Topic 01 - Intro to Python - Notebook (after class 3)

January 16, 2026

1 Topic 1: Quick(ish) Introduction to Python

[1]:
```
import platform
print(platform.python_implementation(), platform.python_version())
```

```
CPython 3.14.2
```

The goal of this lecture is to give you some of the basics. It's not possible for us to cover **everything** you'll need to know ahead of time. As graduate students, you are expected to be able to do some research and self-teaching on your own to build your coding skills, and of course you can *always* come ask me for help!

A nice reference for a lot of the computational skills we'll be covering (coding, unix command line, git) is the "Software Carpentry" set of lessons: https://software-carpentry.org/lessons/. You should seriously considering checking their tutorials for extra practice and more in-depth lessons!

This document is a "Jupyter Notebook". It's kind of like interactive mode, but also lets you intersperse text, html, etc, among it. VS Code can run them natively once you've installed a package. (If you open up a "ipynb" file in VS Code, it will prompt you to install the package and then do it for you.)

Python is a **whitespace-based language**. In C, C++, Java, and many other languages, you use braces to group code:

```
if (x == 1) {
    do_something();
}
```

and the spacing is just for readability. For example, the following code does the same thing:

```
if (x == 1) { do_something();
          }
```

In Python you use indenting, and colons (`:`) to have the same effect. You also do not use semicolons (`;`) to end commands.

```
if x == 1:
    do_something()
```

You have to be *really* careful to be consistent by either - always using tabs, or - always using spaces (and the same number)

[2]:
```
x = 1
```

[3]:
```
if x == 1:
    print("hello")
```

```
hello
```

[4]:
```
if x == 1:
            print("hello")
```

```
hello
```

[5]:
```
if x == 1:
    print("hello")
     print("world")
```

```
  Cell In[5], line 3
    print("world")
    ^
IndentationError: unexpected indent
```

[6]:
```
if x == 1:
    print("hello")
    print("world") # if you use a tab, Jupyter will fix it for you␣
↪automatically! Your code editor might not.
```

```
hello
world
```

Python uses `if`, `for`, and `while` statements like many other languages.

[7]:
```
x = 1
while x < 10:
    x = x + 2

    print(x)
```

```
3
5
7
9
11
```

[8]:
```
for y in range(3, 6):  # 3, 4, 5
    print(y)
```

```
3
4
```

```
5
```

[9]:
```
for letter in "apple":
    print(letter)
```

```
a
p
p
l
e
```

In a `for` loop, you can iterate over many different types of objects (lists, sets, tuples, dictionaries, strings, etc.)

`range(a,b)` is a way of looping over all of the integers between `a` (inclusive) and `b` (exclusive).

[ ]:
```
for z in "hello":
    print(z)
```

[10]:
```
for z in [19, -100, "banana"]:
    print(z+1)
```

```
20
-99
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[10], line 2
      1 for z in [19, -100, "banana"]:
----> 2     print(z+1)

TypeError: can only concatenate str (not "int") to str
```

You may have noticed that Python is not a **statically-typed** language, which means you do not need to tell it whether a variable you are defining is an integer or a string or a list, etc. You just define it, and it figures it out.

But, there are still different types! You can always use the `type` function to check what type an object has.

[11]:
```
L = [1, 2, 3]
type(L)
```

[11]:
```
list
```

[12]:
```
L = (1,2,3)
type(L)
```

[12]:
```
tuple
```

[13]:
```
L = {1,2,3}
type(L)
```

[13]:
```
set
```

[14]:
```
sum([1,2,3])
```

[14]:
```
6
```

[15]:
```
type(sum)
```

[15]:
```
builtin_function_or_method
```

[16]:
```
type(type)
```

[16]:
```
type
```

Now we're going to discuss a bunch of the fundamental types in Python.

