Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet

Variables and Strings

Variables are used to store values. A string is a series of characters, surrounded by single or double quotes.

Hello world

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

Hello world with a variable

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

Concatenation (combining strings)

```
first_name = 'albert'
last_name = 'einstein'
full_name = first_name + ' ' + last_name
print(full_name)
```

Lists

A list stores a series of items in a particular order. You access items using an index, or within a loop.

Make a list

```
bikes = ['trek', 'redline', 'giant']
```

Get the first item in a list

```
first_bike = bikes[0]
```

Get the last item in a list

```
last_bike = bikes[-1]
```

Looping through a list

```
for bike in bikes:
    print(bike)
```

Adding items to a list

```
bikes = []
bikes.append('trek')
bikes.append('redline')
bikes.append('giant')
```

Making numerical lists

```
squares = []
for x in range(1, 11):
    squares.append(x**2)
```

Lists (cont.)

List comprehensions

```
squares = [x**2 for x in range(1, 11)]
```

Slicing a list

```
finishers = ['sam', 'bob', 'ada', 'bea']
first_two = finishers[:2]
```

Copying a list

```
copy_of_bikes = bikes[:]
```

Tuples

Tuples are similar to lists, but the items in a tuple can't be modified.

Making a tuple

```
dimensions = (1920, 1080)
```

If statements

If statements are used to test for particular conditions and respond appropriately.

Conditional tests

```
equals            x == 42
not equal         x != 42
greater than      x > 42
  or equal to     x >= 42
less than         x < 42
  or equal to     x <= 42
```

Conditional test with lists

```
'trek' in bikes
'surly' not in bikes
```

Assigning boolean values

```
game_active = True
can_edit = False
```

A simple if test

```
if age >= 18:
    print("You can vote!")
```

If-elif-else statements

```
if age < 4:
    ticket_price = 0
elif age < 18:
    ticket_price = 10
else:
    ticket_price = 15
```

Dictionaries

Dictionaries store connections between pieces of information. Each item in a dictionary is a key-value pair.

A simple dictionary

```
alien = {'color': 'green', 'points': 5}
```

Accessing a value

```
print("The alien's color is " + alien['color'])
```

Adding a new key-value pair

```
alien['x_position'] = 0
```

Looping through all key-value pairs

```
fav_numbers = {'eric': 17, 'ever': 4}
for name, number in fav_numbers.items():
    print(name + ' loves ' + str(number))
```

Looping through all keys

```
fav_numbers = {'eric': 17, 'ever': 4}
for name in fav_numbers.keys():
    print(name + ' loves a number')
```

Looping through all the values

```
fav_numbers = {'eric': 17, 'ever': 4}
for number in fav_numbers.values():
    print(str(number) + ' is a favorite')
```

User input

Your programs can prompt the user for input. All input is stored as a string.

Prompting for a value

```
name = input("What's your name? ")
print("Hello, " + name + "!")
```

Prompting for numerical input

```
age = input("How old are you? ")
age = int(age)

pi = input("What's the value of pi? ")
pi = float(pi)
```

While loops

A while loop repeats a block of code as long as a certain condition is true.

A simple while loop

```
current_value = 1
while current_value <= 5:
    print(current_value)
    current_value += 1
```

Letting the user choose when to quit

```
msg = ''
while msg != 'quit':
    msg = input("What's your message? ")
    print(msg)
```

Functions

Functions are named blocks of code, designed to do one specific job. Information passed to a function is called an argument, and information received by a function is called a parameter.

A simple function

```
def greet_user():
    """Display a simple greeting."""
    print("Hello!")

greet_user()
```

Passing an argument

```
def greet_user(username):
    """Display a personalized greeting."""
    print("Hello, " + username + "!")

greet_user('jesse')
```

Default values for parameters

```
def make_pizza(topping='bacon'):
    """Make a single-topping pizza."""
    print("Have a " + topping + " pizza!")

make_pizza()
make_pizza('pepperoni')
```

Returning a value

```
def add_numbers(x, y):
    """Add two numbers and return the sum."""
    return x + y

sum = add_numbers(3, 5)
print(sum)
```

Classes

A class defines the behavior of an object and the kind of information an object can store. The information in a class is stored in attributes, and functions that belong to a class are called methods. A child class inherits the attributes and methods from its parent class.

Creating a dog class

```
class Dog():
    """Represent a dog."""

    def __init__(self, name):
        """Initialize dog object."""
        self.name = name

    def sit(self):
        """Simulate sitting."""
        print(self.name + " is sitting.")

my_dog = Dog('Peso')

print(my_dog.name + " is a great dog!")
my_dog.sit()
```

Inheritance

```
class SARDog(Dog):
    """Represent a search dog."""

    def __init__(self, name):
        """Initialize the sardog."""
        super().__init__(name)

    def search(self):
        """Simulate searching."""
        print(self.name + " is searching.")

my_dog = SARDog('Willie')

print(my_dog.name + " is a search dog.")
my_dog.sit()
my_dog.search()
```

Infinite Skills

If you had infinite programming skills, what would you build?

As you're learning to program, it's helpful to think about the real-world projects you'd like to create. It's a good habit to keep an "ideas" notebook that you can refer to whenever you want to start a new project. If you haven't done so already, take a few minutes and describe three projects you'd like to create.

Working with files

Your programs can read from files and write to files. Files are opened in read mode ('r') by default, but can also be opened in write mode ('w') and append mode ('a').

Reading a file and storing its lines

```
filename = 'siddhartha.txt'
with open(filename) as file_object:
    lines = file_object.readlines()

for line in lines:
    print(line)
```

Writing to a file

```
filename = 'journal.txt'
with open(filename, 'w') as file_object:
    file_object.write("I love programming.")
```

Appending to a file

```
filename = 'journal.txt'
with open(filename, 'a') as file_object:
    file_object.write("\nI love making games.")
```

Exceptions

Exceptions help you respond appropriately to errors that are likely to occur. You place code that might cause an error in the try block. Code that should run in response to an error goes in the except block. Code that should run only if the try block was successful goes in the else block.

Catching an exception

```
prompt = "How many tickets do you need? "
num_tickets = input(prompt)

try:
    num_tickets = int(num_tickets)
except ValueError:
    print("Please try again.")
else:
    print("Your tickets are printing.")
```

Zen of Python

Simple is better than complex

If you have a choice between a simple and a complex solution, and both work, use the simple solution. Your code will be easier to maintain, and it will be easier for you and others to build on that code later on.

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet - Lists

What are lists?

A list stores a series of items in a particular order. Lists allow you to store sets of information in one place, whether you have just a few items or millions of items. Lists are one of Python's most powerful features readily accessible to new programmers, and they tie together many important concepts in programming.

Defining a list

Use square brackets to define a list, and use commas to separate individual items in the list. Use plural names for lists, to make your code easier to read.

Making a list

```
users = ['val', 'bob', 'mia', 'ron', 'ned']
```

Accessing elements

Individual elements in a list are accessed according to their position, called the index. The index of the first element is 0, the index of the second element is 1, and so forth. Negative indices refer to items at the end of the list. To get a particular element, write the name of the list and then the index of the element in square brackets.

Getting the first element

```
first_user = users[0]
```

Getting the second element

```
second_user = users[1]
```

Getting the last element

```
newest_user = users[-1]
```

Modifying individual items

Once you've defined a list, you can change individual elements in the list. You do this by referring to the index of the item you want to modify.

Changing an element

```
users[0] = 'valerie'
users[-2] = 'ronald'
```

Join a list to strings

```
myList = ['a','b','c']
new_string = ",".join(myList)
```

Adding elements

You can add elements to the end of a list, or you can insert them wherever you like in a list.

Adding an element to the end of the list

```
users.append('amy')
```

Starting with an empty list

```
users = []
users.append('val')
users.append('bob')
users.append('mia')
```

Inserting elements at a particular position

```
users.insert(0, 'joe')
users.insert(3, 'bea')
```

Removing elements

You can remove elements by their position in a list, or by the value of the item. If you remove an item by its value, Python removes only the first item that has that value.

Deleting an element by its position

```
del users[-1]
```

Removing an item by its value

```
users.remove('mia')
```

Popping elements

If you want to work with an element that you're removing from the list, you can "pop" the element. If you think of the list as a stack of items, pop() takes an item off the top of the stack. By default pop() returns the last element in the list, but you can also pop elements from any position in the list.

Pop the last item from a list

```
most_recent_user = users.pop()
print(most_recent_user)
```

Pop the first item in a list

```
first_user = users.pop(0)
print(first_user)
```

List length

The len() function returns the number of items in a list.

Find the length of a list

```
num_users = len(users)
print("We have " + str(num_users) + " users.")
```

Sorting a list

The sort() method changes the order of a list permanently. The sorted() function returns a copy of the list, leaving the original list unchanged. You can sort the items in a list in alphabetical order, or reverse alphabetical order. You can also reverse the original order of the list. Keep in mind that lowercase and uppercase letters may affect the sort order.

Sorting a list permanently

```
users.sort()
```

Sorting a list permanently in reverse alphabetical order

```
users.sort(reverse=True)
```

Sorting a list temporarily

```
print(sorted(users))
print(sorted(users, reverse=True))
```

Reversing the order of a list

```
users.reverse()
```

Looping through a list

Lists can contain millions of items, so Python provides an efficient way to loop through all the items in a list. When you set up a loop, Python pulls each item from the list one at a time and stores it in a temporary variable, which you provide a name for. This name should be the singular version of the list name.

The indented block of code makes up the body of the loop, where you can work with each individual item. Any lines that are not indented run after the loop is completed.

Printing all items in a list

```
for user in users:
    print(user)
```

Printing a message for each item, and a separate message afterwards

```
for user in users:
    print("Welcome, " + user + "!")

print("Welcome, we're glad to see you all!")
```

The range() function

You can use the range() function to work with a set of numbers efficiently. The range() function starts at 0 by default, and stops one number below the number passed to it. You can use the list() function to efficiently generate a large list of numbers.

Printing the numbers 0 to 1000

```
for number in range(1001):
    print(number)
```

Printing the numbers 1 to 1000

```
for number in range(1, 1001):
    print(number)
```

Making a list of numbers from 1 to a million

```
numbers = list(range(1, 1000001))
```

Simple statistics

There are a number of simple statistics you can run on a list containing numerical data.

Finding the minimum value in a list

```
ages = [93, 99, 66, 17, 85, 1, 35, 82, 2, 77]
youngest = min(ages)
```

Finding the maximum value

```
ages = [93, 99, 66, 17, 85, 1, 35, 82, 2, 77]
oldest = max(ages)
```

Finding the sum of all values

```
ages = [93, 99, 66, 17, 85, 1, 35, 82, 2, 77]
total_years = sum(ages)
```

Slicing a list

You can work with any set of elements from a list. A portion of a list is called a slice. To slice a list start with the index of the first item you want, then add a colon and the index after the last item you want. Leave off the first index to start at the beginning of the list, and leave off the last index to slice through the end of the list.

Getting the first three items

```
finishers = ['kai', 'abe', 'ada', 'gus', 'zoe']
first_three = finishers[:3]
```

Getting the middle three items

```
middle_three = finishers[1:4]
```

Getting the last three items

```
last_three = finishers[-3:]
```

Copying a list

To copy a list make a slice that starts at the first item and ends at the last item. If you try to copy a list without using this approach, whatever you do to the copied list will affect the original list as well.

Making a copy of a list

```
finishers = ['kai', 'abe', 'ada', 'gus', 'zoe']
copy_of_finishers = finishers[:]
```

https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/datastructures.html
https://www.pythonforbeginners.com/basics/list-comprehensions-in-python

List comprehensions

You can use a loop to generate a list based on a range of numbers or on another list. This is a common operation, so Python offers a more efficient way to do it. List comprehensions may look complicated at first; if so, use the for loop approach until you're ready to start using comprehensions.

To write a comprehension, define an expression for the values you want to store in the list. Then write a for loop to generate input values needed to make the list.

Using a loop to generate a list of square numbers

```
squares = []
for x in range(1, 11):
    square = x**2
    squares.append(square)
```

Using a comprehension to generate a list of square numbers

```
squares = [x**2 for x in range(1, 11)]
```

Using a loop to convert a list of names to upper case

```
names = ['kai', 'abe', 'ada', 'gus', 'zoe']

upper_names = []
for name in names:
    upper_names.append(name.upper())
```

Using a comprehension to convert a list of names to upper case

```
names = ['kai', 'abe', 'ada', 'gus', 'zoe']

upper_names = [name.upper() for name in names]
```

Styling your code

Readability counts

- Use four spaces per indentation level.
- Keep your lines to 79 characters or fewer.
- Use single blank lines to group parts of your program visually.

