Introduction to IPython

Reference:

- Learning IPython for Interactive Computing and Data Visualization, Second Edition, by Cyrille Rossant
- Python for Data Analysis, by Wes McKinney
- Python Data Science Handbook: Essential Tools for Working with Data, by Jake VanderPlas, 2016

What is it?

- IPython Interactive Python
- Provides a convenient command-line interface to the scientific Python platform

Installing IPython

- Anaconda is a pre-packaged Python distribution that comes with many libraries for ML and data science
- Download from https://www.anaconda.com/download/
- We use Python 3

Starting Python

- On Windows, open Anaconda from the Start Menu and select Anaconda Prompt
- Type python
- Notice how prompt changes to >>>
- Type exit() to exit Python

```
Anaconda Prompt (anaconda3)

(base) C:\Users\Jamil>python
Python 3.8.3 (default, Jul 2 2020, 17:30:36) [MSC v.1916 64 bit (AMD64)] :: Anaconda, Inc. on win32
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.

>>>
>>> 2 + 3
5
>>> print("Hello")
Hello
>>> exit()
(base) C:\Users\Jamil>
```

Starting the IPython Console

- At the command prompt, type ipython
- Notice the prompt
- Type exit to exit ipython

```
Anaconda Prompt (anaconda3)

(base) C:\Users\Jamil>ipython
Python 3.8.3 (default, Jul 2 2020, 17:30:36) [MSC v.1916 64 bit (AMD64)]
Type 'copyright', 'credits' or 'license' for more information
IPython 7.16.1 -- An enhanced Interactive Python. Type '?' for help.

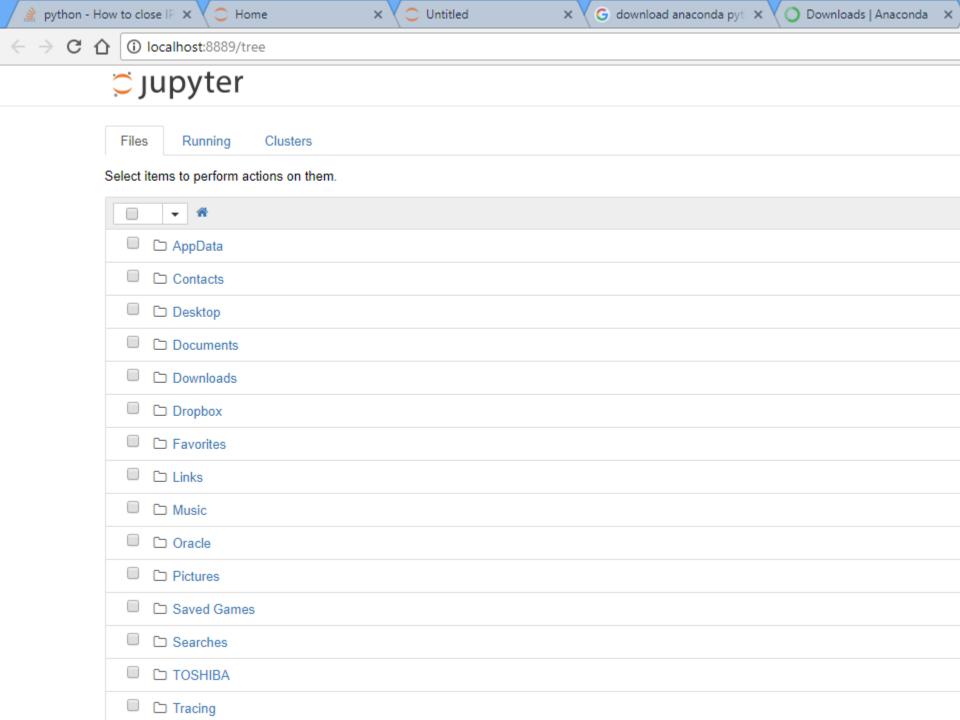
In [1]: 2 + 3
Out[1]: 5

In [2]: print("Hello")
Hello
In [3]: exit

(base) C:\Users\Jamil>______
```

Jupyter Notebook

- It comes with Anaconda ipython
- To start, at the command prompt type jupyter notebook
- This starts the Jupyter server and opens a new window in the browser at address localhost:8888



Closing the Notebook Server

 To close the notebook server, at the terminal window press Ctrl + C

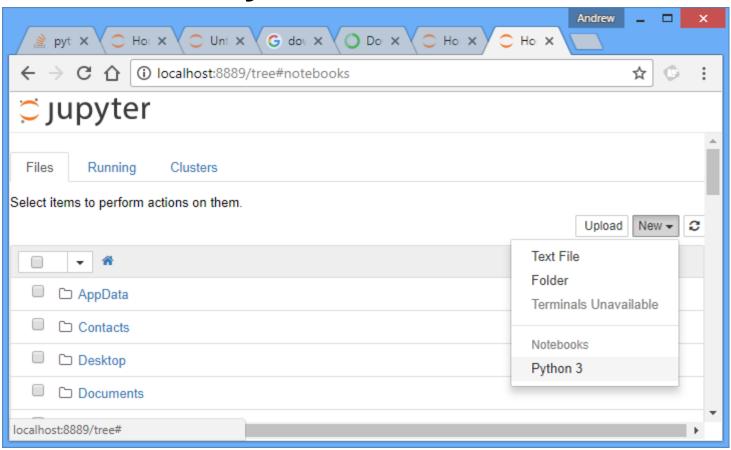
```
Anaconda Prompt (anaconda3)

To access the notebook, open this file in a browser:
    file:///C:/Users/Jamil/AppData/Roaming/jupyter/runtime/nbserver-8804-open.html
Or copy and paste one of these URLs:
    http://localhost:8888/?token=e49f683c30ed1540891c7944d563ba14a2a98c9c3117c661
or http://127.0.0.1:8888/?token=e49f683c30ed1540891c7944d563ba14a2a98c9c3117c661
[I 14:40:31.438 NotebookApp] Interrupted...
[I 14:40:31.439 NotebookApp] Shutting down 0 kernels

(base) C:\Users\Jamil>_
```