1.1 Integers, Floating Point Numbers, and Complex Numbers

[17]:
```
x = 7
type(x)
```

[17]:
```
int
```

[18]:
```
import math
math.pi
```

[18]:
```
3.141592653589793
```

[19]:
```
x = 7.0
type(x)
```

[19]:
```
float
```

[20]:
```
x = 3.0000000000000000001
print(x)
```

```
3.0
```

[21]:
```
y = 0.1
print(y)
```

```
0.1
```

[22]:
```
0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1 - 0.3
```

[22]:
```
5.551115123125783e-17
```

[23]:
```
0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1 == 0.3
```

[23]:
```
False
```

[24]:
```
15 / 7
```

[24]:
```
2.142857142857143
```

[25]:
```
15 // 7
```

[25]:
```
2
```

[26]:
```
z = complex(3, 5)
t = complex(1,-1)
print(z)
print(type(z))
print(z*t)
```

```
(3+5j)
<class 'complex'>
(8+2j)
```

1.2 Boolean

A boolean is just a `True` or `False` value. That's it!

[27]:
```
b = True
type(b)
```

[27]:
```
bool
```

[28]:
```
if b:
    print("hello")
```

```
hello
```

[29]:
```
if not b:
    print("hello")
```

[30]:
```
t = (10 + 10 == 20) # Use "==" to test equality, and "=" to actually set␣
↪something equal
print(t)
type(t)
```

```
True
```

[30]:
```
bool
```

[35]:
```
x = 7
if x > 5 and x < 10:
```

```
    print("hello")
```

```
hello
```

1.3 None

There is a weird object in Python called `None`. It's just a useful thing to have around, often as a default value until you assign something.

[36]:
```
y = None
print(y)
if y is None:
    print("y has the value None")
y = 3
if y is None:
    print("y has the value None")
```

```
None
y has the value None
```

[37]:
```
type(None)
```

[37]:
```
NoneType
```

1.4 Strings

A string is just a sequence of characters.

[39]:
```
type("banana")
```

[39]:
```
str
```

You can do a million things with strings.

[40]:
```
s = "banana"
s.split("n")
```

[40]:
```
['ba', 'a', 'a']
```

Use `len` to find the length of a string and `+` to concatenate two strings together.

[41]:
```
one = "hello"
two = "world"
three = one + " " + two
print(len(three))
print(three)
```

```
11
hello world
```

[42]:
```
three.len()
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
AttributeError                            Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[42], line 1
----> 1 three.len()

AttributeError: 'str' object has no attribute 'len'
```

[43]:
```
type(len)
```

[43]:
```
builtin_function_or_method
```

1.5 Lists

A list is an **ordered sequence** of things.

[3]:
```
L = [15, "banana", 7, False, [1, 2, 3]]
```

[4]:
```
print(L)
```

```
[15, 'banana', 7, False, [1, 2, 3]]
```

[5]:
```
len(L)
```

[5]:
```
5
```

Elements of lists are accessed with bracket notation, starting from 0.

[6]:
```
L[0]
```

[6]:
```
15
```

[7]:
```
L[1]
```

[7]:
```
'banana'
```

[8]:
```
L[2]
```

[8]:
```
7
```

[9]:
```
L[3]
```

[9]:
```
False
```

[10]:
```
L[4]
```

[10]:
```
[1, 2, 3]
```

[11]:
```
(L[4])[1]
```

[11]: 2

Use `len(L)` to get the length of a list.

[12]:
```
len(L)
```

[12]: 5

[13]:
```
len(L[4])
```

[13]: 3

You can set elements of the list manually as well.

[14]:
```
L
```

[14]: [15, 'banana', 7, False, [1, 2, 3]]

[15]:
```
L[1] = "apple"
```

[16]:
```
L
```

[16]: [15, 'apple', 7, False, [1, 2, 3]]

[17]:
```
L[8] = "can't set this"
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
IndexError                                Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[17], line 1
----> 1 L[8] = "can't set this"

IndexError: list assignment index out of range
```

You can sort lists:

[18]:
```
R = [15, -20, 0]
R.sort()
print(R)
```

```
[-20, 0, 15]
```

Notice the `.` in the notation above. We'll talk about this more when we cover object-oriented programming, but what we're basically doing here is telling the list `R` to perform its `sort()` operation on itself.

You may wonder why we did `len(R)` instead of `R.len()`... it's kind of just a quirk. You get used to it.

