

An Introduction to Programming With Python

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Center for Computational and Applied Mathematics
(Part-1)

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Basics of Python Language



What this workshop is ...



- Since this is a four hour workshop it is tough to decide what gets taught and what doesn't
- In that pursuit this course is intended as an introduction to the Python programming language
 - Focus on the fundamentals of the Python language with the goal of using Python for working data
- This course is not intended to teach “how to program”
 - Assume a basic familiarity with “programmatic” thinking
 - This does not mean that if you don't know how to program the workshop will be useless, but it definitely will not make someone a programmer in four hours
- The ideal student then has some experience with programming or “programmatic thinking” and may have written codes in other languages (Matlab, C++, R, Java) to analyze data.

What is Python?



- Python is an **interpreted, object-oriented, high-level programming language with dynamic semantic.**
- Some of the notable features:
 - Elegant easy to read syntax
 - Powerful high level built in data structures combined with dynamic typing, makes it very attractive for Rapid Application Development (RAD).
 - Rich standard libraries for performing variety of tasks
 - Runs on any platforms : Mac, Windows, Linux, Unix
 - 100% Free – Thanks to active supporting community

Downloading Python: Different Distribution of the Python



- The official distribution of Python can be downloaded from python.org
- Additionally, there are many “alternative” distributions
- IronPython – Python running on MS .Net (<http://ironpython.net>)
- ActiveState ActivePython (<https://www.activestate.com>)
- Enthought Canopy – Commercial distribution for scientific computing
- Anaconda Python – a full Python distribution for data management, analysis and visualization of large data set. (<https://www.anaconda.com>)

- If you haven't already, go to the following website and follow the instruction for your operating system to install Python:
 - <https://www.python.org/downloads/>
 - For our workshop python version 2.7+ works fine.
 - The latest version of Python is 3.6.2

References for Continuing Learning

- List of Python Beginners Guides (Non-Programmers)-
 - <https://wiki.python.org/moin/BeginnersGuide/NonProgrammers>
- List of Python Beginners Guide (Programmers) -
 - <https://wiki.python.org/moin/BeginnersGuide/Programmers>
- Codecademy
 - <https://www.codecademy.com/learn/python>
- Udacity
 - <https://www.udacity.com/course/programming-foundations-with-python--ud036>

Reference to this workshop

- Programming in Python 3: A Complete Introduction to the Python Language
 - <https://www.qtrac.eu/py3book.html>
 - The book focuses on Python 3
 - Many examples are similar from this book
- Python official documentation:
 - <https://docs.python.org/2/>

Python Overview - Getting Started



Interfacing with Python – Command Line

- There are a few ways to interface with Python
- The first and easiest way is directly from the command line in an interactive fashion
- Let's get started ...
- Open a new terminal (in Ubuntu or MacOS) or Command Prompt in Windows and type Python, hit enter .
- In python environment type
 - `>>> myname = 'AJ'`
 - `>>> print ('Hello, my name is ' + myname)`
- Note: For Ubuntu you may need to type python follow by version name
 - e.g. `$ python3.6`

Interfacing with Python – Command Line

- Should have returned something like:
 - Hello, my name is AJ
- The first line created a variable called myname and assigned a value 'AJ'
- The second line is composed of two parts:
 - A print statement
 - A string that is passed to the print statement
- **What is + sign in print statement function argument ?**