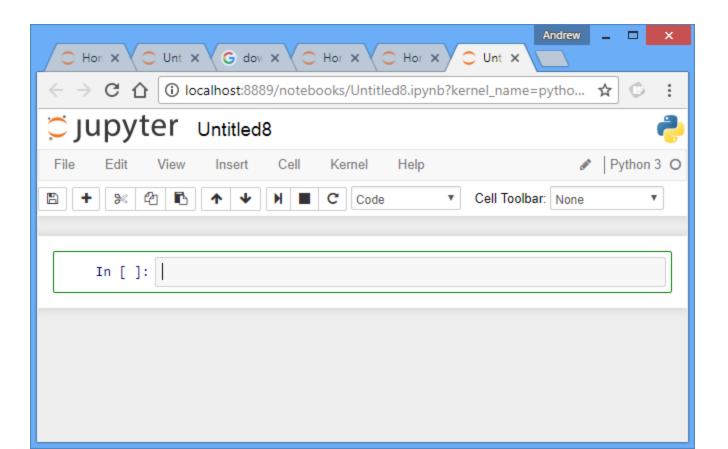
Starting a new notebook

 In the Files tab, click New, and click Notebooks Python 3



Starting a new notebook (cont)

 This opens a new browser tab with the new notebook as follows



Types of Cells

- A notebook consists of a linear list of cells
- There are two main types of cells:
- Markdown cells: contain rich text that you can format and can contain images, HTML code, Latex math equations, and more
 - Ex: next slide
- Code cells: contain code to be executed by ipython
 - Ex: slide after next

Markdown Cell

```
### New paragraph
This is *rich* **text** with [links](http://ipython.org), equations:

$$\hat{f}(\xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)\, \mathrm{e}^{-i} \xi x} dx$$

code with syntax highlighting:

""python
print("Hello world!")

and images:
![This is an image](http://jupyter.org/images/jupyter-sq-text.svg)
```

New paragraph

This is rich text with links, equations:

$$\hat{f}\left(\xi
ight) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) \, \mathrm{e}^{-i \xi x} dx$$

code with syntax highlighting:

```
print("Hello world!")
```

and images:



Code Cell

```
In [1]: import numpy as np
                                                              Input area
Prompt import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
number %matplotlib inline
         print("Hello world!")
         plt.imshow(np.random.rand(20, 20), interpolation='none');
         from IPython.display import display html
         from IPython.html.widgets import FloatSlider
         display html('sometable', raw=True)
         FloatSlider(value=70)
Widget
                                              70
area
         Hello world! Standard output
Output
                                                                               Error output
         :0: FutureWarning: IPython widgets are experimental and may change in the future.
area
          some table
                         Rich output
          15
```

Magic commands

- Magic commands allow us to interact with the file system
- Magic commands start with %

```
In [1]:%pwd
```

Out[1]: 'c:\\TEACHING\\Summer\\17\\minibook-2nd\\chapter1'

In [2]: %cd chapter1\facebook

Out[2]: c:\TEACHING\Summer\17\minibook-2nd\chapter1\facebook

In [3]: %ls

Running Python Scripts from IPython

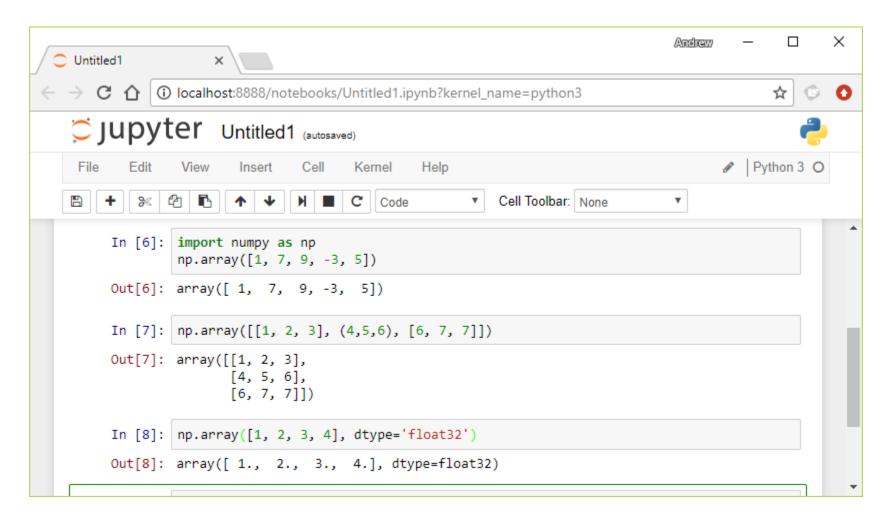
 Suppose we have a program saved in the file factorial.py that is located in the current directory. You can execute the file using any of these commands

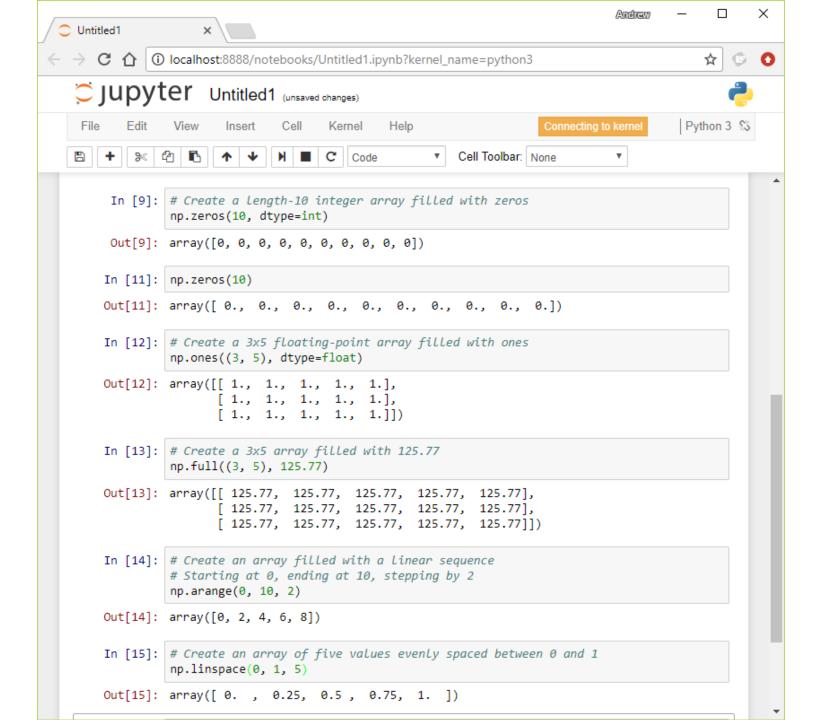
```
In [3]: !ipython factorial.py
120
3628800
In [4]: !python factorial.py
120
3628800
In [5]:%run factorial.py
120
3628800
```

