The PyData Toolbox

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https://github.com/ssanderson/pydata-toolbox

About Me:



- Senior Engineer at Quantopian
- Background in Mathematics and Philosophy
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Outline

- Built-in Data Structures
- Numpy array
- Pandas Series/DataFrame
- Plotting and "Real-World" Analyses



Rule 5. Data dominates. If you've chosen the right data structures and organized things well, the algorithms will almost always be self-evident. Data structures, not algorithms, are central to programming.

• Notes on Programming in C, by Rob Pike.

Lists

```
In [3]: I = [1, 'two', 3.0, 4, 5.0, "six"]
```

Out[3]: [1, 'two', 3.0, 4, 5.0, 'six']

```
In [4]: # Lists can be indexed like C-style arrays.
first = I[0]
second = I[1]
print("first:", first)
print("second:", second)
```

first: 1

second: two

```
In [5]: # Negative indexing gives elements relative to the end of the list.

last = I[-1]
penultimate = I[-2]
print("last:", last)
print("second to last:", penultimate)
```

last: six

second to last: 5.0

```
In [6]: # Lists can also be sliced, which makes a copy of elements between # start (inclusive) and stop (exclusive) sublist = I[1:3] sublist
```

Out[6]: ['two', 3.0]

```
In [7]: # I[:N] is equivalent to I[0:N].
first_three = I[:3]
first_three

Out[7]: [1, 'two', 3.0]

In [8]: # I[3:] is equivalent to I[3:len(I)].
after_three = I[3:]
after_three

Out[8]: [4, 5.0, 'six']
```

```
In [9]: # There's also a third parameter, "step", which gets every Nth element.

| = ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f', 'g', 'h']
| [1:7:2]

Out[9]: ['b', 'd', 'f']

In [10]: # This is a cute way to reverse a list.
| [::-1]

Out[10]: ['h', 'g', 'f', 'e', 'd', 'c', 'b', 'a']
```

```
In [11]: # Lists can be grown efficiently (in O(1) amortized time).

I = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

print("Before:", I)

l.append('six')

print("After:", I)
```

Before: [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] After: [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 'six']

```
In [12]: # Comprehensions let us perform elementwise computations.

I = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

[x * 2 \text{ for } x \text{ in } I]
```

Out[12]: [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]

Review: Python Lists

- Zero-indexed sequence of arbitrary Python values.
- Slicing syntax: I[start:stop:step] copies elements at regular intervals from start to stop.
- Efficient (O(1)) appends and removes from end.
- Comprehension syntax: [f(x) for x in I if cond(x)].

Dictionaries

```
In [13]: # Dictionaries are key-value mappings.
philosophers = {'David': 'Hume', 'Immanuel': 'Kant', 'Bertrand': 'Russell'}
philosophers

Out[13]: {'Bertrand': 'Russell', 'David': 'Hume', 'Immanuel': 'Kant'}
```

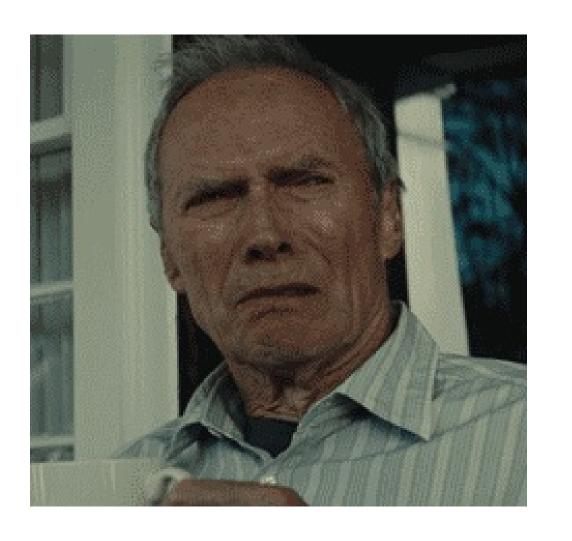
```
In [15]: del philosophers['David']
philosophers

Out[15]: {'Bertrand': 'Russell', 'Immanuel': 'Kant', 'Ludwig': 'Wittgenstein'}
```

Review: Python Dictionaries

- Unordered key-value mapping from (almost) arbitrary keys to arbitrary values.
- Efficient (O(1)) lookup, insertion, and deletion.
- No slicing (would require a notion of order).





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In [19]: %%time

matmul(a, b)

CPU times: user 0 ns, sys: 0 ns, total: 0 ns Wall time: 21 μs

Out[19]: [[5, 8, 11, 14], [8, 13, 18, 23], [17, 28, 39, 50], [3, 5, 7, 9]]

```
In [20]: import random
    def random_matrix(m, n):
        out = []
        for row in range(m):
            out.append([random.random() for _ in range(n)])
        return out

randm = random_matrix(2, 3)
    randm
```

Out[20]: [[0.1284400577047189, 0.7430538602191037, 0.5982267683657111], [0.15040193996829998, 0.37133534561680825, 0.9791613789073683]]

```
In [21]: %%time
                 randa = random_matrix(600, 100)
randb = random_matrix(100, 600)
x = matmul(randa, randb)
```