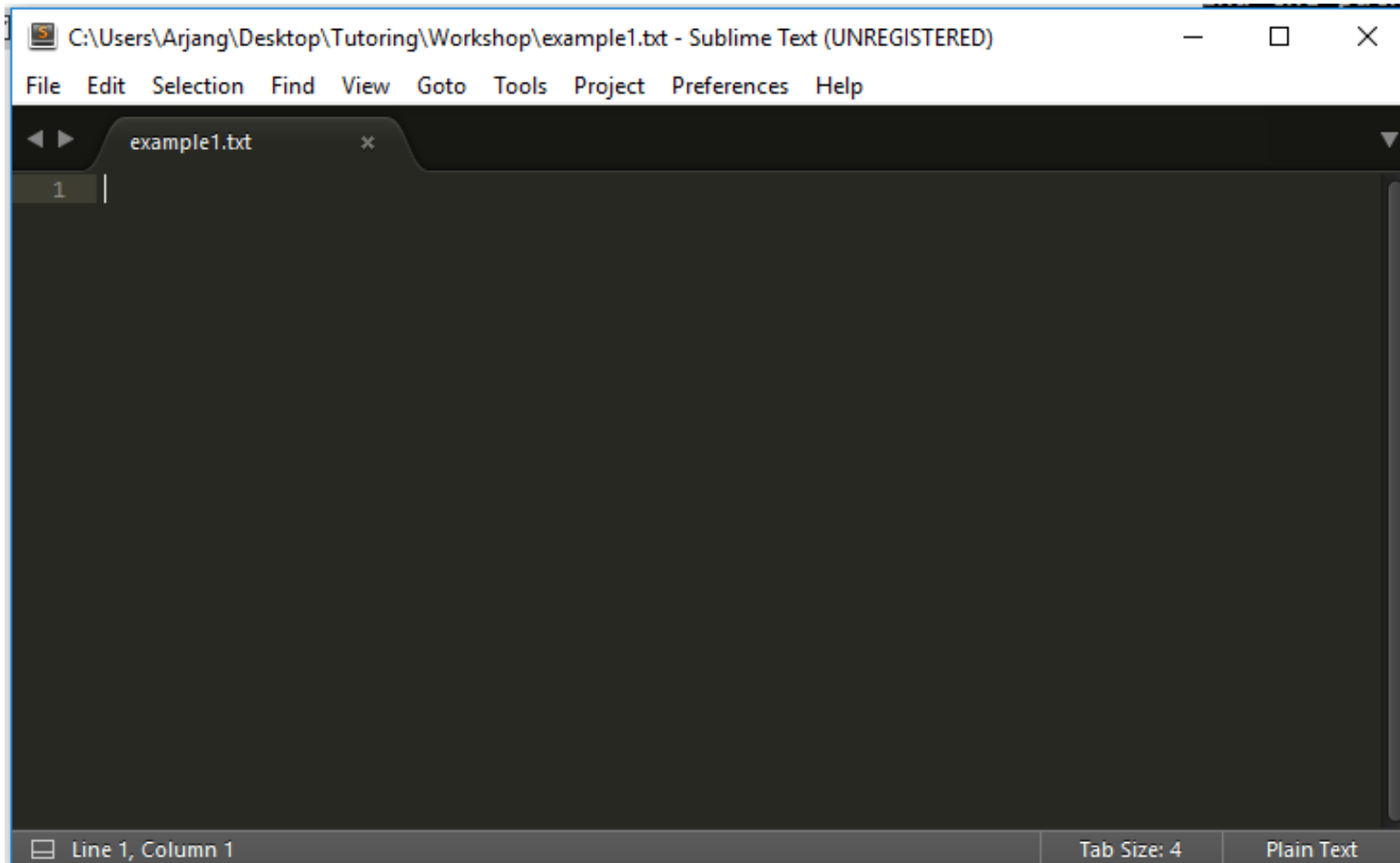
Interfacing with Python – Scripts

- A more advanced way is to begin to write scripts within text files. Let's create a file first.
- From command line on Linux or Mac
 - `$ cd`
 - `$ cd Desktop`
 - `$ mkdir py_workshop`
 - `$ touch example1.py`
- From the command prompt on Windows, type
 - `cd %HOMEPATH%`
 - `cd Desktop`
 - `mkdir py_workshop`
 - Type NUL >> `example1.py`

Interfacing with Python – Scripts



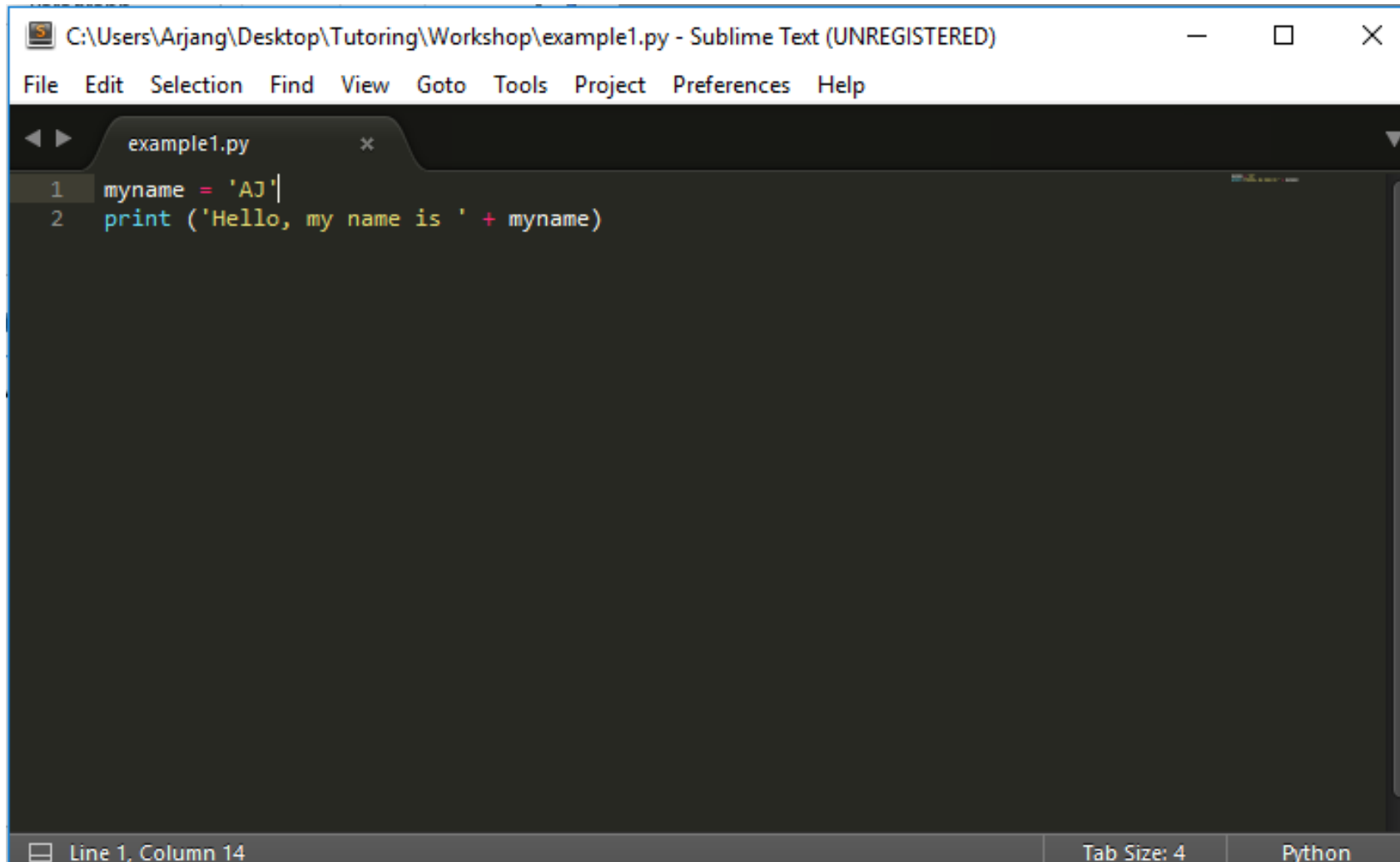
- From your Desktop open the folder. The file that was created should be there. Now open the file with a text editor.



