> a.value
2
>>> b.upper()
'THREE'
>>> a.lower()
'two'
>>>
```

How to use class Number:

```
>>> from number import Number
>>> a=Number(2)
>>> b=Number(3)
>>> a
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695f8>
>>> b
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695c0>
>>> a.value
2
>>> b.upper()
'THREE'
>>> a.lower()
'two'
>>>
```

How to use class Number:

```
>>> from number import Number
>>> a=Number(2)
>>> b=Number(3)
>>> a
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695f8>
>>> b
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695c0>
>>> a.value
2
>>> b.upper()
'THREE'
>>> a.lower()
'two'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances (objects) of class Number (equivalent to calling the `__init__()` method)

How to use class Number:

```
>>> from number import Number
>>> a=Number(2)
>>> b=Number(3)
>>> a
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695f8>
>>> b
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695c0>
>>> a.value
2
>>> b.upper()
'THREE'
>>> a.lower()
'two'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances (objects) of class Number (equivalent to calling the `__init__()` method)
- 2 Using object's attribute value

How to use class Number:

```
>>> from number import Number
>>> a=Number(2)
>>> b=Number(3)
>>> a
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695f8>
>>> b
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695c0>
>>> a.value
2
>>> b.upper()
'THREE'
>>> a.lower()
'two'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances (objects) of class Number (equivalent to calling the `__init__()` method)
- 2 Using object's attribute value
- 3 Calling object's method `upper()`

How to use class Number:

```
>>> from number import Number
>>> a=Number(2)
>>> b=Number(3)
>>> a
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695f8>
>>> b
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695c0>
>>> a.value
2
>>> b.upper()
'THREE'
>>> a.lower()
'two'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances (objects) of class Number (equivalent to calling the `__init__()` method)
- 2 Using object's attribute value
- 3 Calling object's method `upper()`
- 4 Calling object's method `lower()`

How to use class Number:

```
>>> from number import Number
>>> a=Number(2)
>>> b=Number(3)
>>> a
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695f8>
>>> b
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695c0>
>>> a.value
2
>>> b.upper()
'THREE'
>>> a.lower()
'two'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances (objects) of class Number (equivalent to calling the `__init__()` method)
- 2 Using object's attribute value
- 3 Calling object's method `upper()`
- 4 Calling object's method `lower()`
- 5 **Note:** when calling a method the first required argument is implicit

How to use class Number:

```
>>> from number import Number
>>> a=Number(2)
>>> b=Number(3)
>>> a
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695f8>
>>> b
<number.Number object at 0x7f9153a695c0>
>>> a.value
2
>>> b.upper()
'THREE'
>>> a.lower()
'two'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances (objects) of class Number (equivalent to calling the `__init__()` method)
- 2 Using object's attribute value
- 3 Calling object's method `upper()`
- 4 Calling object's method `lower()`
- 5 **Note:** when calling a method the first required argument is implicit



Proceeding further with the previous example:

Proceeding further with the previous example:

file: numberplus.py

```
from number import Number
```

```
class NumberPlus(Number):  
    "Number with addition"  
    def plus(self, x):  
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)  
  
    def upper(self):  
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

Proceeding further with the previous example:

file: numberplus.py

```
from number import Number
```

```
class NumberPlus(Number): ← 1, 2
    "Number with addition"
    def plus(self, x): ← 3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def upper(self): ← 4
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

Proceeding further with the previous example:

file: numberplus.py

```
from number import Number
```

```
class NumberPlus(Number): ← 1, 2
    "Number with addition"
    def plus(self, x): ← 3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def upper(self): ← 4
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 Here we define a new class **derived** from Number

Proceeding further with the previous example:

file: numberplus.py

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number): ← 1, 2
    "Number with addition"
    def plus(self, x): ← 3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def upper(self): ← 4
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 Here we define a new class **derived** from Number
- 2 NumberPlus is a sub-class of Number

Proceeding further with the previous example:

file: numberplus.py

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number): ← 1, 2
    "Number with addition"
    def plus(self, x): ← 3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def upper(self): ← 4
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 Here we define a new class **derived** from Number
- 2 NumberPlus is a sub-class of Number
- 3 Implementation of a new method: plus

Proceeding further with the previous example:

file: `numberplus.py`

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number): ← 1, 2
    "Number with addition"
    def plus(self, x): ← 3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def upper(self): ← 4
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 Here we define a new class **derived** from `Number`
- 2 `NumberPlus` is a sub-class of `Number`
- 3 Implementation of a new method: `plus`
- 4 Re-implementation (*overload*) of method: `upper()`

Proceeding further with the previous example:

file: `numberplus.py`

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number): ← 1, 2
    "Number with addition"
    def plus(self, x): ← 3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def upper(self): ← 4
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- ➊ Here we define a new class **derived** from `Number`
- ➋ `NumberPlus` is a sub-class of `Number`
- ➌ Implementation of a new method: `plus`
- ➍ Re-implementation (*overload*) of method: `upper()`



Let's use the new class:

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> print(a)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc88>
>>> print(b)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc50>
>>> c=a.plus(b)
>>> print(c)
<numberplus.NumberPlus object at 0x7ffa15698710>
>>> c.value
5
>>> c.upper()
'Five'
>>>
```

Let's use the new class:

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2) |← 1
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> print(a)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc88>
>>> print(b)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc50>
>>> c=a.plus(b) ← 2
>>> print(c)
<numberplus.NumberPlus object at 0x7ffa15698710>
>>> c.value ← 3
5
>>> c.upper() ← 4
'Five'
>>>
```

Let's use the new class:

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2) |← 1
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> print(a)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc88>
>>> print(b)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc50>
>>> c=a.plus(b) ← 2
>>> print(c)
<numberplus.NumberPlus object at 0x7ffa15698710>
>>> c.value ← 3
5
>>> c.upper() ← 4
'Five'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances of class NumberPlus

Let's use the new class:

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2) ← 1
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> print(a)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc88>
>>> print(b)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc50>
>>> c=a.plus(b) ← 2
>>> print(c)
<numberplus.NumberPlus object at 0x7ffa15698710>
>>> c.value ← 3
5
>>> c.upper() ← 4
'Five'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances of class NumberPlus
- 2 The plus() method creates a new instance of NumberPlus

Let's use the new class:

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2) | ← 1
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> print(a)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc88>
>>> print(b)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc50>
>>> c=a.plus(b) ← 2
>>> print(c)
<numberplus.NumberPlus object at 0x7ffa15698710>
>>> c.value ← 3
5
>>> c.upper() ← 4
'Five'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances of class NumberPlus
- 2 The plus() method creates a new instance of NumberPlus
- 3 Its value is the sum of the values of the two objects.

Let's use the new class:

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2) ← 1
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> print(a)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc88>
>>> print(b)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc50>
>>> c=a.plus(b) ← 2
>>> print(c)
<numberplus.NumberPlus object at 0x7ffa15698710>
>>> c.value ← 3
5
>>> c.upper() ← 4
'Five'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances of class NumberPlus
- 2 The plus() method creates a new instance of NumberPlus
- 3 Its value is the sum of the values of the two objects.
- 4 The upper() method has been redefined.

Let's use the new class:

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2) | ← 1
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> print(a)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc88>
>>> print(b)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc50>
>>> c=a.plus(b) ← 2
>>> print(c)
<numberplus.NumberPlus object at 0x7ffa15698710>
>>> c.value ← 3
5
>>> c.upper() ← 4
'Five'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances of class NumberPlus
- 2 The plus() method creates a new instance of NumberPlus
- 3 Its value is the sum of the values of the two objects.
- 4 The upper() method has been redefined.

N.B.: The class Number and its derivatives implement very little of integer arithmetic!

Let's use the new class:

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2) ← 1
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> print(a)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc88>
>>> print(b)
<numberext.NumberPlus object at 0x7fe17970dc50>
>>> c=a.plus(b) ← 2
>>> print(c)
<numberplus.NumberPlus object at 0x7ffa15698710>
>>> c.value ← 3
5
>>> c.upper() ← 4
'Five'
>>>
```

- 1 Creating two instances of class NumberPlus
- 2 The plus() method creates a new instance of NumberPlus
- 3 Its value is the sum of the values of the two objects.
- 4 The upper() method has been redefined.

N.B.: The class Number and its derivatives implement very little of integer arithmetic!



Python applies the **duck typing** principle:

Python applies the **duck typing** principle:

If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck

E.g.: an object is (compatible with) an integer if provides all the methods which are specific of integers.

Python applies the **duck typing** principle:

If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck

E.g.: an object is (compatible with) an integer if provides all the methods which are specific of integers.


```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> a+b
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'NumberPlus' and 'NumberPlus'
>>>
```

Python applies the **duck typing** principle:

If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck

E.g.: an object is (compatible with) an integer if provides all the methods which are specific of integers.

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> a+b
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'NumberPlus' and 'NumberPlus'
>>>
```



Our NumberPlus class doesn't add like an integer

Python applies the **duck typing** principle:

If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck

E.g.: an object is (compatible with) an integer if provides all the methods which are specific of integers.

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> a+b
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'NumberPlus' and 'NumberPlus'
>>>
```

Our NumberPlus class doesn't add like an integer

Let's look into an object of type integer:

Python applies the **duck typing** principle:

If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck

E.g.: an object is (compatible with) an integer if provides all the methods which are specific of integers.

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> a+b
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'NumberPlus' and 'NumberPlus'
>>>
```

Our NumberPlus class doesn't add like an integer

Let's look into an object of type integer:

```
>>> a = 1
>>> dir(a)
['__abs__', '__add__', '__and__', '__bool__', '__ceil__', '__class__',
 '__delattr__', '__dir__', '__divmod__', '__doc__', '__eq__', '__float__',
 ....]
```

Python applies the **duck typing** principle:

If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck

E.g.: an object is (compatible with) an integer if provides all the methods which are specific of integers.

