


# Basics of Python

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# How to get Python & Anaconda?



## What is ANACONDA?

**ANACONDA is packaged software...**

**ANACONDA = BASE PYTHON + IDE's (Jupyter Notebook, Spyder) + Frequently Used Packages (700+) + ...**

## How to get Python?

There are two ways to get Python.

**Base Python:**

- ✓ You can download Python from the [www.python.org/downloads](http://www.python.org/downloads).
- ✓ Once it down loaded, you can install the python
- ✓ Ensure that you have pip installed which is the package manager for Python and will enable you to easily install 3rd party packages that you'll need to perform data science tasks.

**ANACONDA:**

Free enterprise-ready cross platform Python distribution for large- scale data processing, predictive analytics, and scientific computing.

**Download here** <https://www.anaconda.com/products/individual#windows>

We use ANACONDA for our sessions

## How to Run Python Code?

### How to run Python Code?

3 ways to run the python interpreter from the terminal window:

- type 'python'
- type 'ipython'
- type 'python helloworld.py'

4<sup>th</sup> Ways is Using any IDE like Jupyter, Spider, Pycharm, Canopy, Rodeo etc.

We are using Jupyter notebook as part of our training,

## Introduction to Python packages & Package Managers

### Python: Package Managers

**PyPI – Python Package Index (<https://pypi.org/>)** - online repository of modules that are accepted by the Python community.

PyPI holds a record for each (name, version) combination submitted

Over 113,000 Python packages can be accessed through PyPI.

Do read about **pip** and **conda** - both of which will act as your package/library managers.

Knowing python version: `python --version`

To install libraries that aren't part of the Anaconda distribution, you will be using commands such as

- `pip --version`
- `Pip list` gives list of packages installed in your machine
- `pip install ggplot`
- `conda install ggplot`
- `pip install 'PackageName==1.4` for installing specific version of package
- `pip uninstall ggplot` for uninstall the library
- `pip install --upgrade ggplot` for update the library with new version
- `pip install -r requirements.txt` for installing multiple packages in one go by writing list in requirements.txt

## What do you mean Python Basics?

### Python Basic programming topics

- ✓ Basic Rules (Syntax Rules, naming conventions, comments)
- ✓ Declaring & Printing variables (assignment)
- ✓ Modules (Libraries) – Types of Libraries – installation of new modules
- ✓ Data Types
  - ✓ numeric (int, float, decimal, boolean, date time)
  - ✓ character/object/string/nchar/varchar (alphabets, alpha numeric, numbers, special chars)
  - ✓ Type conversion – Type casting
- ✓ Basic Operators (Assignment, Airthematic, Assignment + Airthematic, Relational/conditional, logical/bitwise operators)
- ✓ Control flow statements
  - ✓ Control Flow with if, elif, else, ternary if
  - ✓ Loops: for, while (entry controlled,
- ✓ Dealing with Strings & Dates
- ✓ Data Structures (numeric, string, tuple, list, dictionary, set)
- ✓ Objects, Methods, Attributes and Functions, Using built-in functions
- ✓ Working with Collections - List, Tuple, Set & Dictionary
- ✓ Functions – User defined functions - Lambda & apply functions
- ✓ **Classes & Modules**

## Python: Basic Rules

### Comments:

Any text preceded by the hash mark (pound sign) # is ignored by the Python interpreter.

### Whitespace Formatting (Indentation):

Many languages like R, C++, Java, and Perl use curly braces to delimit blocks of code. Python uses whitespace indentation to make code more readable and consistent. A colon denotes the start of an indented code block after which all of the code must be indented by the same amount

One major reason that whitespace matters is that it results in most Python code looking cosmetically similar, which means less cognitive dissonance when you read a piece of code that you didn't write yourself.