Interfacing with Python – Scripts



- Add the code that we used in the interactive mode to the script. It should look as follows:

A screenshot of a Sublime Text editor window. The title bar shows the file path: "C:\Users\Arjang\Desktop\Tutoring\Workshop\example1.py - Sublime Text (UNREGISTERED)". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "Selection", "Find", "View", "Goto", "Tools", "Project", "Preferences", and "Help". The editor has a dark theme and shows a single tab titled "example1.py". The code inside the tab is:

```
1 myname = 'AJ'|
2 print ('Hello, my name is ' + myname)
```

The status bar at the bottom indicates "Line 1, Column 14", "Tab Size: 4", and "Python".

Interfacing with Python – Scripts

- Now let's run the script ...
- Open a terminal (a Command Prompt windows) and type

On windows

- `cd Desktop\py_workshop`
- `dir`
- `python example1.py`

On Linux and Mac

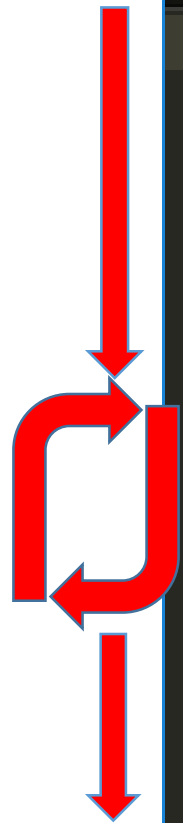
- `cd Desktop/py_workshop`
- `ls`
- `python example1.py`

How do Python programs work?



- The way a Python program is structured provides instructions to the computer as to the order in which to execute code
- Each statement encountered in a .py program is executed in the order in which they are arrived at
- The Order of commands can be diverted or “controlled” using certain operations and logical operations
- Additionally the structure of the spacing provides information to the compiler (interpreter) as to which parts of the code are organized together

How do Python programs work?



```
counter_example.py *  
1 # Example of a simple counter function  
2  
3 counter = 0  
4  
5 print 'Starting Counter Position: ' + str(counter)  
6  
7 while counter <= 1000:  
8     counter += 1  
9     if not counter % 100:  
10         print 'Counter : '.rjust(15) + str(counter)  
11         print 'Bad Indents'  
12  
13  
14 print 'Final Counter Position  : ' + str(counter)
```

Python Overview – Basics of the Python Language



Primary Topic's Covered Today

- Basic Data Types
- Logical Operations
- Collection Data Types
- Control Flow Structures
- Functions
- For a more comprehensive overview
 - <https://docs.python.org/2/tutorial/>

Basic Data Types

Keywords and Identifiers



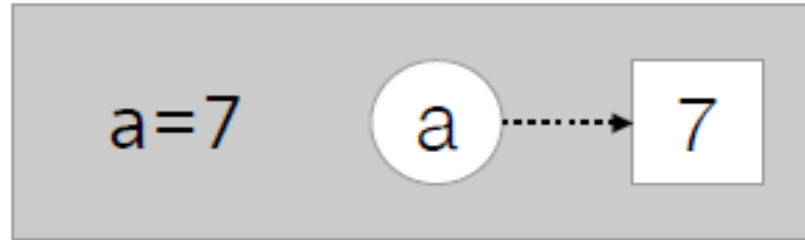
- Variables in Python are called object reference and the names given to them are called identifiers or plainly names
- The first character of an identifier must be a letter
- Additionally identifiers are case sensitive
- There are also “reserved” keywords which cannot be used as identifiers or variables or objects.

and	continue	except	global	lambda	raise	yield
as	def	exec	if	not	return	
assert	del	finally	Import	or	try	
break	elif	for	in	pass	while	
class	else	from	is	print	with	

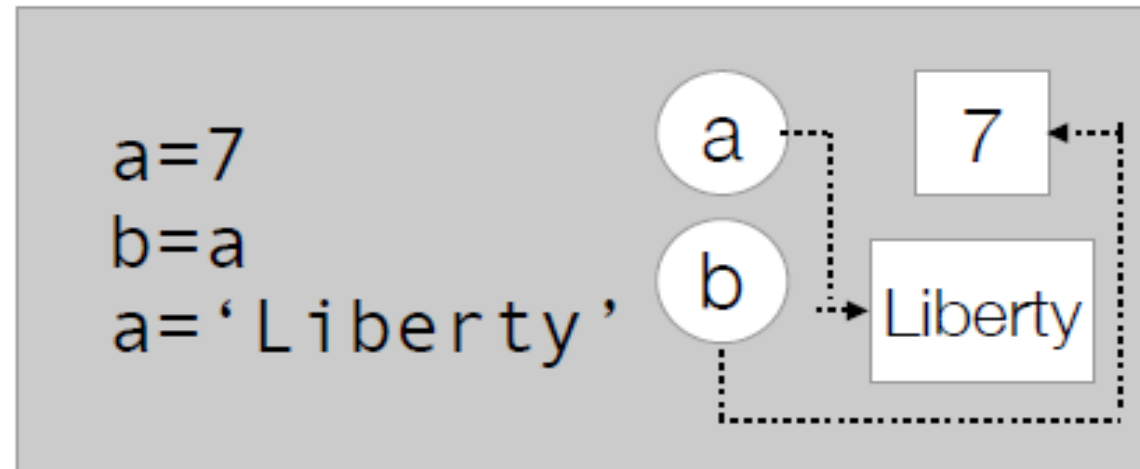
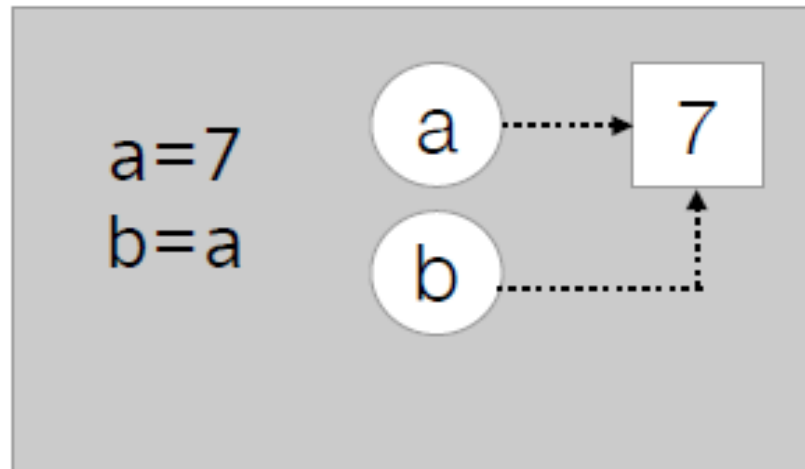
Keywords and Identifier – Some Examples