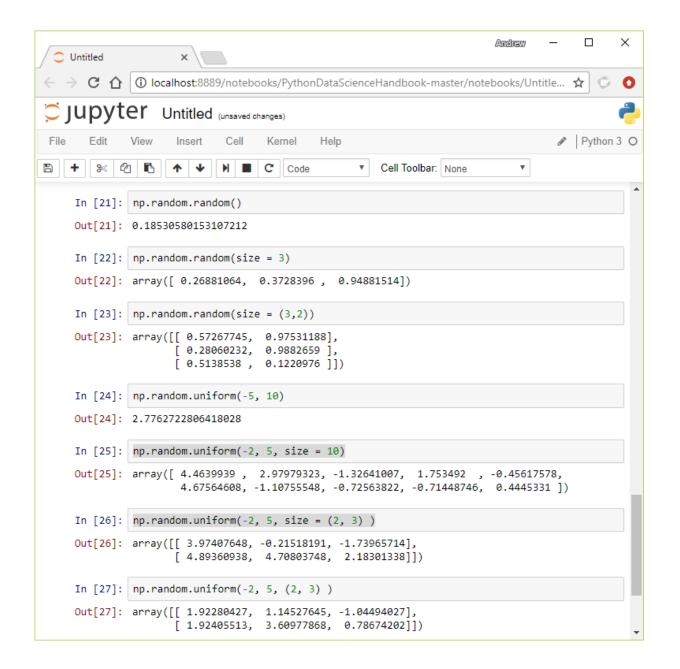
NumPy

- NumPy stands for Numerical Python
- NumPy provides a multidimensional array data structure (ndarray)
- NumPy arrays are more efficient than Python's lists
- Many operations are performed on an element-wise basis
 - called vector (or vectorized) operations

Creating Arrays







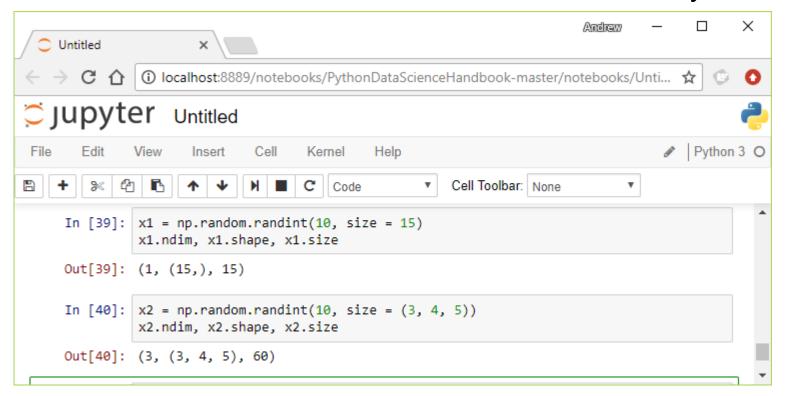
np.random.randint(low, high = None, size = None) generates random integers from [low, high) If high is None (the default), then results are from [0, low) × Untitled → C ↑ ① localhost:8889/notebooks/PythonDataScienceHandbook-master/notebooks/Unti... ☆ jupyter Untitled Python 3 O Edit View Insert Cell Kernel Help Cell Toolbar: None Code ₹ In [36]: np.random.randint(1, 5) Out[36]: 3 In [37]: np.random.randint(1, 5, size = (3, 4)) Out[37]: array([[4, 2, 4, 4], [1, 2, 2, 4], [3, 3, 1, 1]]) In [38]: np.random.randint(5, size = 10) Out[38]: array([0, 2, 3, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 0, 1])

NumPy Standard Data Types

Data type	Description
bool_	Boolean (True or False) stored as a byte
int_	Default integer type (same as C long; normally either int64 or int32)
intc	Identical to C int (normally int32 or int64)
intp	Integer used for indexing (same as C ssize_t; normally either int32 or int64)
int8	Byte (-128 to 127)
int16	Integer (-32768 to 32767)
int32	Integer (-2147483648 to 2147483647)
int64	Integer (-9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807)
uint8	Unsigned integer (0 to 255)
uint16	Unsigned integer (0 to 65535)
uint32	Unsigned integer (0 to 4294967295)
uint64	Unsigned integer (0 to 18446744073709551615)
float_	Shorthand for float64.
float16	Half precision float: sign bit, 5 bits exponent, 10 bits mantissa
float32	Single precision float: sign bit, 8 bits exponent, 23 bits mantissa
float64	Double precision float: sign bit, 11 bits exponent, 52 bits mantissa
complex_	Shorthand for complex128.
complex64	Complex number, represented by two 32-bit floats
complex128	Complex number, represented by two 64-bit floats