Tuples

A tuple is like a list, except you can't change the values in a tuple once it's defined. Tuples are good for storing information that shouldn't be changed throughout the life of a program. Tuples are designated by parentheses instead of square brackets. (You can overwrite an entire tuple, but you can't change the individual elements in a tuple.)

Defining a tuple

```
dimensions = (800, 600)
```

Looping through a tuple

```
for dimension in dimensions:
    print(dimension)
```

Overwriting a tuple

```
dimensions = (800, 600)
print(dimensions)

dimensions = (1200, 900)
```

Visualizing your code

When you're first learning about data structures such as lists, it helps to visualize how Python is working with the information in your program. pythontutor.com is a great tool for seeing how Python keeps track of the information in a list. Try running the following code on pythontutor.com, and then run your own code.

Build a list and print the items in the list

```
dogs = []
dogs.append('willie')
dogs.append('hootz')
dogs.append('peso')
dogs.append('goblin')

for dog in dogs:
    print("Hello " + dog + "!")
print("I love these dogs!")

print("\nThese were my first two dogs:")
old_dogs = dogs[:2]
for old_dog in old_dogs:
    print(old_dog)

del dogs[0]
dogs.remove('peso')
print(dogs)
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — Dictionaries

What are dictionaries?

Python's dictionaries allow you to connect pieces of related information. Each piece of information in a dictionary is stored as a key-value pair. When you provide a key, Python returns the value associated with that key. You can loop through all the key-value pairs, all the keys, or all the values.

Defining a dictionary

Use curly braces to define a dictionary. Use colons to connect keys and values, and use commas to separate individual key-value pairs.

Making a dictionary

```
alien_0 = {'color': 'green', 'points': 5}
```

Accessing values

To access the value associated with an individual key give the name of the dictionary and then place the key in a set of square brackets. If the key you're asking for is not in the dictionary, an error will occur.

You can also use the get() method, which returns None instead of an error if the key doesn't exist. You can also specify a default value to use if the key is not in the dictionary.

Getting the value associated with a key

```
alien_0 = {'color': 'green', 'points': 5}

print(alien_0['color'])
print(alien_0['points'])
```

Getting the value with get()

```
alien_0 = {'color': 'green'}

alien_color = alien_0.get('color')
alien_points = alien_0.get('points', 0)

print(alien_color)
print(alien_points)
```

Adding new key-value pairs

You can store as many key-value pairs as you want in a dictionary, until your computer runs out of memory. To add a new key-value pair to an existing dictionary give the name of the dictionary and the new key in square brackets, and set it equal to the new value.

This also allows you to start with an empty dictionary and add key-value pairs as they become relevant.

Adding a key-value pair

```
alien_0 = {'color': 'green', 'points': 5}

alien_0['x'] = 0
alien_0['y'] = 25
alien_0['speed'] = 1.5
```

Adding to an empty dictionary

```
alien_0 = {}
alien_0['color'] = 'green'
alien_0['points'] = 5
```

Modifying values

You can modify the value associated with any key in a dictionary. To do so give the name of the dictionary and enclose the key in square brackets, then provide the new value for that key.

Modifying values in a dictionary

```
alien_0 = {'color': 'green', 'points': 5}
print(alien_0)

# Change the alien's color and point value.
alien_0['color'] = 'yellow'
alien_0['points'] = 10
print(alien_0)
```

Removing key-value pairs

You can remove any key-value pair you want from a dictionary. To do so use the del keyword and the dictionary name, followed by the key in square brackets. This will delete the key and its associated value.

Deleting a key-value pair

```
alien_0 = {'color': 'green', 'points': 5}
print(alien_0)

del alien_0['points']
print(alien_0)
```

Visualizing dictionaries

Try running some of these examples on pythontutor.com.

Looping through a dictionary

You can loop through a dictionary in three ways: you can loop through all the key-value pairs, all the keys, or all the values.

A dictionary only tracks the connections between keys and values; it doesn't track the order of items in the dictionary. If you want to process the information in order, you can sort the keys in your loop.

Looping through all key-value pairs

```
# Store people's favorite languages.
fav_languages = {
    'jen': 'python',
    'sarah': 'c',
    'edward': 'ruby',
    'phil': 'python',
    }

# Show each person's favorite language.
for name, language in fav_languages.items():
    print(name + ": " + language)
```

Looping through all the keys

```
# Show everyone who's taken the survey.
for name in fav_languages.keys():
    print(name)
```

Looping through all the values

```
# Show all the languages that have been chosen.
for language in fav_languages.values():
    print(language)
```

Looping through all the keys in order

```
# Show each person's favorite language,
#   in order by the person's name.
for name in sorted(fav_languages.keys()):
    print(name + ": " + language)
```

Dictionary length

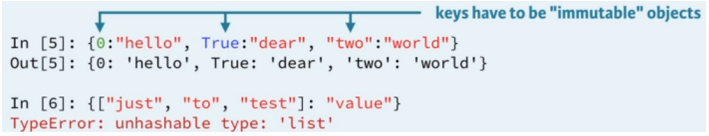
You can find the number of key-value pairs in a dictionary.

Finding a dictionary's length

```
num_responses = len(fav_languages)
```

Convert two lists into a dictionary

```
keys = ['a','b','c']
values = [1,2,3]
dictionary = dict(zip(keys,values))
print (dictionary)
```



Use `items()` method to access to keys and their corresponding values

e.g_1

```
>>> d={'1': 1, '2': 2, '3': 3}

>>> d.items()
dict_items([('1', 1), ('2', 2), ('3', 3)])

>>> for i in d.items():
    print (i)

('1', 1)
('2', 2)
('3', 3)
```

```
e.g_2
d = {'person': 2, 'cat': 4, 'spider': 8}
for animal, legs in d.items():
    print ('A {} has {} legs' .format(animal, legs))

A person has 2 legs
A cat has 4 legs
A spider has 8 legs
```

Use .sort() to sort in dictionary

```
ordered_keys = list(d.keys())
ordered_keys.sort()
```

A quick way to print out paired tuples

```
for keyValues in tuple(d.items()):
    item,description = keyValues
    print (item + "is" + description)
```

Nesting — A list of dictionaries

It's sometimes useful to store a set of dictionaries in a list; this is called nesting.

Storing dictionaries in a list

```
# Start with an empty list.
users = []

# Make a new user, and add them to the list.
new_user = {
    'last': 'fermi',
    'first': 'enrico',
    'username': 'efermi',
    }
users.append(new_user)

# Make another new user, and add them as well.
new_user = {
    'last': 'curie',
    'first': 'marie',
    'username': 'mcurie',
    }
users.append(new_user)

# Show all information about each user.
for user_dict in users:
    for k, v in user_dict.items():
        print(k + ": " + v)
    print("\n")
```

You can also define a list of dictionaries directly, without using append():

```
# Define a list of users, where each user
#   is represented by a dictionary.
users = [
    {
        'last': 'fermi',
        'first': 'enrico',
        'username': 'efermi',
    },
    {
        'last': 'curie',
        'first': 'marie',
        'username': 'mcurie',
    },
]

# Show all information about each user.
for user_dict in users:
    for k, v in user_dict.items():
        print(k + ": " + v)
    print("\n")
```

Nesting — Lists in a dictionary

Storing a list inside a dictionary alows you to associate more than one value with each key.

Storing lists in a dictionary

```
# Store multiple languages for each person.
fav_languages = {
    'jen': ['python', 'ruby'],
    'sarah': ['c'],
    'edward': ['ruby', 'go'],
    'phil': ['python', 'haskell'],
}

# Show all responses for each person.
for name, langs in fav_languages.items():
    print(name + ": ")
    for lang in langs:
        print("- " + lang)
```

Nesting — A dictionary of dictionaries

You can store a dictionary inside another dictionary. In this case each value associated with a key is itself a dictionary.

Storing dictionaries in a dictionary

```
users = {
    'aeinstein': {
        'first': 'albert',
        'last': 'einstein',
        'location': 'princeton',
        },
    'mcurie': {
        'first': 'marie',
        'last': 'curie',
        'location': 'paris',
        },
    }

for username, user_dict in users.items():
    print("\nUsername: " + username)
    full_name = user_dict['first'] + " "
    full_name += user_dict['last']
    location = user_dict['location']

    print("\tFull name: " + full_name.title())
    print("\tLocation: " + location.title())
```

Levels of nesting

Nesting is extremely useful in certain situations. However, be aware of making your code overly complex. If you're nesting items much deeper than what you see here there are probably simpler ways of managing your data, such as using classes.

Using an OrderedDict

Standard Python dictionaries don't keep track of the order in which keys and values are added; they only preserve the association between each key and its value. If you want to preserve the order in which keys and values are added, use an OrderedDict.

Preserving the order of keys and values

```
from collections import OrderedDict

# Store each person's languages, keeping
#  track of who respoded first.
fav_languages = OrderedDict()

fav_languages['jen'] = ['python', 'ruby']
fav_languages['sarah'] = ['c']
fav_languages['edward'] = ['ruby', 'go']
fav_languages['phil'] = ['python', 'haskell']

# Display the results, in the same order they
#  were entered.
for name, langs in fav_languages.items():
    print(name + ":")
    for lang in langs:
        print("- " + lang)
```

Generating a million dictionaries

You can use a loop to generate a large number of dictionaries efficiently, if all the dictionaries start out with similar data.

A million aliens

```
aliens = []

# Make a million green aliens, worth 5 points
#  each. Have them all start in one row.
for alien_num in range(1000000):
    new_alien = {}
    new_alien['color'] = 'green'
    new_alien['points'] = 5
    new_alien['x'] = 20 * alien_num
    new_alien['y'] = 0
    aliens.append(new_alien)

# Prove the list contains a million aliens.
num_aliens = len(aliens)

print("Number of aliens created:")
print(num_aliens)
```

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — If Statements and While Loops

What are if statements? What are while loops?

If statements allow you to examine the current state of a program and respond appropriately to that state. You can write a simple if statement that checks one condition, or you can create a complex series of if statements that idenitfy the exact conditions you're looking for.

While loops run as long as certain conditions remain true. You can use while loops to let your programs run as long as your users want them to.

Conditional Tests

A conditional test is an expression that can be evaluated as True or False. Python uses the values True and False to decide whether the code in an if statement should be executed.

Checking for equality

A single equal sign assigns a value to a variable. A double equal sign (==) checks whether two values are equal.

```
>>> car = 'bmw'
>>> car == 'bmw'
True
>>> car = 'audi'
>>> car == 'bmw'
False
```

Ignoring case when making a comparison

```
>>> car = 'Audi'
>>> car.lower() == 'audi'
True
```

Checking for inequality

```
>>> topping = 'mushrooms'
>>> topping != 'anchovies'
True
```

Numerical comparisons

Testing numerical values is similar to testing string values.

Testing equality and inequality

```
>>> age = 18
>>> age == 18
True
>>> age != 18
False
```

Comparison operators

```
>>> age = 19
>>> age < 21
True
>>> age <= 21
True
>>> age > 21
False
>>> age >= 21
False
```

Checking multiple conditions

You can check multiple conditions at the same time. The and operator returns True if all the conditions listed are True. The or operator returns True if any condition is True.

Using and to check multiple conditions

```
>>> age_0 = 22
>>> age_1 = 18
>>> age_0 >= 21 and age_1 >= 21
False
>>> age_1 = 23
>>> age_0 >= 21 and age_1 >= 21
True
```

Using or to check multiple conditions

```
>>> age_0 = 22
>>> age_1 = 18
>>> age_0 >= 21 or age_1 >= 21
True
>>> age_0 = 18
>>> age_0 >= 21 or age_1 >= 21
False
```

Boolean values

A boolean value is either True or False. Variables with boolean values are often used to keep track of certain conditions within a program.

Simple boolean values

```
game_active = True
can_edit = False
```

If statements

Several kinds of if statements exist. Your choice of which to use depends on the number of conditions you need to test. You can have as many elif blocks as you need, and the else block is always optional.

Simple if statement

```
age = 19

if age >= 18:
    print("You're old enough to vote!")
```

If-else statements

```
age = 17

if age >= 18:
    print("You're old enough to vote!")
else:
    print("You can't vote yet.")
```

The if-elif-else chain

```
age = 12

if age < 4:
   price = 0
elif age < 18:
    price = 5
else:
    price = 10

print("Your cost is $" + str(price) + ".")
```

Conditional tests with lists

You can easily test whether a certain value is in a list. You can also test whether a list is empty before trying to loop through the list.

Testing if a value is in a list

```
>>> players = ['al', 'bea', 'cyn', 'dale']
>>> 'al' in players
True
>>> 'eric' in players
False
```

Conditional tests with lists (cont.)

Testing if a value is not in a list

```
banned_users = ['ann', 'chad', 'dee']
user = 'erin'

if user not in banned_users:
    print("You can play!")
```

Checking if a list is empty

```
players = []

if players:
    for player in players:
        print("Player: " + player.title())
else:
    print("We have no players yet!")
```

Accepting input

You can allow your users to enter input using the input() statement. In Python 3, all input is stored as a string.

Simple input

```
name = input("What's your name? ")
print("Hello, " + name + ".")
```

Accepting numerical input

```
age = input("How old are you? ")
age = int(age)

if age >= 18:
    print("\nYou can vote!")
else:
    print("\nYou can't vote yet.")
```

Accepting input in Python 2.7

Use raw_input() in Python 2.7. This function interprets all input as a string, just as input() does in Python 3.