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> a+b
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'NumberPlus' and 'NumberPlus'
>>>
```

Our NumberPlus class doesn't add like an integer

Let's look into an object of type integer:

```
>>> a = 1
>>> dir(a)
['__abs__', '__add__', '__and__', '__bool__', '__ceil__', '__class__',
 '__delattr__', '__dir__', '__divmod__', '__doc__', '__eq__', '__float__',
 ....]
```

Python applies the **duck typing** principle:

If it walks like a duck and it quacks like a duck, then it must be a duck

E.g.: an object is (compatible with) an integer if provides all the methods which are specific of integers.

```
>>> from numberplus import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(3)
>>> a+b
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'NumberPlus' and 'NumberPlus'
>>>
```

Our NumberPlus class doesn't add like an integer

Let's look into an object of type integer:

```
>>> a = 1
>>> dir(a)
['__abs__', '__add__', '__and__', '__bool__', '__ceil__', '__class__',
 '__delattr__', '__dir__', '__divmod__', '__doc__', '__eq__', '__float__',
 ....]
```



Let's see how we can improve our class to support addition using the **+** sign.

file: `numberplus1.py` (class `NumberPlus` revised)

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number):
    "Number with addition"
    def __add__(self, x):
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def __str__(self):
        return self.name

    def upper(self):
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

Let's see how we can improve our class to support addition using the **+** sign.

file: `numberplus1.py` (class `NumberPlus` revised)

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number):
    "Number with addition"
    def __add__(self, x): ← 1,3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def __str__(self): ← 2,4
        return self.name

    def upper(self):
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

Let's see how we can improve our class to support addition using the **+** sign.

file: `numberplus1.py` (class `NumberPlus` revised)

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number):
    "Number with addition"
    def __add__(self, x): ← 1,3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def __str__(self): ← 2,4
        return self.name

    def upper(self):
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 The `plus()` method has been renamed:
`__add__()`

Let's see how we can improve our class to support addition using the + sign.

file: numberplus1.py (class NumberPlus revised)

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number):
    "Number with addition"
    def __add__(self, x): ← 1,3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def __str__(self): ← 2,4
        return self.name

    def upper(self):
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 The plus() method has been renamed: `__add__()`
- 2 A new method has been added: `__str__()`

Let's see how we can improve our class to support addition using the **+** sign.

file: `numberplus1.py` (class `NumberPlus` revised)

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number):
    "Number with addition"
    def __add__(self, x): ← 1,3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def __str__(self): ← 2,4
        return self.name

    def upper(self):
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 The `plus()` method has been renamed: `__add__()`
- 2 A new method has been added: `__str__()`
- 3 `__add__()` is the method used implicitly in expressions like: `a+b`

Let's see how we can improve our class to support addition using the **+** sign.

file: `numberplus1.py` (class `NumberPlus` revised)

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number):
    "Number with addition"
    def __add__(self, x): ← 1,3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def __str__(self): ← 2,4
        return self.name

    def upper(self):
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 The `plus()` method has been renamed: `__add__()`
- 2 A new method has been added: `__str__()`
- 3 `__add__()` is the method used implicitly in expressions like: `a+b`
- 4 `__str__()` is the method used implicitly in calls like: `print(a)`

Let's see how we can improve our class to support addition using the **+** sign.

file: `numberplus1.py` (class `NumberPlus` revised)

```
from number import Number

class NumberPlus(Number):
    "Number with addition"
    def __add__(self, x): ← 1,3
        return NumberPlus(self.value+x.value)

    def __str__(self): ← 2,4
        return self.name

    def upper(self):
        return self.name.capitalize()
```

- 1 The `plus()` method has been renamed: `__add__()`
- 2 A new method has been added: `__str__()`
- 3 `__add__()` is the method used implicitly in expressions like: `a+b`
- 4 `__str__()` is the method used implicitly in calls like: `print(a)`



And here's what we get:

```
>>> from numberplus1 import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(5)
>>> print(a)
two
>>> print(a+b)
seven
>>> a
<numberplus1.NumberPlus object at 0x7f6bbcdf3748>
>>>
```

And here's what we get:

```
>>> from numberplus1 import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(5)
>>> print(a) ← 1
two
>>> print(a+b) ← 2,3
seven
>>> a ← 4
<numberplus1.NumberPlus object at 0x7f6bbcdf3748>
>>>
```

- 1 The built-in function `print()` calls the standard method `__str__` to get the value of an object

And here's what we get:

```
>>> from numberplus1 import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(5)
>>> print(a) ← 1
two
>>> print(a+b) ← 2,3
seven
>>> a ← 4
<numberplus1.NumberPlus object at 0x7f6bbcdf3748>
>>>
```

- 1 The built-in function `print()` calls the standard method `__str__` to get the value of an object
- 2 The `+` sign in the expression calls the `__add__()` method of the first object, i.e.:

`a+b` is equivalent to: `a.__add__(b)`

And here's what we get:

```
>>> from numberplus1 import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(5)
>>> print(a) ← 1
two
>>> print(a+b) ← 2,3
seven
>>> a ← 4
<numberplus1.NumberPlus object at 0x7f6bbcdf3748>
>>>
```

- 1 The built-in function `print()` calls the standard method `__str__` to get the value of an object
- 2 The `+` sign in the expression calls the `__add__()` method of the first object, i.e.:
 $a+b$ is equivalent to: $a.__add__(b)$
- 3 As above, `print()` calls `__str__()` on the value returned by `__add__()` (which is an object of type `NumberPlus`)

And here's what we get:

```
>>> from numberplus1 import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(5)
>>> print(a) ← 1
two
>>> print(a+b) ← 2,3
seven
>>> a ← 4
<numberplus1.NumberPlus object at 0x7f6bbcdf3748>
>>>
```

- 1 The built-in function `print()` calls the standard method `__str__` to get the value of an object
- 2 The `+` sign in the expression calls the `__add__()` method of the first object, i.e.:
 $a+b$ is equivalent to: $a.__add__(b)$
- 3 As above, `print()` calls `__str__()` on the value returned by `__add__()` (which is an object of type `NumberPlus`)
- 4 The python interpreter in interactive mode, when showing the value of an object, calls the standard method `__repr__()`

And here's what we get:

```
>>> from numberplus1 import NumberPlus
>>> a=NumberPlus(2)
>>> b=NumberPlus(5)
>>> print(a) ← 1
two
>>> print(a+b) ← 2,3
seven
>>> a ← 4
<numberplus1.NumberPlus object at 0x7f6bbcdf3748>
>>>
```

- 1 The built-in function `print()` calls the standard method `__str__` to get the value of an object
- 2 The `+` sign in the expression calls the `__add__()` method of the first object, i.e.:
$$a+b \text{ is equivalent to: } a.__add__(b)$$
- 3 As above, `print()` calls `__str__()` on the value returned by `__add__()` (which is an object of type `NumberPlus`)
- 4 The python interpreter in interactive mode, when showing the value of an object, calls the standard method `__repr__()`



- **Iterables** are objects on which a `for` loop can iterate

- **Iterables** are objects on which a `for` loop can iterate
- An object "quacks" as an iterable if it provides an `__iter__` method providing an *iterator*

- **Iterables** are objects on which a for loop can iterate
- An objects "quacks" as an iterable if it provides an `__iter__` method providing an *iterator*
- A simple example of iterable: the tuple

```
>>> a=(1,2,3,4,5)
>>> type(a)
<class 'tuple'>
>>> dir(a)
['__add__', '...', '__init__', '...', '__iter__', '...', 'count', 'index']
>>> for k in a:
...     print(k, end=" - ")
...
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - >>>
>>>
```

- **Iterables** are objects on which a for loop can iterate
- An objects "quacks" as an iterable if it provides an `__iter__` method providing an *iterator*
- A simple example of iterable: the tuple

```
>>> a=(1,2,3,4,5)
>>> type(a)
<class 'tuple'>
>>> dir(a)
['__add__', '...', '__init__', '...', '__iter__', '...', 'count', 'index']
>>> for k in a: ← 1,2
...     print(k, end=" - ")
...
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - >>>
>>>
```

- **Iterables** are objects on which a for loop can iterate
- An objects "quacks" as an iterable if it provides an `__iter__` method providing an *iterator*
- A simple example of iterable: the tuple

```
>>> a=(1,2,3,4,5)
>>> type(a)
<class 'tuple'>
>>> dir(a)
['__add__', '...', '__init__', '...', '__iter__', '...', 'count', 'index']
>>> for k in a: ← 1,2
...     print(k, end=" - ")
...
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - >>>
>>>
```

Behind the scenes of the for loop:

- **Iterables** are objects on which a for loop can iterate
- An objects "quacks" as an iterable if it provides an `__iter__` method providing an *iterator*
- A simple example of iterable: the tuple

```
>>> a=(1,2,3,4,5)
>>> type(a)
<class 'tuple'>
>>> dir(a)
['__add__', '...', '__init__', '...', '__iter__', '...', 'count', 'index']
>>> for k in a: ← 1,2
...     print(k, end=" - ")
...
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - >>>
>>>
```

Behind the scenes of the for loop:

- 1 `a.__iter__()` is called to get an **iterator**

- **Iterables** are objects on which a for loop can iterate
- An objects "quacks" as an iterable if it provides an `__iter__` method providing an *iterator*
- A simple example of iterable: the tuple

```
>>> a=(1,2,3,4,5)
>>> type(a)
<class 'tuple'>
>>> dir(a)
['__add__', '...', '__init__', '...', '__iter__', '...', 'count', 'index']
>>> for k in a: ← 1,2
...     print(k, end=" - ")
...
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - >>>
>>>
```

Behind the scenes of the for loop:

- 1 `a.__iter__()` is called to get an **iterator**
- 2 `k=iterator.__next__()` is executed repeatedly until a `StopIteration` exception is raised

- **Iterables** are objects on which a for loop can iterate
- An objects "quacks" as an iterable if it provides an `__iter__` method providing an *iterator*
- A simple example of iterable: the tuple