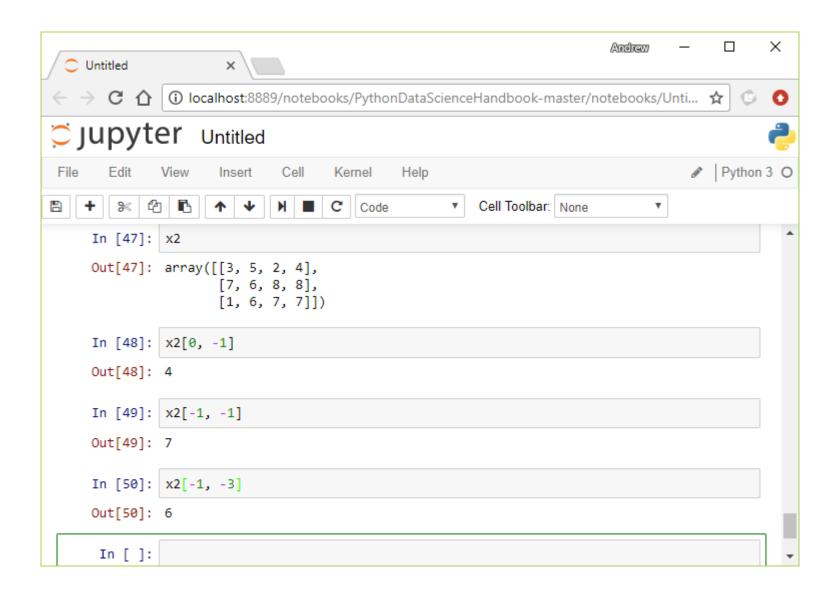
NumPy Array Attributes

- ndim: number of dimensions
- shape: the number of elements in each dimension
- size: the total number of elements in the array



Array Indexing

```
In [41]: np.random.seed(0) # seed for reproducibility
         x1 = np.random.randint(10, size=6) # One-dimensional array
         x2 = np.random.randint(10, size=(3, 4)) # Two-dimensional array
         x1
Out[41]: array([5, 0, 3, 3, 7, 9])
In [42]: x2
Out[42]: array([[3, 5, 2, 4],
                [7, 6, 8, 8],
                [1, 6, 7, 7]])
In [43]: x1[0]
Out[43]: 5
In [44]: x1[-1]
Out[44]: 9
In [45]: x2[1, 2]
Out[45]: 8
In [46]: x2[(1, 2)]
Out[46]: 8
```



Array Slicing: Accessing Subarrays

```
Cell Toolbar: None
     In [51]: x = np.arange(10)
     Out[51]: array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
     In [52]: x[:5]
     Out[52]: array([0, 1, 2, 3, 4])
     In [53]: x[5:]
     Out[53]: array([5, 6, 7, 8, 9])
     In [54]: x[3:7]
     Out[54]: array([3, 4, 5, 6])
     In [55]: x[::2]
     Out[55]: array([0, 2, 4, 6, 8])
     In [56]: x[::-1]
     Out[56]: array([9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, 0])
```

Multidimensional Arrays

```
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Cell Toolbar: None
     In [64]: x2 = np.arange(12).reshape(3,4)
     Out[64]: array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3],
                     [4, 5, 6, 7],
                     [8, 9, 10, 11]])
     In [65]: x2[0:2, 1:3]
     Out[65]: array([[1, 2],
                     [5, 6]])
     In [66]: x2[2,:]
     Out[66]: array([ 8, 9, 10, 11])
     In [67]: x2[:,2]
     Out[67]: array([ 2, 6, 10])
     In [68]: x2[2]
     Out[68]: array([ 8, 9, 10, 11])
```

Subarrays as no-copy views: Unlike in Standard Python, array slices return views rather than copies of the array data

```
Cell Toolbar: None
     In [72]: x2
     Out[72]: array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3],
                    [4, 5, 6, 7],
                    [8, 9, 10, 11]])
     In [73]: x2_{sub} = x2[:,1:3]
              x2 sub
     Out[73]: array([[ 1, 2],
                    [5, 6],
                    [ 9, 10]])
     In [74]: x2 sub[0,0] = -125
              x2 sub
     Out[74]: array([[-125, 2],
                    [ 5, 6],
                    [ 9, 10]])
     In [75]: x2
     Out[75]: array([[ 0, -125, 2,
                                      3],
                                      7],
                             9, 10,
                                       11]])
```

Creating copies of arrays: use the copy() method

```
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                                        Help
                                             ۳
Cell Toolbar: None
    In [76]: x2
    Out[76]: array([[ 0, -125, 2,
                                    3],
                      4, 5, 6, 7],
                     8, 9, 10, 11]])
     In [77]: x2_{sub} = x2[:,1:3].copy()
     In [78]: x2_sub
    Out[78]: array([[-125, 2],
                   [ 5, 6],
                   [ 9, 10]])
     In [79]: x2_{sub}[0, 0] = 10
             x2_sub
     Out[79]: array([[10, 2],
                   [5, 6],
                   [ 9, 10]])
     In [80]: x2
     Out[80]: array([[ 0, -125, 2, 3],
                              6, 7],
                           9, 10,
                                     11]])
```

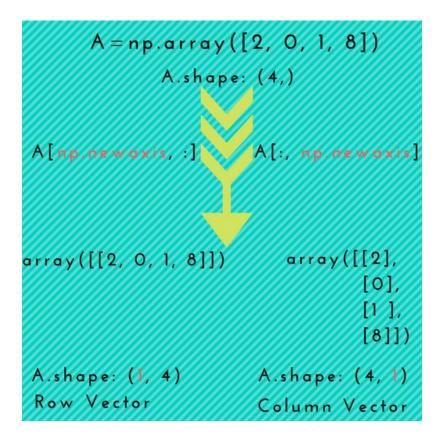
Reshaping of Arrays

```
Cell Toolbar: None
     In [85]: x = np.arange(1,13).reshape(3,4)
     Out[85]: array([[ 1, 2, 3, 4],
                      [5, 6, 7, 8],
                      [ 9, 10, 11, 12]])
     In [86]: vector = np.arange(1,6)
               vector
     Out[86]: array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
     In [87]: row vector = vector.reshape(1,5)
               row vector
     Out[87]: array([[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]])
     In [88]: row_vector.shape
     Out[88]: (1, 5)
     In [89]: column vector = vector.reshape(5,1)
               column_vector
     Out[89]: array([[1],
                      [2],
                      [3],
                      [4],
                      [5]])
     In [90]: column_vector.shape
     Out[90]: (5, 1)
```