- Identifiers (Variables) name examples:
 - myname = "AJ"
 - todaysweather = 'sunny'
 - tomorrowsWeather = 'Cloudy'
 - TodayTemp = 77
 - FAVORITE_color = 'blue'
- The convention or style for variable names should be consistent (camel case, or using underscores)
- Notice none of these start with numbers

Objects (variables) assignment and reference



Circles represent object references
Rectangles represent objects in memory



The variable `b` keeps its reference to the value 7

From: Programming in Python 3: A complete Introduction to the Python Language. Mark Summerfield

Keywords and Identifier – Some Examples

- Identifiers (Variables) name examples:
 - myname = "AJ"
 - todaysweather = 'sunny'
 - tomorrowsWeather = 'Cloudy'
 - TodayTemp = 77
 - FAVORITE_color = 'blue'
- The convention or style for variable names should be consistent (camel case, or using underscores)
- Notice none of these start with numbers
- **Let's do some experiment on python command line.**

- There are few major types of numbers that are of basic use in Python
 - **boolean**
 - **Integers**
 - **floating-point**
 - decimal

- A boolean object (variable) is True or False
- Using values 1 and 0 instead of True and False almost always works fine, but the more appropriate syntax is to use Boolean type
- To convert an object to a boolean type, function **bool()** is used

- Integers are of the int type and are specified by any numbers without a decimal point
- `a = 7` # This is an integer
- `b = 7.0` # This is not
- `c = 7.` # Neither is this
- To attempt to convert an object to an integer type function **int()** is used
- The maximum value of an integer in a typical computer (Intel 64 bit) is $2^{63} - 1$
(9,223,372,036,854,775,807)

Floating Point Numbers



- There are a few different versions of floating points numbers in Python
 - float, complex, decimal (from the library decimal)
The max float number is `1.7976931348623157e+308`
 - The decimal can be used for really high precision operations
- As with **int()** and **bool()**, there is a function **float()** which can be used to create objects of the float type or convert objects to float type

Useful Numeric Operations and Functions



Syntax	Description
<code>x + y</code>	Adds number x and number y
<code>x - y</code>	Subtracts y from y
<code>x * y</code>	Multiplies x by y
<code>x / y</code>	Divides x by y
<code>x // y</code>	Floor division of x by y; returns int type
<code>x % y</code>	Modulus operation; remainder of dividing x by y
<code>x ** y</code>	Xx raised to power y
<code>abs (x)</code>	Takes the absolute value of x
<code>round(x, n)</code>	Rounds x to the n digits

A quirk of Integer Division

- A feature that almost always trips up those new to Python is the way in which integer division works
- Consider `a = 1 / 3`
- We would expect a to return 0.33333333, but instead it return 0
- This is because floor division is performed and another variable of type **int** is return
- To correct this one of the values needs to be a floating point
 - `b = 1. / 3` or `c = 1.0 / 3` or `d = 1 / 3.` or `e = 1.0 / 3.0`
- **Let's do some experiment on python command line.**

- One of the most versatile data types in Python is the **str** datatype
 - Objects can be attempted to be converted to a string using the function **str()**
- Strings hold a sequence of unicode characters
- String literals can be created by enclosing a sequence of characters in either single or double quotes
 - myname = "AJ" or myname = 'AJ'
- Additionally, Python provides capability for multi-line strings.
- These are useful for using Python to generate flat text files with lots of text without printing line by line
 - Useful in concert with the **.format()** method

- To create a multi-line string enclose a sequence of characters in triple-quotations
 - `multi_str = """ Hello, my name is AJ.
This is a multi-line string """`
- String concatenation:
 - `str1 = "AJ"`
`str2 = "Fahim"`
`name = str1 + " " + str2`

Understanding Sequences – Indexes, Sub-sequencing, Slices and Striding ...



- Python has a syntax for taking subsequences of larger sequences
- Python is zero indexed and thus the first index location is 0
- Strings are a sequence of characters and are a good place to learn this notation
- Consider string `a = "My name is AJ"`

a[0]	a[1]	a[2]	a[3]	a[4]	a[5]	a[6]	a[7]	a[8]	a[9]	a[10]	a[11]
M	y		N	a	m	e		is		A	J
a[-12]	a[-11]	a[-10]	a[-9]	a[-8]	a[-7]	a[-6]	a[-5]	a[-4]	a[-3]	a[-2]	a[-1]

- Using this notation we can access individual characters of string
 - `a[2]` is " " or `a[3] = 'N'`

Understanding Sequences – Indexes, Sub-sequencing, Slices and Striding ...