Python uses indentation for blocks, instead of curly braces. Both tabs and spaces are supported, but the standard indentation requires standard Python code to use four spaces. For example

## Declaring & Printing variables

Variables are dynamically typed, so no need to mention the variable types. Python interpreter can automatically infer the type when the variables are initialized. The simplest directive in Python is the "print" directive - it simply prints out a line

```
In [1]: var1 = 2
        var2 = 5.0
```

```
In [2]: var1
```

```
Out[2]: 2
```

```
In [3]: type( var1 )
```

```
Out[3]: int
```

```
In [4]: type( var2 )
```

```
Out[4]: float
```

```
In [5]: print( var1 )
```

```
2
```

```
In [6]: mystring = 'This is python'
        print( mystring )
```

```
This is python
```

```
In [7]: print( var1, var2, mystring )
```

```
2 5.0 This is python
```

There is a difference between Python 2 and 3 for the print statement. In Python 2, the "print" statement is not a function, and therefore it is invoked without parentheses. However, in Python 3, it is a function, and must be invoked with parentheses.

## Objects, Methods, Attributes and Functions

Every number, string, data structure, function, class, module, and so on exists in the Python interpreter is referred to as a **Python object**.

Each object has an associated

- **type** (int, float, list, dict, str and so on ...)
- attached functions, known as **methods**,
  - these have access to the object's internal data.
  - They can be called using the syntax: *obj.<method>(parameters)*
- **attributes** which can be accessed with the syntax: *obj.attribute*

"Functions are called using parentheses and passing zero or more arguments, optionally assigning the returned value to a variable: *result = f(x, y, z)*"

*Let's discuss classes & objects later once we have done some basic topics in python*

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## Built in functions

Functions comes with python base version, called built in functions.

Example: round()

```
In [12]: round( 1.234 )
```

```
Out[12]: 1
```

Round upto a number of decimal values

```
In [13]: round( 1.234, 2 )
```

```
Out[13]: 1.23
```

To invoke some functions that package

```
In [14]: import math
```

For example import a math function

```
In [15]: math.ceil( 1.2 )
```

```
Out[15]: 2
```

```
In [16]: math.floor( 1.2 )
```

```
Out[16]: 1
```

```
In [17]: abs( -1.2 )
```

```
Out[17]: 1.2
```

```
In [18]: # Get the variable type
         type( var1 )
```

```
Out[18]: int
```

```
In [19]: pow( var1 , 2 )
```

```
Out[19]: 4
```

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## Modules (Libraries) - Packages

Certain functions in Python are not loaded by default.

These include both features included as part of the language as well as third-party features that you download explicitly. In order to use these features, you'll need to **import the modules** that contain them.

> In Python a module is simply a .py file containing function and variable definitions. You

can import the module itself as: `import pandas`

But after this you'll have to always access its functions by prefixing them with the module name,

For example `pandas.Series()`

Alternatively, we can provide an alias: `import pandas as pd`

This will save us some typing as we can then write `pd.Series()` to refer to the same thing.

Another option is to import frequently used functions explicitly and use them without any prefixes. For example,  
`from pandas import Series`

**Tip:** Importing everything from a module is possible, but is considered bad practice as it might interfere with variable names and function definitions in your working environment.

So **avoid** doing things like: `from pandas import *`

## Modules (Libraries) - Packages

### Exploring built-in modules:

- ✓ Two very important functions come in handy when exploring modules in Python - the `dir` and `help` functions.
- ✓ We can look for which functions are implemented in each module by using the `dir` function
- ✓ When we find the function in the module we want to use, we can read about it more using the `help` function, inside the Python interpreter

### Writing modules

- ✓ Writing Python modules is very simple. To create a module of your own, simply create a new .py file with the module name, and then import it using the Python file name (without the .py extension) using the `import` command.

### Writing packages

- ✓ Packages are namespaces which contain multiple packages and modules themselves. They are simply directories, but with a twist.
- ✓ Each package in Python is a directory which **MUST** contain a special file called `__init__.py`. This file can be empty, and it indicates that the directory it contains is a Python package, so it can be imported the same way a module can be imported.
- ✓ If we create a directory called `foo`, which marks the package name, we can then create a module inside that package called `bar`. We also must not forget to add the `__init__.py` file inside the `foo` directory.



# Data Types

Python supports two types of numbers - integers and floating point numbers. (It also supports complex numbers, which will not be explained in this tutorial).

Python has a small set of built-in types for handling numerical data, strings, boolean (True or False) values, and dates and time. These include

- *None* - The Python Null Value
- *str, unicode* - for strings
- *int* - signed integer whose maximum value is platform dependent.
- *long* - large ints are automatically converted to long
- *float* - 64-bit (double precision) floating point numbers
- *bool* - a True or False value

You could call the function *type* on an object to check if it is an int or float or string etc.  
**Type Conversion** can be achieved by using functions like *int()*, *float()*, *str()* on objects of other types.