Does reshape create a view or a copy of the original array?

```
N Run ■ C >
                                         Code
In [25]: y = np.arange(1, 5)
         y.reshape(2,2)
Out[25]: array([1, 2, 3, 4])
In [26]: x = y.reshape(2,2)
Out[26]: array([[1, 2],
                [3, 4]])
In [27]: y
Out[27]: array([1, 2, 3, 4])
In [28]: x[0, 0] = -5
Out[28]: array([[-5, 2],
                [3, 4]])
In [29]: y
Out[29]: array([-5, 2, 3, 4])
 In [ ]:
```

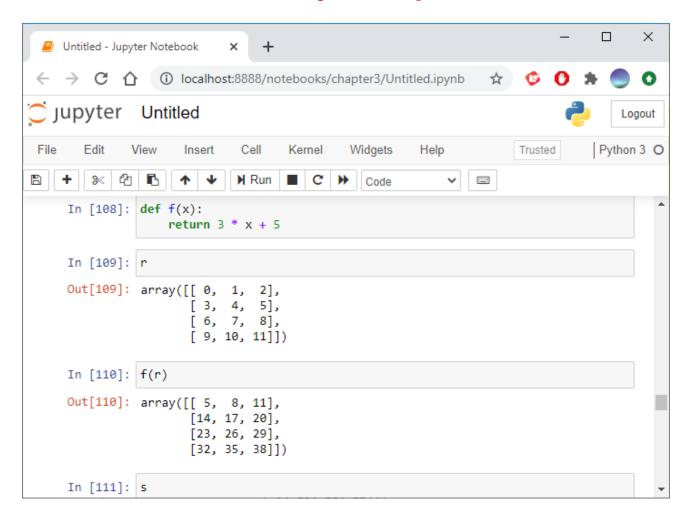
We can use np.newaxis to increase the dimension of an array by one dimension



Vector Operations on Arrays

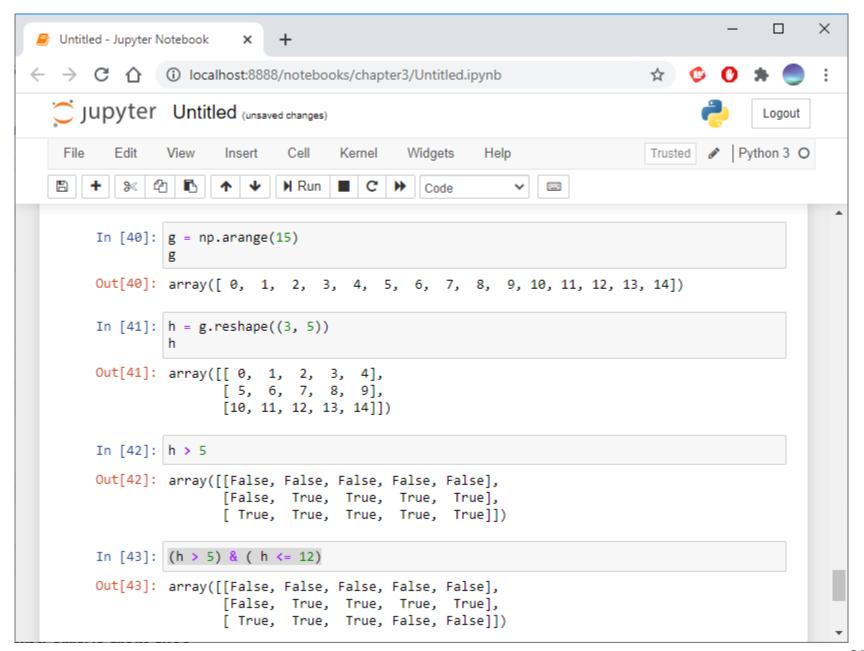
```
Cell Toolbar: None
     In [98]: a = np.ones(12).reshape(3, 4)
     Out[98]: array([[ 1., 1., 1., 1.],
                    [ 1., 1., 1., 1.],
                    [1., 1., 1., 1.]])
     In [99]: b = np.arange(1,13).reshape(3,4)
     Out[99]: array([[ 1, 2, 3, 4],
                   [5, 6, 7, 8],
                    [ 9, 10, 11, 12]])
    In [100]: a + b
    Out[100]: array([[ 2., 3., 4., 5.],
                    [ 6., 7., 8., 9.],
                    [ 10., 11., 12., 13.]])
    In [101]: a * 5
    Out[101]: array([[ 5., 5., 5., 5.],
                    [5., 5., 5., 5.],
                    [5., 5., 5., 5.]])
    In [102]: 2 ** b
    Out[102]: array([[ 2, 4, 8, 16],
                    [ 32, 64, 128, 256],
                    [ 512, 1024, 2048, 4096]], dtype=int32)
```