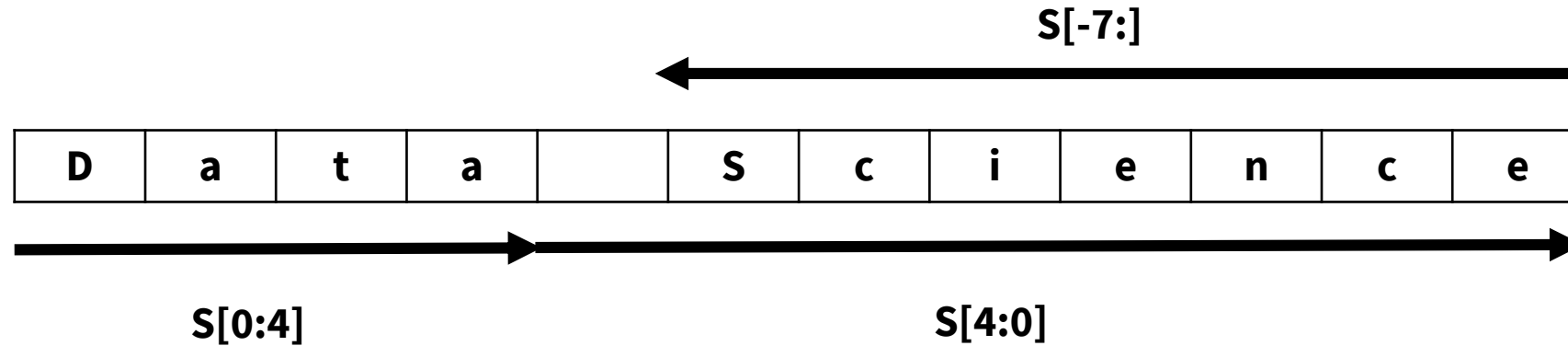


- We may want more than one character though
- A subsequence of sequence in Python is called **slice** and has the following notation
 - `seq[start]`
 - `seq[start:stop]`
 - `seq[start:stop:step]`
- Where **start**, **stop**, **step** must be all integers
- This notation will work with any sequence such as a list, string or a tuple

Understanding Sequences – Indexes, Sub-sequencing, Slices and Striding ...



- Consider the following sequences



- `s[0:4]` is 'Data'
- `s[4:]` is 'Science'
- `s[-7:]` is 'Science'
- `s[::2]` is 'Dt cec'
- `s[::-1]` is 'ecneicS ataD'

Methods available to String object

- A major strength of Python is its ability to manipulate strings.
 - Often the primary reason that I give for learning Python in addition to R
- Each **str** object carries with it a set of methods (or functions), which allow easy manipulation of the string
- This with logical operations make manipulating strings in Python fairly straight forward
 - That is up until you need to learn regular expression ...

Methods available to String object

- Below is an overview of some of the methods available.
- As you can see these are very handy when parsing documents and strings

Syntax	Description
<code>s.capitalize()</code>	Returns a copy of string <code>s</code> with the first letter capitalized
<code>s.find(t, start, end)</code>	Returns the leftmost position of <code>t</code> in <code>s</code> (or in the slice <code>s[start:end]</code>) or <code>-1</code> otherwise
<code>s.format(...)</code>	Returns a copy of <code>s</code> formatted according to the given arguments
<code>s.lower()</code> and <code>s.upper()</code>	Returns a lowercase copy of <code>s</code> ; or an uppercase copy of <code>s</code>
<code>s.replace(t, u, n)</code>	Returns a copy of <code>s</code> with every (or a maximum of <code>n</code> if given) occurrences of string <code>t</code> replaced with string <code>u</code>
<code>s.split(t, n)</code>	Returns a list of strings splitting at most <code>n</code> times on str <code>t</code> .
<code>s.strip(chars)</code>	Returns a copy of <code>s</code> with leading and trailing whitecaps (or the characters in str <code>char</code>) removed.
<code>s.zfill(w)</code>	Returns a copy of <code>s</code> , which if shorter than <code>w</code> is padded with leading zeros to make it <code>w</code> characters long.

Further Reading – Completely understanding Strings



- <https://docs.python.org/2/library/string.html>

The screenshot shows a web browser displaying the Python documentation for the `string` module. The browser's address bar shows the URL `docs.python.org/2/library/string.html`. The page has a dark blue header with navigation links like "previous", "next", "modules", and "index". A left sidebar contains a "Table Of Contents" with links to various sections, including "7.1. string — Common string operations", "7.1.1. String constants", "7.1.2. Custom String Formatting", "7.1.3. Format String Syntax", "7.1.4. Template strings", "7.1.5. String functions", and "7.1.6. Deprecated string functions". The main content area is titled "7.1. string — Common string operations" and includes a "Source code" link to `Lib/string.py`. The text describes the `string` module's contents, including constants and classes. Below this, the section "7.1.1. String constants" lists several constants: `string.ascii_letters`, `string.ascii_lowercase`, `string.ascii_uppercase`, `string.digits`, `string.hexdigits`, and `string.letters`, each with a brief description of its value and locale-dependency.

Python » English » 2.7.14 » Documentation » The Python Standard Library » 7. String Services » previous | next | modules | index

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 - 7.1.1. String constants
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 - 7.1.3.2. Format examples
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 - 7.1.5. String functions
 - 7.1.6. Deprecated string functions

Previous topic
7. String Services

Next topic
7.2. re — Regular expression operations

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7.1. string — Common string operations

Source code: [Lib/string.py](#)

The `string` module contains a number of useful constants and classes, as well as some deprecated legacy functions that are also available as methods on strings. In addition, Python's built-in string classes support the sequence type methods described in the [Sequence Types — str, unicode, list, tuple, bytearray, buffer, xrange](#) section, and also the string-specific methods described in the [String Methods](#) section. To output formatted strings use template strings or the `%` operator described in the [String Formatting Operations](#) section. Also, see the `re` module for string functions based on regular expressions.

7.1.1. String constants

The constants defined in this module are:

`string.ascii_letters`
The concatenation of the `ascii_lowercase` and `ascii_uppercase` constants described below. This value is not locale-dependent.

`string.ascii_lowercase`
The lowercase letters `'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz'`. This value is not locale-dependent and will not change.

`string.ascii_uppercase`
The uppercase letters `'ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ'`. This value is not locale-dependent and will not change.