# Basic Operators: Arithmetic using binary Operators

Just as any other programming languages, the addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division operators can be used with numbers. Most of the binary math operations and comparisons are as you might expect:

1 + 23; 5 - 7; 'This' + 'That'

**Operation Description**

a + b	Add a and b
a - b	Subtract b from a
a * b	Multiply a by b
a / b	Divide a by b
a // b	Floor-divide a by b, dropping any fractional remainder
a ** b	Raise a to the b power
a & b	True if both a and b are True. For integers, take the bitwise AND.
a   b	True if either a or b is True. For integers, take the bitwise OR.
a ^ b	For booleans, True if a or b is True, but not both. For integers, take the bitwise EXCLUSIVE-OR.
a == b	True if a equals b
a != b	True if a is not equal to b
a <= b	True if a is less than (less than or equal) to b
a < b a > b	True if a is greater than (greater than or equal) to b
a >= b a is b	True if a and b reference same Python object
a is not b	True if a and b reference different Python objects

## Arithmetic using Binary Operators

### Strings

"Many people use Python for its powerful and flexible built-in string processing capabilities. You can write string literal using either single quotes or double quotes, but multiline strings are defined with triple quotes. The difference between the two is that using double quotes makes it easy to include apostrophes

```
a = 'one way of writing a string' b = "another way"
c = """This is a multiline string"""
```

Strings are

- **sequences** of characters, and so can be treated like other Python sequences (for iteration)
- **immutable**, you cannot modify them in place without creating a new string
- can contain escape characters like `\n` or `\t`
  - there's a workaround if you want backslashes in your string: prefix it with **r** (for **raw**)
- **concatenated** by the `+` operator, try `'This' + ' '` and `' ' + 'That'`

Here I will highlight a few cool **string methods** as a teaser to what you can do with Python

```
my_str = 'a, b, c, d, e'
my_str.replace('b', 'B')
my_str.split(',') '-'.join(my_str.split(', '))
```

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## Arithmetic using Binary Operators

### Strings Formatting:

Python uses C-style string formatting to create new, formatted strings. The `"%"` operator is used to format a set of variables enclosed in a "tuple" (a fixed size list), together with a format string, which contains normal text together with "argument specifiers", special symbols like `"%s"` and `"%d"`.

Let's say you have a variable called "name" with your user name in it, and you would then like to print(out a greeting to that user.)

```
# This prints out "Hello, ALabs!"
name = "ALabs"
print("Hello,%s!" % name)
```

To use two or more argument specifiers, use a tuple (parentheses):

```
# This prints out "ALabs is 4 years old."
name = "ALabs"
age = 4
print("%s is %d years old." % (name, age))
```

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## Arithmetic using Binary Operators

### Strings Formatting:

Any object which is not a string can be formatted using the %s operator as well. The string which returns from the "repr" method of that object is formatted as the string.

For example:

```
# This prints out: A list: [1, 2, 3]
mylist = [1, 2, 3]
print("A list: %s" % mylist)
```

Here are some basic argument specifiers you should know:

- %s - String (or any object with a string representation, like numbers)
- %d - Integers
- %f - Floating point numbers
- %<number of digits>f - Floating point numbers with a fixed amount of digits to the right of the dot.
- %x/%X - Integers in hex representation (lowercase/uppercase)

## Dealing with strings - Examples

```
In [91]: string0 = 'python'
         string1 = "Data Science"
         string2 = '''This is Data science
                    workshop
                    using Python'''
```

```
In [92]: print( string0, string1, string2)

python Data Science This is Data science
workshop
using Python
```

```
In [93]: string2.find( "Python" )
```

```
Out[93]: 53
```

```
In [94]: string0.capitalize()
```

```
Out[94]: 'Python'
```

```
In [95]: string0.upper()
```

```
Out[95]: 'PYTHON'
```

```
In [96]: len( string2 )
```

```
Out[96]: 59
```

```
In [97]: string2.split()
```

```
Out[97]: ['This', 'is', 'Data', 'science', 'workshop', 'using', 'Python']
```

```
In [98]: string2.replace( 'Python', 'R' )
```

```
Out[98]: 'This is Data science \n          workshop\n          using R'
```

## Control Flow with if, elif, else

Python uses boolean variables to evaluate conditions. The boolean values True and False are returned when an expression is compared or evaluated.