Using User-Defined Functions with ndarray Objects



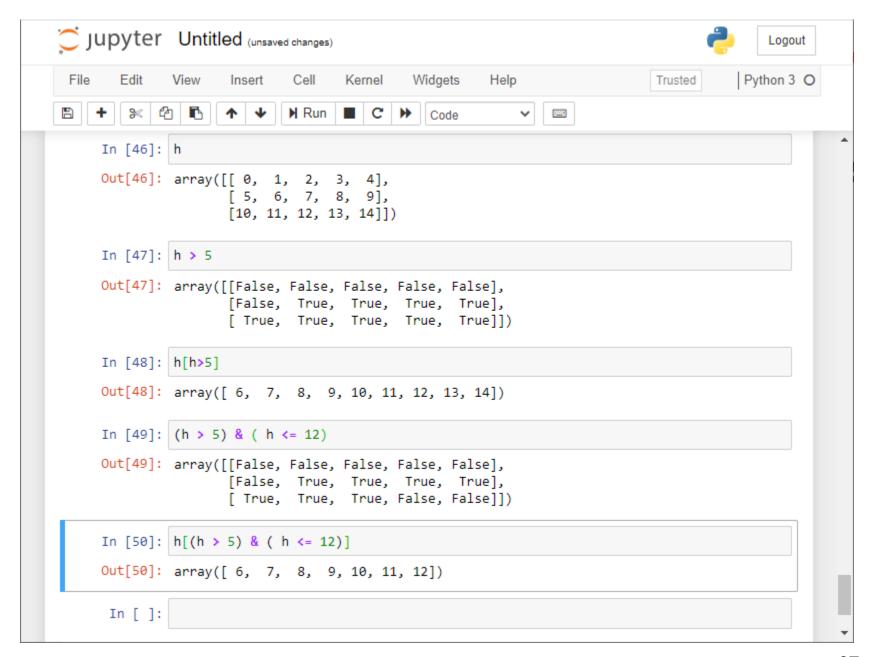
Boolean Operations on Arrays

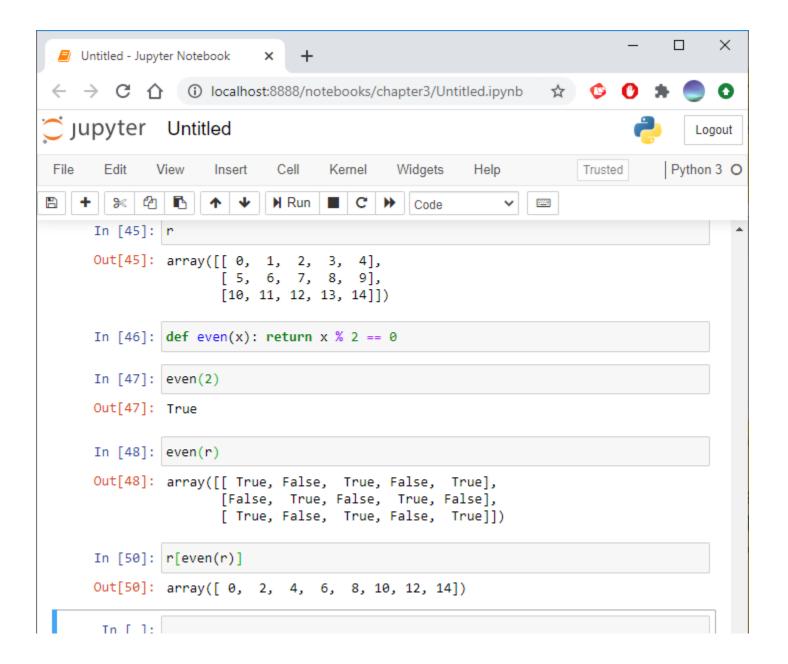
- Comparison and logical operations in ndarray objects work on an element-wise basis
- Evaluating conditions yield by default a Boolean ndarray object
- Use the bitwise logical operators (&, |, ^, ~) to perform element-wise logical operations



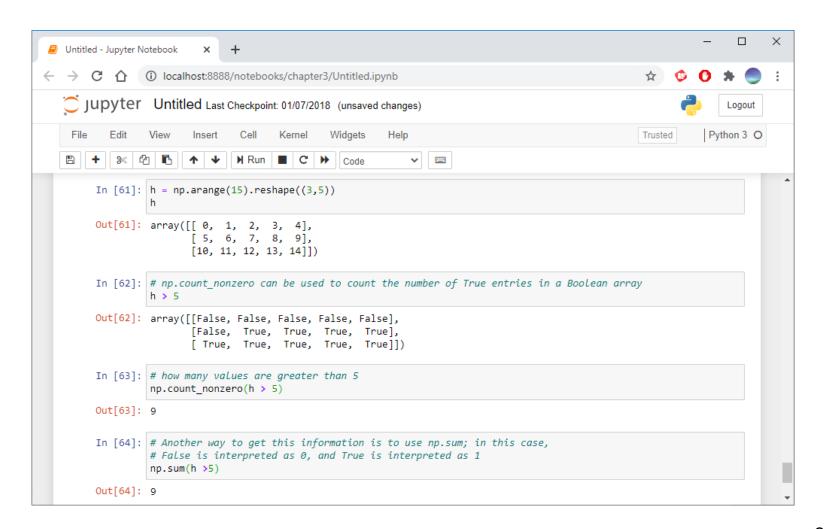
Boolean Arrays as Masks

 Boolean arrays can be used as masks, to select particular subsets of the data





Counting Entries

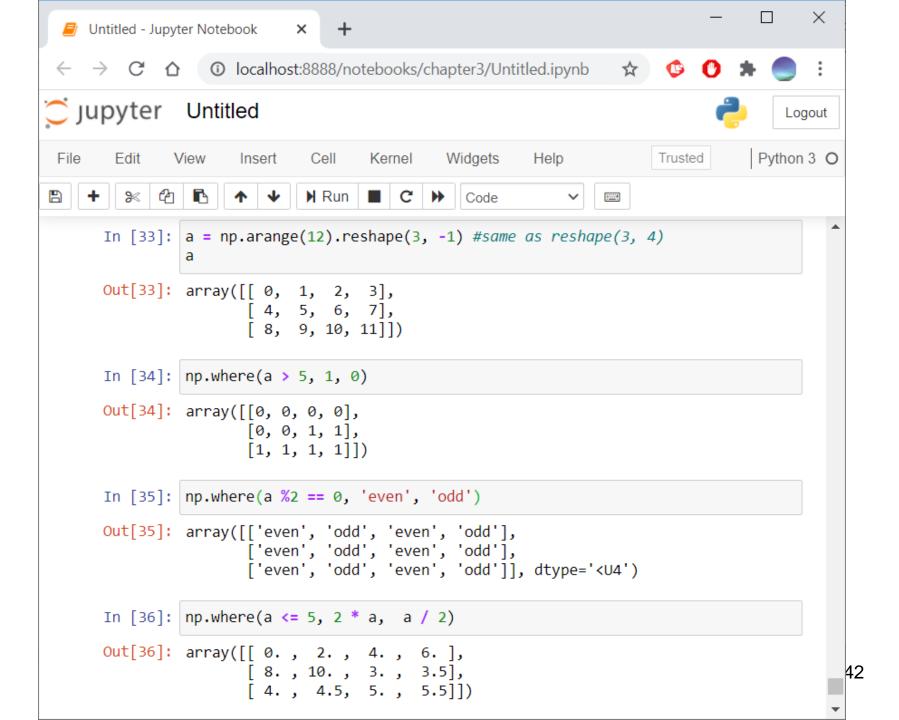


np.any() and np.all()

```
Fymon 3 O
               miseri cell Kemel Widgets Help
              ↑ ↓ HRun ■ C → Code
                                                  ~
In [91]: h
Out[91]: array([[ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
               [5, 6, 7, 8, 9],
               [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]])
In [92]: # are there any values greater than 5?
        np.any(h > 5)
Out[92]: True
In [93]: # are all values <= 10?
        np.all(h <= 10)
Out[93]: False
In [94]: # is any value == 100?
         np.any(h == 100)
Out[94]: False
In [95]: # are all values != 15?
         np.all(h != 15)
Out[95]: True
In [96]: # is an value between 10 and 20?
         np.any((h >= 10) & (h <= 20))
Out[96]: True
```

np.where()