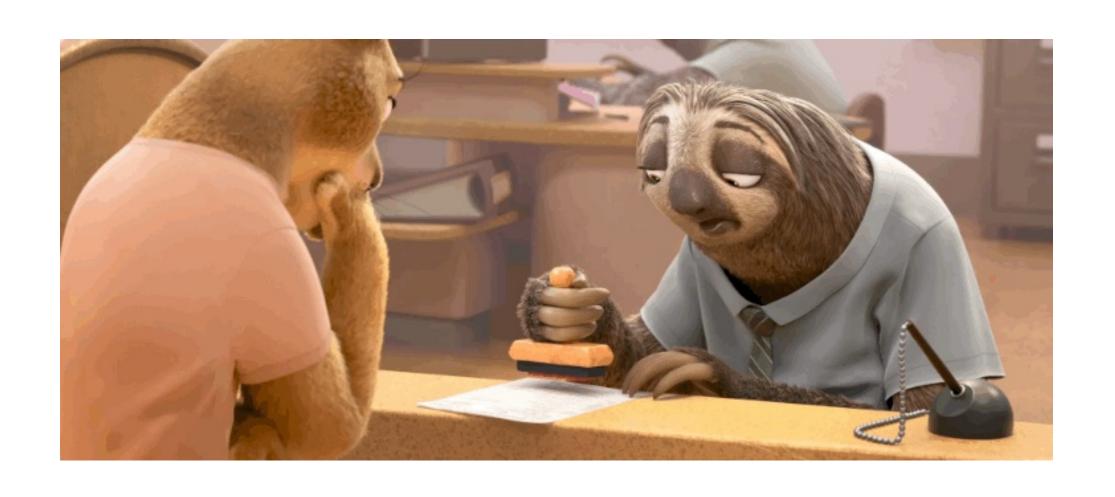
CPU times: user 5.99 s, sys: 4 ms, total: 5.99 s Wall time: 5.99 s

```
In [22]: # Maybe that's not that bad? Let's try a simpler case.
    def python_dot_product(xs, ys):
        return sum(x * y for x, y in zip(xs, ys))

In [23]: %%fortran
    subroutine fortran_dot_product(xs, ys, result)
        double precision, intent(in) :: xs(:)
        double precision, intent(in) :: ys(:)
        double precision, intent(out) :: result

        result = sum(xs * ys)
        end
```

```
list_data = [float(i) for i in range(100000)]
 In [24]:
          array_data = np.array(list_data)
          %%time
 In [25]:
          python_dot_product(list_data, list_data)
          CPU times: user 4 ms, sys: 0 ns, total: 4 ms
          Wall time: 6.95 ms
          333328333350000.0
Out[25]:
 In [26]:
          %%time
          fortran_dot_product(array_data, array_data)
          CPU times: user 0 ns, sys: 0 ns, total: 0 ns
          Wall time: 181 µs
          333328333350000.0
Out[26]:
```



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Why is the Python Version so Much Slower?

```
In [27]: # Dynamic typing.
def mul_elemwise(xs, ys):
    return [x * y for x, y in zip(xs, ys)]

mul_elemwise([1, 2, 3, 4], [1, 2 + 0j, 3.0, 'four'])
#[type(x) for x in_]
```

Out[27]: [1, (4+0j), 9.0, 'fourfourfour']

Why is the Python Version so Slow?

- Dynamic typing means that every single operation requires dispatching on the input type.
- Having an interpreter means that every instruction is fetched and dispatched at runtime.
- Other overheads:
 - Arbitrary-size integers.
 - Reference-counted garbage collection.

This is the paradox that we have to work with when we're doing scientific or numerically-intensive Python. What makes Python fast for development -- this high-level, interpreted, and dynamically-typed aspect of the language -- is exactly what makes it slow for code execution.

• Jake VanderPlas, Losing Your Loops: Fast Numerical Computing with NumPy

What Do We Do?







- Python is slow for numerical computation because it performs dynamic dispatch on every operation we perform...
- ...but often, we just want to do the same thing over and over in a loop!
- If we don't need Python's dynamicism, we don't want to pay (much) for it.

• Idea: Dispatch once per operation instead of once per element.

```
In [29]: import numpy as np

data = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4])

Out[29]: array([1, 2, 3, 4])

In [30]: data + data

Out[30]: array([2, 4, 6, 8])
```

```
In [31]:
          %%time
          # Naive dot product
          (array_data * array_data).sum()
          CPU times: user 0 ns, sys: 0 ns, total: 0 ns
          Wall time: 408 µs
          333328333350000.0
Out[31]:
 In [32]:
          %%time
          # Built-in dot product.
          array_data.dot(array_data)
          CPU times: user 0 ns, sys: 0 ns, total: 0 ns
          Wall time: 162 μs
          333328333350000.0
Out[32]:
 In [33]:
          %%time
          fortran_dot_product(array_data, array_data)
          CPU times: user 0 ns, sys: 0 ns, total: 0 ns
          Wall time: 313 μs
          333328333350000.0
Out[33]:
```

```
In []: # We also can't grow an array once it's created.
data.append(3)

In []: # We **can** reshape an array though.
two_by_two = data.reshape(2, 2)
two_by_two
```

Numpy arrays are:

- Fixed-type
- Size-immutable
- Multi-dimensional
- Fast*

^{*} If you use them correctly.

What's in an Array?

Core Operations

- Vectorized **ufuncs** for elementwise operations.
- Fancy indexing and masking for selection and filtering.
- Aggregations across axes.
- Broadcasting

UFuncs

UFuncs (universal functions) are functions that operate elementwise on one or more arrays.