```
>>> a=(1,2,3,4,5)
>>> type(a)
<class 'tuple'>
>>> dir(a)
['__add__', '...', '__init__', '...', '__iter__', '...', 'count', 'index']
>>> for k in a: ← 1,2
...     print(k, end=" - ")
...
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - >>>
>>>
```

Behind the scenes of the for loop:

- 1 `a.__iter__()` is called to get an **iterator**
- 2 `k=iterator.__next__()` is executed repeatedly until a `StopIteration` exception is raised



Let's make a class which can be used as an **iterable**

file: fibo1.py

```
class Fibo:
    "Iterator for the Fibonacci series"
    def __init__(self, maxv):
        self.maxv = maxv

    def __iter__(self):
        self.a = 0
        self.b = 1
        return self

    def __next__(self):
        fib = self.a
        if fib > self.maxv:
            raise StopIteration
        self.a, self.b = self.b, self.a + self.b
        return fib
```

Let's make a class which can be used as an **iterable**

file: fibo1.py

```
class Fibo:
    "Iterator for the Fibonacci series"
    def __init__(self, maxv):
        self.maxv = maxv

    def __iter__(self): ← 1
        self.a = 0
        self.b = 1
        return self ← 2

    def __next__(self): ← 3
        fib = self.a
        if fib > self.maxv: ← 4
            raise StopIteration
        self.a, self.b = self.b, self.a + self.b
        return fib
```


Let's make a class which can be used as an **iterable**

file: fibo1.py

```
class Fibo:
    "Iterator for the Fibonacci series"
    def __init__(self, maxv):
        self.maxv = maxv

    def __iter__(self): ← 1
        self.a = 0
        self.b = 1
        return self ← 2

    def __next__(self): ← 3
        fib = self.a
        if fib > self.maxv: ← 4
            raise StopIteration
        self.a, self.b = self.b, self.a + self.b
        return fib
```

- 1 This class is provided with an `__iter__()` method

Let's make a class which can be used as an **iterable**

file: fibo1.py

```
class Fibo:
    "Iterator for the Fibonacci series"
    def __init__(self, maxv):
        self.maxv = maxv

    def __iter__(self): ← 1
        self.a = 0
        self.b = 1
        return self ← 2

    def __next__(self): ← 3
        fib = self.a
        if fib > self.maxv: ← 4
            raise StopIteration
        self.a, self.b = self.b, self.a + self.b
        return fib
```

- 1 This class is provided with an `__iter__()` method
- 2 Which returns itself

Let's make a class which can be used as an **iterable**

file: fibo1.py

```
class Fibo:
    "Iterator for the Fibonacci series"
    def __init__(self, maxv):
        self.maxv = maxv

    def __iter__(self): ← 1
        self.a = 0
        self.b = 1
        return self ← 2

    def __next__(self): ← 3
        fib = self.a
        if fib > self.maxv: ← 4
            raise StopIteration
        self.a, self.b = self.b, self.a + self.b
        return fib
```

- 1 This class is provided with an `__iter__()` method
- 2 Which returns itself
- 3 The returned object is provided with a `__next__()` method and thus it is an **iterator**

Let's make a class which can be used as an **iterable**

file: fibo1.py

```
class Fibo:
    "Iterator for the Fibonacci series"
    def __init__(self, maxv):
        self.maxv = maxv

    def __iter__(self): ← 1
        self.a = 0
        self.b = 1
        return self ← 2

    def __next__(self): ← 3
        fib = self.a
        if fib > self.maxv: ← 4
            raise StopIteration
        self.a, self.b = self.b, self.a + self.b
        return fib
```

- 1 This class is provided with an `__iter__()` method
- 2 Which returns itself
- 3 The returned object is provided with a `__next__()` method and thus it is an **iterator**
- 4 The end of the iteration is signalled with a proper exception

Let's make a class which can be used as an **iterable**

file: fibo1.py

```
class Fibo:
    "Iterator for the Fibonacci series"
    def __init__(self, maxv):
        self.maxv = maxv

    def __iter__(self): ← 1
        self.a = 0
        self.b = 1
        return self ← 2

    def __next__(self): ← 3
        fib = self.a
        if fib > self.maxv: ← 4
            raise StopIteration
        self.a, self.b = self.b, self.a + self.b
        return fib
```

- 1 This class is provided with an `__iter__()` method
- 2 Which returns itself
- 3 The returned object is provided with a `__next__()` method and thus it is an **iterator**
- 4 The end of the iteration is signalled with a proper exception



Let's see the `Fibo` class in action:

Let's see the Fibo class in action:

```
>>> from fibo1 import Fibo
>>> for f in Fibo(1000):
...     print(f, end=" ")
...
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>
>>> fb = Fibo(900)
>>> fb
<fibo1.Fibo object at 0x7f669bc0c048>
>>> list(fb)
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]
>>>
```

Let's see the Fibo class in action:

```
>>> from fibo1 import Fibo
>>> for f in Fibo(1000): ← 1
...     print(f, end=" ")
...
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>
>>> fb = Fibo(900) ← 2
>>> fb
<fibo1.Fibo object at 0x7f669bc0c048>
>>> list(fb) ← 3
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]
>>>
```

Let's see the Fibo class in action:

```
>>> from fibo1 import Fibo
>>> for f in Fibo(1000): ← 1
...     print(f, end=" ")
...
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>
>>> fb = Fibo(900) ← 2
>>> fb
<fibo1.Fibo object at 0x7f669bc0c048>
>>> list(fb) ← 3
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]
>>>
```

1 Natural use of iterators is in **for** loops

Let's see the Fibo class in action:

```
>>> from fibo1 import Fibo
>>> for f in Fibo(1000): ← 1
...     print(f, end=" ")
...
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>
>>> fb = Fibo(900) ← 2
>>> fb
<fibo1.Fibo object at 0x7f669bc0c048>
>>> list(fb) ← 3
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]
>>>
```

- 1 Natural use of iterators is in **for** loops
- 2 fb is an instance of class Fibo

Let's see the Fibo class in action:

```
>>> from fibo1 import Fibo
>>> for f in Fibo(1000): ← 1
...     print(f, end=" ")
...
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>
>>> fb = Fibo(900) ← 2
>>> fb
<fibo1.Fibo object at 0x7f669bc0c048>
>>> list(fb) ← 3
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]
>>>
```

- 1 Natural use of iterators is in **for** loops
- 2 fb is an instance of class Fibo
- 3 The built-in function `list()` creates a list from an iterator

Let's see the Fibo class in action:

```
>>> from fibo1 import Fibo
>>> for f in Fibo(1000): ← 1
...     print(f, end=" ")
...
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>
>>> fb = Fibo(900) ← 2
>>> fb
<fibo1.Fibo object at 0x7f669bc0c048>
>>> list(fb) ← 3
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]
>>>
```

- 1 Natural use of iterators is in **for** loops
- 2 fb is an instance of class Fibo
- 3 The built-in function `list()` creates a list from an iterator



A **generator** is a syntax construct designed to create simple iterators

A **generator** is a syntax construct designed to create simple iterators

file: fibo2.py

```
def fibo(maxv):  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while a < maxv:  
        yield a  
        a, b = b, a+b
```

A **generator** is a syntax construct designed to create simple iterators

file: fibo2.py

```
def fibo(maxv):    ← 1
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < maxv:
        yield a    ← 2
        a, b = b, a+b
```

A **generator** is a syntax construct designed to create simple iterators

file: fibo2.py

```
def fibo(maxv): ← 1
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < maxv:
        yield a ← 2
        a, b = b, a+b
```

- 1 A generator looks like a function ...

A **generator** is a syntax construct designed to create simple iterators

file: fibo2.py

```
def fibo(maxv):  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while a < maxv:  
        yield a  
        a, b = b, a+b
```

- 1 A generator looks like a function ...
- 2 ... returning values with the **yield** statement

```
>>> from fibo2 import fibo  
>>> for f in fibo(1000):  
...     print(f, end=" ")  
...  
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>  
>>> fb=fibo(900)  
>>> fb  
<generator object fibo at 0x7f5c47901c50>  
>>> list(fb)  
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]  
>>>
```

A **generator** is a syntax construct designed to create simple iterators

file: fibo2.py

```
def fibo(maxv):  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while a < maxv:  
        yield a  
        a, b = b, a+b
```

- 1 A generator looks like a function ...
- 2 ... returning values with the **yield** statement

```
>>> from fibo2 import fibo  
>>> for f in fibo(1000):  
...     print(f, end=" ")  
...  
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>  
>>> fb=fibo(900)  
>>> fb  
<generator object fibo at 0x7f5c47901c50>  
>>> list(fb)  
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]  
>>>
```

- 1 A generator is used exactly like an iterator

A **generator** is a syntax construct designed to create simple iterators

file: fibo2.py

```
def fibo(maxv):  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while a < maxv:  
        yield a  
        a, b = b, a+b
```

- 1 A generator looks like a function ...
- 2 ... returning values with the **yield** statement

```
>>> from fibo2 import fibo  
>>> for f in fibo(1000):  
...     print(f, end=" ")  
...  
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 377 610 987 >>>  
>>> fb=fibo(900)  
>>> fb  
<generator object fibo at 0x7f5c47901c50>  
>>> list(fb)  
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610]  
>>>
```

- 1 A generator is used exactly like an iterator



Comprehensions are another form of simple iterators

```
>>> [x for x in range(30) if not x%2]
[0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28]
>>>
```

Comprehensions are another form of simple iterators

```
>>> [x for x in range(30) if not x%2] ← 1  
[0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28]  
>>>
```

- 1 The built-in function `range(30)` returns an iterator iterating on integers 0..29

Comprehensions are another form of simple iterators

```
>>> [x for x in range(30) if not x%2] ← 1  
[0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28]  
>>>
```

- 1 The built-in function `range(30)` returns an iterator iterating on integers 0..29

A file object is an iterable:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt")  
>>> for line in fpt:  
...     print(line, end="")  
...  
Linea 1  
Linea 2  
Ultima linea  
>>>  
>>> dir(fpt)  
['_CHUNK_SIZE', '__class__', ..., '__iter__', ..., '__next__', ...]
```

Comprehensions are another form of simple iterators

```
>>> [x for x in range(30) if not x%2]
[0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28]
>>>
```