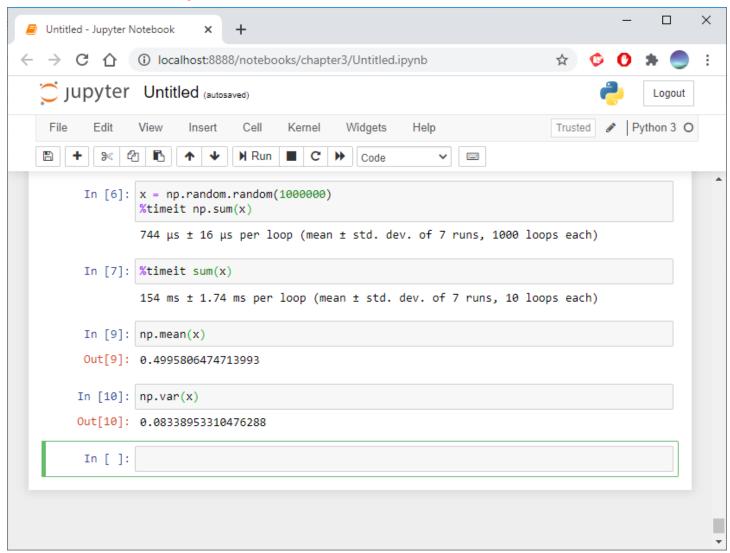
- The np.where() function, allows the definition of actions depending on whether a condition is True or False
- The result of applying np.where() is a new ndarray object of the same shape as the original one



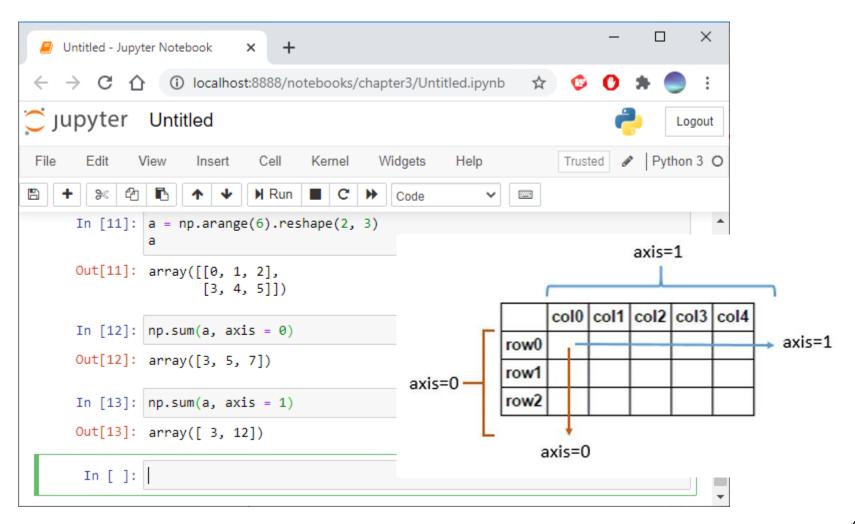
Aggregate Functions

- They are useful to compute summary statistics for large data
- NumPy provides many functions for this including: sum, max, min, mean, std, var, median
- These functions are faster than their Python counterparts

NumPy functions are faster than their Python counterparts

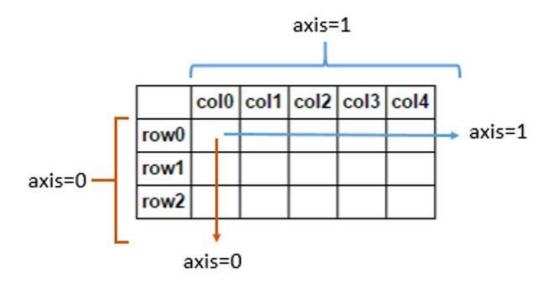


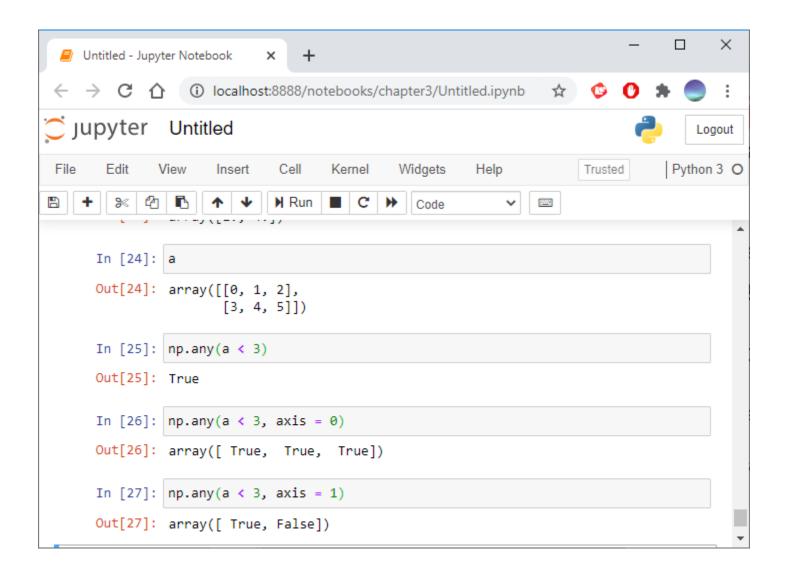
Applying Aggregate Functions to Rows/Columns of 2D Array