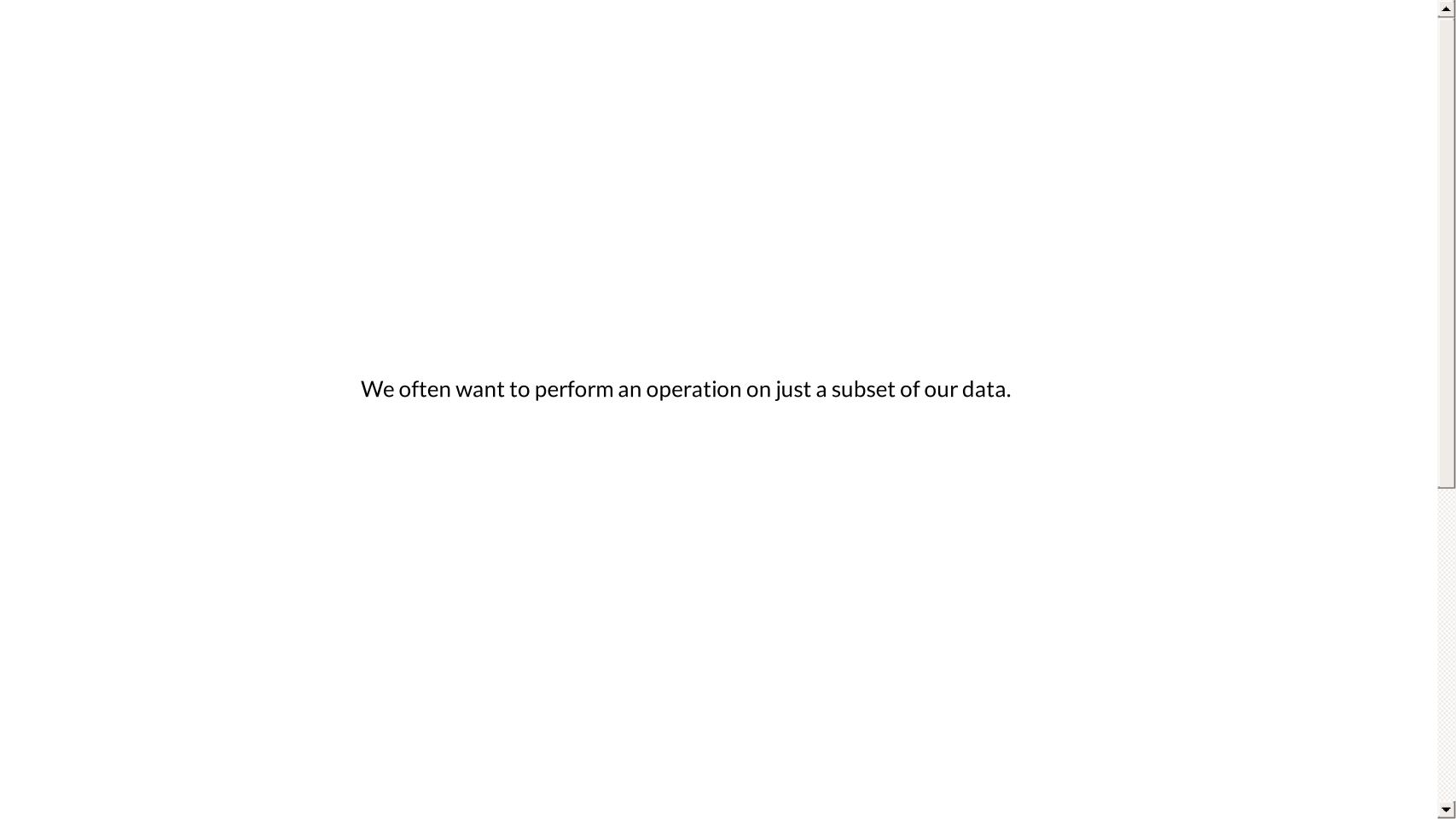
```
In [36]: data = np.arange(15).reshape(3, 5) data

Out[36]: array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4], [ 5, 6, 7, 8, 9], [ 10, 11, 12, 13, 14]])
```

UFuncs Review

- UFuncs provide efficient elementwise operations applied across one or more arrays.
- Arithmetic Operators (+,*,/)
- Comparisons (==, >, !=)
- Boolean Operators (&, |, ^)
- Trigonometric Functions (sin, cos)
- Transcendental Functions (exp, log)

Selections



0.98496101, 0.8665558, 0.64373604, 0.34335012, 0.00159265])

```
# Slicing works with the same semantics as Python lists.
In [43]:
          sines[0]
          0.0
Out[43]:
In [44]:
         sines[:3] # First three elements
          array([ 0.
                      , 0.34185385, 0.64251645])
Out[44]:
In [45]:
         sines[5:] # Elements from 5 on.
          array([ 0.98496101, 0.8665558, 0.64373604, 0.34335012, 0.00159265])
Out[45]:
In [46]: sines[::2] # Every other element.
          array([ 0.
                      , 0.64251645, 0.98468459, 0.8665558, 0.34335012])
Out[46]:
```

```
In [49]: # Index arrays are often used for sorting one or more arrays.
    unsorted_data = np.array([1, 3, 2, 12, -1, 5, 2])

In [50]: sort_indices = np.argsort(unsorted_data)
    sort_indices

Out[50]: array([4, 0, 2, 6, 1, 5, 3])

In [51]: unsorted_data[sort_indices]

Out[51]: array([-1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 5, 12])
```

```
In [54]:
         # Indexers are also useful for aligning data.
         print("Dates:\n", repr(event dates))
         print("Values:\n", repr(event values))
         print("Calendar:\n", repr(calendar))
         Dates:
         array(['2017-01-06', '2017-01-07', '2017-01-08'], dtype='datetime64[D]')
         Values:
         array([10, 15, 20])
         Calendar:
         array(['2017-01-03', '2017-01-04', '2017-01-05', '2017-01-06',
             '2017-01-09', '2017-01-10', '2017-01-11', '2017-01-12',
             '2017-01-13', '2017-01-17', '2017-01-18', '2017-01-19'
             '2017-01-20', '2017-01-23', '2017-01-24', '2017-01-25',
             '2017-01-26', '2017-01-27', '2017-01-30', '2017-01-31', '2017-02-01'], dtype='datetime6
         4[D]')
In [55]:
         print("Raw Dates:", event dates)
         print("Indices:", calendar.searchsorted(event dates))
         print("Forward-Filled Dates:", calendar[calendar.searchsorted(event_dates)])
         Raw Dates: ['2017-01-06' '2017-01-07' '2017-01-08']
         Indices: [3 4 4]
         Forward-Filled Dates: ['2017-01-06' '2017-01-09' '2017-01-09']
```