"The if statement is one of the most well-known control flow statement types. It checks a condition which, if True, evaluates the code in the block that follows:

```
if x < 0:
    print 'It's negative'
```

An if statement can be optionally followed by one or more elif blocks and a catch-all else block if all of the conditions are False:

```
if x < 0:
    print 'It's negative'
elif x == 0:
    print 'Equal to zero'
elif 0 < x < 5:
    print 'Positive but smaller than 5'
else:
    print 'Positive and larger than or equal to 5'
```

If any of the conditions is True, no further elif or else blocks will be reached.

```
In [28]: x = 10
         y = 12
         if x > y:
             print ("x>y")
         elif x < y:
             print ("x<y")
         else:
             print ("x=y")

x<y
```

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## Compound Logic

We can write **compound logic** using boolean operators like **and**, **or**. Remember that conditions are evaluated left-to-right and will short circuit, i.e, if a True is found in an **or** statement, the remaining ones will not be tested.

```
if 5 < 10 or 8 > 9:
    print 'The second condition was ignored.'
```

You can also write a **ternary if-then-else** on one line, which sometimes helps keep things concise, These statements called as inline statements

```
parity = "even" if x % 2 == 0 else "odd"
```

### Inline conditional statements

```
In [29]: a = 0 if x > 10 else 1
```

```
In [30]: a
```

```
Out[30]: 1
```

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## Control flow statements - Loops

There are two types of loops in Python, **for** and **while**.

**for Loops:** For loops iterate over a given sequence.

These are meant for iteration tasks over a collection (a Python data structure like a Tuple or List.)

Syntax:

```
for value in collection:
    # do something with value
```

Example: Here we print out the squares of the first five natural numbers

```
for x in [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]: print x ** 2
```

- The **continue** keyword advances the **for** loop to the next iteration - skipping the remainder of the block.

For loops can iterate over a sequence of numbers using the "range" and "xrange" functions.

The difference between range and xrange is that the range function returns a new list with numbers of that specified range, whereas xrange returns an iterator, which is more efficient. (Python 3 uses the range function, which acts like xrange).

Note that the range function is zero based.

## Control flow statements - Loops

Example: The following loop sums up values, ignoring instances of **None**

```
total = 0
for value in [1, 2, None, 4, None, 5]:
    if value is None:
        continue
    total += value
```

- The **break** keyword is used to altogether exit the for loop. Example: This code sums elements of the list until a 5 is reached:

```
until_5 = 0
for value in [1, 4, 2, 0, 7, 5, 1, 4]:
    if value == 5:
        break
    until_5 += value
```

## Control flow statements - Loops

**while Loops:** While loops repeat as long as a certain boolean condition is met.

Python has a while loop as well, which works as expected.

```
x = 0
while x < 10:
    print x, "is less than 10" x += 1
```

```
In [31]: for i in range(5):
        print (i)
```

```
0
1
2
3
4
```

```
In [32]: i = 1
        while i < 5:
            print(i)
            i = i+1
        print('Bye')
```

```
1
2
3
4
Bye
```

```
In [33]: i = 1
        while i < 5:
            print(i)
            i = i+1
            if i == 4:
                break
        print('Bye')
```

```
1
2
3
Bye
```

```
In [34]: i = 1
        while i < 5:
            i = i+1
            if i == 3:
                continue
            print(i)
        print('Bye')
```

```
2
4
5
Bye
```

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## Control flow statements - Loops

**"break" and "continue" statements:**

**break** is used to exit a for loop or a while loop, whereas **continue** is used to skip the current block, and return to the "for" or "while" statement.

```
# Prints out 0,1,2,3,4
count = 0
while True:
    print(count)
    count += 1
    if count >= 5:
        break

# Prints out only odd numbers - 1,3,5,7,9
for x in range(10):
    # Check if x is even
    if x % 2 == 0:
        continue
    print(x)
```

**can we use "else" clause for loops?**

we can use **else** for loops. When the loop condition of "for" or "while" statement fails then code part in "else" is executed.