```
name = raw_input("What's your name? ")
print("Hello, " + name + ".")
```

While loops

A while loop repeats a block of code as long as a condition is True.

Counting to 5

```
current_number = 1

while current_number <= 5:
    print(current_number)
    current_number += 1
```

While loops (cont.)

Letting the user choose when to quit

```
prompt = "\nTell me something, and I'll "
prompt += "repeat it back to you."
prompt += "\nEnter 'quit' to end the program. "

message = ""
while message != 'quit':
    message = input(prompt)

    if message != 'quit':
        print(message)
```

Using a flag

```
prompt = "\nTell me something, and I'll "
prompt += "repeat it back to you."
prompt += "\nEnter 'quit' to end the program. "

active = True
while active:
    message = input(prompt)

    if message == 'quit':
        active = False
    else:
        print(message)
```

Using break to exit a loop

```
prompt = "\nWhat cities have you visited?"
prompt += "\nEnter 'quit' when you're done. "

while True:
    city = input(prompt)

    if city == 'quit':
        break
    else:
        print("I've been to " + city + "!")
```

Accepting input with Sublime Text

Sublime Text doesn't run programs that prompt the user for input. You can use Sublime Text to write programs that prompt for input, but you'll need to run these programs from a terminal.

Breaking out of loops

You can use the break statement and the continue statement with any of Python's loops. For example you can use break to quit a for loop that's working through a list or a dictionary. You can use continue to skip over certain items when looping through a list or dictionary as well.

While loops (cont.)

Using continue in a loop

```
banned_users = ['eve', 'fred', 'gary', 'helen']

prompt = "\nAdd a player to your team."
prompt += "\nEnter 'quit' when you're done. "

players = []
while True:
    player = input(prompt)
    if player == 'quit':
        break
    elif player in banned_users:
        print(player + " is banned!")
        continue
    else:
        players.append(player)

print("\nYour team:")
for player in players:
    print(player)
```

Avoiding infinite loops

Every while loop needs a way to stop running so it won't continue to run forever. If there's no way for the condition to become False, the loop will never stop running.

An infinite loop

```
while True:
    name = input("\nWho are you? ")
    print("Nice to meet you, " + name + "!")
```

Removing all instances of a value from a list

The remove() method removes a specific value from a list, but it only removes the first instance of the value you provide. You can use a while loop to remove all instances of a particular value.

Removing all cats from a list of pets

```
pets = ['dog', 'cat', 'dog', 'fish', 'cat',
        'rabbit', 'cat']
print(pets)

while 'cat' in pets:
    pets.remove('cat')

print(pets)
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — Functions

What are functions?

Functions are named blocks of code designed to do one specific job. Functions allow you to write code once that can then be run whenever you need to accomplish the same task. Functions can take in the information they need, and return the information they generate. Using functions effectively makes your programs easier to write, read, test, and fix.

Defining a function

The first line of a function is its definition, marked by the keyword def. The name of the function is followed by a set of parentheses and a colon. A docstring, in triple quotes, describes what the function does. The body of a function is indented one level.

To call a function, give the name of the function followed by a set of parentheses.

Making a function

```
def greet_user():
    """Display a simple greeting."""
    print("Hello!")

greet_user()
```

Passing information to a function

Information that's passed to a function is called an argument; information that's received by a function is called a parameter. Arguments are included in parentheses after the function's name, and parameters are listed in parentheses in the function's definition.

Passing a single argument

```
def greet_user(username):
    """Display a simple greeting."""
    print("Hello, " + username + "!")

greet_user('jesse')
greet_user('diana')
greet_user('brandon')
```

Positional and keyword arguments

The two main kinds of arguments are positional and keyword arguments. When you use positional arguments Python matches the first argument in the function call with the first parameter in the function definition, and so forth.

With keyword arguments, you specify which parameter each argument should be assigned to in the function call. When you use keyword arguments, the order of the arguments doesn't matter.

Using positional arguments

```
def describe_pet(animal, name):
    """Display information about a pet."""
    print("\nI have a " + animal + ".")
    print("Its name is " + name + ".")

describe_pet('hamster', 'harry')
describe_pet('dog', 'willie')
```

Using keyword arguments

```
def describe_pet(animal, name):
    """Display information about a pet."""
    print("\nI have a " + animal + ".")
    print("Its name is " + name + ".")

describe_pet(animal='hamster', name='harry')
describe_pet(name='willie', animal='dog')
```

Default values

You can provide a default value for a parameter. When function calls omit this argument the default value will be used. Parameters with default values must be listed after parameters without default values in the function's definition so positional arguments can still work correctly.

Using a default value

```
def describe_pet(name, animal='dog'):
    """Display information about a pet."""
    print("\nI have a " + animal + ".")
    print("Its name is " + name + ".")

describe_pet('harry', 'hamster')
describe_pet('willie')
```

Using None to make an argument optional

```
def describe_pet(animal, name=None):
    """Display information about a pet."""
    print("\nI have a " + animal + ".")
    if name:
        print("Its name is " + name + ".")

describe_pet('hamster', 'harry')
describe_pet('snake')
```

Return values

A function can return a value or a set of values. When a function returns a value, the calling line must provide a variable in which to store the return value. A function stops running when it reaches a return statement.

Returning a single value

```
def get_full_name(first, last):
    """Return a neatly formatted full name."""
    full_name = first + ' ' + last
    return full_name.title()

musician = get_full_name('jimi', 'hendrix')
print(musician)
```

Returning a dictionary

```
def build_person(first, last):
    """Return a dictionary of information
    about a person.
    """
    person = {'first': first, 'last': last}
    return person

musician = build_person('jimi', 'hendrix')
print(musician)
```

Returning a dictionary with optional values

```
def build_person(first, last, age=None):
    """Return a dictionary of information
    about a person.
    """
    person = {'first': first, 'last': last}
    if age:
        person['age'] = age
    return person

musician = build_person('jimi', 'hendrix', 27)
print(musician)

musician = build_person('janis', 'joplin')
print(musician)
```

Visualizing functions

Try running some of these examples on pythontutor.com.

Passing a list to a function

You can pass a list as an argument to a function, and the function can work with the values in the list. Any changes the function makes to the list will affect the original list. You can prevent a function from modifying a list by passing a copy of the list as an argument.

Passing a list as an argument

```
def greet_users(names):
    """Print a simple greeting to everyone."""
    for name in names:
        msg = "Hello, " + name + "!"
        print(msg)

usernames = ['hannah', 'ty', 'margot']
greet_users(usernames)
```

Allowing a function to modify a list

The following example sends a list of models to a function for printing. The original list is emptied, and the second list is filled.

```
def print_models(unprinted, printed):
    """3d print a set of models."""
    while unprinted:
        current_model = unprinted.pop()
        print("Printing " + current_model)
        printed.append(current_model)

# Store some unprinted designs,
#  and print each of them.
unprinted = ['phone case', 'pendant', 'ring']
printed = []
print_models(unprinted, printed)

print("\nUnprinted:", unprinted)
print("Printed:", printed)
```

Preventing a function from modifying a list

The following example is the same as the previous one, except the original list is unchanged after calling print_models().

```
def print_models(unprinted, printed):
    """3d print a set of models."""
    while unprinted:
        current_model = unprinted.pop()
        print("Printing " + current_model)
        printed.append(current_model)

# Store some unprinted designs,
#  and print each of them.
original = ['phone case', 'pendant', 'ring']
printed = []

print_models(original[:], printed)
print("\nOriginal:", original)
print("Printed:", printed)
```

Passing an arbitrary number of arguments

*Sometimes you won't know how many arguments a function will need to accept. Python allows you to collect an arbitrary number of arguments into one parameter using the * operator. A parameter that accepts an arbitrary number of arguments must come last in the function definition.*

*The ** operator allows a parameter to collect an arbitrary number of keyword arguments.*

Collecting an arbitrary number of arguments

```
def make_pizza(size, *toppings):
    """Make a pizza."""
    print("\nMaking a " + size + " pizza.")
    print("Toppings:")
    for topping in toppings:
        print("- " + topping)

# Make three pizzas with different toppings.
make_pizza('small', 'pepperoni')
make_pizza('large', 'bacon bits', 'pineapple')
make_pizza('medium', 'mushrooms', 'peppers',
        'onions', 'extra cheese')
```

Collecting an arbitrary number of keyword arguments

```
def build_profile(first, last, **user_info):
    """Build a user's profile dictionary."""
    # Build a dict with the required keys.
    profile = {'first': first, 'last': last}

    # Add any other keys and values.
    for key, value in user_info.items():
        profile[key] = value

    return profile

# Create two users with different kinds
#   of information.
user_0 = build_profile('albert', 'einstein',
        location='princeton')
user_1 = build_profile('marie', 'curie',
        location='paris', field='chemistry')

print(user_0)
print(user_1)
```

What's the best way to structure a function?

As you can see there are many ways to write and call a function. When you're starting out, aim for something that simply works. As you gain experience you'll develop an understanding of the more subtle advantages of different structures such as positional and keyword arguments, and the various approaches to importing functions. For now if your functions do what you need them to, you're doing well.

Modules

You can store your functions in a separate file called a module, and then import the functions you need into the file containing your main program. This allows for cleaner program files. (Make sure your module is stored in the same directory as your main program.)