On multi-dimensional arrays, we can slice along each axis independently.

```
data = np.arange(25).reshape(5, 5)
 In [56]:
           data
            array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
Out[56]:
                [ 5, 6, 7, 8, 9],
[10, 11, 12, 13, 14],
[15, 16, 17, 18, 19],
                [20, 21, 22, 23, 24]])
           data[:2,:2] # First two rows and first two columns.
 In [57]:
           array([[0, 1],
Out[57]:
                [5, 6]])
 In [58]:
           data[:2, [0, -1]] # First two rows, first and last columns.
            array([[0, 4],
Out[58]:
                [5, 9]])
           data[(data[:, 0] \% 2) == 0] \# Rows where the first column is divisible by two.
 In [59]:
            array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
Out[59]:
                [10, 11, 12, 13, 14],
                [20, 21, 22, 23, 24]])
```

Selections Review

- Indexing with an integer removes a dimension.
- Slicing operations work on Numpy arrays the same way they do on lists.
- Indexing with a boolean array filters to True locations.
- Indexing with an integer array selects indices along an axis.
- Multidimensional arrays can apply selections independently along different axes.

Reductions

Functions that reduce an array to a scalar.

$$Var(X) = \sqrt{2}\sqrt{2}$$

```
In [60]: def variance(x): return ((x - x.mean()) ** 2).sum() / len(x)
```

In [61]: variance(np.random.standard_normal(1000))

Out[61]: 1.0638195544963331

- sum() and mean() are both reductions.
- In the simplest case, we use these to reduce an entire array into a single value...

```
In [62]: data = np.arange(30) data.mean()
```

Out[62]: 14.5

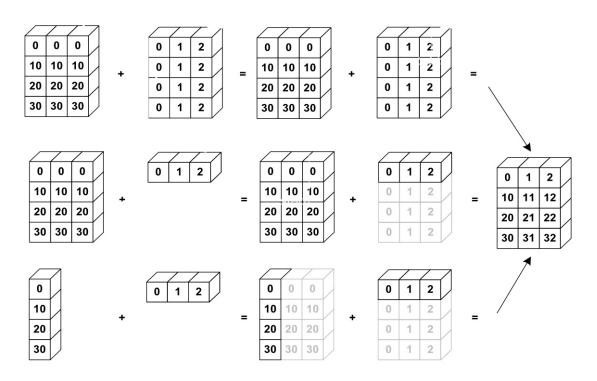
• ...but we can do more interesting things with multi-dimensional arrays.

```
In [63]:
           data = np.arange(30).reshape(3, 10)
           data
           array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9], [10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19],
Out[63]:
                [20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29]])
 In [64]:
           data.mean()
           14.5
Out[64]:
           data.mean(axis=0)
 In [65]:
           array([ 10., 11., 12., 13., 14., 15., 16., 17., 18., 19.])
Out[65]:
In [66]:
           data.mean(axis=1)
           array([ 4.5, 14.5, 24.5])
Out[66]:
```

Reductions Review

- Reductions allow us to perform efficient aggregations over arrays.
- We can do aggregations over a single axis to collapse a single dimension.
- Many built-in reductions (mean, sum, min, max, median, ...).

Broadcasting



Source: http://www.scipy-lectures.org/_images/numpy_broadcasting.png

```
In [69]: # Broadcasting is particularly useful in conjunction with reductions.

print("Data:\n", data, sep=")
print("Mean:\n", data.mean(axis=0), sep=")
print("Data - Mean:\n", data - data.mean(axis=0), sep=")

Data:

[[ 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9]
[10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19]
[20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29]]

Mean:

[ 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19.]
Data - Mean:
[[-10.-10.-10.-10.-10.-10.-10.-10.-10.]
[ 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.]
[ 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10.]]
```

Broadcasting Review

- Numpy operations can work on arrays of different dimensions as long as the arrays' shapes are still "compatible".
- Broadcasting works by "tiling" the smaller array along the missing dimension.
- The result of a broadcasted operation is always at least as large in each dimension as the largest array in that dimension.