If **break** statement is executed inside for loop then the "else" part is skipped. Note that "else" part is executed even if there is a **continue** statement.

```
# Prints out 0,1,2,3,4 and then it prints "count value
reached 5"
```

```
count=0
while(count<5):
    print(count)
    count +=1
else:
    print("count value reached %d" %(count))
```

```
# Prints out 1,2,3,4
for i in range(1, 10):
    if(i%5==0):
        break
    print(i)
else:
    print("this is not printed because for loop is
terminated because of break but not due to fail in
condition")
```

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## Data Structures in Base Python

**Python Data Structures** are simple, but quite powerful. Understanding them well and mastering their use is critical for a programmer to write efficient code for doing data science. **Data Structure is holding data of more than one value and can be heterogeneous.**

**In Python, we have below default data structures.**

1. Tuple
2. List
3. Dictionary
4. Set

**Properties:**

1. All Data Structures are 1 Dimensional, Heterogeneous
2. Broadcasting is not possible.

**Key things while working with Data Structures in Python**

1. How to create them? (Multiple ways)
2. How to access the elements (Slicing & Dicing) based on position & Index? (Subsetting)
3. How to modify/update the values in Data Structure?
4. Methods or Functions available in Data Structure.
5. How to perform Mathematical Operations and Indexing?

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## Data Structures - Tuples

**TUPLES:** A **tuple** is a sequence of Python objects that is

- one-dimensional,
- fixed-length,
- immutable.

**Syntax:** We can create tuples in two ways

-A comma-separated sequence of values assigned to a variable (optional: placed inside parentheses)

Calling `tuple()` on any sequence/iterator (eg. a list)

```
tup = 1, 2, 6
nested_tup = (1, 3, 5), (2, 8), ['a', 'b']

tuple([1, 2, 7]) tuple('forests')
```

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## Data Structures - Tuples

**Subsetting:** Elements can be accessed with square brackets `[]`, with indexes beginning with 0.

```
nested_tup[0]
```

**Immutability:** Once a tuple is created, it's not possible to modify which object is stored at an index.

```
nested_tup[1] = (1, 3)
TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment
```

[*Note*] The **objects** stores in the tuple (eg. a list) might be mutable, so they can be altered (but not moved.)

```
nested_tup[2].append('c')
```

**Concatenation:** The '+' operator joins tuples to form longer tuples.

```
(4,None,'foo')+(6,0)+'bar',)
```

## Data Structures - Tuples

**Tuple Unpacking:** In an assignment statement, corresponding elements of a tuple will be assigned to respective objects on the RHS (given that the number of objects is the same as length of the tuple.) This makes is very easy to swap variables.

```
a, b, c = (1, 2, 3)
a, b = b, a
```

**Tuple Methods:** Press <tab> following a dot after the tuple object. Though there aren't too many Tuple methods, *count* is one of the useful ones.

```
nested_tuple.count()
```



## Data Structures - Lists

A Python **list** is simply an ordered collection of values or objects. It is similar to what in other languages might be called an *array*, but with some added functionality.

Lists are very similar to arrays. They can contain any type of variable, and they can contain as many variables as you wish. Lists can also be iterated over in a very simple manner.

Lists are

- **one-dimensional**
- containers for collections of objects of **any type**
- **variable-length**
- **mutable**, ie, their contents can be modified

**Syntax:** They can be defined using

- square brackets [] or
- using the `list()` type function
- Python functions that produce lists

```
int_list = [1, 2, 3]
mix_list = ["string", 0.1, True]
list_of_lists = [int_list, mix_list, ['A', 'B']] x = range(10)
```

## Data Structures - Lists

Single elements can be accessed using their index or position

```
x[4]      # fetches the 5th element
x[-1]     # fetches the last element
```

Subsets of lists (smaller lists) can be accessed using **integer slicing**

```
x[:4]     # first four elements
x[4:]     # all elements from fourth to the end
x[-3:]    # last three elements
```