Storing a function in a module

File: pizza.py

```
def make_pizza(size, *toppings):
    """Make a pizza."""
    print("\nMaking a " + size + " pizza.")
    print("Toppings:")
    for topping in toppings:
        print("- " + topping)
```

Importing an entire module

File: making_pizzas.py
Every function in the module is available in the program file.

```
import pizza

pizza.make_pizza('medium', 'pepperoni')
pizza.make_pizza('small', 'bacon', 'pineapple')
```

Importing a specific function

Only the imported functions are available in the program file.

```
from pizza import make_pizza

make_pizza('medium', 'pepperoni')
make_pizza('small', 'bacon', 'pineapple')
```

Giving a module an alias

```
import pizza as p

p.make_pizza('medium', 'pepperoni')
p.make_pizza('small', 'bacon', 'pineapple')
```

Giving a function an alias

```
from pizza import make_pizza as mp

mp('medium', 'pepperoni')
mp('small', 'bacon', 'pineapple')
```

Importing all functions from a module

Don't do this, but recognize it when you see it in others' code. It can result in naming conflicts, which can cause errors.

```
from pizza import *

make_pizza('medium', 'pepperoni')
make_pizza('small', 'bacon', 'pineapple')
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet - Classes

What are classes?

Classes are the foundation of object-oriented programming. Classes represent real-world things you want to model in your programs: for example dogs, cars, and robots. You use a class to make objects, which are specific instances of dogs, cars, and robots. A class defines the general behavior that a whole category of objects can have, and the information that can be associated with those objects.

Classes can inherit from each other – you can write a class that extends the functionality of an existing class. This allows you to code efficiently for a wide variety of situations.

Creating and using a class

Consider how we might model a car. What information would we associate with a car, and what behavior would it have? The information is stored in variables called attributes, and the behavior is represented by functions. Functions that are part of a class are called methods.

The Car class

```
class Car():
    """A simple attempt to model a car."""

    def __init__(self, make, model, year):
        """Initialize car attributes."""
        self.make = make
        self.model = model
        self.year = year

        # Fuel capacity and level in gallons.
        self.fuel_capacity = 15
        self.fuel_level = 0

    def fill_tank(self):
        """Fill gas tank to capacity."""
        self.fuel_level = self.fuel_capacity
        print("Fuel tank is full.")

    def drive(self):
        """Simulate driving."""
        print("The car is moving.")
```

Creating and using a class (cont.)

Creating an object from a class

```
my_car = Car('audi', 'a4', 2016)
```

Accessing attribute values

```
print(my_car.make)
print(my_car.model)
print(my_car.year)
```

Calling methods

```
my_car.fill_tank()
my_car.drive()
```

Creating multiple objects

```
my_car = Car('audi', 'a4', 2016)
my_old_car = Car('subaru', 'outback', 2013)
my_truck = Car('toyota', 'tacoma', 2010)
```

Modifying attributes

You can modify an attribute's value directly, or you can write methods that manage updating values more carefully.

Modifying an attribute directly

```
my_new_car = Car('audi', 'a4', 2016)
my_new_car.fuel_level = 5
```

Writing a method to update an attribute's value

```
def update_fuel_level(self, new_level):
    """Update the fuel level."""
    if new_level <= self.fuel_capacity:
        self.fuel_level = new_level
    else:
        print("The tank can't hold that much!")
```

Writing a method to increment an attribute's value

```
def add_fuel(self, amount):
    """Add fuel to the tank."""
    if (self.fuel_level + amount
            <= self.fuel_capacity):
        self.fuel_level += amount
        print("Added fuel.")
    else:
        print("The tank won't hold that much.")
```

Naming conventions

In Python class names are written in CamelCase and object names are written in lowercase with underscores. Modules that contain classes should still be named in lowercase with underscores.

Class inheritance

If the class you're writing is a specialized version of another class, you can use inheritance. When one class inherits from another, it automatically takes on all the attributes and methods of the parent class. The child class is free to introduce new attributes and methods, and override attributes and methods of the parent class.

To inherit from another class include the name of the parent class in parentheses when defining the new class.

The __init__() method for a child class

```
class ElectricCar(Car):
    """A simple model of an electric car."""

    def __init__(self, make, model, year):
        """Initialize an electric car."""
        super().__init__(make, model, year)

        # Attributes specific to electric cars.
        # Battery capacity in kWh.
        self.battery_size = 70
        # Charge level in %.
        self.charge_level = 0
```

Adding new methods to the child class

```
class ElectricCar(Car):
    --snip--
    def charge(self):
        """Fully charge the vehicle."""
        self.charge_level = 100
        print("The vehicle is fully charged.")
```

Using child methods and parent methods

```
my_ecar = ElectricCar('tesla', 'model s', 2016)

my_ecar.charge()
my_ecar.drive()
```

Finding your workflow

There are many ways to model real world objects and situations in code, and sometimes that variety can feel overwhelming. Pick an approach and try it – if your first attempt doesn't work, try a different approach.

Class inheritance (cont.)

Overriding parent methods

```
class ElectricCar(Car):
    --snip--
    def fill_tank(self):
        """Display an error message."""
        print("This car has no fuel tank!")
```

Instances as attributes

A class can have objects as attributes. This allows classes to work together to model complex situations.

A Battery class

```
class Battery():
    """A battery for an electric car."""

    def __init__(self, size=70):
        """Initialize battery attributes."""
        # Capacity in kWh, charge level in %.
        self.size = size
        self.charge_level = 0

    def get_range(self):
        """Return the battery's range."""
        if self.size == 70:
            return 240
        elif self.size == 85:
            return 270
```

Using an instance as an attribute

```
class ElectricCar(Car):
    --snip--

    def __init__(self, make, model, year):
        """Initialize an electric car."""
        super().__init__(make, model, year)

        # Attribute specific to electric cars.
        self.battery = Battery()

    def charge(self):
        """Fully charge the vehicle."""
        self.battery.charge_level = 100
        print("The vehicle is fully charged.")
```

Using the instance

```
my_ecar = ElectricCar('tesla', 'model x', 2016)

my_ecar.charge()
print(my_ecar.battery.get_range())
my_ecar.drive()
```

Importing classes

Class files can get long as you add detailed information and functionality. To help keep your program files uncluttered, you can store your classes in modules and import the classes you need into your main program.

Storing classes in a file

car.py

```
"""Represent gas and electric cars."""

class Car():
    """A simple attempt to model a car."""
    --snip—

class Battery():
    """A battery for an electric car."""
    --snip--

class ElectricCar(Car):
    """A simple model of an electric car."""
    --snip--
```

Importing individual classes from a module

my_cars.py

```
from car import Car, ElectricCar

my_beetle = Car('volkswagen', 'beetle', 2016)
my_beetle.fill_tank()
my_beetle.drive()

my_tesla = ElectricCar('tesla', 'model s',
2016)
my_tesla.charge()
my_tesla.drive()
```

Importing an entire module

```
import car

my_beetle = car.Car(
        'volkswagen', 'beetle', 2016)
my_beetle.fill_tank()
my_beetle.drive()

my_tesla = car.ElectricCar(
        'tesla', 'model s', 2016)
my_tesla.charge()
my_tesla.drive()
```

Importing all classes from a module

(Don't do this, but recognize it when you see it.)

```
from car import *

my_beetle = Car('volkswagen', 'beetle', 2016)
```

Classes in Python 2.7

Classes should inherit from object

```
class ClassName(object):
```

The Car class in Python 2.7

```
class Car(object):
```

Child class __init__() method is different

```
class ChildClassName(ParentClass):
    def __init__(self):
        super(ClassName, self).__init__()
```

The ElectricCar class in Python 2.7

```
class ElectricCar(Car):
    def __init__(self, make, model, year):
        super(ElectricCar, self).__init__(
                make, model, year)
```

Storing objects in a list

A list can hold as many items as you want, so you can make a large number of objects from a class and store them in a list.

Here's an example showing how to make a fleet of rental cars, and make sure all the cars are ready to drive.

A fleet of rental cars

```
from car import Car, ElectricCar

# Make lists to hold a fleet of cars.
gas_fleet = []
electric_fleet = []

# Make 500 gas cars and 250 electric cars.
for _ in range(500):
    car = Car('ford', 'focus', 2016)
    gas_fleet.append(car)
for _ in range(250):
    ecar = ElectricCar('nissan', 'leaf', 2016)
    electric_fleet.append(ecar)

# Fill the gas cars, and charge electric cars.
for car in gas_fleet:
    car.fill_tank()
for ecar in electric_fleet:
    ecar.charge()

print("Gas cars:", len(gas_fleet))
print("Electric cars:", len(electric_fleet))
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — Files and Exceptions

What are files? What are exceptions?

Your programs can read information in from files, and they can write data to files. Reading from files allows you to work with a wide variety of information; writing to files allows users to pick up where they left off the next time they run your program. You can write text to files, and you can store Python structures such as lists in data files.

Exceptions are special objects that help your programs respond to errors in appropriate ways. For example if your program tries to open a file that doesn't exist, you can use exceptions to display an informative error message instead of having the program crash.

Reading from a file

To read from a file your program needs to open the file and then read the contents of the file. You can read the entire contents of the file at once, or read the file line by line. The with statement makes sure the file is closed properly when the program has finished accessing the file.

Reading an entire file at once

```
filename = 'siddhartha.txt'

with open(filename) as f_obj:
    contents = f_obj.read()

print(contents)
```

Reading line by line

Each line that's read from the file has a newline character at the end of the line, and the print function adds its own newline character. The rstrip() method gets rid of the the extra blank lines this would result in when printing to the terminal.

```
filename = 'siddhartha.txt'

with open(filename) as f_obj:
    for line in f_obj:
        print(line.rstrip())
```

Reading from a file (cont.)

Storing the lines in a list

```
filename = 'siddhartha.txt'

with open(filename) as f_obj:
    lines = f_obj.readlines()

for line in lines:
    print(line.rstrip())
```

Writing to a file

Passing the 'w' argument to open() tells Python you want to write to the file. Be careful; this will erase the contents of the file if it already exists. Passing the 'a' argument tells Python you want to append to the end of an existing file.

Writing to an empty file

```
filename = 'programming.txt'

with open(filename, 'w') as f:
    f.write("I love programming!")
```

Writing multiple lines to an empty file

```
filename = 'programming.txt'

with open(filename, 'w') as f:
    f.write("I love programming!\n")
    f.write("I love creating new games.\n")
```

Appending to a file

```
filename = 'programming.txt'

with open(filename, 'a') as f:
    f.write("I also love working with data.\n")
    f.write("I love making apps as well.\n")
```

File paths

When Python runs the open() function, it looks for the file in the same directory where the program that's being excuted is stored. You can open a file from a subfolder using a relative path. You can also use an absolute path to open any file on your system.

Opening a file from a subfolder

```
f_path = "text_files/alice.txt"

with open(f_path) as f_obj:
    lines = f_obj.readlines()

for line in lines:
    print(line.rstrip())
```

File paths (cont.)

Opening a file using an absolute path

```
f_path = "/home/ehmatthes/books/alice.txt"

with open(f_path) as f_obj:
    lines = f_obj.readlines()
```

Opening a file on Windows

Windows will sometimes interpret forward slashes incorrectly. If you run into this, use backslashes in your file paths.

```
f_path = "C:\Users\ehmatthes\books\alice.txt"

with open(f_path) as f_obj:
    lines = f_obj.readlines()
```

The try-except block

When you think an error may occur, you can write a try-except block to handle the exception that might be raised. The try block tells Python to try running some code, and the except block tells Python what to do if the code results in a particular kind of error.

Handling the ZeroDivisionError exception

```
try:
    print(5/0)
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("You can't divide by zero!")
```

Handling the FileNotFoundError exception

```
f_name = 'siddhartha.txt'

try:
    with open(f_name) as f_obj:
        lines = f_obj.readlines()
except FileNotFoundError:
    msg = "Can't find file {0}.".format(f_name)
    print(msg)
```

Knowing which exception to handle

It can be hard to know what kind of exception to handle when writing code. Try writing your code without a try block, and make it generate an error. The traceback will tell you what kind of exception your program needs to handle.

Loading CSV files with Python

```
import csv
print 'Opening File. Data: '
csv_rows = []
with open('./datasets/sales_info.csv', 'rU') as f:
    reader = csv.reader(f)
    for row in reader:
        csv_rows.append(row)
f.close()
print 'file closed'   # Always remember to close the file
#after writing to it!
```

The first argument to `csv.reader` is the string path to the file. The second argument specifies the "mode" for the open file object:

'r' - Read (Default)
'w' - Write
'a' - Append; Adds additional modifications to the end. Unable to edit current contents.
'b' - Binary (used when working with a binary file, i.e. 'rb', for reading a binary file)
'U' - Opens text in Universal Newline mode. As '\r', '\n', and '\r\n' all indicate a newline depending on which language the file was written in, Universal Newline Mode will read '\r', '\n', and '\r\n' as Python's '\n'.

GA class example:
Load .csv file and print

```
with open('test/test.csv','r') as f: #open file in read mode
    lines = f.readlines() #built in function to split csv file
                          #on newlines and assign it to variable lines
```

Iterate through lines and print out:

```
for line in lines:
    print (line)
```

Basic clean up:

```
cleaned_lines = []

for l in lines:
    cleaned_lines.append(l.replace('\n',''))

cleaned_lines
```

Split the lines into "header" and "data" variable

```
header = cleaned_lines[0]
data = cleaned_lines[1:]
```

Split the header and the data strings on commas.

```
# split on commas
header = header.split(',')
print(header)
print (type(header))

split_data = []
for d in data:
    split_data.append(d.split(','))
```

Remove a particular column (remove the 1st col)

```
header = header[1:]
rows = []
for row in split_data:
    rows.append(row[1:])
```

The else block

The try block should only contain code that may cause an error. Any code that depends on the try block running successfully should be placed in the else block.