`string.digits`
The string `'0123456789'`.

`string.hexdigits`
The string `'0123456789abcdefABCDEF'`.

`string.letters`
The concatenation of the strings `lowercase` and `uppercase` described below. The specific value is locale-dependent, and will be updated when `locale.setlocale()` is called.

Example string1.py

Logical Operations

- A fundamental extension to having data types is comparing them or performing logical operations on them
- I'll provide a brief overview of the three main logical operations you'll want to concern yourself with
 - Comparison Operations
 - Logical Operations
 - Membership Operations

- As with most programming languages, Python provides a set of binary comparison operators
 - < less than, <= less than or equal to
 - == equal to, != not equal to
 - > greater than, >= greater than or equal to
- Additionally it provides an identity operation, **is**
 - This references location in memory (is this the same object in memory as another), thus want to use == or != to test values

- Additionally Python provides a way to test Boolean statements with **and**, **or**, **not**
- Both **and** and **or** use short-circuit logic and return the operand which determined the result
 - This can be tricky if you're not careful
- What this means is :
 - `a = True`
 - `b = False`
 - `a and b` return `False`
 - `a or b` return `True`

- We haven't talked about collection of data types yet, but we will introduce another type of logical operation
 - This is the **in** operation
 - This operator will return whether an object is within a collection
 - Additionally can be used with logical operators (**not in**)
- Slow for large ordered collections, but can be very fast on certain data types such as dictionaries and sets
- **Let's do some experiment on python command line.**

Collection Data Types

Types of Collections

- There are three types of collection data types
- Sequence Types, Set Types, Mapping Types
- Often we will want to collect many of the simple data types that we introduced earlier, or collection collections of variables together!
- We deal with collection types all the time working with data

Sequence Types

- Collections of the Sequence type support the membership operator `in`, the size function **`len()`**, slices, and are iterable
- When iterated, a sequence will provide the items in their order in the sequence
- The primary sequence types that are of interest are
 - list
 - str : We have already worked with str
 - tuple

- Lists support operations like simple concatenation
 - `my_list_1 = [1, 2, 3]`
 - `my_list_2 = my_list_1 + [4, 5, 6]`
- Additionally they have many methods available to them as well
 - For those familiar with algorithms they can be used as stacks (last-in, first-out)
 - Or they can be used as a queue (first-in, first-out), but there are more efficient data structures developed for that purpose
- Are used extensively throughout data science and will be primary data structure used for manipulating data

Methods available to lists



Syntax	Description
<code>list.append(x)</code>	Add an item to the end of a list.
<code>list.extend(L)</code>	Extend the list by appending all the items in the given list
<code>list.insert(i, x)</code>	Insert an item at a given position. The first argument is the index of the element before which to insert,
<code>list.remove(x)</code>	Remove the first item from the list whose value is x. It is an error if there is no such item.
<code>list.pop([i])</code>	Remove the item at the given position in the list, and return it. If no index is specified, <code>a.pop()</code> removes and returns the last item in the list. (The square brackets around the <code>i</code> in the method signature denote that the parameter is optional, not that you should type square brackets at that position.)
<code>list.index(x)</code>	Return the index in the list of the first item whose value is x. It is an error if there is no such item.
<code>list.count(x)</code>	Return the number of times x appears in the list.
<code>list.sort(params)</code>	Sort the items of the list in place
<code>list.reverse()</code>	Reverse the elements of the list, in place.

Lists of Lists: Multidimensional Lists

- Since a list can contain any object, it naturally follows that they can contain lists
 - `Multi_list = [[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]]`
- We introduce these because it is worth understanding how to use multiple indices
- To get to the element 3, use indexing as follows:
 - `Multi_list[0][2]`

Lists of Lists: Multidimensional Lists

- Why does this work? The object `multi_list[0]` is itself a list. Namely the list `[1, 2, 3]`
- To get to the element 3, we can use the same convention with list `[1, 2, 3][0]`
- This chaining together of indices or methods is very useful throughout the Python language and we'll make more use of this later

Example list1.py

- A tuple consists of a number of values separated by commas (and often times contained in parentheses)
 - `my_tuple = (a, b, c)`
 - `my_tuple2 = 4, 1, 5`
 - `my_tuple3 = 4, # ugly but it works`
 - Similar to lists, but used in different situations for different purposes
- Tuples are immutable (unchangeable), and contain a heterogeneous sequence of elements
 - `my_tuple [0] = d` will return an error
 - Items can accessed via unpacking or indexing
 - Conversely, lists are mutable, and their elements are usually homogeneous and are accessed by iterating over the list

Lists are mutable ...

Tuples are immutable ...



- Consider the following small bit of code
 - `a = [1, 2, 3]`
 - `b = (1, 2, 3)`
 - `a[0] = 4`
 - `b[0] = 4`
- We see that we are able to edit the value at index zero of the list `a`.
- Conversely when attempting to edit the first index of the tuple we get the following error
- `TypeError: 'tuple' object does not support item assignment`

- Tuple packing/unpacking will be referenced and useful throughout learning Python
- Tuples can be packed in the following manner
 - `t = 123.0, 'hello', 4`
 - And similarly unpacked into new variables
 - `a, b, c = t`
- Here `t` is unpacked and each item is assigned to the identifiers `a`, `b`, `c` at the beginning of the line

Example tuple1.py

- A set type is a collection which supports the membership operator **in**, the size function `len()`, and iterable
- A set is an unordered collection of zero or more object references which refer to objects
- Since it is unordered, there is no concept of a slice or stride as with strings and tuples
- In the interest of time, we won't go into the details of sets, but they can be incredibly useful for using set operations such as **union**, **disjoint**, **intersection**