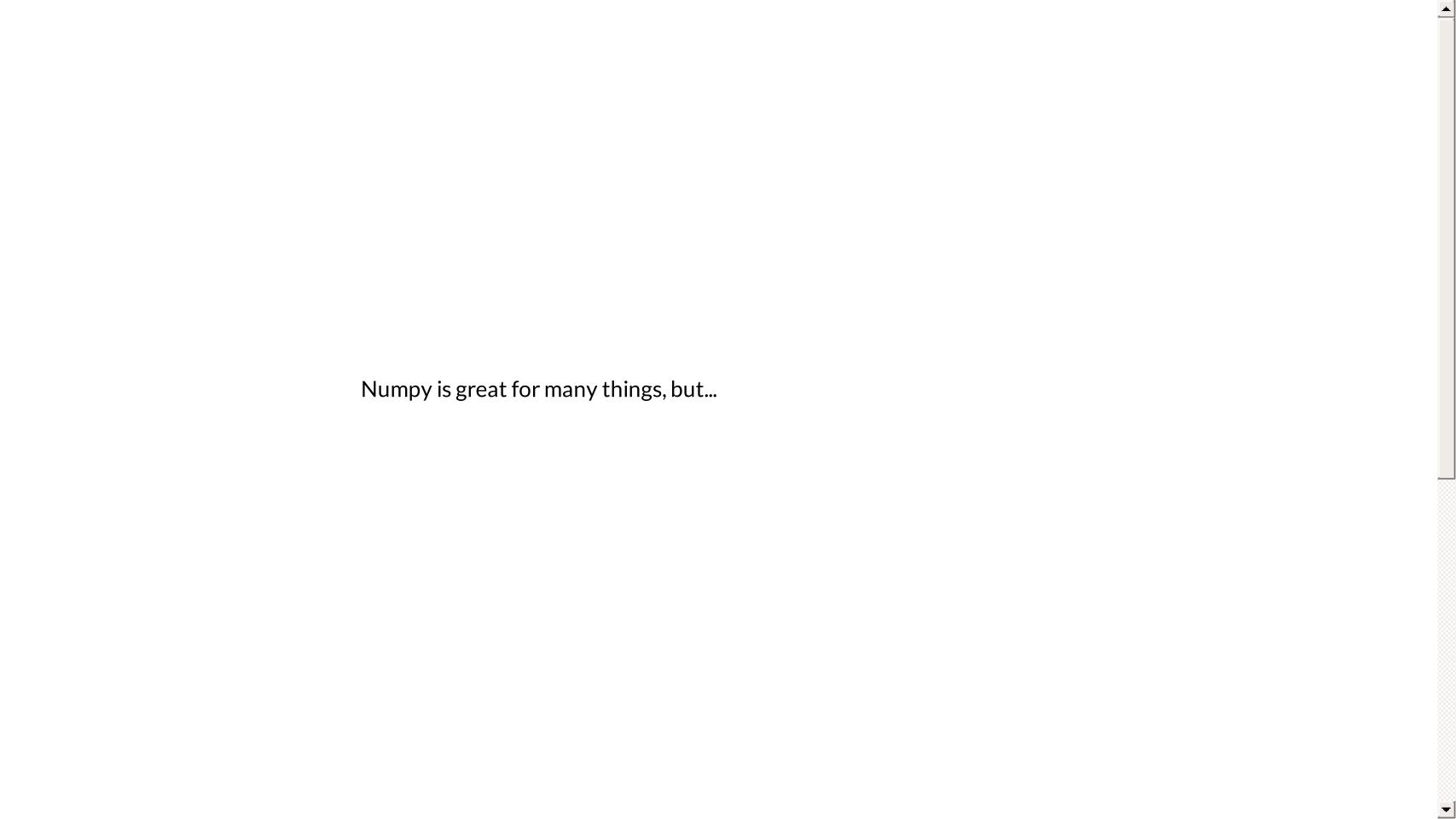
Numpy Review

- Numerical algorithms are slow in pure Python because the overhead dynamic dispatch dominates our runtime.
- Numpy solves this problem by:
 - 1. Imposing additional restrictions on the contents of arrays.
 - 2. Moving the inner loops of our algorithms into compiled C code.
- Using Numpy effectively often requires reworking an algorithms to use vectorized operations instead of for-loops, but the resulting operations are usually simpler, clearer, and faster than the pure Python equivalent.









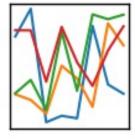
- Sometimes our data is equipped with a natural set of **labels**:
 - Dates/Times
 - Stock Tickers
 - Field Names (e.g. Open/High/Low/Close)
- Sometimes we have **more than one type of data** that we want to keep grouped together.
 - Tables with a mix of real-valued and categorical data.
- Sometimes we have **missing** data, which we need to ignore, fill, or otherwise work around.



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Pandas extends Numpy with more complex data structures:

- Series: 1-dimensional, homogenously-typed, labelled array.
- DataFrame: 2-dimensional, semi-homogenous, labelled table.

Pandas also provides many utilities for:

- Input/Output
- Data Cleaning
- Rolling Algorithms
- Plotting

Selection in Pandas

```
In [70]: s = pd.Series(index=['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e'], data=[1, 2, 3, 4, 5])

Out[70]: a 1
b 2
c 3
d 4
e 5
dtype: int64
```

```
In [71]: # There are two pieces to a Series: the index and the values.

print("The index is:", s.index)
print("The values are:", s.values)

The index is: Index(['a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e'], dtype='object')
The values are: [1 2 3 4 5]
```

```
In [72]: # We can look up values out of a Series by position...

Out[72]: 1

In [73]: # ... or by label.
s.loc['a']

Out[73]: 1
```

```
In [74]: # Slicing works as expected...
s.iloc[:2]

Out[74]: a 1
b 2
dtype: int64

In [75]: # ...but it works with labels too!
s.loc[:'c']

Out[75]: a 1
b 2
c 3
dtype: int64
```

```
In [76]: # Fancy indexing works the same as in numpy.
s.iloc[[0, -1]]

Out[76]: a 1
e 5
dtype: int64

In [77]: # As does boolean masking.
s.loc[s > 2]

Out[77]: C 3
d 4
e 5
dtype: int64
```

```
In [78]: # Element-wise operations are aligned by index.
other_s = pd.Series({'a': 10.0, 'c': 20.0, 'd': 30.0, 'z': 40.0})
            other_s
            a 10.0
Out[78]:
            c 20.0
               30.0
            z 40.0
            dtype: float64
In [79]: s + other_s
            a 11.0
Out[79]:
                NaN
               23.0
               34.0
                NaN
                NaN
            dtype: float64
```

```
In [80]: # We can fill in missing values with fillna().
(s + other_s).fillna(0.0)

Out[80]: a 11.0
b 0.0
c 23.0
d 34.0
e 0.0
z 0.0
dtype: float64
```

In [81]:

Most real datasets are read in from an external file format.
aapl = pd.read_csv('AAPL.csv', parse_dates=['Date'], index_col='Date')
aapl.head()

Out[81]:

	Adj Close	Close	High	Low	Open	Volume
Date						
2010- 01-04	27.613066	30.572857	30.642857	30.340000	30.490000	123432400.0
2010- 01-05	27.660807	30.625713	30.798571	30.464285	30.657143	150476200.(
2010- 01-06	27.220825	30.138571	30.747143	30.107143	30.625713	138040000.(
2010- 01-07	27.170504	30.082857	30.285715	29.864286	30.250000	119282800.(
2010- 01-08	27.351143	30.282858	30.285715	29.865715	30.042856	111902700.(