Using an else block

```
print("Enter two numbers. I'll divide them.")

x = input("First number: ")
y = input("Second number: ")

try:
    result = int(x) / int(y)
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("You can't divide by zero!")
else:
    print(result)
```

Preventing crashes from user input

Without the except block in the following example, the program would crash if the user tries to divide by zero. As written, it will handle the error gracefully and keep running.

```
"""A simple calculator for division only."""

print("Enter two numbers. I'll divide them.")
print("Enter 'q' to quit.")

while True:
    x = input("\nFirst number: ")
    if x == 'q':
        break
    y = input("Second number: ")
    if y == 'q':
        break

    try:
        result = int(x) / int(y)
    except ZeroDivisionError:
        print("You can't divide by zero!")
    else:
        print(result)
```

Deciding which errors to report

Well-written, properly tested code is not very prone to internal errors such as syntax or logical errors. But every time your program depends on something external such as user input or the existence of a file, there's a possibility of an exception being raised.

It's up to you how to communicate errors to your users. Sometimes users need to know if a file is missing; sometimes it's better to handle the error silently. A little experience will help you know how much to report.

Failing silently

Sometimes you want your program to just continue running when it encounters an error, without reporting the error to the user. Using the pass statement in an else block allows you to do this.

Using the pass statement in an else block

```
f_names = ['alice.txt', 'siddhartha.txt',
        'moby_dick.txt', 'little_women.txt']

for f_name in f_names:
    # Report the length of each file found.
    try:
        with open(f_name) as f_obj:
            lines = f_obj.readlines()
    except FileNotFoundError:
        # Just move on to the next file.
        pass
    else:
        num_lines = len(lines)
        msg = "{0} has {1} lines.".format(
            f_name, num_lines)
        print(msg)
```

Avoid bare except blocks

Exception-handling code should catch specific exceptions that you expect to happen during your program's execution. A bare except block will catch all exceptions, including keyboard interrupts and system exits you might need when forcing a program to close.

If you want to use a try block and you're not sure which exception to catch, use Exception. It will catch most exceptions, but still allow you to interrupt programs intentionally.

Don't use bare except blocks

```
try:
    # Do something
except:
    pass
```

Use Exception instead

```
try:
    # Do something
except Exception:
    pass
```

Printing the exception

```
try:
    # Do something
except Exception as e:
    print(e, type(e))
```

Storing data with json

The json module allows you to dump simple Python data structures into a file, and load the data from that file the next time the program runs. The JSON data format is not specific to Python, so you can share this kind of data with people who work in other languages as well.

Knowing how to manage exceptions is important when working with stored data. You'll usually want to make sure the data you're trying to load exists before working with it.

Using json.dump() to store data

```
"""Store some numbers."""

import json

numbers = [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13]

filename = 'numbers.json'
with open(filename, 'w') as f_obj:
    json.dump(numbers, f_obj)
```

Using json.load() to read data

```
"""Load some previously stored numbers."""

import json

filename = 'numbers.json'
with open(filename) as f_obj:
    numbers = json.load(f_obj)

print(numbers)
```

Making sure the stored data exists

```
import json

f_name = 'numbers.json'

try:
    with open(f_name) as f_obj:
        numbers = json.load(f_obj)
except FileNotFoundError:
    msg = "Can't find {0}.".format(f_name)
    print(msg)
else:
    print(numbers)
```

Practice with exceptions

Take a program you've already written that prompts for user input, and add some error-handling code to the program.

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — Testing Your Code

Why test your code?

When you write a function or a class, you can also write tests for that code. Testing proves that your code works as it's supposed to in the situations it's designed to handle, and also when people use your programs in unexpected ways. Writing tests gives you confidence that your code will work correctly as more people begin to use your programs. You can also add new features to your programs and know that you haven't broken existing behavior.

A unit test verifies that one specific aspect of your code works as it's supposed to. A test case is a collection of unit tests which verify your code's behavior in a wide variety of situations.

Testing a function: A passing test

Python's unittest module provides tools for testing your code. To try it out, we'll create a function that returns a full name. We'll use the function in a regular program, and then build a test case for the function.

A function to test

Save this as full_names.py

```
def get_full_name(first, last):
    """Return a full name."""
    full_name = "{0} {1}".format(first, last)
    return full_name.title()
```

Using the function

Save this as names.py

```
from full_names import get_full_name

janis = get_full_name('janis', 'joplin')
print(janis)

bob = get_full_name('bob', 'dylan')
print(bob)
```

Testing a function (cont.)

Building a testcase with one unit test

To build a test case, make a class that inherits from `unittest.TestCase` *and write methods that begin with* `test_`*. Save this as test_full_names.py*

```
import unittest
from full_names import get_full_name

class NamesTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    """Tests for names.py."""

    def test_first_last(self):
        """Test names like Janis Joplin."""
        full_name = get_full_name('janis',
                'joplin')
        self.assertEqual(full_name,
                'Janis Joplin')

unittest.main()
```

Running the test

Python reports on each unit test in the test case. The dot reports a single passing test. Python informs us that it ran 1 test in less than 0.001 seconds, and the OK lets us know that all unit tests in the test case passed.

```
.
--------------------------------------
Ran 1 test in 0.000s

OK
```

Testing a function: A failing test

Failing tests are important; they tell you that a change in the code has affected existing behavior. When a test fails, you need to modify the code so the existing behavior still works.

Modifying the function

We'll modify `get_full_name()` *so it handles middle names, but we'll do it in a way that breaks existing behavior.*

```
def get_full_name(first, middle, last):
    """Return a full name."""
    full_name = "{0} {1} {2}".format(first,
                                     middle, last)
    return full_name.title()
```

Using the function

```
from full_names import get_full_name

john = get_full_name('john', 'lee', 'hooker')
print(john)

david = get_full_name('david', 'lee', 'roth')
print(david)
```

A failing test (cont.)

Running the test

When you change your code, it's important to run your existing tests. This will tell you whether the changes you made affected existing behavior.

```
E
======================================================
ERROR: test_first_last (__main__.NamesTestCase)
Test names like Janis Joplin.
------------------------------------------------------
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "test_full_names.py", line 10,
    in test_first_last
    'joplin')
TypeError: get_full_name() missing 1 required
  positional argument: 'last'

------------------------------------------------------
Ran 1 test in 0.001s

FAILED (errors=1)
```

Fixing the code

When a test fails, the code needs to be modified until the test passes again. (Don't make the mistake of rewriting your tests to fit your new code.) Here we can make the middle name optional.

```
def get_full_name(first, last, middle=''):
    """Return a full name."""
    if middle:
        full_name = "{0} {1} {2}".format(first,
                                         middle, last)
    else:
        full_name = "{0} {1}".format(first,
                                     last)
    return full_name.title()
```

Running the test

Now the test should pass again, which means our original functionality is still intact.

```
.
--------------------------------------
Ran 1 test in 0.000s

OK
```

Adding new tests

You can add as many unit tests to a test case as you need. To write a new test, add a new method to your test case class.

Testing middle names

We've shown that `get_full_name()` works for first and last names. Let's test that it works for middle names as well.

```
import unittest
from full_names import get_full_name

class NamesTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    """Tests for names.py."""

    def test_first_last(self):
        """Test names like Janis Joplin."""
        full_name = get_full_name('janis',
                'joplin')
        self.assertEqual(full_name,
                'Janis Joplin')

    def test_middle(self):
        """Test names like David Lee Roth."""
        full_name = get_full_name('david',
                'roth', 'lee')
        self.assertEqual(full_name,
                'David Lee Roth')

unittest.main()
```

Running the tests

The two dots represent two passing tests.

```
..
--------------------------------------
Ran 2 tests in 0.000s

OK
```

A variety of assert methods

Python provides a number of assert methods you can use to test your code.

Verify that a==b, or a != b

```
assertEqual(a, b)
assertNotEqual(a, b)
```

Verify that x is True, or x is False

```
assertTrue(x)
assertFalse(x)
```

Verify an item is in a list, or not in a list

```
assertIn(item, list)
assertNotIn(item, list)
```

Testing a class

Testing a class is similar to testing a function, since you'll mostly be testing your methods.

A class to test

Save as accountant.py

```
class Accountant():
    """Manage a bank account."""

    def __init__(self, balance=0):
        self.balance = balance

    def deposit(self, amount):
        self.balance += amount

    def withdraw(self, amount):
        self.balance -= amount
```

Building a testcase

For the first test, we'll make sure we can start out with different initial balances. Save this as test_accountant.py.

```
import unittest
from accountant import Accountant

class TestAccountant(unittest.TestCase):
    """Tests for the class Accountant."""

    def test_initial_balance(self):
        # Default balance should be 0.
        acc = Accountant()
        self.assertEqual(acc.balance, 0)

        # Test non-default balance.
        acc = Accountant(100)
        self.assertEqual(acc.balance, 100)

unittest.main()
```

Running the test

```
.
--------------------------------------
Ran 1 test in 0.000s

OK
```

When is it okay to modify tests?

In general you shouldn't modify a test once it's written. When a test fails it usually means new code you've written has broken existing functionality, and you need to modify the new code until all existing tests pass.

If your original requirements have changed, it may be appropriate to modify some tests. This usually happens in the early stages of a project when desired behavior is still being sorted out.

The setUp() method

When testing a class, you usually have to make an instance of the class. The `setUp()` method is run before every test. Any instances you make in `setUp()` are available in every test you write.

Using setUp() to support multiple tests

The instance `self.acc` can be used in each new test.

```
import unittest
from accountant import Accountant

class TestAccountant(unittest.TestCase):
    """Tests for the class Accountant."""

    def setUp(self):
        self.acc = Accountant()

    def test_initial_balance(self):
        # Default balance should be 0.
        self.assertEqual(self.acc.balance, 0)

        # Test non-default balance.
        acc = Accountant(100)
        self.assertEqual(acc.balance, 100)

    def test_deposit(self):
        # Test single deposit.
        self.acc.deposit(100)
        self.assertEqual(self.acc.balance, 100)

        # Test multiple deposits.
        self.acc.deposit(100)
        self.acc.deposit(100)
        self.assertEqual(self.acc.balance, 300)

    def test_withdrawal(self):
        # Test single withdrawal.
        self.acc.deposit(1000)
        self.acc.withdraw(100)
        self.assertEqual(self.acc.balance, 900)

unittest.main()
```

Running the tests

```
...
--------------------------------------
Ran 3 tests in 0.001s

OK
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet - Pygame

What is Pygame?

Pygame is a framework for making games using Python. Making games is fun, and it's a great way to expand your programming skills and knowledge. Pygame takes care of many of the lower-level tasks in building games, which lets you focus on the aspects of your game that make it interesting.

Installing Pygame

Pygame runs on all systems, but setup is slightly different on each OS. The instructions here assume you're using Python 3, and provide a minimal installation of Pygame. If these instructions don't work for your system, see the more detailed notes at http://ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/.

Pygame on Linux

```
$ sudo apt-get install python3-dev mercurial
    libsdl-image1.2-dev libsdl2-dev
    libsdl-ttf2.0-dev
$ pip install --user
    hg+http://bitbucket.org/pygame/pygame
```

Pygame on OS X

This assumes you've used Homebrew to install Python 3.

```
$ brew install hg sdl sdl_image sdl_ttf
$ pip install --user
    hg+http://bitbucket.org/pygame/pygame
```

Pygame on Windows

Find an installer at https://bitbucket.org/pygame/pygame/downloads/ or http://www.lfd.uci.edu/~gohlke/pythonlibs/#pygame that matches your version of Python. Run the installer file if it's a .exe or .msi file. If it's a .whl file, use pip to install Pygame:

```
> python -m pip install --user
    pygame-1.9.2a0-cp35-none-win32.whl
```

Testing your installation

To test your installation, open a terminal session and try to import Pygame. If you don't get any error messages, your installation was successful.

```
$ python
>>> import pygame
>>>
```

Starting a game

The following code sets up an empty game window, and starts an event loop and a loop that continually refreshes the screen.

An empty game window

```
import sys
import pygame as pg

def run_game():
    # Initialize and set up screen.
    pg.init()
    screen = pg.display.set_mode((1200, 800))
    pg.display.set_caption("Alien Invasion")

    # Start main loop.
    while True:
        # Start event loop.
        for event in pg.event.get():
            if event.type == pg.QUIT:
                sys.exit()

        # Refresh screen.
        pg.display.flip()

run_game()
```

Setting a custom window size

The display.set_mode() function accepts a tuple that defines the screen size.

```
screen_dim = (1200, 800)
screen = pg.display.set_mode(screen_dim)
```

Setting a custom background color

Colors are defined as a tuple of red, green, and blue values. Each value ranges from 0-255.