- 1 The built-in function `range(30)` returns an iterator iterating on integers 0..29

A file object is an iterable:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt")
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>>
>>> dir(fpt)
['_CHUNK_SIZE', '__class__', ..., '__iter__', ..., '__next__', ...]
```


Comprehensions are another form of simple iterators


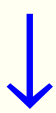
```
>>> [x for x in range(30) if not x%2]
[0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28]
>>>
```



- 1 The built-in function `range(30)` returns an iterator iterating on integers 0..29

A file object is an iterable:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt")
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>>
>>> dir(fpt)
['_CHUNK_SIZE', '__class__', ..., '__iter__', ..., '__next__', ...]
```



Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt")
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close()
```

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

- 1 In order to read a file you must first **open** it...

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

- 1 In order to read a file you must first **open** it...
- 2 And then **close** it, when you're done

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

- 1 In order to read a file you must first **open** it...
- 2 And then **close** it, when you're done

The same file access "a la Python":

```
>>> with open("file.txt") as fpt:
...     for line in fpt:
...         print(line, end="")
... 
```

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

- 1 In order to read a file you must first **open** it...
- 2 And then **close** it, when you're done

The same file access "a la Python":

```
>>> with open("file.txt") as fpt: ← 1,2
...     for line in fpt:
...         print(line, end="")
... ← 3
```


Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

- 1 In order to read a file you must first **open** it...
- 2 And then **close** it, when you're done

The same file access "a la Python":

```
>>> with open("file.txt") as fpt: ← 1,2
...     for line in fpt:
...         print(line, end="")
... ← 3
```

- 1 Context managers are used with the **with** statement

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

- 1 In order to read a file you must first **open** it...
- 2 And then **close** it, when you're done

The same file access "a la Python":

```
>>> with open("file.txt") as fpt: ← 1,2
...     for line in fpt:
...         print(line, end="")
... ← 3
```

- 1 Context managers are used with the **with** statement
- 2 A file object is also a context manager...

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

- 1 In order to read a file you must first **open** it...
- 2 And then **close** it, when you're done

The same file access "a la Python":

```
>>> with open("file.txt") as fpt: ← 1,2
...     for line in fpt:
...         print(line, end="")
... ← 3
```

- 1 Context managers are used with the **with** statement
- 2 A file object is also a context manager...
- 3 You need not to bother closing the file, because the context manager does it for you:
even in case of errors!

Context managers are programming constructs useful whenever your program needs a resource which must to be allocated for use and released after use.

Classical file access example:

```
>>> fpt = open("file.txt") ← 1
>>> for line in fpt:
...     print(line, end="")
...
Linea 1
Linea 2
Ultima linea
>>> fpt.close() ← 2
```

- 1 In order to read a file you must first **open** it...
- 2 And then **close** it, when you're done

The same file access "a la Python":

```
>>> with open("file.txt") as fpt: ← 1,2
...     for line in fpt:
...         print(line, end="")
... ← 3
```

- 1 Context managers are used with the **with** statement
- 2 A file object is also a context manager...
- 3 You need not to bother closing the file, because the context manager does it for you:
even in case of errors!

You can build your own context manager by creating a class as in the following example:

Example: a File object

```
class File():
    def __init__(self, filename, mode):
        self.filename = filename
        self.mode = mode

    def __enter__(self):
        self.open_file = open(self.filename, self.mode)
        return self.open_file

    def __exit__(self, *args):
        self.open_file.close()
```

You can build your own context manager by creating a class as in the following example:

Example: a File object

```
class File():  
    def __init__(self, filename, mode):  
        self.filename = filename  
        self.mode = mode  
  
    def __enter__(self): ← 1  
        self.open_file = open(self.filename, self.mode)  
        return self.open_file  
  
    def __exit__(self, *args): ← 2  
        self.open_file.close()
```

You can build your own context manager by creating a class as in the following example:

Example: a File object

```
class File():  
    def __init__(self, filename, mode):  
        self.filename = filename  
        self.mode = mode  
  
    def __enter__(self): ← 1  
        self.open_file = open(self.filename, self.mode)  
        return self.open_file  
  
    def __exit__(self, *args): ← 2  
        self.open_file.close()
```

- 1 Context managers must define the method **`__enter__()`** ...

You can build your own context manager by creating a class as in the following example:

Example: a File object

```
class File():  
    def __init__(self, filename, mode):  
        self.filename = filename  
        self.mode = mode  
  
    def __enter__(self): ← 1  
        self.open_file = open(self.filename, self.mode)  
        return self.open_file  
  
    def __exit__(self, *args): ← 2  
        self.open_file.close()
```

- 1 Context managers must define the method **`__enter__()`** ...
- 2 ... and the method **`__exit__()`**

You can build your own context manager by creating a class as in the following example:

Example: a File object

```
class File():  
    def __init__(self, filename, mode):  
        self.filename = filename  
        self.mode = mode  
  
    def __enter__(self): ← 1  
        self.open_file = open(self.filename, self.mode)  
        return self.open_file  
  
    def __exit__(self, *args): ← 2  
        self.open_file.close()
```

- 1 Context managers must define the method **`__enter__()`** ...
- 2 ... and the method **`__exit__()`**

Context managers are so useful in everyday's programming that Python provides helpers for building context managers in a dedicated package: **`contextlib`**

You can build your own context manager by creating a class as in the following example:

Example: a File object

```
class File():
    def __init__(self, filename, mode):
        self.filename = filename
        self.mode = mode

    def __enter__(self): ← 1
        self.open_file = open(self.filename, self.mode)
        return self.open_file

    def __exit__(self, *args): ← 2
        self.open_file.close()
```

- 1 Context managers must define the method **`__enter__()`** ...
- 2 ... and the method **`__exit__()`**

Context managers are so useful in everyday's programming that Python provides helpers for building context managers in a dedicated package: **`contextlib`**



Decorators are language constructs which allow to dynamically alter a function, a method or a class without modifying the code of the function or using a subclass.

Decorators are language constructs which allow to dynamically alter a function, a method or a class without modifying the code of the function or using a subclass.

file: decorator.py

```
import time

def my_timer(f):
    def wrapper(*pw, **kw):
        tm0 = time.time()
        ret = f(*pw, **kw)
        tm1 = time.time()
        print("Elapsed time:", tm1-tm0, "s")
    return wrapper
```

Decorators are language constructs which allow to dynamically alter a function, a method or a class without modifying the code of the function or using a subclass.

file: decorator.py

```
import time
```

```
def my_timer(f): ← 1
    def wrapper(*pw, **kw):
        tm0 = time.time()
        ret = f(*pw, **kw) ← 3
        tm1 = time.time()
        print("Elapsed time:", tm1-tm0, "s") ← 3
    return wrapper ← 2
```

Decorators are language constructs which allow to dynamically alter a function, a method or a class without modifying the code of the function or using a subclass.

file: decorator.py

```
import time

def my_timer(f): ← 1
    def wrapper(*pw, **kw):
        tm0 = time.time()
        ret = f(*pw, **kw) ← 3
        tm1 = time.time()
        print("Elapsed time:", tm1-tm0, "s") ← 3
    return wrapper ← 2
```

- 1 A **function decorator** is a function accepting a function as only argument ...

Decorators are language constructs which allow to dynamically alter a function, a method or a class without modifying the code of the function or using a subclass.

file: decorator.py

```
import time

def my_timer(f): ← 1
    def wrapper(*pw, **kw):
        tm0 = time.time()
        ret = f(*pw, **kw) ← 3
        tm1 = time.time()
        print("Elapsed time:", tm1-tm0, "s") ← 3
    return wrapper ← 2
```

- 1 A **function decorator** is a function accepting a function as only argument ...
- 2 ... and returning a function

Decorators are language constructs which allow to dynamically alter a function, a method or a class without modifying the code of the function or using a subclass.

file: decorator.py

```
import time
```

```
def my_timer(f): ← 1
    def wrapper(*pw, **kw):
        tm0 = time.time()
        ret = f(*pw, **kw) ← 3
        tm1 = time.time()
        print("Elapsed time:", tm1-tm0, "s") ← 3
    return wrapper ← 2
```

- 1 A **function decorator** is a function accepting a function as only argument ...
- 2 ... and returning a function
- 3 The returned function does “something” with the original one. In this case:
 - gets current time
 - calls the original function
 - computes and prints the elapsed time

Decorators are language constructs which allow to dynamically alter a function, a method or a class without modifying the code of the function or using a subclass.

file: decorator.py

```
import time
```

```
def my_timer(f): ← 1
    def wrapper(*pw, **kw):
        tm0 = time.time()
        ret = f(*pw, **kw) ← 3
        tm1 = time.time()
        print("Elapsed time:", tm1-tm0, "s") ← 3
    return wrapper ← 2
```

- 1 A **function decorator** is a function accepting a function as only argument ...
- 2 ... and returning a function
- 3 The returned function does “something” with the original one. In this case:
 - gets current time
 - calls the original function
 - computes and prints the elapsed time



Example: decorating a function - File: fibo3.py

```
from decorator import my_timer

@my_timer
def fibo_print(n):
    "Prints n elements of the Fibonacci series"
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while len(result) < n:
        result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
        print(a, end=" ")
    print()
```

Example: decorating a function - File: fibo3.py

```
from decorator import my_timer

@my_timer ← 1
def fibo_print(n):
    "Prints n elements of the Fibonacci series"
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while len(result) < n:
        result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
        print(a, end=" ")
    print()
```

Example: decorating a function - File: fibo3.py

```
from decorator import my_timer
```

```
@my_timer ← 1
def fibo_print(n):
    "Prints n elements of the Fibonacci series"
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while len(result) < n:
        result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
        print(a, end=" ")
    print()
```

- 1 The @ operator “decorates” the following function with the given decorator

Example: decorating a function - File: fibo3.py

```
from decorator import my_timer

@my_timer ← 1
def fibo_print(n):
    "Prints n elements of the Fibonacci series"
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while len(result) < n:
        result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
        print(a, end=" ")
    print()
```

- 1 The @ operator “decorates” the following function with the given decorator

At execution:

```
>>> from fibo3 import fibo_print
>>> fibo_print(8)
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21
Elapsed time: 4.1961669921875e-05 s
>>>
```

Example: decorating a function - File: fibo3.py

```
from decorator import my_timer
```

```
@my_timer ← 1
def fibo_print(n):
    "Prints n elements of the Fibonacci series"
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while len(result) < n:
        result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
        print(a, end=" ")
    print()
```

- 1 The @ operator “decorates” the following function with the given decorator

At execution:

```
>>> from fibo3 import fibo_print
>>> fibo_print(8)
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 ← 1
Elapsed time: 4.1961669921875e-05 s ← 2
>>>
```

Example: decorating a function - File: fibo3.py

```
from decorator import my_timer
```

```
@my_timer ← 1
def fibo_print(n):
    "Prints n elements of the Fibonacci series"
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while len(result) < n:
        result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
        print(a, end=" ")
    print()
```

- 1 The @ operator “decorates” the following function with the given decorator

At execution:

```
>>> from fibo3 import fibo_print
>>> fibo_print(8)
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 ← 1
Elapsed time: 4.1961669921875e-05 s ← 2
>>>
```

- 1 The original function does its job

Example: decorating a function - File: fibo3.py

```
from decorator import my_timer
```

```
@my_timer ← 1
def fibo_print(n):
    "Prints n elements of the Fibonacci series"
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while len(result) < n:
        result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
        print(a, end=" ")
    print()
```

- 1 The @ operator “decorates” the following function with the given decorator

At execution:

```
>>> from fibo3 import fibo_print
>>> fibo_print(8)
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 ← 1
Elapsed time: 4.1961669921875e-05 s ← 2
>>>
```

- 1 The original function does its job
- 2 The decorator does its job

Example: decorating a function - File: fibo3.py

```
from decorator import my_timer
```

```
@my_timer ← 1
def fibo_print(n):
    "Prints n elements of the Fibonacci series"
    result = []
    a, b = 0, 1
    while len(result) < n:
        result.append(b)
        a, b = b, a+b
        print(a, end=" ")
    print()
```

- 1 The @ operator “decorates” the following function with the given decorator

At execution:

```
>>> from fibo3 import fibo_print
>>> fibo_print(8)
1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 ← 1
Elapsed time: 4.1961669921875e-05 s ← 2
>>>
```

- 1 The original function does its job
- 2 The decorator does its job



An in-deep coverage of development and test techniques is far beyond the limits of this course, but a few notes and suggestions may be useful for the interested audience.

An in-deep coverage of development and test techniques is far beyond the limits of this course, but a few notes and suggestions may be useful for the interested audience.

We will examine some tools useful for the various developing phases:

- Coding
- Code static check
- Debugging
- Testing

An in-deep coverage of development and test techniques is far beyond the limits of this course, but a few notes and suggestions may be useful for the interested audience.

We will examine some tools useful for the various developing phases:

- Coding
- Code static check
- Debugging
- Testing

There are also some Integrated Development Environment (IDE) programs, both commercial and freely available, which provide several development tools in a single application.

An in-deep coverage of development and test techniques is far beyond the limits of this course, but a few notes and suggestions may be useful for the interested audience.

We will examine some tools useful for the various developing phases:

- Coding
- Code static check
- Debugging
- Testing

There are also some Integrated Development Environment (IDE) programs, both commercial and freely available, which provide several development tools in a single application.



Language aware editors

Language aware editors

- Language aware editors are text editors which highlight the various elements of the programming language by using different colors

Language aware editors

- Language aware editors are text editors which highlight the various elements of the programming language by using different colors
- The programmer can thus better distinguish reserved words, variables, constants and so on

Language aware editors

- Language aware editors are text editors which highlight the various elements of the programming language by using different colors
- The programmer can thus better distinguish reserved words, variables, constants and so on

Examples:

- vim
- emacs
- nano

Language aware editors

- Language aware editors are text editors which highlight the various elements of the programming language by using different colors
- The programmer can thus better distinguish reserved words, variables, constants and so on

Examples:

- vim
- emacs
- nano



Dynamic programming languages such as Python have very limited early diagnostic capabilities: most errors are discovered only when (that particular portion of) the program is executed.

Dynamic programming languages such as Python have very limited early diagnostic capabilities: most errors are discovered only when (that particular portion of) the program is executed.

File: bugged.py

```
import time

a = 502
i = 0
while a > 0:
    time.sleep(1)
    print(a)
    if a == 500:
        i = j+1
        print("500 seconds to the end")
    a -= 1
```

Dynamic programming languages such as Python have very limited early diagnostic capabilities: most errors are discovered only when (that particular portion of) the program is executed.

File: bugged.py

```
import time

a = 502
i = 0
while a > 0:
    time.sleep(1)
    print(a)
    if a == 500:
        i = j+1 ← the bug is here
        print("500 seconds to the end")
    a -= 1
```

Dynamic programming languages such as Python have very limited early diagnostic capabilities: most errors are discovered only when (that particular portion of) the program is executed.

File: bugged.py

```
import time

a = 502
i = 0
while a > 0:
    time.sleep(1)
    print(a)
    if a == 500:
        i = j+1 ← the bug is here
        print("500 seconds to the end")
    a -= 1
```

When running the program:

```
$ python bugged.py
502
501
500
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "bugged.py", line 9, in <module>
    i = j+1
NameError: name 'j' is not defined
```

Dynamic programming languages such as Python have very limited early diagnostic capabilities: most errors are discovered only when (that particular portion of) the program is executed.

File: bugged.py

```
import time

a = 502
i = 0
while a > 0:
    time.sleep(1)
    print(a)
    if a == 500:
        i = j+1 ← the bug is here
        print("500 seconds to the end")
    a -= 1
```

When running the program:

```
$ python bugged.py
502
501
500
Traceback (most recent call last): ← 1,2
  File "bugged.py", line 9, in <module>
    i = j+1
NameError: name 'j' is not defined
```

1 The error has been found after three iterations

Dynamic programming languages such as Python have very limited early diagnostic capabilities: most errors are discovered only when (that particular portion of) the program is executed.

File: bugged.py

```
import time

a = 502
i = 0
while a > 0:
    time.sleep(1)
    print(a)
    if a == 500:
        i = j+1 ← the bug is here
        print("500 seconds to the end")
    a -= 1
```

When running the program:

```
$ python bugged.py
502
501
500
Traceback (most recent call last): ← 1,2
  File "bugged.py", line 9, in <module>
    i = j+1
NameError: name 'j' is not defined
```

- 1 The error has been found after three iterations
- 2 But if the value of **a** were, say, 10000, the error would have happened after 9500 iterations!

Dynamic programming languages such as Python have very limited early diagnostic capabilities: most errors are discovered only when (that particular portion of) the program is executed.

File: bugged.py

```
import time

a = 502
i = 0
while a > 0:
    time.sleep(1)
    print(a)
    if a == 500:
        i = j+1 ← the bug is here
        print("500 seconds to the end")
    a -= 1
```

When running the program:

```
$ python bugged.py
502
501
500
Traceback (most recent call last): ← 1,2
  File "bugged.py", line 9, in <module>
    i = j+1
NameError: name 'j' is not defined
```

- 1 The error has been found after three iterations
- 2 But if the value of **a** were, say, 10000, the error would have happened after 9500 iterations!



pylint is a static code analyzer which can discover many bugs before the program is actually executed.

pylint is a static code analyzer which can discover many bugs before the program is actually executed.

```
$ pylint bugged.py
***** Module bugged
C: 1, 0: Missing module docstring (missing-docstring)
C: 3, 0: Constant name "a" doesn't conform to UPPER_CASE naming style (invalid-name)
E: 9,12: Undefined variable 'j' (undefined-variable)
```

```
-----
Your code has been rated at 3.00/10
```

pylint is a static code analyzer which can discover many bugs before the program is actually executed.

```
$ pylint bugged.py ← 1
***** Module bugged
C: 1, 0: Missing module docstring (missing-docstring) ← 3
C: 3, 0: Constant name "a" doesn't conform to UPPER_CASE naming style (invalid-name) ← 3
E: 9,12: Undefined variable 'j' (undefined-variable) ← 2

-----
Your code has been rated at 3.00/10 ← 4
```

pylint is a static code analyzer which can discover many bugs before the program is actually executed.

```
$ pylint bugged.py ← 1
***** Module bugged
C: 1, 0: Missing module docstring (missing-docstring) ← 3
C: 3, 0: Constant name "a" doesn't conform to UPPER_CASE naming style (invalid-r
E: 9,12: Undefined variable 'j' (undefined-variable) ← 2

-----
Your code has been rated at 3.00/10 ← 4
```

1 Using **pylint** to analyze a Python file

pylint is a static code analyzer which can discover many bugs before the program is actually executed.

```
$ pylint bugged.py ← 1
***** Module bugged
C: 1, 0: Missing module docstring (missing-docstring) ← 3
C: 3, 0: Constant name "a" doesn't conform to UPPER_CASE naming style (invalid-r
E: 9,12: Undefined variable 'j' (undefined-variable) ← 2

-----
Your code has been rated at 3.00/10 ← 4
```

- 1 Using **pylint** to analyze a Python file
- 2 The error is detected by pylint

pylint is a static code analyzer which can discover many bugs before the program is actually executed.

```
$ pylint bugged.py ← 1
***** Module bugged
C: 1, 0: Missing module docstring (missing-docstring) ← 3
C: 3, 0: Constant name "a" doesn't conform to UPPER_CASE naming style (invalid-r
E: 9,12: Undefined variable 'j' (undefined-variable) ← 2

-----
Your code has been rated at 3.00/10 ← 4
```

- 1 Using **pylint** to analyze a Python file
- 2 The error is detected by pylint
- 3 pylint performs also several “quality checks”

pylint is a static code analyzer which can discover many bugs before the program is actually executed.