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In [82]: # Slicing generalizes to two dimensions as you'd expect: aapl.iloc[:2,:2]

Out[82]:

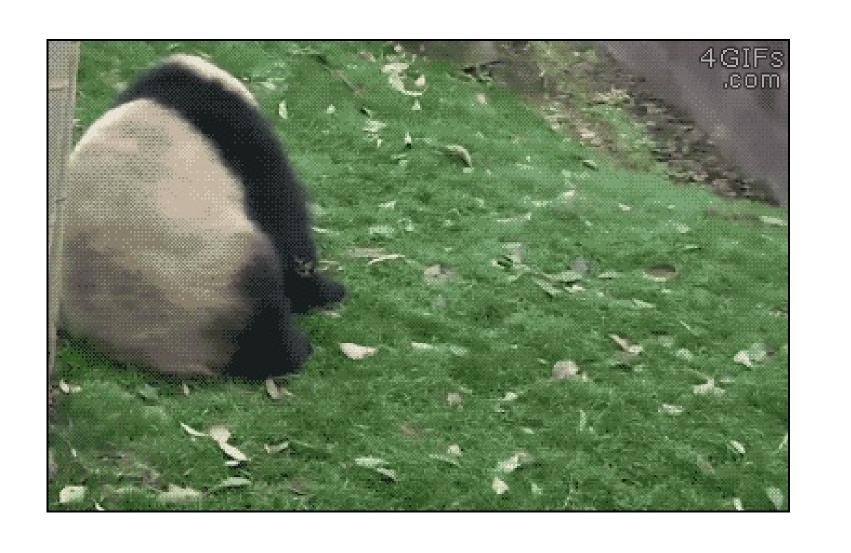
	Adj Close	Close
Date		
2010-01-04	27.613066	30.572857
2010-01-05	27.660807	30.625713

In [83]: aapl.loc[pd.Timestamp('2010-02-01'):pd.Timestamp('2010-02-04'), ['Close', 'Volume']]

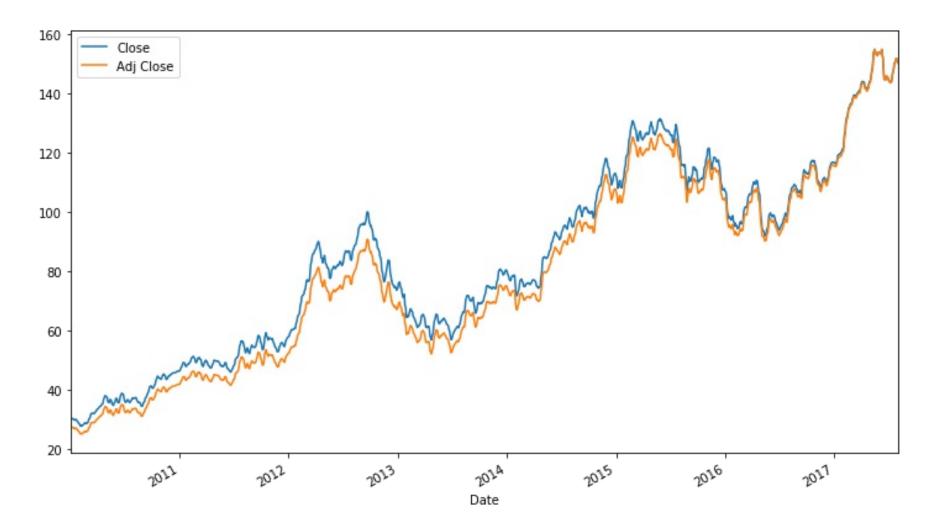
Out[83]:

	Close	Volume
Date		
2010-02-01	27.818571	187469100.0
2010-02-02	27.980000	174585600.0
2010-02-03	28.461428	153832000.0
2010-02-04	27.435715	189413000.0