A few more quick list functions:

[19]:
```
R
```

[19]:
```
[-20, 0, 15]
```

[20]:
```
R.append(17)
print(R)
```

```
[-20, 0, 15, 17]
```

[21]:
```
R.extend([7, 8, 9])
print(R)
```

```
[-20, 0, 15, 17, 7, 8, 9]
```

Lastly (for now) you can concatenate two lists together with the + sign.

[22]:
```
[1,2,3] + [4,5,6]
```

[22]:
```
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

[25]:
```
print(R)
M = [100] + R
print(M)
print(R)
```

```
[-20, 0, 15, 17, 7, 8, 9]
[100, -20, 0, 15, 17, 7, 8, 9]
[-20, 0, 15, 17, 7, 8, 9]
```

[ ]:
```
R
```

[ ]:
```
[-20, 0, 15, 17, 7, 8, 9]
```

[63]:
```
M = R.sort() # sorts R in place, and doesn't return anything
```

[64]:
```
R
```

[64]:
```
[-20, 0, 7, 8, 9, 15, 17]
```

[66]:
```
M is None
```

[66]:
```
True
```

[67]:
```
R = [-20, 0, 15, 17, 7, 8, 9]
```

[68]:
```
M = sorted(R) # returns a sorted copy of R, leaves R alone
```

[69]:
```
M
```

[69]:
```
[-20, 0, 7, 8, 9, 15, 17]
```

[70]:
```
R
```

[70]:
```
[-20, 0, 15, 17, 7, 8, 9]
```

1.6 Sets

A list was an ordered sequence of things. A set is an **unordered sequence** of things with no repeats (just like in math).

[26]:
```
S = {1, 2, 3, 4}
print(S)
```

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

[27]:
```
T = {3, 1, 4, 2}
print(T)
```

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

[28]:
```
S == T
```

[28]:
```
True
```

You can't access elements using the bracket notation because there is no first element, second element, etc. You should never assume that you know the order Python will internally store your list in!

[29]:
```
S[2]
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[29], line 1
----> 1 S[2]

TypeError: 'set' object is not subscriptable
```

[30]:
```
for element in S:
    print(element)
```

```
1
2
3
4
```

Here are some functions you can do with sets:

[31]:
```
first = {1,5,6}
second = {2,4,5}
```

[32]:
```
first.union(second)
```

[32]:
```
{1, 2, 4, 5, 6}
```

[33]:
```
second.union(first)
```

[33]:
```
{1, 2, 4, 5, 6}
```

[35]:
```
first.intersection(second)
```

[35]:
```
{5}
```

[36]:
```
first.difference(second) # all of the things IN first, and NOT IN second
```

[36]:
```
{1, 6}
```

[37]:
```
second.difference(first)
```

[37]:
```
{2, 4}
```

[ ]:
```
# By the way, you write comments in python by just starting the line with the␣
↪pound key.
```

[38]:
```
first
```

[38]:
```
{1, 5, 6}
```

[39]:
```
first.add(9)
print(first)
```

```
{1, 5, 6, 9}
```

[40]:
```
first.add(5)
print(first) # No duplicates!
```

```
{1, 5, 6, 9}
```

[41]:
```
first.remove(5)
```

[42]:
```
print(first)
```

```
{1, 6, 9}
```

If you try to remove an element that is not there, you get an error

[43]:
```
first.remove(5)
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
KeyError                                  Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[43], line 1
```

```
----> 1 first.remove(5)

KeyError: 5
```

But there is a command that removes and element IF IT IS THERE and otherwise does nothing, no error.

[44]:
```
first.discard(5)
```

[50]:
```
L = [1,2,3]
```

[51]:
```
M = L.append(4)
```

[52]:
```
L
```

[52]:
```
[1, 2, 3, 4]
```

[ ]:
```
M
```

[57]:
```
S = {1,2,3}
```

[59]:
```
M = S.union({4})
```

[60]:
```
S
```

[60]:
```
{1, 2, 3}
```

[61]:
```
M
```

[61]:
```
{1, 2, 3, 4}
```

1.7 Tuples

It starts to get a little tricky here! A tuple is an **ordered sequence** of things.

Wait… isn't that what a list was?

[71]:
```
T = (1,2,3,4)
print(T)
type(T)
```

```
(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

[71]:
```
tuple
```

[72]:
```
L = [1,2,3,4]
L == T  # They are different types of objects, so they can't be equal.
```

[72]:
```
False
```

The key is that a tuple is what we call **immutable**. Once it's defined, it *cannot* be changed, ever, at all.