- A mapping object maps hashable values to arbitrary objects
- An object is hashable if it has a hash value which never changes during its lifetime and can be compared to other objects
- Hashable objects which compare equal must have the same hash value
- A hash value is a numeric value of fixed length that uniquely identifies data
- All of Python's immutable built-in objects are hashable, which no mutable containers (such as lists or dictionaries) are.
- Mapping are mutable objects
- Currently only one standard mapping type, the dictionary `dict()` exist

- A **dictionary** is a set of unsorted **key:value** pairs where each key is a unique identifier
- Keys can be any immutable type; strings and integers can always be used as keys
- Tuples can be used as keys if they contain only strings, numbers, or tuples; otherwise it cannot
- Dictionaries, lists, and tuples are all arguably the most common data collections that you'll run into in Python when manipulating data

- Examples of dictionaries
- `my_dict = {}` # empty dictionary
 `my_dict2 = dict()` # empty dictionary
 `my_dict3 = {1:2, 2:3, 3:4}`
 `my_dict4 = {'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3}`
- To access items in a dictionary they must be accessed via their key names
- `Dict[key]` for example `my_dict4['three']`

Methods for Dictionaries



Syntax	Description
<code>d[key]</code>	Return the item of <code>d</code> with key <code>key</code> . Raises a <code>KeyError</code> if <code>key</code> is not in the map.
<code>d[key] == value</code>	Set <code>d[key]</code> to <code>value</code> .
<code>del d[key]</code>	Remove <code>d[key]</code> from <code>d</code> . Raises a <code>KeyError</code> if <code>key</code> is not in the map.
<code>d.clear()</code>	Remove all items from the dictionary.
<code>d.get(key[, default])</code>	Return the value for <code>key</code> if <code>key</code> is in the dictionary, else <code>default</code> . If <code>default</code> is not given, it defaults to <code>None</code> , so that this method never raises a <code>KeyError</code> .
<code>d.items()</code>	Return a copy of the dictionary's list of (key, value) pairs.
<code>d.keys()</code>	Return a copy of the dictionary's list of keys.
<code>d.values()</code>	Return a copy of the dictionary's list of values.
<code>d.update(key)</code>	Update the dictionary with the key/value pairs from <code>other</code> , overwriting existing keys. Return <code>None</code> .

Example dictionary.py

An interesting property of object reference of collections



- Consider the following example
 - `a = [1, 2, 3]`
 - `b = a`
 - `a[1] = 4`
 - Print a, b

- Let's investigate this behavior ...

An interesting property of object reference of collections



- What has happened is that Python has created a **shallow copy** of the variable a
 - This means that b is only a pointer to the location of the list of a in memory
 - When a change ... b does not retain an original copy of the list and is still bound to the location of that list in memory
 - While this is done to conserve memory it means that you have to be careful when creating object references
- One method (though not universal) of correcting this the following
 - `a = [1, 2, 3]`
 - `b = list(a)`
 - `a[1] = 4`
 - Print a, b

Control Flow Statement

Control Flow Statements



- Now that we've defined basic data types, operations on these data types and finally collections of simple data types... we can start doing more interesting programming tasks
- To build on this we want to be able to construct the language so that certain statements tell the program how to “flow” between statements

- The most simple conditional branches is the **if** statement

```
x = 3
```

```
if x == 3:
```

```
    print "x = " + str(x)
```

- As you can see, it is of the form

if ***condition***:

#code executed if **true**

- This is why we introduced logical operations before understanding flow statements
- In the above code nothing happens if the statement evaluate to false

- If we want something to happen when the **if** statement fails, we can add an **else** statement

```
x = 4
```

```
if x == 4:
```

```
    print "x was " + str(x)
```

```
else:
```

```
    print "x was not 4"
```

- This allows us to have a condition that will always run when checking a conditional

- To add multiple conditions to a program we can nest **elif** statements between the **if** and **else** statements

```
x = 4
if x == 3:
    print 'x was ' + str(x)
elif x == 4:
    print 'x was ' + str(x)
else:
    print 'x not found in conditions'
```

- The first statement must be an **if** statement and the **else** statement does not contain a condition to check.
- As with all Python code, the conditions are evaluated in order so understanding the precedence for certain conditions is imperative

Example ifthen.py

A bit about whitespace and structure



- Leading whitespace (spaces and tabs) at the beginning of a logical line is used to compute the indentation level of the line
 - This in turn is used to determine the grouping of statements
- The total number of spaces preceding the first non-blank character then determines the line's indentation.
- Python's spacing is what is used to organize the structure of a program.

A bit about whitespace and structure

- Organization of blocks of code by whitespaces is actually very useful
- We can see to the right that the indentation allows us to clearly see where the while loop begins and where the conditional structure begins on the line below it
- Additionally blocks of code are started by colon
- See the **while** loop and the **if** statement

```
counter_example.py x
1 # Example of a simple counter function
2
3 counter = 0
4
5 print 'Starting Counter Position: ' + str(counter)
6
7 while counter <= 1000:
8     counter += 1
9     if not counter % 100:
10         print 'Counter : '.rjust(15) + str(counter)
11         print 'Bad Indents'
12
13
14 print 'Final Counter Position  : ' + str(counter)
```


A bit about whitespace and structure



- Indentations can either be groups of space or tabs so long as they are consistent within the document.
- The example to the right uses 4 spaces for indentation
- Additionally many text editors can be set to show these indents for you!

```
counter_example.py x
1 |# Example of a simple counter function
2
3   counter = 0
4
5   print 'Starting Counter Position: ' + str(counter)
6
7   while counter <= 1000:
8       counter += 1
9       if not counter % 100:
10          print 'Counter : '.rjust(15) + str(counter)
11          print 'Bad Indents'
12
13
14   print 'Final Counter Position  : ' + str(counter)
```