```
bg_color = (230, 230, 230)
screen.fill(bg_color)
```

Pygame rect objects

Many objects in a game can be treated as simple rectangles, rather than their actual shape. This simplifies code without noticeably affecting game play. Pygame has a rect object that makes it easy to work with game objects.

Getting the screen rect object

We already have a screen object; we can easily access the rect object associated with the screen.

```
screen_rect = screen.get_rect()
```

Finding the center of the screen

Rect objects have a center attribute which stores the center point.

```
screen_center = screen_rect.center
```

Pygame rect objects (cont.)

Useful rect attributes

Once you have a rect object, there are a number of attributes that are useful when positioning objects and detecting relative positions of objects. (You can find more attributes in the Pygame documentation.)

```
# Individual x and y values:
screen_rect.left, screen_rect.right
screen_rect.top, screen_rect.bottom
screen_rect.centerx, screen_rect.centery
screen_rect.width, screen_rect.height

# Tuples
screen_rect.center
screen_rect.size
```

Creating a rect object

You can create a rect object from scratch. For example a small rect object that's filled in can represent a bullet in a game. The Rect() class takes the coordinates of the upper left corner, and the width and height of the rect. The draw.rect() function takes a screen object, a color, and a rect. This function fills the given rect with the given color.

```
bullet_rect = pg.Rect(100, 100, 3, 15)
color = (100, 100, 100)
pg.draw.rect(screen, color, bullet_rect)
```

Working with images

Many objects in a game are images that are moved around the screen. It's easiest to use bitmap (.bmp) image files, but you can also configure your system to work with jpg, png, and gif files as well.

Loading an image

```
ship = pg.image.load('images/ship.bmp')
```

Getting the rect object from an image

```
ship_rect = ship.get_rect()
```

Positioning an image

With rects, it's easy to position an image wherever you want on the screen, or in relation to another object. The following code positions a ship object at the bottom center of the screen.

```
ship_rect.midbottom = screen_rect.midbottom
```

Working with images (cont.)

Drawing an image to the screen

Once an image is loaded and positioned, you can draw it to the screen with the blit() method. The blit() method acts on the screen object, and takes the image object and image rect as arguments.

```
# Draw ship to screen.
screen.blit(ship, ship_rect)
```

The blitme() method

Game objects such as ships are often written as classes. Then a blitme() method is usually defined, which draws the object to the screen.

```
def blitme(self):
    """Draw ship at current location."""
    self.screen.blit(self.image, self.rect)
```

Responding to keyboard input

Pygame watches for events such as key presses and mouse actions. You can detect any event you care about in the event loop, and respond with any action that's appropriate for your game.

Responding to key presses

Pygame's main event loop registers a KEYDOWN event any time a key is pressed. When this happens, you can check for specific keys.

```
for event in pg.event.get():
    if event.type == pg.KEYDOWN:
        if event.key == pg.K_RIGHT:
            ship_rect.x += 1
        elif event.key == pg.K_LEFT:
            ship_rect.x -= 1
        elif event.key == pg.K_SPACE:
            ship.fire_bullet()
        elif event.key == pg.K_q:
            sys.exit()
```

Responding to released keys

When the user releases a key, a KEYUP event is triggered.

```
if event.type == pg.KEYUP:
    if event.key == pg.K_RIGHT:
        ship.moving_right = False
```

Pygame documentation

The Pygame documentation is really helpful when building your own games. The home page for the Pygame project is at http://pygame.org/, and the home page for the documentation is at http://pygame.org/docs/.

The most useful part of the documentation are the pages about specific parts of Pygame, such as the Rect() class and the sprite module. You can find a list of these elements at the top of the help pages.

Responding to mouse events

Pygame's event loop registers an event any time the mouse moves, or a mouse button is pressed or released.

Responding to the mouse button

```
for event in pg.event.get():
    if event.type == pg.MOUSEBUTTONDOWN:
        ship.fire_bullet()
```

Finding the mouse position

The mouse position is returned as a tuple.

```
mouse_pos = pg.mouse.get_pos()
```

Clicking a button

You might want to know if the cursor is over an object such as a button. The rect.collidepoint() method returns true when a point is inside a rect object.

```
if button_rect.collidepoint(mouse_pos):
    start_game()
```

Hiding the mouse

```
pg.mouse.set_visible(False)
```

Pygame groups

Pygame has a Group class which makes working with a group of similar objects easier. A group is like a list, with some extra functionality that's helpful when building games.

Making and filling a group

An object that will be placed in a group must inherit from Sprite.

```
from pygame.sprite import Sprite, Group

def Bullet(Sprite):
    ...
    def draw_bullet(self):
        ...
    def update(self):
        ...

bullets = Group()

new_bullet = Bullet()
bullets.add(new_bullet)
```

Looping through the items in a group

The sprites() method returns all the members of a group.

```
for bullet in bullets.sprites():
    bullet.draw_bullet()
```

Calling update() on a group

Calling update() on a group automatically calls update() on each member of the group.

```
bullets.update()
```

Pygame groups (cont.)

Removing an item from a group

It's important to delete elements that will never appear again in the game, so you don't waste memory and resources.

```
bullets.remove(bullet)
```

Detecting collisions

You can detect when a single object collides with any member of a group. You can also detect when any member of one group collides with a member of another group.

Collisions between a single object and a group

The spritecollideany() function takes an object and a group, and returns True if the object overlaps with any member of the group.

```
if pg.sprite.spritecollideany(ship, aliens):
    ships_left -= 1
```

Collisions between two groups

The sprite.groupcollide() function takes two groups, and two booleans. The function returns a dictionary containing information about the members that have collided. The booleans tell Pygame whether to delete the members of either group that have collided.

```
collisions = pg.sprite.groupcollide(
        bullets, aliens, True, True)

score += len(collisions) * alien_point_value
```

Rendering text

You can use text for a variety of purposes in a game. For example you can share information with players, and you can display a score.

Displaying a message

The following code defines a message, then a color for the text and the background color for the message. A font is defined using the default system font, with a font size of 48. The font.render() function is used to create an image of the message, and we get the rect object associated with the image. We then center the image on the screen and display it.

```
msg = "Play again?"
msg_color = (100, 100, 100)
bg_color = (230, 230, 230)

f = pg.font.SysFont(None, 48)
msg_image = f.render(msg, True, msg_color,
        bg_color)
msg_image_rect = msg_image.get_rect()
msg_image_rect.center = screen_rect.center
screen.blit(msg_image, msg_image_rect)
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — matplotlib

What is matplotlib?

Data visualization involves exploring data through visual representations. The matplotlib package helps you make visually appealing representations of the data you're working with. matplotlib is extremely flexible; these examples will help you get started with a few simple visualizations.

Colors: for example, create a dictionry to maps continents to colors

```
dict = {'Asia':'red', 'Europe':'green', 'Africa':'blue'}
```

Add words: `plt.text()` **Draw gridlines:** `plt.grid(True)`

Line graphs and scatter plots

Making a line graph

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x_values = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
squares = [0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25]
plt.plot(x_values, squares)
plt.show()
```

`plt.xticks(value1,value2)` *value2 is to replace value1 on x-axis*

Line graphs and scatter plots (cont.)

Making a scatter plot

The scatter() function takes a list of x values and a list of y values, and a variety of optional arguments. The `s=10` argument controls the size of each point.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x_values = list(range(1000))
squares = [x**2 for x in x_values]

plt.scatter(x_values, squares, s=10)
plt.show()
```

Customizing plots

Plots can be customized in a wide variety of ways. Just about any element of a plot can be customized.

Adding titles and labels, and scaling axes

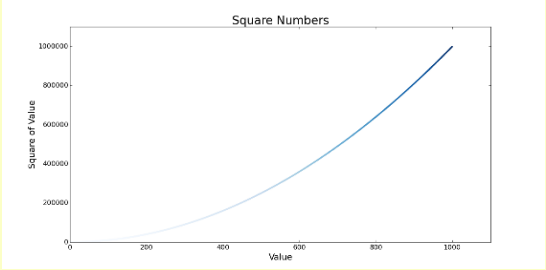
```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x_values = list(range(1000))
squares = [x**2 for x in x_values]
plt.scatter(x_values, squares, s=10)

plt.title("Square Numbers", fontsize=24)
plt.xlabel("Value", fontsize=18)
plt.ylabel("Square of Value", fontsize=18)
plt.tick_params(axis='both', which='major',
                labelsize=14)
plt.axis([0, 1100, 0, 1100000])

plt.show()
```

Using a colormap

A colormap varies the point colors from one shade to another, based on a certain value for each point. The value used to determine the color of each point is passed to the `c` argument, and the `cmap` argument specifies which colormap to use.

The `edgecolor='none'` argument removes the black outline from each point.

```
plt.scatter(x_values, squares, c=squares,
        cmap=plt.cm.Blues, edgecolor='none',
        s=10)
```



Customizing plots (cont.)

Emphasizing points

You can plot as much data as you want on one plot. Here we re-plot the first and last points larger to emphasize them.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x_values = list(range(1000))
squares = [x**2 for x in x_values]
plt.scatter(x_values, squares, c=squares,
        cmap=plt.cm.Blues, edgecolor='none',
        s=10)

plt.scatter(x_values[0], squares[0], c='green',
        edgecolor='none', s=100)
plt.scatter(x_values[-1], squares[-1], c='red',
        edgecolor='none', s=100)

plt.title("Square Numbers", fontsize=24)
--snip--
```

Removing axes

You can customize or remove axes entirely. Here's how to access each axis, and hide it.

```
plt.axes().get_xaxis().set_visible(False)
plt.axes().get_yaxis().set_visible(False)
```

Setting a custom figure size

You can make your plot as big or small as you want. Before plotting your data, add the following code. The `dpi` argument is optional; if you don't know your system's resolution you can omit the argument and adjust the `figsize` argument accordingly.

```
plt.figure(dpi=128, figsize=(10, 6))
```

Saving a plot

The matplotlib viewer has an interactive save button, but you can also save your visualizations programmatically. To do so, replace `plt.show()` with `plt.savefig()`. The `bbox_inches='tight'` argument trims extra whitespace from the plot.

```
plt.savefig('squares.png', bbox_inches='tight')
```

Online resources

The matplotlib gallery and documentation are at http://matplotlib.org/. Be sure to visit the examples, gallery, and pyplot links.

Multiple plots

You can make as many plots as you want on one figure. When you make multiple plots, you can emphasize relationships in the data. For example you can fill the space between two sets of data.

Plotting two sets of data

Here we use `plt.scatter()` twice to plot square numbers and cubes on the same figure.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x_values = list(range(11))
squares = [x**2 for x in x_values]
cubes = [x**3 for x in x_values]

plt.scatter(x_values, squares, c='blue',
        edgecolor='none', s=20)
plt.scatter(x_values, cubes, c='red',
        edgecolor='none', s=20)

plt.axis([0, 11, 0, 1100])
plt.show()
```

Filling the space between data sets

The `fill_between()` method fills the space between two data sets. It takes a series of x-values and two series of y-values. It also takes a `facecolor` to use for the fill, and an optional `alpha` argument that controls the color's transparency.

```
plt.fill_between(x_values, cubes, squares,
        facecolor='blue', alpha=0.25)
```

Working with dates and times

Many interesting data sets have a date or time as the x-value. Python's datetime module helps you work with this kind of data.

Generating the current date

The `datetime.now()` function returns a datetime object representing the current date and time.

```
from datetime import datetime as dt

today = dt.now()
date_string = dt.strftime(today, '%m/%d/%Y')
print(date_string)
```

Generating a specific date

You can also generate a datetime object for any date and time you want. The positional order of arguments is year, month, and day. The hour, minute, second, and microsecond arguments are optional.

```
from datetime import datetime as dt

new_years = dt(2017, 1, 1)
fall_equinox = dt(year=2016, month=9, day=22)
```

Working with dates and times (cont.)