[73]:
```
print(T)
print(T[2])
```

```
(1, 2, 3, 4)
3
```

[74]:
```
T[2] = 17
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[74], line 1
----> 1 T[2] = 17

TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
```

It is still possible to do things like concatenate two tuples to make a new bigger tuple, but it's a **new** bigger tuple, and the original one is still unchanged.

[75]:
```
T + (5,6)
```

[75]:
```
(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
```

[76]:
```
T
```

[76]:
```
(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

[77]:
```
T.append(5)
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
AttributeError                            Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[77], line 1
----> 1 T.append(5)

AttributeError: 'tuple' object has no attribute 'append'
```

So, we define a new tuple with parentheses, but there's one catch: if your tuple has a single item, it needs a special bit of syntax.

[78]:
```
x = (1)
print(x)
type(x)
```

```
1
```

[78]:
```
int
```

[79]:
```
x = (1,)
print(x)
type(x)
```

```
(1,)
```

[79]:
```
tuple
```

So, lists are **mutable**, tuples are **immutable**. Why do we need two different versions?

[80]:
```
L = [1,2,3,4,5,6]
5 in L
```

[80]:
```
True
```

Under-the-hood, when you store things in a set, Python is being super smart about how it stores it. When you add an element to a set you really do not want python to have to scan one-by-one through all the things in the set to make sure it's not already there. So, it uses a clever technique called *hashing*.

You don't need to know the details right now, but the broad idea is that Python takes each thing in the set and assigns a number to it called its *hash*, and then uses the hashes to make sure there are no duplicates.

[81]:
```
hash(17)
```

[81]:
```
17
```

[82]:
```
hash("banana")
```

[82]:
```
-3588063464545675585
```

[83]:
```
hash((1,2,3,4))
```

[83]:
```
5908993871830677792
```

[84]:
```
hash([1,2,3])
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[84], line 1
----> 1 hash([1,2,3])

TypeError: unhashable type: 'list'
```

[ ]:
```
L = [1,2,3,4]
```

[ ]:
```
{[1, 2, 3, 4], [1, 2], [7,8]}
```

[ ]:
```
{(1, 2, 3, 4), (1, 2), (7, 8)}
```

The problem is that you **can't hash mutable things**. Once you get an object's hash, that needs to stay its hash forever. You could hash a list, then appending an element to the list would mean a new hash would have to be generated, and this would mess everything up.

Bottom line: Sometimes you need an immutable version of something, like to put it in a set.

[85]:
```
# Sets can only store hashable things, which means they can only store␣
↪immutable things.
```

[ ]:
```

```

[86]:
```
{5, 17, [1,2,3]}
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[86], line 1
----> 1 {5, 17, [1,2,3]}

TypeError: cannot use 'list' as a set element (unhashable type: 'list')
```

[87]:
```
{5, 17, (1,2,3)}
```

[87]:
```
{(1, 2, 3), 17, 5}
```

[88]:
```
{5, 17, {1,2,3}}
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[88], line 1
----> 1 {5, 17, {1,2,3}}

TypeError: cannot use 'set' as a set element (unhashable type: 'set')
```

Sets are mutable too! Sets must contain immutable things, but they themselves are mutable.

Of course we knew this, because we can do `S.add()`. So what if you want sets in your sets? There is an immutable version of a set called a `frozenset`.

[89]:
```
{ 5, 17, frozenset({1, 2, 3}) }
```

[89]:
```
{17, 5, frozenset({1, 2, 3})}
```

When should you use a tuple versus a list? - If it's going to go in a set (or, as we'll see in a second, in a dictionary), it has to be immutable. Thus, use a tuple. - If you need to be able to add and remove things, use a list. - If the size will always stay the same, you probably want a tuple. For example, if you're representing xy-coordiates, use tuples.

1.8 Dictionaries

You can think of a list as kind of like a mathematical function whose inputs are the the indices 0, 1, … and whose outputs are the elements of the list.

[ ]:
```
L = ["apple", "banana", "pear"]
```

[ ]:
```
#  0 -> apple,  1 -> banana,  2 -> pear
```

In a dictionary, the inputs don't have to be integers, they can be any (immutable) object.

[90]:
```
# To define  17 -> apple,  banana -> pear,  (1, 2, 3) -> True
d = {17:"apple", "banana":"pear", (1,2,3):True}
print(d)
```