```
$ pylint bugged.py ← 1
***** Module bugged
C: 1, 0: Missing module docstring (missing-docstring) ← 3
C: 3, 0: Constant name "a" doesn't conform to UPPER_CASE naming style (invalid-name) ← 3
E: 9,12: Undefined variable 'j' (undefined-variable) ← 2

-----
Your code has been rated at 3.00/10 ← 4
```

- 1 Using **pylint** to analyze a Python file
- 2 The error is detected by pylint
- 3 pylint performs also several “quality checks”
- 4 And computes a global quality score.

pylint is a static code analyzer which can discover many bugs before the program is actually executed.

```
$ pylint bugged.py ← 1
***** Module bugged
C: 1, 0: Missing module docstring (missing-docstring) ← 3
C: 3, 0: Constant name "a" doesn't conform to UPPER_CASE naming style (invalid-r
E: 9,12: Undefined variable 'j' (undefined-variable) ← 2

-----
Your code has been rated at 3.00/10 ← 4
```

- ➊ Using **pylint** to analyze a Python file
- ➋ The error is detected by pylint
- ➌ pylint performs also several “quality checks”
- ➍ And computes a global quality score.



mypy uses Python 3 function syntax to perform static type checking on your program.

mypy uses Python 3 function syntax to perform static type checking on your program.

File: fibo4.py

```
def fibo(maxv: int):  
    a, b = 0, 1  
    while a < maxv:  
        yield a  
        a, b = b, a+b  
  
if __name__ == "__main__":  
    for f in fibo(300.5):  
        print(f, end=" ")  
    print()
```

mypy uses Python 3 function syntax to perform static type checking on your program.

File: fibo4.py

```
def fibo(maxv: int): ← annotation
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < maxv:
        yield a
        a, b = b, a+b

if __name__ == "__main__":
    for f in fibo(300.5):
        print(f, end=" ")
    print()
```

mypy uses Python 3 function syntax to perform static type checking on your program.

File: fibo4.py

```
def fibo(maxv: int): ← annotation
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < maxv:
        yield a
        a, b = b, a+b

if __name__ == "__main__":
    for f in fibo(300.5):
        print(f, end=" ")
    print()
```

```
$ python fibo4.py ← 1
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233
$ mypy fibo4.py ← 2
fibo4.py:8: error: Argument 1 to "fibo" has incompatible type "float"; expected
```

mypy uses Python 3 function syntax to perform static type checking on your program.

File: fibo4.py

```
def fibo(maxv: int): ← annotation
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < maxv:
        yield a
        a, b = b, a+b

if __name__ == "__main__":
    for f in fibo(300.5):
        print(f, end=" ")
    print()
```

```
$ python fibo4.py ← 1
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233
$ mypy fibo4.py ← 2
fibo4.py:8: error: Argument 1 to "fibo" has incompatible type "float"; expected
```

- 1 Annotations are ignored by the Python interpreter

mypy uses Python 3 function syntax to perform static type checking on your program.

File: fibo4.py

```
def fibo(maxv: int): ← annotation
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < maxv:
        yield a
        a, b = b, a+b

if __name__ == "__main__":
    for f in fibo(300.5):
        print(f, end=" ")
    print()
```

```
$ python fibo4.py ← 1
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233
$ mypy fibo4.py ← 2
fibo4.py:8: error: Argument 1 to "fibo" has incompatible type "float"; expected
```

- 1 Annotations are ignored by the Python interpreter
- 2 But are used by mypy to do type checking

The standard package **typing** provides more powerful tools to improve static type checking

mypy uses Python 3 function syntax to perform static type checking on your program.

File: fibo4.py

```
def fibo(maxv: int): ← annotation
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a < maxv:
        yield a
        a, b = b, a+b

if __name__ == "__main__":
    for f in fibo(300.5):
        print(f, end=" ")
    print()
```

```
$ python fibo4.py ← 1
0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233
$ mypy fibo4.py ← 2
fibo4.py:8: error: Argument 1 to "fibo" has incompatible type "float"; expected
```

- 1 Annotations are ignored by the Python interpreter
- 2 But are used by mypy to do type checking

The standard package **typing** provides more powerful tools to improve static type checking



Python is provided with an interactive debugger (**pdb**) which allows to control program execution

Python is provided with an interactive debugger (**pdb**) which allows to control program execution

With **pdb** you can:

Python is provided with an interactive debugger (**pdb**) which allows to control program execution

With **pdb** you can:

- Define breakpoints

Python is provided with an interactive debugger (**pdb**) which allows to control program execution

With **pdb** you can:

- Define breakpoints
- Execute a program step by step

Python is provided with an interactive debugger (**pdb**) which allows to control program execution

With **pdb** you can:

- Define breakpoints
- Execute a program step by step
- Look into variables

Python is provided with an interactive debugger (**pdb**) which allows to control program execution

With **pdb** you can:

- Define breakpoints
- Execute a program step by step
- Look into variables
- Execute functions at the prompt

Python is provided with an interactive debugger (**pdb**) which allows to control program execution

With **pdb** you can:

- Define breakpoints
- Execute a program step by step
- Look into variables
- Execute functions at the prompt



Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1
(Pdb) n
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
    ...
(Pdb) p result
[1, 1, 2]
```

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
    ...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
    ...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

- 1 Start the debugger on program `fibo.py`.

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

- 1 Start the debugger on program `fibo.py`.
- 2 The debugger stops immediately at the first line of the program after showing the line of code just to be executed

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

- 1 Start the debugger on program `fibo.py`.
- 2 The debugger stops immediately at the first line of the program after showing the line of code just to be executed
- 3 Set a breakpoint at line number 9

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

- 1 Start the debugger on program `fibo.py`.
- 2 The debugger stops immediately at the first line of the program after showing the line of code just to be executed
- 3 Set a breakpoint at line number 9
- 4 Continue (actually: start) the execution

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

- 1 Start the debugger on program `fibo.py`.
- 2 The debugger stops immediately at the first line of the program after showing the line of code just to be executed
- 3 Set a breakpoint at line number 9
- 4 Continue (actually: start) the execution
- 5 The debugger stops at the breakpoint (just before executing line 9)

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> ../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at ../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> ../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> ../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

- 1 Start the debugger on program `fibo.py`.
- 2 The debugger stops immediately at the first line of the program after showing the line of code just to be executed
- 3 Set a breakpoint at line number 9
- 4 Continue (actually: start) the execution
- 5 The debugger stops at the breakpoint (just before executing line 9)
- 6 Execute a number of steps (9)

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

- 1 Start the debugger on program `fibo.py`.
- 2 The debugger stops immediately at the first line of the program after showing the line of code just to be executed
- 3 Set a breakpoint at line number 9
- 4 Continue (actually: start) the execution
- 5 The debugger stops at the breakpoint (just before executing line 9)
- 6 Execute a number of steps (9)
- 7 Now see what's in variable `result`

Let's see a brief example:

```
pdb fibo.py ← 1
> .../code/fibo.py(1)<module>()
-> "Module for the computation of Fibonacci series"
(Pdb) b 9 ← 2,3
Breakpoint 1 at .../code/fibo.py:9
(Pdb) c ← 4
> .../code/fibo.py(9)fibo()
-> a, b = 0, 1 ← 5,6
(Pdb) n ← 6
> .../code/fibo.py(10)fibo()
-> while b < n:
...
(Pdb) p result ← 7
[1, 1, 2]
```

- 1 Start the debugger on program `fibo.py`.
- 2 The debugger stops immediately at the first line of the program after showing the line of code just to be executed
- 3 Set a breakpoint at line number 9
- 4 Continue (actually: start) the execution
- 5 The debugger stops at the breakpoint (just before executing line 9)
- 6 Execute a number of steps (9)
- 7 Now see what's in variable `result`



Python provides a package to support the generation of testing procedures for python code:

unittest

Python provides a package to support the generation of testing procedures for python code:

unittest

file: `test_number.py` - A simple example

```
import unittest
from numberplus1 import NumberPlus

class TestNumber(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_upper(self):
        self.assertTrue(NumberPlus(3).upper(), "Three")

    def test_sum(self):
        self.assertEqual((NumberPlus(2)+NumberPlus(5)).value, 7)

    def test_overflow(self):
        with self.assertRaises(IndexError):
            NumberPlus(12)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unittest.main()
```

Python provides a package to support the generation of testing procedures for python code:

unittest

file: `test_number.py` - A simple example

```
import unittest
from numberplus1 import NumberPlus

class TestNumber(unittest.TestCase): ← 1

    def test_upper(self): ← 2
        self.assertTrue(NumberPlus(3).upper(), "Three")

    def test_sum(self): ← 2
        self.assertEqual((NumberPlus(2)+NumberPlus(5)).value, 7)

    def test_overflow(self): ← 2
        with self.assertRaises(IndexError):
            NumberPlus(12)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unittest.main() ← 3
```

Python provides a package to support the generation of testing procedures for python code:

unittest

file: `test_number.py` - A simple example

```
import unittest
from numberplus1 import NumberPlus

class TestNumber(unittest.TestCase): ← 1

    def test_upper(self): ← 2
        self.assertTrue(NumberPlus(3).upper(), "Three")

    def test_sum(self): ← 2
        self.assertEqual((NumberPlus(2)+NumberPlus(5)).value, 7)

    def test_overflow(self): ← 2
        with self.assertRaises(IndexError):
            NumberPlus(12)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unittest.main() ← 3
```

- 1 A “test case” is a class derived from TestCase

Python provides a package to support the generation of testing procedures for python code:

unittest

file: `test_number.py` - A simple example

```
import unittest
from numberplus1 import NumberPlus

class TestNumber(unittest.TestCase): ← 1

    def test_upper(self): ← 2
        self.assertTrue(NumberPlus(3).upper(), "Three")

    def test_sum(self): ← 2
        self.assertEqual((NumberPlus(2)+NumberPlus(5)).value, 7)

    def test_overflow(self): ← 2
        with self.assertRaises(IndexError):
            NumberPlus(12)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unittest.main() ← 3
```

- 1 A “test case” is a class derived from `TestCase`
- 2 The test case is made up of a set of tests (methods named `test_...`)