## Data Structures - Lists

### 1. Adding elements

a. `append()`, to add single elements **at the end** of the list. For example:  
`x.append('a')`

b. `extend()`, to add multiple element **at the end** of an existing list. For example:  
`x.extend([10, 11, 12])`

[Note] Lists can be combined/concatenated using the `+` operator. For example:  
`[1, 2, 3] + ['a', 'b', 'c']`

c. `insert()`, to insert elements at a specific index (this is an expensive operation) For example:  
`x.insert(3, 'a')`

### 2. Removing elements

a. `pop()`, removes and returns an element at a particular index (default: from the end) For example:  
`x.pop(5)`

b. `remove()`, takes an element as input and removes its first occurrence  
 For example: `x.remove(5)`

### 3. Sorting

a. `.sort()`

## Data Structures - Lists

### List Functions

`x = list('just a string')`

- `len()`, returns the number of elements in the list For example:  
`len(x)`
- `in`, checks whether an element belongs to a list and returns a boolean For example:  
`'t' in x`
- `sorted()`, returns a new list from the elements of given list, sorted in ascending order For example:  
`sorted(x)`
- `reversed()`, iterates over the elements of a sequence in reverse order For example:  
`reversed(x)`

**List Unpacking** works a lot like tuple unpacking, where you can assign list elements to objects using an assignment statement.

For example: `a, b, c, d = [1, 2, 3, 4]`

## Data Structures - Dictionary

### Dictionary (or dict)

**dict** is likely the most important built-in Python data structure. It is a flexibly-sized collection of **key-value pairs**, where *key* and *value* are Python objects.

We frequently use dictionaries as a simple way to represent structured data.

```
doc_info = {
    "author": "chandra",
    "title": "Data Science in Python", "chapters": 10,
    "tags": ["#data", "#science", "#datascience", "#python", "#analysis"]
}
```

**Syntax:** **dicts** are created using curly braces {} and using colons to separate keys and values.

```
empty_dict = {}
a_dict = {'k1':12, 'k2':36}
b_dict = {'a': 'a string', 'b': [1, 2, 3, 4]}
```

## Data Structures - Dictionary

**Subsetting:** We can access or insert the value/object associated with a key by using the curly brackets

```
b_dict[a]           # retrieves 'a string'
b_dict['c'] = 3.142  # adds a new key-value pair to the dict
```

[Note] We can check if a dict contains a key using the **in** keyword  
 'd' in b\_dict

## Data Structures - Dictionary methods

### 1. Removing/Adding elements

a. `.keys()`, `.values()`, `.items()` - will return the keys, values, pairs of the dict

For example: `a_dict.keys()`  
`a_dict.values()`  
`a_dict.items()`

b. `.del()` - Will remove the key-value pair associated with passed key For example: `del b_dict['a']`

c. `.pop()` - works in much the same fashion For example: `b_dict.pop('c')`

d. `.update()` - will merge two given dictionaries

For example: `b_dict.update(a_dict)`

### 2. Finding elements

a. `.get()` - behaves gracefully for missing keys. It is used to fetch a value from a dict. If the key is found, it returns the associated value. It returns a default value if the key isn't contained in the dict. This ensures that an exception is not raised.

For example: `b_dict.get('d', 'Nothing found')`

## Data Structures - Sets

A set is an unordered collection of unique elements. They can be thought of being like dicts, but keys only, no values.

**Syntax:** A set can be created in two ways:

- via the set function,
- using a set literal with curly braces:

```
set([2, 2, 2, 1, 3, 3])    # produces set([1, 2, 3])
{2, 2, 2, 1, 3, 3}        # produces set([1, 2, 3])
```

Sets support mathematical set operations like union, intersection, difference, and symmetric difference."

# User Defined functions in Python

Functions are a convenient way to divide your code into useful blocks, allowing us to order our code, make it more readable, reuse it and save some time. Also functions are a key way to define interfaces so programmers can share their code.

Python makes use of blocks. Where a block line is more Python code (even another block), and the block head is of the following format: block\_keyword block\_name(argument1,argument2, ...) Block keywords you already know are "if", "for", and "while".