More on Axis/Axes

- In multidimensional arrays, there is an axis per dimension (ex: a[3,1, 2])
- First axis runs across the rows, second axis runs across the columns
- When an aggregate function is be applied along an axis, think about the axis as the dimension of the array that will be collapsed, rather than the dimension that will be returned
 - In case of axis=0, 1st dimension is collapsed; i.e., NumPy performs the action on elements of each column
 - If axis=1, NumPy performs the action on rows
- Another way to think about axis is as the direction along which the operation is performed





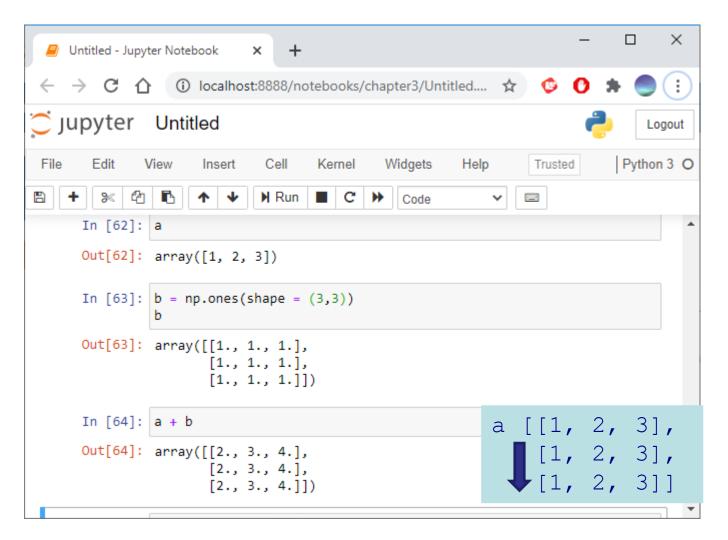
Broadcasting

 For arrays of the same shape, binary operations are performed on an elementby-element basis

 Broadcasting allows binary operations to be performed on arrays of different sizes

```
In [2]: a + 2
Out[2]: array([3, 4, 5])
[1, 2, 3] + [2, 2, 2]
```

Broadcasting (cont.)



Rules of Broadcasting

 A set of rules that control what happens when a binary operation is applied to two arrays of different shapes

Rules of Broadcasting - Rule 1

 Rule 1: If the two arrays differ in their number of dimensions, the shape of the array with fewer dimensions is padded with ones on its leading (left) side

```
a = np.arange(12).reshape(3, 4)
b = np.array([1 , 2 , 3, 4])
a + b

a.shape = (3, 4)
b.shape = (4,)
```

Rule 1 applies:

```
b.shape \rightarrow (1, 4)
```

Rules of Broadcasting – Rule 2

 Rule 2: If the shape of the two arrays does not match in any dimension, the array with shape equal to 1 in that dimension is stretched to match the other shape

```
a = np.arange(12).reshape(3, 4)
b = np.array([1 , 2 , 3, 4]).reshape(1,4)
a + b

a.shape = (3, 4)
b.shape = (1, 4)
b [[1, 2, 3, 4]]
```

Rule 2 applies to the array b

Rules of Broadcasting (cont.)

 Rule 3: If in any dimension the sizes disagree and neither is equal to 1, an error is raised

```
a = np.arange(12).reshape(3, 4)
b = np.array([1 , 2 , 3, 4]).reshape(2,2)
a + b
a.shape = (3, 4)
b.shape = (2, 2)
```

By rule 3, the arrays a and b are not compatible

Broadcasting Example 1

Consider adding the following two arrays

M is [[1, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1]] a is [0, 1, 2]

The shapes of the arrays are

```
M.shape = (2, 3)
a.shape = (3, )
```

By rule 1, array a has fewer dimensions, so we pad its shape on the left by ones:

M is [[1, 1, 1],

```
M.shape \rightarrow (2, 3) a.shape \rightarrow (1, 3)
```

M is [[1, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1]] a is [[0, 1, 2]]

 By rule 2, the shape of the two arrays do not match on the first dimension, so we stretch this dimension in a to

match:

```
M.shape -> (2, 3) a.shape -> (2, 3)
```

Broadcasting Example 2

Consider adding the following two arrays

```
a = np.arange(3)
b = np.arange(3).reshape(3, 1)
```

The shapes of the arrays are

```
a.shape = (3,)
b.shape = (3,1)
```

a is [0, 1, 2] b is [[0], [1], [2]

• By rule 1, we pad the shape of a on the left by 1s:

```
a.shape \rightarrow (1, 3) a [[0, 1, 2]]
b.shape -> (3, 1)
```

```
[[0],
 [1],
 [2]]
```

 By rule 2, we upgrade each of these ones to match the corresponding size of the other array:

```
a.shape \rightarrow (3, 3)
b.shape -> (3, 3)
```

```
[0, 1, 2],
[0, 1, 2]]
```

```
Now the two arrays have
the same shape and can
be added
```

```
a + b is [[0, 1, 2],
           [1, 2, 3],
           [2, 3, 4]]
```

Broadcasting Example 3

Consider adding the following two arrays

```
In [3]: M = np.ones((3, 2))
        a = np.arange(3)
```

```
M is [[1, 1],
     [1, 1],
     [1, 1]]
a is [0, 1, 2]
```

The shapes of the arrays are

```
M.shape = (3, 2)
a.shape = (3,)
```

By rule 1, we pad array a by 1s on the left:

```
M.shape -> (3, 2)
a.shape \rightarrow (1, 3) a is [[0, 1, 2]]
```

```
M [[1, 1],
   [1, 1],
    [1, 1]]
```

By rule 2, the first dimension of a is stretched to match

```
that of M: M.shape -> (3, 2) a [[0, 1, 2], M [[1, 1],
```

```
a.shape \rightarrow (3, 3) [0, 1, 2], [1, 1], [0, 1, 2]]
```

56

Now rule 3 applies, the two arrays do not match on the second dimension and neither is equal to 1, so the two arrays are not compatible