Datetime formatting arguments

The `strftime()` function generates a formatted string from a datetime object, and the `strptime()` function genereates a datetime object from a string. The following codes let you work with dates exactly as you need to.

```
%A    Weekday name, such as Monday
%B    Month name, such as January
%m    Month, as a number (01 to 12)
%d    Day of the month, as a number (01 to 31)
%Y    Four-digit year, such as 2016
%y    Two-digit year, such as 16
%H    Hour, in 24-hour format (00 to 23)
%I    Hour, in 12-hour format (01 to 12)
%p    AM or PM
%M    Minutes (00 to 59)
%S    Seconds (00 to 61)
```

Converting a string to a datetime object

```
new_years = dt.strptime('1/1/2017', '%m/%d/%Y')
```

Converting a datetime object to a string

```
ny_string = dt.strftime(new_years, '%B %d, %Y')
print(ny_string)
```

Plotting high temperatures

The following code creates a list of dates and a corresponding list of high temperatures. It then plots the high temperatures, with the date labels displayed in a specific format.

```
from datetime import datetime as dt

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from matplotlib import dates as mdates

dates = [
    dt(2016, 6, 21), dt(2016, 6, 22),
    dt(2016, 6, 23), dt(2016, 6, 24),
    ]

highs = [57, 68, 64, 59]

fig = plt.figure(dpi=128, figsize=(10,6))
plt.plot(dates, highs, c='red')
plt.title("Daily High Temps", fontsize=24)
plt.ylabel("Temp (F)", fontsize=16)

x_axis = plt.axes().get_xaxis()
x_axis.set_major_formatter(
        mdates.DateFormatter('%B %d %Y')
        )
fig.autofmt_xdate()

plt.show()
```

Multiple plots in one figure

You can include as many individual graphs in one figure as you want. This is useful, for example, when comparing related datasets.

Sharing an x-axis

The following code plots a set of squares and a set of cubes on two separate graphs that share a common x-axis.

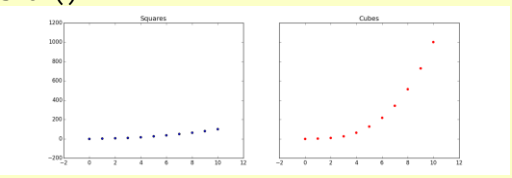
The `plt.subplots()` function returns a figure object and a tuple of axes. Each set of axes corresponds to a separate plot in the figure. The first two arguments control the number of rows and columns generated in the figure.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x_vals = list(range(11))
squares = [x**2 for x in x_vals]
cubes = [x**3 for x in x_vals]

fig, axarr = plt.subplots(2, 1, sharex=True)

axarr[0].scatter(x_vals, squares)
axarr[0].set_title('Squares')

axarr[1].scatter(x_vals, cubes, c='red')
axarr[1].set_title('Cubes')

plt.show()
```

Sharing a y-axis

To share a y-axis, we use the `sharey=True` argument.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x_vals = list(range(11))
squares = [x**2 for x in x_vals]
cubes = [x**3 for x in x_vals]

fig, axarr = plt.subplots(1, 2, sharey=True)

axarr[0].scatter(x_vals, squares)
axarr[0].set_title('Squares')

axarr[1].scatter(x_vals, cubes, c='red')
axarr[1].set_title('Cubes')

plt.show()
```



More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — Pygal

What is Pygal?

Data visualization involves exploring data through visual representations. Pygal helps you make visually appealing representations of the data you're working with. Pygal is particularly well suited for visualizations that will be presented online, because it supports interactive elements.

Installing Pygal

Pygal can be installed using pip.

Pygal on Linux and OS X

```
$ pip install --user pygal
```

Pygal on Windows

```
> python -m pip install --user pygal
```

Line graphs, scatter plots, and bar graphs

To make a plot with Pygal, you specify the kind of plot and then add the data.

Making a line graph

To view the output, open the file squares.svg in a browser.

```
import pygal

x_values = [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
squares = [0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25]

chart = pygal.Line()
chart.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
chart.add('x^2', squares)
chart.render_to_file('squares.svg')
```

Adding labels and a title

```
--snip--
chart = pygal.Line()
chart.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
chart.title = "Squares"
chart.x_labels = x_values
chart.x_title = "Value"
chart.y_title = "Square of Value"
chart.add('x^2', squares)
chart.render_to_file('squares.svg')
```

Line graphs, scatter plots, and bar graphs (cont.)

Making a scatter plot

The data for a scatter plot needs to be a list containing tuples of the form (x, y). The `stroke=False` argument tells Pygal to make an XY chart with no line connecting the points.

```
import pygal

squares = [
    (0, 0), (1, 1), (2, 4), (3, 9),
    (4, 16), (5, 25),
    ]

chart = pygal.XY(stroke=False)
chart.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
chart.add('x^2', squares)
chart.render_to_file('squares.svg')
```

Using a list comprehension for a scatter plot

A list comprehension can be used to effficiently make a dataset for a scatter plot.

```
squares = [(x, x**2) for x in range(1000)]
```

Making a bar graph

A bar graph requires a list of values for the bar sizes. To label the bars, pass a list of the same length to `x_labels`.

```
import pygal

outcomes = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
frequencies = [18, 16, 18, 17, 18, 13]

chart = pygal.Bar()
chart.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
chart.x_labels = outcomes
chart.add('D6', frequencies)
chart.render_to_file('rolling_dice.svg')
```

Making a bar graph from a dictionary

Since each bar needs a label and a value, a dictionary is a great way to store the data for a bar graph. The keys are used as the labels along the x-axis, and the values are used to determine the height of each bar.

```
import pygal

results = {
    1:18, 2:16, 3:18,
    4:17, 5:18, 6:13,
    }

chart = pygal.Bar()
chart.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
chart.x_labels = results.keys()
chart.add('D6', results.values())
chart.render_to_file('rolling_dice.svg')
```

Multiple plots

You can add as much data as you want when making a visualization.

Plotting squares and cubes

```
import pygal

x_values = list(range(11))
squares = [x**2 for x in x_values]
cubes = [x**3 for x in x_values]

chart = pygal.Line()
chart.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
chart.title = "Squares and Cubes"
chart.x_labels = x_values

chart.add('Squares', squares)
chart.add('Cubes', cubes)
chart.render_to_file('squares_cubes.svg')
```

Filling the area under a data series

Pygal allows you to fill the area under or over each series of data. The default is to fill from the x-axis up, but you can fill from any horizontal line using the `zero` argument.

```
chart = pygal.Line(fill=True, zero=0)
```

Online resources

The documentation for Pygal is available at http://www.pygal.org/.

Enabling interactive features

If you're viewing svg output in a browser, Pygal needs to render the output file in a specific way. The `force_uri_protocol` attribute for chart objects needs to be set to `'http'`.

Styling plots

Pygal lets you customize many elements of a plot. There are some excellent default themes, and many options for styling individual plot elements.

Using built-in styles

To use built-in styles, import the style and make an instance of the style class. Then pass the style object with the `style` argument when you make the chart object.

```
import pygal
from pygal.style import LightGreenStyle

x_values = list(range(11))
squares = [x**2 for x in x_values]
cubes = [x**3 for x in x_values]

chart_style = LightGreenStyle()
chart = pygal.Line(style=chart_style)
chart.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
chart.title = "Squares and Cubes"
chart.x_labels = x_values

chart.add('Squares', squares)
chart.add('Cubes', cubes)
chart.render_to_file('squares_cubes.svg')
```

Parametric built-in styles

Some built-in styles accept a custom color, then generate a theme based on that color.

```
from pygal.style import LightenStyle

--snip--
chart_style = LightenStyle('#336688')
chart = pygal.Line(style=chart_style)
--snip--
```

Customizing individual style properties

Style objects have a number of properties you can set individually.

```
chart_style = LightenStyle('#336688')
chart_style.plot_background = '#CCCCCC'
chart_style.major_label_font_size = 20
chart_style.label_font_size = 16
--snip--
```

Custom style class

You can start with a bare style class, and then set only the properties you care about.

```
chart_style = Style()
chart_style.colors = [
    '#CCCCCC', '#AAAAAA', '#888888']
chart_style.plot_background = '#EEEEEE'

chart = pygal.Line(style=chart_style)
--snip--
```

Styling plots (cont.)

Configuration settings

Some settings are controlled by a `Config` object.

```
my_config = pygal.Config()
my_config.show_y_guides = False
my_config.width = 1000
my_config.dots_size = 5

chart = pygal.Line(config=my_config)
--snip--
```

Styling series

You can give each series on a chart different style settings.

```
chart.add('Squares', squares, dots_size=2)
chart.add('Cubes', cubes, dots_size=3)
```

Styling individual data points

You can style individual data points as well. To do so, write a dictionary for each data point you want to customize. A `'value'` key is required, and other properies are optional.

```
import pygal

repos = [
    {
        'value': 20506,
        'color': '#3333CC',
        'xlink': 'http://djangoproject.com/',
    },
    20054,
    12607,
    11827,
    ]

chart = pygal.Bar()
chart.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
chart.x_labels = [
    'django', 'requests', 'scikit-learn',
    'tornado',
    ]
chart.y_title = 'Stars'
chart.add('Python Repos', repos)
chart.render_to_file('python_repos.svg')
```

Plotting global datasets

Pygal can generate world maps, and you can add any data you want to these maps. Data is indicated by coloring, by labels, and by tooltips that show data when users hover over each country on the map.

Installing the world map module

The world map module is not included by default in Pygal 2.0. It can be installed with pip:

```
$ pip install --user pygal_maps_world
```

Making a world map

The following code makes a simple world map showing the countries of North America.

```
from pygal.maps.world import World

wm = World()
wm.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
wm.title = 'North America'
wm.add('North America', ['ca', 'mx', 'us'])

wm.render_to_file('north_america.svg')
```

Showing all the country codes

In order to make maps, you need to know Pygal's country codes. The following example will print an alphabetical list of each country and its code.

```
from pygal.maps.world import COUNTRIES

for code in sorted(COUNTRIES.keys()):
    print(code, COUNTRIES[code])
```

Plotting numerical data on a world map

To plot numerical data on a map, pass a dictionary to `add()` instead of a list.

```
from pygal.maps.world import World

populations = {
    'ca': 34126000,
    'us': 309349000,
    'mx': 113423000,
    }

wm = World()
wm.force_uri_protocol = 'http'
wm.title = 'Population of North America'
wm.add('North America', populations)

wm.render_to_file('na_populations.svg')
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — Django

What is Django?

Django is a web framework which helps you build interactive websites using Python. With Django you define the kind of data your site needs to work with, and you define the ways your users can work with that data.

Installing Django

It's usualy best to install Django to a virtual environment, where your project can be isolated from your other Python projects. Most commands assume you're working in an active virtual environment.

Create a virtual environment

```
$ python -m venv ll_env
```

Activate the environment (Linux and OS X)

```
$ source ll_env/bin/activate
```

Activate the environment (Windows)

```
> ll_env\Scripts\activate
```

Install Django to the active environment

```
(ll_env)$ pip install Django
```

Creating a project

To start a project we'll create a new project, create a database, and start a development server.

Create a new project

```
$ django-admin.py startproject learning_log .
```

Create a database

```
$ python manage.py migrate
```

View the project

After issuing this command, you can view the project at http://localhost:8000/.

```
$ python manage.py runserver
```

Create a new app

A Django project is made up of one or more apps.

```
$ python manage.py startapp learning_logs
```

Working with models

The data in a Django project is structured as a set of models.

Defining a model

To define the models for your app, modify the file models.py that was created in your app's folder. The __str__() method tells Django how to represent data objects based on this model.

```
from django.db import models

class Topic(models.Model):
    """A topic the user is learning about."""
    text = models.CharField(max_length=200)
    date_added = models.DateTimeField(
            auto_now_add=True)

    def __str__(self):
        return self.text
```

Activating a model

To use a model the app must be added to the tuple `INSTALLED_APPS`*, which is stored in the project's settings.py file.*

```
INSTALLED_APPS = (
    --snip--
    'django.contrib.staticfiles',

    # My apps
    'learning_logs',
    )
```

Migrating the database

The database needs to be modified to store the kind of data that the model represents.

```
$ python manage.py makemigrations learning_logs
$ python manage.py migrate
```

Creating a superuser

A superuser is a user account that has access to all aspects of the project.

```
$ python manage.py createsuperuser
```

Registering a model

You can register your models with Django's admin site, which makes it easier to work with the data in your project. To do this, modify the app's admin.py file. View the admin site at http://localhost:8000/admin/.

```
from django.contrib import admin

from learning_logs.models import Topic

admin.site.register(Topic)
```

Building a simple home page

Users interact with a project through web pages, and a project's home page can start out as a simple page with no data. A page usually needs a URL, a view, and a template.

Mapping a project's URLs

The project's main urls.py file tells Django where to find the urls.py files associated with each app in the project.