## Functions in Python:

- ✓ Functions in python are defined using the block keyword "def", followed with the function's name as the block's name
- ✓ Parameters types are not defined. The types are inferred from values passed to the function.
- ✓ Python functions overloading is implicit
- ✓ Functions may also receive arguments (variables passed from the caller to the function)
- ✓ Functions may return a value to the caller, using the keyword- 'return'. Functions can return multiple parameter
- ✓ If only one or few returned parameters need to be captured and other ignored
- ✓ Simply write the function's name followed by (), placing any required arguments within the brackets.

# User Defined functions in Python

## Python functions can be optional

The default value for the parameters can be defined in function signatures.

```
In [99]: def addElements( a, b ):
         return a + b

In [100]: addElements( 2, 3 )
Out[100]: 5

In [101]: addElements( 2.3, 4.5 )
Out[101]: 6.8

In [102]: addElements( "python", "workshop" )
Out[102]: 'pythonworkshop'
```

```
In [103]: def addElements( a, b ):
         return a, b, a + b

In [104]: x, y, z = addElements( 2, 3 )

In [105]: addElements( 2.3, 4.5 )
Out[105]: (2.3, 4.5, 6.8)

In [106]: _, _, z = addElements( 4, 5 )

In [107]: x
Out[107]: 2
```

```
In [108]: def addElements( a, b = 4 ):
         return a + b

In [109]: addElements( 2 )
Out[109]: 6

In [110]: addElements( 2, 5 )
Out[110]: 7

In [111]: def add_n(*args):
         sum = 0
         for arg in args:
             sum = sum + arg
         return sum

In [112]: add_n( 1, 2, 3 )
Out[112]: 6

In [113]: add_n( 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 )
Out[113]: 21

In [114]: add_n()
Out[114]: 0
```

## Lambda functions in Python

- ✓ Lambda functions in python are key features. These are functions that can be passed as parameters to another functions.
- ✓ The functions can be anonymous and defined inline, while passing as a parameter.
- ✓ Primarily used to deal with collections, to apply a function or operations on each individual elements of python

```
In [115]: a = lambda x: x * x
In [116]: a( 2 )
Out[116]: 4
In [117]: a( 2 ) * a( 2 )
Out[117]: 16
```

```
In [118]: mylist = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9]
In [119]: xsquare = []
for x in mylist:
    xsquare.append( pow( x, 2 ) )
print( xsquare )
[1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]
In [120]: map( lambda x: pow( x, 2 ), mylist)
Out[120]: <map at 0x45c9fd0>
In [121]: xsquare1 = list( map( lambda x: pow( x, 2 ), mylist) )
In [122]: print( xsquare1 )
[1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]
In [123]: mylist1 = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9]
In [124]: listprods = list( map( lambda x, y: x * y, mylist, mylist1 ) )
In [125]: listprods
Out[125]: [1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81]
In [126]: list( filter( lambda x : x < 5, listprods ) )
Out[126]: [1, 4]
```

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## Classes & Objects

- ✓ Objects are an encapsulation of variables and functions into a single entity. Objects get their variables and functions from classes. Classes are essentially a template to create your objects.

Example:

We have a class defined for Student with student details like name and age. Create new student called student1. Set student1 to be with name as chandra as age as 33. Return the results as

“chandra is 33 years old and participating in python class”

```
In [2]: class Student:
workshop = 'python'
def __init__(self,name,age):
    self.name = name
    self.age = age
def describe( self ):
    print( self.name, " is ",
          self.age,
          " years old and participating in ",
          Student.workshop,
          " class ")
    return

In [8]: student1 = Student( "Chandra", 33 )
In [9]: student1.name
Out[9]: 'Chandra'
In [10]: student1.describe()
('Chandra', ' is ', 33, ' years old and participating in ', 'python', ' class ')
In [6]: Student.workshop = "python"
In [11]: student1.workshop
Out[11]: 'python'
```

ANALYTIX LABS

## Resources to Learn Python

### Python Resources

- ✓ Workshop material
  - ✓ Presentations
  - ✓ Sample codes
  - ✓ case studies
  - ✓ Projects
- ✓ <https://github.com/ipython/ipython/wiki/A-gallery-of-interesting-IPython-Notebooks>
- ✓ <http://stackoverflow.com/tags/python/info>  
<http://learnpythonthehardway.org/book/>
- ✓ "Web Scraping with Python: Collecting Data from the Modern Web", O'Reilly

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