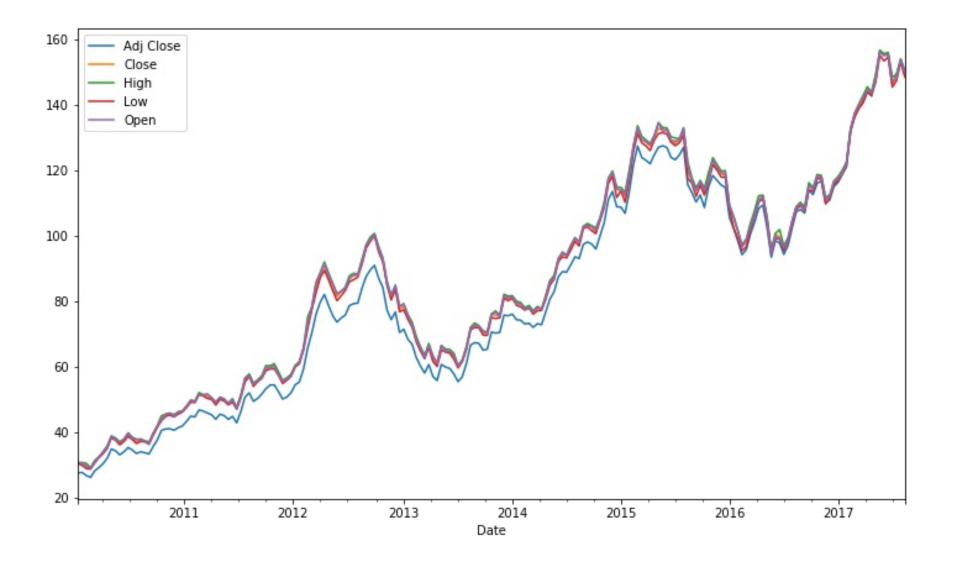
Rolling Operations



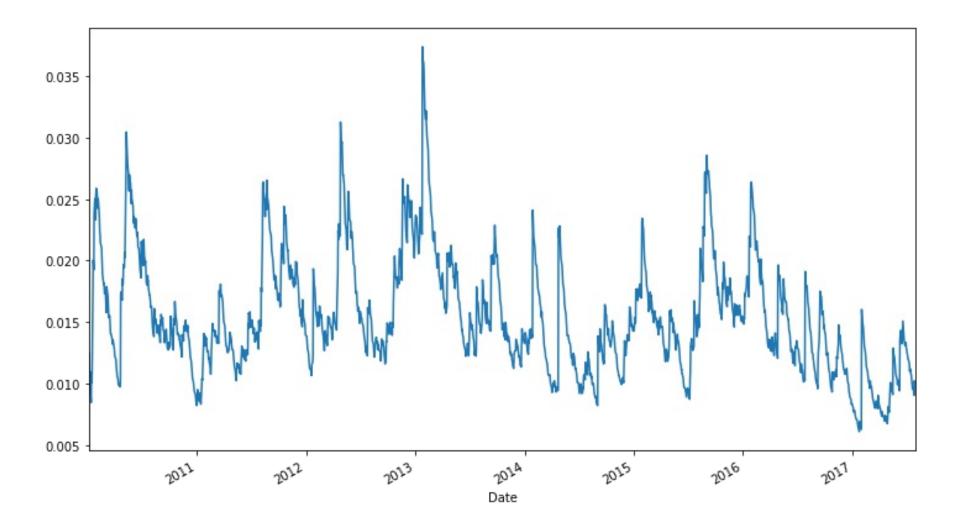
In [89]: aapl.rolling(5)[['Close', 'Adj Close']].mean().plot();



In [90]: # Drop `Volume`, since it's way bigger than everything else.
aapl.drop('Volume', axis=1).resample('2W').max().plot();



In [91]: # 30-day rolling exponentially-weighted stddev of returns.
aapl['Close'].pct_change().ewm(span=30).std().plot();



"Real World" Data

In [95]: **from demos.avocados import** read_avocadata

avocados = read_avocadata('2014', '2016')
avocados.head()

Out[95]:

	Date	Region	Variety	Organic	Number of Stores	Weighted Avg Price	Low Price
0	2014-01-03 00:00:00+00:00	NATIONAL	HASS	False	9184	0.93	NaN
1	2014-01-03 00:00:00+00:00	NATIONAL	HASS	True	872	1.44	NaN
2	2014-01-03 00:00:00+00:00	NORTHEAST	HASS	False	1449	1.08	0.5
3	2014-01-03 00:00:00+00:00	NORTHEAST	HASS	True	66	1.54	1.5
4	2014-01-03 00:00:00+00:00	SOUTHEAST	HASS	False	2286	0.98	0.5

In [96]: # Unlike numpy arrays, pandas DataFrames can have a different dtype for each column. avocados.dtypes

Out[96]: Date datetime64[ns, UTC]

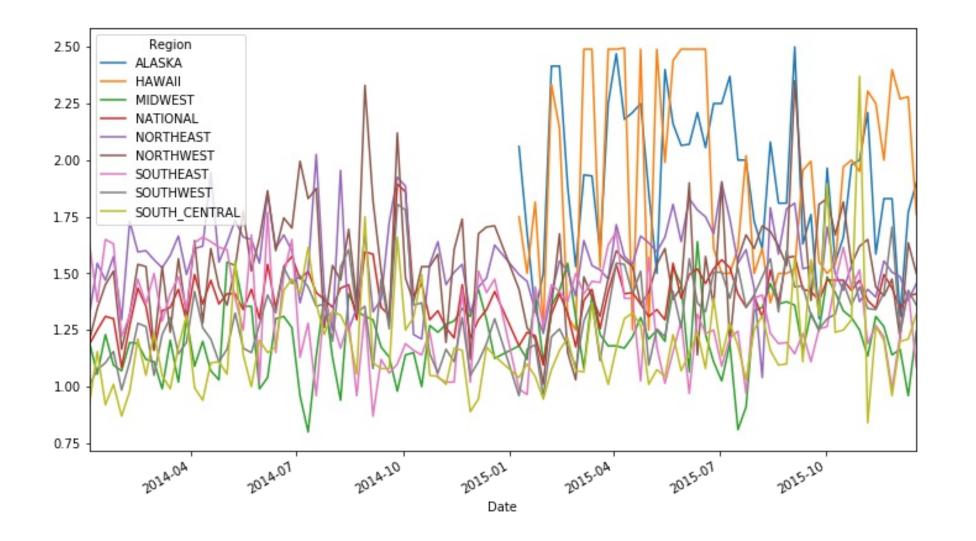
Region object Variety object Organic bool