A bit about whitespace and structure

- The code to the right highlights a ‘bad indent’
- The if block is no longer properly and consistently indented
- Attempting to run this code will throw an **IndentationError**

```
counter_example.py x
1 # Example of a simple counter function
2
3 counter = 0
4
5 print 'Starting Counter Position: ' + str(counter)
6
7 while counter <= 1000:
8     counter += 1
9     if not counter % 100:
10         print 'Counter : '.rjust(15) + str(counter)
11         print 'Bad Indents'
12
13
14 print 'Final Counter Position  : ' + str(counter)
```

Tabs VS. Spaces

- So do you use tabs or space?
- From the PEP 8 Python Style Guide:
 - Spaces are the preferred indentation method
 - Tabs should be used solely to remain consistent with code that is already indented with tabs
- <https://www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0008/>

- Another thing that is often important when controlling the flow of a program is to iterate or loop over the objects in a collection
- The two primary looping statements are the **while** and **for** loops
- In addition to the **for** loop, there are functions built into Python which are often used with the **for** loop. Namely the **range()** and **enumerate()** functions

- A simple description of a while loop is that is used to execute some code zero or more times
 - The number of times that the code is executed is determined by a Boolean condition
- While loops are often useful when the structure of the object is unknown or if we don't know how many times we will need to do something
 - Caution: You will create infinite loops at some point ...
- The simple example is as follows:

```
x = 0
while x < 10:
    x += 1
print x
```

- Useful with while statements are the commands **break** and **continue**
- These commands are often used within conditional branches to change or divert the flow of a loop

```
x = 0
while True:
    if x == 10:
        break
    x += 1
print x
```
- The above code snip does the same as the previous slide

While Loops



- Similarly the continue command can be used to skip certain steps

- The following code prints all even numbers to 10:

```
x = 0
while x <= 10:
    x += 1
    if x % 2:           # 1 is true 0 is false
        continue
    print x
```

Example whileloop1.py

- Python's for loop is used to iterate through the objects of an object which is ***iterable***
- An iterable is any object which can be iterated over, including strings
- For loops will be used fairly often within data science, because we often had a set of observations with which we want to iterate over.
- Similar to the while loop, the **break** and **continue** statements are available to the **for** loop for controlling the flow through the iterable object

- Reuses the **in** statement from membership operations

- Syntax:

```
for variable in iterable:  
    #some code here
```

Example:

```
x = ['one', 'two', 'three']
```

```
for number in x:  
    print number
```

- Two commands will be very useful in conjunction with for loops: **range()** and **enumerate()**
- **range()** create sequence of integer
Syntax `range(stop)`
 `range(start, stop[, step])`
Example `range(10)` # Outputs a list of 10 int (0 to 9)
 `range(0, 10, 2)` # Outputs a list of even numbers
- This is useful if you know the number of objects and want to create a list of indices to iterate through.
`x = [1, 2, 3]`
`for ind in range[3]:`
 `print x[ind]`

- The `enumerate()` command returns an iterable object that ties each object to its position in the iteration process

- To understand how this works it is best to see it in action

```
a, b, c = 15.0, 33.0, 3.14
```

```
x = [a, b, c]
```

```
for ind, obj in enumerate(x):  
    print ind, obj
```

- The `enumerate()` function is useful when the order of two lists is useful and comparable

```
my_dict = {'one':1, 'two':2, 'three':3}
```

```
for ind, obj in enumerate(my_dict):  
    print ind, obj
```

Recall that dictionaries have an arbitrary ordering, therefore it may not make sense in this use case!

Example loop1.py, loop2.py

Creating Functions

- Python has many, many, many built-in functions already at your disposal
- These functions are always available
<https://docs.python.org/2/library/functions.html>
- They don't encompass everything that could possibly be done with the language and therefore it is useful to know how to create your own functions

- The keyword **def** introduces a new function definition
- It must be followed by the function name and the parenthesized list of formal parameters
- The statements that form the body of the function start at the next line, and must be indented,

```
def function_name(parameters):  
    pass
```


Example function



```
def fib(n):    # write Fibonacci series up to n
    """ print a Fibonacci series up to n. """
    a, b = 0, 1
    while a <= n:
        print a,
        a, b = b, a+b

fib(1000) #This line calls the function
```

Defining Functions – Introducing default values



- Functions can be specified with default values, so that the function can take in less arguments than are specified
- The default values are then used when specified

```
def print_names(x=['AJ']):  
    if len(x) == 1:  
        print 'There was one name: ' + x[0]  
    else:  
        print 'There were {} name'.format(len(x))  
        for ind, name in enumerate(x, start = 1):  
            print 'Name{0}: {1}'.format(ind, name)  
  
print_names()  
print_names(['AJ', 'Fahim', 'Steve'])  
print_names('AJ') # Don't forget strings are iterable
```

Returning values from a Function

- Most of the time you will need to return something from a function.
- This can be accomplished with the return statement at the end of the function

```
def function_name(parameters):  
    # Some operation  
    return object
```

Returning values from a Function

- Example of how to return multiple numbers

```
def min_max(x)
    return min(x), max(x)
```

```
Some_numbers = [1, 5, 15, -1, 6, 3.]
print min_max(some_numbers) # a tuple
min_x, max_x = min_max(some_numbers)
```

- The function `min_max()` returns a tuple containing the minimum and maximum of the object `x`.
- This can be unpacked into multiple variables using the unpacking notation that was described earlier in the workshop!

It's impossible to teach everything ...



- Clearly I don't have enough time to teach everything today, but hopefully I've included enough of the fundamentals for you to get started.
- Python has many quirks that takes getting used to, but in my opinion it is worth learning to for all the benefits of the language
- Consider the output from following code

```
x = [0] * 10
```

```
y = [x] * 4
```

```
y[1][2] = 1
```

```
print y
```

- At first this will seem unintuitive because this changes ALL rows as opposed to the first row. Understanding object references further would make this behavior clear.
- To really understand the language explore the Python documentation

Example function1.py

Simple Code Exercises