```
{17: 'apple', 'banana': 'pear', (1, 2, 3): True}
```

The inputs are called **keys** and the outputs are called **values**.

[91]:
```
d[17]
```

[91]:
```
'apple'
```

[92]:
```
d["banana"]
```

[92]:
```
'pear'
```

[93]:
```
d[(1,2,3)]
```

[93]:
```
True
```

[94]:
```
d
```

[94]:
```
{17: 'apple', 'banana': 'pear', (1, 2, 3): True}
```

[95]:
```
d["pear"] = "hello"
d["pear"]
```

[95]:
```
'hello'
```

[96]:
```
d
```

[96]:
```
{17: 'apple', 'banana': 'pear', (1, 2, 3): True, 'pear': 'hello'}
```

You can assign new values too

[97]:
```
d[1] = "one"
print(d)
```

```
{17: 'apple', 'banana': 'pear', (1, 2, 3): True, 'pear': 'hello', 1: 'one'}
```

[98]:
```
d[ (2, 3, 5, 7) ] = False
```

[99]:
```
d
```

[99]:
```
{17: 'apple',
 'banana': 'pear',
 (1, 2, 3): True,
 'pear': 'hello',
 1: 'one',
 (2, 3, 5, 7): False}
```

Dictionaries are *super* useful, but take some getting used to. The keys are hashed in the background, which makes looking up the value for a given key very fast.

[100]:
```
for k in d.keys():
    print(k)
```

```
17
banana
(1, 2, 3)
pear
1
(2, 3, 5, 7)
```

[101]:
```
for v in d.values():
    print(v)
```

```
apple
pear
True
hello
one
False
```

[102]:
```
for pair in d.items():
    print(pair)
# (key, value)
```

```
(17, 'apple')
('banana', 'pear')
((1, 2, 3), True)
('pear', 'hello')
(1, 'one')
((2, 3, 5, 7), False)
```

1.9 Casting

You can tell Python to turn an object of one type into an object of another type. This is called **casting**.

[103]:
```
L = [3, 7, 7, 12]
print(L)
```

```
[3, 7, 7, 12]
```

[104]:
```
T = tuple(L)
print(T)
print(L)
```

```
(3, 7, 7, 12)
[3, 7, 7, 12]
```

[105]:
```
S = set(L)
print(S)
```

```
{3, 12, 7}
```

[106]:
```
print(L)
list(set(L))
```

```
[3, 7, 7, 12]
```

[106]:
```
[3, 12, 7]
```

[ ]:
```

```

[108]:
```
dict(L)
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[108], line 1
----> 1 dict(L)

TypeError: object is not iterable
Cannot convert dictionary update sequence element #0 to a sequence
```

[107]:
```
str(L)
```

[107]:
```
'[3, 7, 7, 12]'
```

[109]:
```
int(L)
```

```
---------------------------------------------------------------------------
TypeError                                 Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[109], line 1
----> 1 int(L)
```

```
TypeError: int() argument must be a string, a bytes-like object or a real␣
↪number, not 'list'
```

[110]:
```
d = {1:"one", 2:"two", 3:"three"}
```

[111]:
```
d
```

[111]:
```
{1: 'one', 2: 'two', 3: 'three'}
```

[112]:
```
list(d)
```

[112]:
```
[1, 2, 3]
```

1.10 Practice

Time for some practice!

https://projecteuler.net/

Problem 1: mod, looping, and comprehensions

Problem 2: negative indexing

Problem 5: all / any, and thinking mathematically

If we list all the natural numbers below 10 that are multiples of 3 or 5, we get 3, 5, 6 and 9. The sum of these multiples is 23.

Find the sum of all the multiples of 3 or 5 below 1000.

[ ]:
```
# mod - modulus
#  a % b -- the remainder you get when you divide a by b