Number of Stores int64
Weighted Avg Price float64
Low Price float64

High Price float64

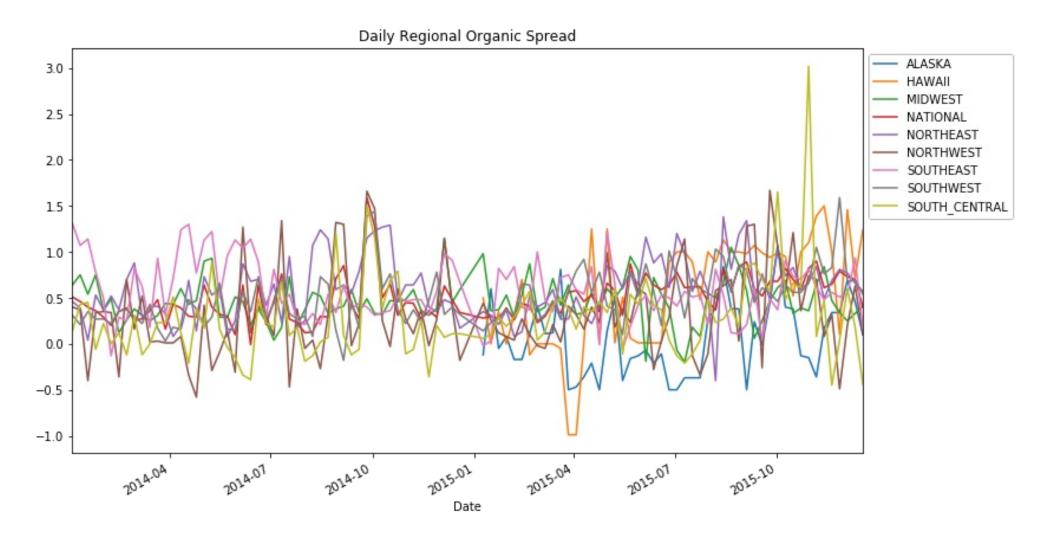
dtype: object

In [97]: # What's the regional average price of a HASS avocado every day?
hass = avocados[avocados.Variety == 'HASS']
hass.groupby(['Date', 'Region'])['Weighted Avg Price'].mean().unstack().ffill().plot();



```
def _organic_spread(group):
In [98]:
             if len(group.columns) != 2:
               return pd.Series(index=group.index, data=0.0)
             is_organic = group.columns.get_level_values('Organic').values.astype(bool)
            organics = group.loc[:, is_organic].squeeze()
non_organics = group.loc[:, ~is_organic].squeeze()
             diff = organics - non organics
             return diff
          def organic_spread_by_region(df):
             """What's the difference between the price of an organic
             and non-organic avocado within each region?
             return (
               df
               .set_index(['Date', 'Region', 'Organic'])
                ['Weighted Avg Price']
               .unstack(level=['Region', 'Organic'])
               .ffill()
               .groupby(level='Region', axis=1)
               .apply(_organic_spread)
```

In [102]: organic_spread_by_region(hass).plot(); plt.gca().set_title("Daily Regional Organic Spread"); plt.legend(bbox_to_anchor=(1, 1));



In [100]:

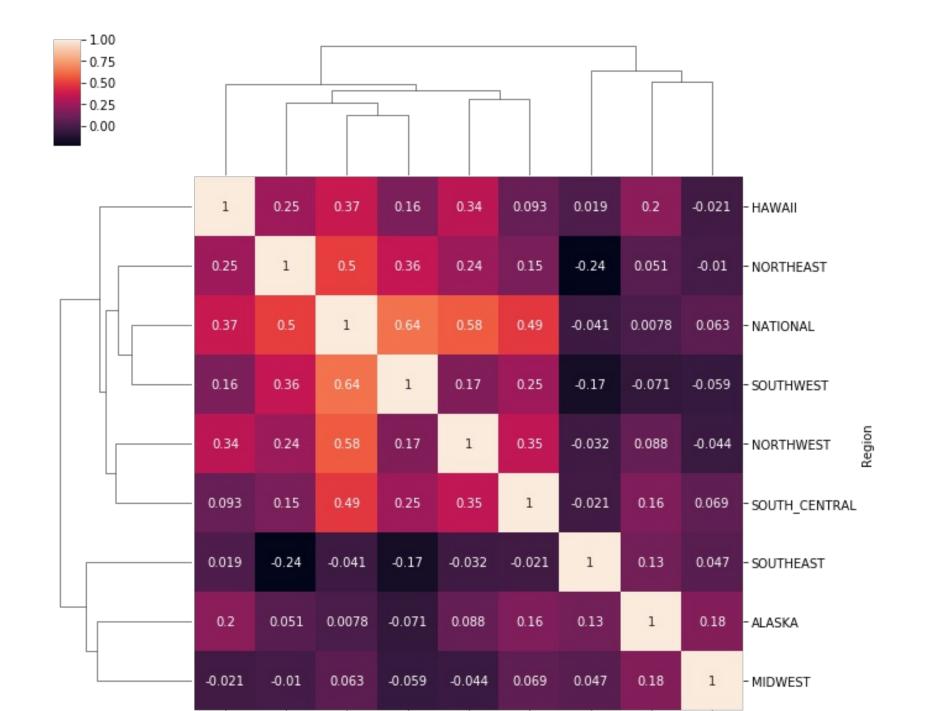
spread_correlation = organic_spread_by_region(hass).corr()
spread_correlation

Out[100]:

Region	ALASKA	HAWAII	MIDWEST	NATIONAL	NORTHEAS'
Region					
ALASKA	1.000000	0.202723	0.175251	0.007844	0.051049
HAWAII	0.202723	1.000000	-0.021116	0.373914	0.247171
MIDWEST	0.175251	-0.021116	1.000000	0.062595	-0.010213
NATIONAL	0.007844	0.373914	0.062595	1.000000	0.502035
NORTHEAST	0.051049	0.247171	-0.010213	0.502035	1.000000
NORTHWEST	0.087575	0.341155	-0.043783	0.579102	0.242039
SOUTHEAST	0.129079	0.019388	0.047437	-0.040539	-0.236225
SOUTHWEST	-0.070868	0.159192	-0.059128	0.635006	0.360389
SOUTH_CENTRAL	0.161624	0.092632	0.068902	0.486524	0.149881

4

In [149]: import seaborn as sns
 grid = sns.clustermap(spread_correlation, annot=True)
 fig = grid.fig
 axes = fig.axes
 ax = axes[2]
 ax.set_xticklabels(ax.get_xticklabels(), rotation=45);



Pandas Review

- Pandas extends numpy with more complex datastructures and algorithms.
- If you understand numpy, you understand 90% of pandas.
- groupby, set_index, and unstack are powerful tools for working with categorical data.
- Avocado prices are surprisingly interesting:)

Thanks!