Python provides a package to support the generation of testing procedures for python code:

unittest

file: `test_number.py` - A simple example

```
import unittest
from numberplus1 import NumberPlus

class TestNumber(unittest.TestCase): ← 1

    def test_upper(self): ← 2
        self.assertTrue(NumberPlus(3).upper(), "Three")

    def test_sum(self): ← 2
        self.assertEqual((NumberPlus(2)+NumberPlus(5)).value, 7)

    def test_overflow(self): ← 2
        with self.assertRaises(IndexError):
            NumberPlus(12)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unittest.main() ← 3
```

- 1 A “test case” is a class derived from `TestCase`
- 2 The test case is made up of a set of tests (methods named `test_...`)
- 3 Here’s where the test is run

Python provides a package to support the generation of testing procedures for python code:

unittest

file: `test_number.py` - A simple example

```
import unittest
from numberplus1 import NumberPlus

class TestNumber(unittest.TestCase): ← 1

    def test_upper(self): ← 2
        self.assertTrue(NumberPlus(3).upper(), "Three")

    def test_sum(self): ← 2
        self.assertEqual((NumberPlus(2)+NumberPlus(5)).value, 7)

    def test_overflow(self): ← 2
        with self.assertRaises(IndexError):
            NumberPlus(12)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unittest.main() ← 3
```

- 1 A “test case” is a class derived from `TestCase`
- 2 The test case is made up of a set of tests (methods named `test_...`)
- 3 Here’s where the test is run

Python provides a package to support the generation of testing procedures for python code:

unittest

file: `test_number.py` - A simple example

```
import unittest
from numberplus1 import NumberPlus

class TestNumber(unittest.TestCase): ← 1

    def test_upper(self): ← 2
        self.assertTrue(NumberPlus(3).upper(), "Three")

    def test_sum(self): ← 2
        self.assertEqual((NumberPlus(2)+NumberPlus(5)).value, 7)

    def test_overflow(self): ← 2
        with self.assertRaises(IndexError):
            NumberPlus(12)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unittest.main() ← 3
```

- 1 A “test case” is a class derived from `TestCase`
- 2 The test case is made up of a set of tests (methods named `test_...`)
- 3 Here’s where the test is run



Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

The unittest package provides several other tools for building effective testing procedures:

Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

The unittest package provides several other tools for building effective testing procedures:

- Several assertXxx() methods

Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

The unittest package provides several other tools for building effective testing procedures:

- Several assertXxx() methods
- A setUp() method in TestCase will be executed before any test.

Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

The unittest package provides several other tools for building effective testing procedures:

- Several assertXxx() methods
- A setUp() method in TestCase will be executed before any test.
- A tearDown() method in TestCase will be executed after any test.

Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

The unittest package provides several other tools for building effective testing procedures:

- Several assertXxx() methods
- A setUp() method in TestCase will be executed before any test.
- A tearDown() method in TestCase will be executed after any test.
- A TestSuite class to group together related test cases.

Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

The unittest package provides several other tools for building effective testing procedures:

- Several assertXxx() methods
- A setUp() method in TestCase will be executed before any test.
- A tearDown() method in TestCase will be executed after any test.
- A TestSuite class to group together related test cases.
- A function setUpModule() will be called at the beginning of all tests

Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

The unittest package provides several other tools for building effective testing procedures:

- Several assertXxx() methods
- A setUp() method in TestCase will be executed before any test.
- A tearDown() method in TestCase will be executed after any test.
- A TestSuite class to group together related test cases.
- A function setUpModule() will be called at the beginning of all tests
- A function tearDownModule() will be called at the end of all tests

Now we run the test:

```
$ python test_number.py
```

```
...
```

```
-----  
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s
```

```
OK
```

The `unittest` package provides several other tools for building effective testing procedures:

- Several `assertXxx()` methods
- A `setUp()` method in `TestCase` will be executed before any test.
- A `tearDown()` method in `TestCase` will be executed after any test.
- A `TestSuite` class to group together related test cases.
- A function `setUpModule()` will be called at the beginning of all tests
- A function `tearDownModule()` will be called at the end of all tests



An **I**ntegrated **D**evelopment **E**nvironment is an application integrating several of the programming tools quoted in previous slides. Here we quote only a few of them.

An **I**ntegrated **D**evelopment **E**nvironment is an application integrating several of the programming tools quoted in previous slides. Here we quote only a few of them.

- **IDLE**

The “standard” python IDE. It is itself written in Python so that it is available for any platform supporting Python [free]

An **I**ntegrated **D**evelopment **E**nvironment is an application integrating several of the programming tools quoted in previous slides. Here we quote only a few of them.

- **IDLE**

The “standard” python IDE. It is itself written in Python so that it is available for any platform supporting Python [free]

- **Eclipse**

Eclipse is a multi language IDE supporting Python via the **PyDev** plugin. Available for Windows, Linux, MacOS [free].

An **I**ntegrated **D**evelopment **E**nvironment is an application integrating several of the programming tools quoted in previous slides. Here we quote only a few of them.

- **IDLE**

The “standard” python IDE. It is itself written in Python so that it is available for any platform supporting Python [free]

- **Eclipse**

Eclipse is a multi language IDE supporting Python via the **PyDev** plugin. Available for Windows, Linux, MacOS [free].

- **Spyder**

An IDE designed for scientific software development. Available for Windows, Linux, MacOS [free].

An **I**ntegrated **D**evelopment **E**nvironment is an application integrating several of the programming tools quoted in previous slides. Here we quote only a few of them.

- **IDLE**

The “standard” python IDE. It is itself written in Python so that it is available for any platform supporting Python [free]

- **Eclipse**

Eclipse is a multi language IDE supporting Python via the **PyDev** plugin. Available for Windows, Linux, MacOS [free].

- **Spyder**

An IDE designed for scientific software development. Available for Windows, Linux, MacOS [free].

- **Visual Studio**

Has a Python plugin. Available for Windows only [proprietary]

An **I**ntegrated **D**evelopment **E**nvironment is an application integrating several of the programming tools quoted in previous slides. Here we quote only a few of them.

- **IDLE**

The “standard” python IDE. It is itself written in Python so that it is available for any platform supporting Python [free]

- **Eclipse**

Eclipse is a multi language IDE supporting Python via the **PyDev** plugin. Available for Windows, Linux, MacOS [free].

- **Spyder**

An IDE designed for scientific software development. Available for Windows, Linux, MacOS [free].

- **Visual Studio**

Has a Python plugin. Available for Windows only [proprietary]



- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**
- Sometimes the installation with `pip` will require the C/C++ compiler

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**
- Sometimes the installation with `pip` will require the C/C++ compiler
- Some suggestions:

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**
- Sometimes the installation with `pip` will require the C/C++ compiler
- Some suggestions:
 - If you find a standard package for your O.S. (e.g.: `msi` [Windows], `pkg` [MacOS], `rpm/deb` [Linux]) it may be better (i.e.: simpler) to use it.

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**
- Sometimes the installation with **pip** will require the C/C++ compiler
- Some suggestions:
 - If you find a standard package for your O.S. (e.g.: **msi** [Windows], **pkg** [MacOS], **rpm/deb** [Linux]) it may be better (i.e.: simpler) to use it.
 - Otherwise use **pip**.

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**
- Sometimes the installation with **pip** will require the C/C++ compiler
- Some suggestions:
 - If you find a standard package for your O.S. (e.g.: **msi** [Windows], **pkg** [MacOS], **rpm/deb** [Linux]) it may be better (i.e.: simpler) to use it.
 - Otherwise use **pip**.
 - **pip** is also recommended if you need the latest version of the package

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**
- Sometimes the installation with **pip** will require the C/C++ compiler
- Some suggestions:
 - If you find a standard package for your O.S. (e.g.: **msi** [Windows], **pkg** [MacOS], **rpm/deb** [Linux]) it may be better (i.e.: simpler) to use it.
 - Otherwise use **pip**.
 - **pip** is also recommended if you need the latest version of the package
 - Avoid to use both installation methods (maybe at different times)

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**
- Sometimes the installation with **pip** will require the C/C++ compiler
- Some suggestions:
 - If you find a standard package for your O.S. (e.g.: **msi** [Windows], **pkg** [MacOS], **rpm/deb** [Linux]) it may be better (i.e.: simpler) to use it.
 - Otherwise use **pip**.
 - **pip** is also recommended if you need the latest version of the package
 - Avoid to use both installation methods (maybe at different times)

¹ The command might sometimes be called **pip3**.

- PyPI is the main repository for Python packages and applications
pypi.python.org
- The command to be used is **pip**¹. E.g.:
 - **pip install astropy**
 - **pip list**
 - **pip uninstall astropy**
- Sometimes the installation with **pip** will require the C/C++ compiler
- Some suggestions:
 - If you find a standard package for your O.S. (e.g.: **msi** [Windows], **pkg** [MacOS], **rpm/deb** [Linux]) it may be better (i.e.: simpler) to use it.
 - Otherwise use **pip**.
 - **pip** is also recommended if you need the latest version of the package
 - Avoid to use both installation methods (maybe at different times)

¹ The command might sometimes be called **pip3**.