# list comprehensions
# +=
```

[2]:
```
17 % 2
```

[2]:
```
1
```

[3]:
```
16 % 2
```

[3]:
```
0
```

[4]:
```
(-23) % 7
```

[4]:
```
5
```

[10]:
```
# loop over all numbers between 0 and 999
# check if it's divisible by 3 or 5
# keep a running sum of those numbers
```

```
total = 0
for number in range(0, 1000):
    if number % 3 == 0 or number % 5 == 0:
        total = total + number
print(total)
```

```
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```

[ ]:
```
# "+=" notation
# total += number
# is shorthand for
# total = total + number
```

[ ]:
```
10
```

[11]:
```
# loop over all numbers between 0 and 999
# check if it's divisible by 3 or 5
# keep a running sum of those numbers
total = 0
for number in range(0, 1000):
    if number % 3 == 0 or number % 5 == 0:
        total += number
print(total)
```

```
233168
```

[ ]:
```
# "-=" and "*=" and "/="
```

[ ]:
```
# list comprehension (sets, tuples, dictionaries)
# a way to define a list of numbers very easily

# making a list of even numbers between 0 and 1000 without a list comprehension
L = []
for number in range(0, 1000):
    if number % 2 == 0:
        L.append(number)
print(L)

# list comprehension
L = [number for number in range(0, 1000) if number % 2 == 0]
```

```
[0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 32, 34, 36, 38, 40,
42, 44, 46, 48, 50, 52, 54, 56, 58, 60, 62, 64, 66, 68, 70, 72, 74, 76, 78, 80,
82, 84, 86, 88, 90, 92, 94, 96, 98, 100, 102, 104, 106, 108, 110, 112, 114, 116,
118, 120, 122, 124, 126, 128, 130, 132, 134, 136, 138, 140, 142, 144, 146, 148,
150, 152, 154, 156, 158, 160, 162, 164, 166, 168, 170, 172, 174, 176, 178, 180,
182, 184, 186, 188, 190, 192, 194, 196, 198, 200, 202, 204, 206, 208, 210, 212,
214, 216, 218, 220, 222, 224, 226, 228, 230, 232, 234, 236, 238, 240, 242, 244,
246, 248, 250, 252, 254, 256, 258, 260, 262, 264, 266, 268, 270, 272, 274, 276,
```

```
278, 280, 282, 284, 286, 288, 290, 292, 294, 296, 298, 300, 302, 304, 306, 308,
310, 312, 314, 316, 318, 320, 322, 324, 326, 328, 330, 332, 334, 336, 338, 340,
342, 344, 346, 348, 350, 352, 354, 356, 358, 360, 362, 364, 366, 368, 370, 372,
374, 376, 378, 380, 382, 384, 386, 388, 390, 392, 394, 396, 398, 400, 402, 404,
406, 408, 410, 412, 414, 416, 418, 420, 422, 424, 426, 428, 430, 432, 434, 436,
438, 440, 442, 444, 446, 448, 450, 452, 454, 456, 458, 460, 462, 464, 466, 468,
470, 472, 474, 476, 478, 480, 482, 484, 486, 488, 490, 492, 494, 496, 498, 500,
502, 504, 506, 508, 510, 512, 514, 516, 518, 520, 522, 524, 526, 528, 530, 532,
534, 536, 538, 540, 542, 544, 546, 548, 550, 552, 554, 556, 558, 560, 562, 564,
566, 568, 570, 572, 574, 576, 578, 580, 582, 584, 586, 588, 590, 592, 594, 596,
598, 600, 602, 604, 606, 608, 610, 612, 614, 616, 618, 620, 622, 624, 626, 628,
630, 632, 634, 636, 638, 640, 642, 644, 646, 648, 650, 652, 654, 656, 658, 660,
662, 664, 666, 668, 670, 672, 674, 676, 678, 680, 682, 684, 686, 688, 690, 692,
694, 696, 698, 700, 702, 704, 706, 708, 710, 712, 714, 716, 718, 720, 722, 724,
726, 728, 730, 732, 734, 736, 738, 740, 742, 744, 746, 748, 750, 752, 754, 756,
758, 760, 762, 764, 766, 768, 770, 772, 774, 776, 778, 780, 782, 784, 786, 788,
790, 792, 794, 796, 798, 800, 802, 804, 806, 808, 810, 812, 814, 816, 818, 820,
822, 824, 826, 828, 830, 832, 834, 836, 838, 840, 842, 844, 846, 848, 850, 852,
854, 856, 858, 860, 862, 864, 866, 868, 870, 872, 874, 876, 878, 880, 882, 884,
886, 888, 890, 892, 894, 896, 898, 900, 902, 904, 906, 908, 910, 912, 914, 916,
918, 920, 922, 924, 926, 928, 930, 932, 934, 936, 938, 940, 942, 944, 946, 948,
950, 952, 954, 956, 958, 960, 962, 964, 966, 968, 970, 972, 974, 976, 978, 980,
982, 984, 986, 988, 990, 992, 994, 996, 998]
```

[14]:
```
# make a list of all the even numbers plus 1
L = [number**2 for number in range(0, 50) if number % 2 == 0]
print(L)
```

```
[0, 4, 16, 36, 64, 100, 144, 196, 256, 324, 400, 484, 576, 676, 784, 900, 1024,
1156, 1296, 1444, 1600, 1764, 1936, 2116, 2304]
```

[16]:
```
sum([number for number in range(0, 1000) if number % 3 == 0 or number % 5 == 0])
```

[16]: 233168

Each new term in the Fibonacci sequence is generated by adding the previous two terms. By starting with 1 and 2, the first 10 terms will be:

1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, ...

By considering the terms in the Fibonacci sequence whose values do not exceed four million, find the sum of the even-valued terms.

[19]:
```
# negative indexing
L = [1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

[23]:
```
L[-1] # the last thing in the list
```

[23]: 6

[24]:
```
L[-2] # second to last thing in the list
```

[24]: 5

[28]:
```
L = [1, 2]
while L[-1] < 4000000:
    fib = L[-1] + L[-2]
    L.append(fib)
L.pop()
print(
    sum(
        [number for number in L if number % 2 == 0]
    )
)
```

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[30]:
```
# "break"
L = [1,2]
while True:
    fib = L[-1] + L[-2]
    if fib > 4_000_000:
        break
    L.append(fib)
print(L)
```

[1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610, 987, 1597, 2584, 4181, 6765, 10946, 17711, 28657, 46368, 75025, 121393, 196418, 317811, 514229, 832040, 1346269, 2178309, 3524578]

2520 is the smallest number that can be divided by each of the numbers from 1 to 10 without any remainder.

What is the smallest positive number that is evenly divisible by all of the numbers from 1 to 20?

[ ]:
```
# all / any
```

[ ]:
```
# annoying to write
number = 1
while True:
    if number % 1 == 0 and number % 2 == 0 and .... number % 20 == 0:
        break
    number += 1

print(number)
```

[32]:
```
# "all" is a function that takes as input a list of booleans
# if every boolean in the list is True, then "all" returns True
# if even a single one is False, it returns False
```

```
all([True, True, True, True, True])
```

[32]: True

[33]:
```
all([True, True, False, True, True])
```

[33]: False

[34]:
```
# "any" is a function that takes as input a list of booleans
# if one or more of them are True, then "any" returns True
# if every single one is False, then it returns False
any([True, False, True, False, False])
```

[34]: True

[35]:
```
any([False, False, False])
```

[35]: False

[39]:
```
# to check for numbers divisible by 1 through 10
number = 1725
remainders = [number % N == 0 for N in range(1,11)]
# is number divisible by all of 1 - 10?
all(remainders)
```

[39]: False

[40]:
```
number = 2520
remainders = [number % N == 0 for N in range(1,11)]
# is number divisible by all of 1 - 10?
all(remainders)
```

[40]: True

[41]:
```
number = 1
while True:
    if all(number % N == 0 for N in range(1,21)):
        break
    number += 1

print(number)
```

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[42]:
```
number = 20
while True:
    if all(number % N == 0 for N in range(1,21)):
        break
    number += 20
```

```
print(number)
```

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[45]:
```
number = 20
while True:
    if all(number % N == 0 for N in [11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19]):
        break
    number += 20

print(number)
```

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[ ]:
```

```