IPython: a Python environment optimized for interactive use

It provides:

IPython: a Python environment optimized for interactive use

It provides:

- An enhanced version of the Python prompt
 - Full compatibility with Python
 - Powerful tab completion mechanism
 - History (persistent across sessions)
 - `%magic` commands

IPython: a Python environment optimized for interactive use

It provides:

- An enhanced version of the Python prompt
 - Full compatibility with Python
 - Powerful tab completion mechanism
 - History (persistent across sessions)
 - `%magic` commands
- Enhanced introspection tools
 - Standard Python's `help` system
 - Easy access to doc strings

IPython: a Python environment optimized for interactive use

It provides:

- An enhanced version of the Python prompt
 - Full compatibility with Python
 - Powerful tab completion mechanism
 - History (persistent across sessions)
 - `%magic` commands
- Enhanced introspection tools
 - Standard Python's `help` system
 - Easy access to doc strings
- Full integration with numerical and plotting packages
 - `numpy`, `scipy`
 - `matplotlib`

IPython: a Python environment optimized for interactive use

It provides:

- An enhanced version of the Python prompt
 - Full compatibility with Python
 - Powerful tab completion mechanism
 - History (persistent across sessions)
 - `%magic` commands
- Enhanced introspection tools
 - Standard Python's help system
 - Easy access to doc strings
- Full integration with numerical and plotting packages
 - `numpy`, `scipy`
 - `matplotlib`
- Support for parallel applications

IPython: a Python environment optimized for interactive use

It provides:

- An enhanced version of the Python prompt
 - Full compatibility with Python
 - Powerful tab completion mechanism
 - History (persistent across sessions)
 - `%magic` commands
- Enhanced introspection tools
 - Standard Python's help system
 - Easy access to doc strings
- Full integration with numerical and plotting packages
 - `numpy`, `scipy`
 - `matplotlib`
- Support for parallel applications
- At the core of the Jupyter notebook

IPython: a Python environment optimized for interactive use

It provides:

- An enhanced version of the Python prompt
 - Full compatibility with Python
 - Powerful tab completion mechanism
 - History (persistent across sessions)
 - `%magic` commands
- Enhanced introspection tools
 - Standard Python's help system
 - Easy access to doc strings
- Full integration with numerical and plotting packages
 - `numpy`, `scipy`
 - `matplotlib`
- Support for parallel applications
- At the core of the Jupyter notebook



```
$ ipython --pylab
Python 3.6.7 (default, Oct 22 2018, 11:32:17)
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information
IPython 7.3.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.
Using matplotlib backend: TkAgg
```

```
In [1]: a=3
```

```
In [2]: a+1
Out[2]: 4
```

```
In [3]:
```

```
$ ipython --pylab ← 1
Python 3.6.7 (default, Oct 22 2018, 11:32:17)
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information
IPython 7.3.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.
Using matplotlib backend: TkAgg
```

```
In [1]: a=3           prompt
In [2]: a+1           user input
Out[2]: 4             ipython output
In [3]:
```

```
In [3]: %whos
Variable Type      Data/Info
-----
a          int      3

In [4]: !pwd
/home/lfini/Personale/CorsiSeminari/2019-Python
```

```
$ ipython --pylab ← 1
Python 3.6.7 (default, Oct 22 2018, 11:32:17)
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information
IPython 7.3.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.
Using matplotlib backend: TkAgg
```

```
In [1]: a=3      prompt
In [2]: a+1      user input
Out[2]: 4        ipython output
In [3]:
```

```
In [3]: %whos ← 2
Variable Type      Data/Info
-----
a          int      3

In [4]: !pwd ← 3
/home/lfini/Personale/CorsiSeminari/2019-Python
```

```
$ ipython --pylab ← 1
Python 3.6.7 (default, Oct 22 2018, 11:32:17)
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information
IPython 7.3.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.
Using matplotlib backend: TkAgg
```

```
In [1]: a=3      prompt
In [2]: a+1      user input
Out[2]: 4        ipython output
In [3]:
```

```
In [3]: %whos ← 2
Variable Type      Data/Info
-----
a          int      3
```

```
In [4]: !pwd ← 3
/home/lfini/Personale/CorsiSeminari/2019-Python
```

- 1 The **--pylab** option preloads numpy and matplotlib in ipython

```
$ ipython --pylab ← 1
Python 3.6.7 (default, Oct 22 2018, 11:32:17)
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information
IPython 7.3.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.
Using matplotlib backend: TkAgg
```

```
In [1]: a=3           prompt
In [2]: a+1           user input
Out[2]: 4             ipython output
In [3]:
```

```
In [3]: %whos ← 2
Variable Type      Data/Info
-----
a          int      3
```

```
In [4]: !pwd ← 3
/home/lfini/Personale/CorsiSeminari/2019-Python
```

- 1 The **--pylab** option preloads numpy and matplotlib in ipython
- 2 **%whos**: magic command - list currently defined variables

```
$ ipython --pylab ← 1
Python 3.6.7 (default, Oct 22 2018, 11:32:17)
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information
IPython 7.3.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.
Using matplotlib backend: TkAgg
```

```
In [1]: a=3           prompt
In [2]: a+1           user input
Out[2]: 4             ipython output
In [3]:
```

```
In [3]: %whos ← 2
Variable Type      Data/Info
-----
a          int      3
```

```
In [4]: !pwd ← 3
/home/lfini/Personale/CorsiSeminari/2019-Python
```

- ① The **--pylab** option preloads numpy and matplotlib in ipython
- ② **%whos**: magic command - list currently defined variables
- ③ **!pwd**: external shell command

```
$ ipython --pylab ← 1
Python 3.6.7 (default, Oct 22 2018, 11:32:17)
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information
IPython 7.3.0 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.
Using matplotlib backend: TkAgg
```

```
In [1]: a=3           prompt
In [2]: a+1           user input
Out[2]: 4             ipython output
In [3]:
```

```
In [3]: %whos ← 2
Variable Type      Data/Info
-----
a          int      3
```

```
In [4]: !pwd ← 3
/home/lfini/Personale/CorsiSeminari/2019-Python
```

- ① The **--pylab** option preloads numpy and matplotlib in ipython
- ② **%whos**: magic command - list currently defined variables
- ③ **!pwd**: external shell command



```
In [5]: ?np.max
```

```
Signature: np.max(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<class 'numpy._globals._NoVal
```

```
Docstring:
```

```
Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis.
```

```
Parameters
```

```
-----
```

```
a : array_like
```

```
    Input data.
```

```
axis : None or int or tuple of ints, optional
```

```
    Axis or axes along which to operate. By default, flattened input is  
    used.
```

```
...
```

```
In [6]: ??np.max
```

```
...
```

```
...
```

```
In [5]: ?np.max ← 1,2
```

```
Signature: np.max(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<class 'numpy._globals._NoVal
```

```
Docstring:
```

```
Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis.
```

```
Parameters
```

```
-----
```

```
a : array_like
```

```
    Input data.
```

```
axis : None or int or tuple of ints, optional
```

```
    Axis or axes along which to operate. By default, flattened input is  
    used.
```

```
...
```

```
In [6]: ??np.max ← 3
```

```
...
```

```
...
```

```
In [5]: ?np.max ← 1,2
```

```
Signature: np.max(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<class 'numpy._globals._NoVal
```

```
Docstring:
```

```
Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis.
```

```
Parameters
```

```
-----
```

```
a : array_like
```

```
    Input data.
```

```
axis : None or int or tuple of ints, optional
```

```
    Axis or axes along which to operate. By default, flattened input is  
    used.
```

```
...
```

```
In [6]: ??np.max ← 3
```

```
...
```

```
...
```

- 1 The package `numpy` is imported under the name **np**

```
In [5]: ?np.max ← 1,2
```

```
Signature: np.max(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<class 'numpy._globals._NoVal
```

```
Docstring:
```

```
Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis.
```

```
Parameters
```

```
-----
```

```
a : array_like
```

```
    Input data.
```

```
axis : None or int or tuple of ints, optional
```

```
    Axis or axes along which to operate. By default, flattened input is  
    used.
```

```
...
```

```
In [6]: ??np.max ← 3
```

```
...
```

```
...
```

- 1 The package `numpy` is imported under the name **np**
- 2 `?`: provides info about an object

```
In [5]: ?np.max ← 1,2
```

Signature: np.max(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<class 'numpy._globals._NoVal

Docstring:

Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis.

Parameters

a : array_like

Input data.

axis : None or int or tuple of ints, optional

Axis or axes along which to operate. By default, flattened input is used.

...

```
In [6]: ??np.max ← 3
```

...

...

- 1 The package `numpy` is imported under the name **np**
- 2 `?`: provides info about an object
- 3 `??`: provides more info (includes source code)

```
In [5]: ?np.max ← 1,2
```

Signature: np.max(a, axis=None, out=None, keepdims=<class 'numpy._globals._NoVal

Docstring:

Return the maximum of an array or maximum along an axis.

Parameters

a : array_like

Input data.

axis : None or int or tuple of ints, optional

Axis or axes along which to operate. By default, flattened input is used.

...

```
In [6]: ??np.max ← 3
```

...

...

- 1 The package `numpy` is imported under the name **np**
- 2 `?`: provides info about an object
- 3 `??`: provides more info (includes source code)



- Scientific packages are usually not installed by default.

- Scientific packages are usually not installed by default.
- Installation procedures are several and may depend on the O.S. Here follow a few suggestions:

- Scientific packages are usually not installed by default.
- Installation procedures are several and may depend on the O.S. Here follow a few suggestions:
 - `ipython`, `numpy`, `scipy`, `matplotlib`
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: All main distributions include scientific packages. If you want to have the latest version you may install from the PyPI repository.

- Scientific packages are usually not installed by default.
- Installation procedures are several and may depend on the O.S. Here follow a few suggestions:
 - `ipython`, `numpy`, `scipy`, `matplotlib`
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: All main distributions include scientific packages. If you want to have the latest version you may install from the PyPI repository.
 - `astropy`:
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: You may install from the distribution repository or from PyPI.

- Scientific packages are usually not installed by default.
- Installation procedures are several and may depend on the O.S. Here follow a few suggestions:
 - `ipython`, `numpy`, `scipy`, `matplotlib`
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: All main distributions include scientific packages. If you want to have the latest version you may install from the PyPI repository.
 - `astropy`:
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: You may install from the distribution repository or from PyPI.
 - `astroquery`:
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: You may install from the distribution repository (but not all of them provide this package) or from PyPI.

- Scientific packages are usually not installed by default.
- Installation procedures are several and may depend on the O.S. Here follow a few suggestions:
 - `ipython`, `numpy`, `scipy`, `matplotlib`
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: All main distributions include scientific packages. If you want to have the latest version you may install from the PyPI repository.
 - `astropy`:
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: You may install from the distribution repository or from PyPI.
 - `astroquery`:
 - **Windows**: Can be installed from PyPI repository
 - **MacOS**: You may either use *Homebrew* or install from PyPI repository
 - **Linux**: You may install from the distribution repository (but not all of them provide this package) or from PyPI.



The End

End of Part III