```
from django.conf.urls import include, url
from django.contrib import admin

urlpatterns = [
    url(r'^admin/', include(admin.site.urls)),
    url(r'', include('learning_logs.urls',
            namespace='learning_logs')),
    ]
```

Mapping an app's URLs

An app's urls.py file tells Django which view to use for each URL in the app. You'll need to make this file yourself, and save it in the app's folder.

```
from django.conf.urls import url

from . import views

urlpatterns = [
    url(r'^$', views.index, name='index'),
    ]
```

Writing a simple view

A view takes information from a request and sends data to the browser, often through a template. View functions are stored in an app's views.py file. This simple view function doesn't pull in any data, but it uses the template index.html to render the home page.

```
from django.shortcuts import render

def index(request):
    """The home page for Learning Log."""
    return render(request,
            'learning_logs/index.html')
```

Online resources

The documentation for Django is available at http://docs.djangoproject.com/. The Django documentation is thorough and user-friendly, so check it out!

Building a simple home page (cont.)

Writing a simple template

A template sets up the structure for a page. It's a mix of html and template code, which is like Python but not as powerful. Make a folder called templates inside the project folder. Inside the templates folder make another folder with the same name as the app. This is where the template files should be saved.

```
<p>Learning Log</p>

<p>Learning Log helps you keep track of your
learning, for any topic you're learning
about.</p>
```

Template inheritance

Many elements of a web page are repeated on every page in the site, or every page in a section of the site. By writing one parent template for the site, and one for each section, you can easily modify the look and feel of your entire site.

The parent template

The parent template defines the elements common to a set of pages, and defines blocks that will be filled by individual pages.

```
<p>
  <a href="{% url 'learning_logs:index' %}">
    Learning Log
  </a>
</p>

{% block content %}{% endblock content %}
```

The child template

The child template uses the `{% extends %}` template tag to pull in the structure of the parent template. It then defines the content for any blocks defined in the parent template.

```
{% extends 'learning_logs/base.html' %}

{% block content %}
  <p>
    Learning Log helps you keep track
    of your learning, for any topic you're
    learning about.
  </p>
{% endblock content %}
```

Template indentation

Python code is usually indented by four spaces. In templates you'll often see two spaces used for indentation, because elements tend to be nested more deeply in templates.

Another model

A new model can use an existing model. The ForeignKey attribute establishes a connection between instances of the two related models. Make sure to migrate the database after adding a new model to your app.

Defining a model with a foreign key

```
class Entry(models.Model):
    """Learning log entries for a topic."""
    topic = models.ForeignKey(Topic)
    text = models.TextField()
    date_added = models.DateTimeField(
            auto_now_add=True)

    def __str__(self):
        return self.text[:50] + "..."
```

Building a page with data

Most pages in a project need to present data that's specific to the current user.

URL parameters

A URL often needs to accept a parameter telling it which data to access from the database. The second URL pattern shown here looks for the ID of a specific topic and stores it in the parameter `topic_id`.

```
urlpatterns = [
    url(r'^$', views.index, name='index'),
    url(r'^topics/(?P<topic_id>\d+)/$',
            views.topic, name='topic'),
    ]
```

Using data in a view

The view uses a parameter from the URL to pull the correct data from the database. In this example the view is sending a `context` dictionary to the template, containing data that should be displayed on the page.

```
def topic(request, topic_id):
    """Show a topic and all its entries."""
    topic = Topics.objects.get(id=topic_id)
    entries = topic.entry_set.order_by(
            '-date_added')
    context = {
        'topic': topic,
        'entries': entries,
        }
    return render(request,
        'learning_logs/topic.html', context)
```

Restarting the development server

If you make a change to your project and the change doesn't seem to have any effect, try restarting the server:

```
$ python manage.py runserver
```

Building a page with data (cont.)

Using data in a template

The data in the view function's `context` dictionary is available within the template. This data is accessed using template variables, which are indicated by doubled curly braces.

The vertical line after a template variable indicates a filter. In this case a filter called `date` formats date objects, and the filter `linebreaks` renders paragraphs properly on a web page.

```
{% extends 'learning_logs/base.html' %}

{% block content %}

  <p>Topic: {{ topic }}</p>

  <p>Entries:</p>
  <ul>
  {% for entry in entries %}
    <li>
    <p>
      {{ entry.date_added|date:'M d, Y H:i' }}
    </p>
    <p>
      {{ entry.text|linebreaks }}
    </p>
    </li>
  {% empty %}
    <li>There are no entries yet.</li>
  {% endfor %}
  </ul>

{% endblock content %}
```

The Django shell

You can explore the data in your project from the command line. This is helpful for developing queries and testing code snippets.

Start a shell session

```
$ python manage.py shell
```

Access data from the project

```
>>> from learning_logs.models import Topic
>>> Topic.objects.all()
[<Topic: Chess>, <Topic: Rock Climbing>]
>>> topic = Topic.objects.get(id=1)
>>> topic.text
'Chess'
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Beginner's Python Cheat Sheet — Django, Part 2

Users and forms

Most web applications need to let users create accounts. This lets users create and work with their own data. Some of this data may be private, and some may be public. Django's forms allow users to enter and modify their data.

User accounts

User accounts are handled by a dedicated app called `users`*. Users need to be able to register, log in, and log out. Django automates much of this work for you.*

Making a users app

After making the app, be sure to add `'users'` *to* `INSTALLED_APPS` *in the project's settings.py file.*

```
$ python manage.py startapp users
```

Including URLS for the users app

Add a line to the project's urls.py file so the `users` *app's URLs are included in the project.*

```
urlpatterns = [
    url(r'^admin/', include(admin.site.urls)),
    url(r'^users/', include('users.urls',
            namespace='users')),
    url(r'', include('learning_logs.urls',
            namespace='learning_logs')),
    ]
```

Using forms in Django

There are a number of ways to create forms and work with them. You can use Django's defaults, or completely customize your forms. For a simple way to let users enter data based on your models, use a `ModelForm`*. This creates a form that allows users to enter data that will populate the fields on a model.*

The register view on the back of this sheet shows a simple approach to form processing. If the view doesn't receive data from a form, it responds with a blank form. If it receives `POST` *data from a form, it validates the data and then saves it to the database.*

User accounts (cont.)

Defining the URLs

Users will need to be able to log in, log out, and register. Make a new urls.py file in the `users` *app folder. The login view is a default view provided by Django.*

```
from django.conf.urls import url
from django.contrib.auth.views import login

from . import views

urlpatterns = [
    url(r'^login/$', login,
        {'template_name': 'users/login.html'},
        name='login'),
    url(r'^logout/$', views.logout_view,
        name='logout'),
    url(r'^register/$', views.register,
        name='register'),
    ]
```

The login template

The login view is provided by default, but you need to provide your own login template. The template shown here displays a simple login form, and provides basic error messages. Make a templates folder in the users folder, and then make a users folder in the templates folder. Save this file as login.html.

The tag `{% csrf_token %}` *helps prevent a common type of attack with forms. The* `{{ form.as_p }}` *element displays the default login form in paragraph format. The* `<input>` *element named* `next` *redirects the user to the home page after a successful login.*

```
{% extends "learning_logs/base.html" %}

{% block content %}
  {% if form.errors %}
  <p>
    Your username and password didn't match.
    Please try again.
  </p>
  {% endif %}

  <form method="post"
      action="{% url 'users:login' %}">
    {% csrf token %}
    {{ form.as_p }}
    <button name="submit">log in</button>

    <input type="hidden" name="next"
      value="{% url 'learning_logs:index' %}"/>
  </form>

{% endblock content %}
```

User accounts (cont.)

Showing the current login status

You can modify the base.html template to show whether the user is currently logged in, and to provide a link to the login and logout pages. Django makes a `user` *object available to every template, and this template takes advantage of this object.*

The `user.is_authenticated` *tag allows you to serve specific content to users depending on whether they have logged in or not. The* `{{ user.username }}` *property allows you to greet users who have logged in. Users who haven't logged in see links to register or log in.*

```
<p>
  <a href="{% url 'learning_logs:index' %}">
    Learning Log
  </a>
  {% if user.is_authenticated %}
    Hello, {{ user.username }}.
    <a href="{% url 'users:logout' %}">
      log out
    </a>
  {% else %}
    <a href="{% url 'users:register' %}">
      register
    </a> -
    <a href="{% url 'users:login' %}">
      log in
    </a>
  {% endif %}
</p>

{% block content %}{% endblock content %}
```

The logout view

The `logout_view()` *function uses Django's* `logout()` *function and then redirects the user back to the home page. Since there is no logout page, there is no logout template. Make sure to write this code in the views.py file that's stored in the users app folder.*

```
from django.http import HttpResponseRedirect
from django.core.urlresolvers import reverse
from django.contrib.auth import logout

def logout_view(request):
    """Log the user out."""
    logout(request)
    return HttpResponseRedirect(
        reverse('learning_logs:index'))
```

User accounts (cont.)

The register view

The register view needs to display a blank registration form when the page is first requested, and then process completed registration forms. A successful registration logs the user in and redirects to the home page.

```
from django.contrib.auth import login
from django.contrib.auth import authenticate
from django.contrib.auth.forms import \
        UserCreationForm

def register(request):
    """Register a new user."""
    if request.method != 'POST':
        # Show blank registration form.
        form = UserCreationForm()
    else:
        # Process completed form.
        form = UserCreationForm(
                data=request.POST)

        if form.is_valid():
            new_user = form.save()
            # Log in, redirect to home page.
            pw = request.POST['password1']
            authenticated_user = authenticate(
                username=new_user.username,
                password=pw
            )
            login(request, authenticated_user)
            return HttpResponseRedirect(
                reverse('learning_logs:index'))

    context = {'form': form}
    return render(request,
        'users/register.html', context)
```

Styling your project

The django-bootstrap3 app allows you to use the Bootstrap library to make your project look visually appealing. The app provides tags that you can use in your templates to style individual elements on a page. Learn more at http://django-bootstrap3.readthedocs.io/.

Deploying your project

Heroku lets you push your project to a live server, making it available to anyone with an internet connection. Heroku offers a free service level, which lets you learn the deployment process without any commitment. You'll need to install a set of heroku tools, and use git to track the state of your project. See http://devcenter.heroku.com/, and click on the Python link.

User accounts (cont.)

The register template

The register template displays the registration form in paragraph formats.

```
{% extends 'learning_logs/base.html' %}

{% block content %}

  <form method='post'
      action="{% url 'users:register' %}">

    {% csrf_token %}
    {{ form.as_p }}

    <button name='submit'>register</button>
    <input type='hidden' name='next'
      value="{% url 'learning_logs:index' %}"/>

  </form>

{% endblock content %}
```

Connecting data to users

Users will have data that belongs to them. Any model that should be connected directly to a user needs a field connecting instances of the model to a specific user.

Making a topic belong to a user

Only the highest-level data in a hierarchy needs to be directly connected to a user. To do this import the `User` model, and add it as a foreign key on the data model.

After modifying the model you'll need to migrate the database. You'll need to choose a user ID to connect each existing instance to.

```
from django.db import models
from django.contrib.auth.models import User

class Topic(models.Model):
    """A topic the user is learning about."""
    text = models.CharField(max_length=200)
    date_added = models.DateTimeField(
            auto_now_add=True)
    owner = models.ForeignKey(User)

    def __str__(self):
        return self.text
```

Querying data for the current user

In a view, the request object has a `user` attribute. You can use this attribute to query for the user's data. The `filter()` function then pulls the data that belongs to the current user.

```
topics = Topic.objects.filter(
                owner=request.user)
```

Connecting data to users (cont.)

Restricting access to logged-in users

Some pages are only relevant to registered users. The views for these pages can be protected by the `@login_required` decorator. Any view with this decorator will automatically redirect non-logged in users to an appropriate page. Here's an example views.py file.

```
from django.contrib.auth.decorators import /
        login_required
--snip--

@login_required
def topic(request, topic_id):
    """Show a topic and all its entries."""
```

Setting the redirect URL

The `@login_required` decorator sends unauthorized users to the login page. Add the following line to your project's settings.py file so Django will know how to find your login page.

```
LOGIN_URL = '/users/login/'
```

Preventing inadvertent access

Some pages serve data based on a parameter in the URL. You can check that the current user owns the requested data, and return a 404 error if they don't. Here's an example view.

```
from django.http import Http404

--snip--
def topic(request, topic_id):
    """Show a topic and all its entries."""
    topic = Topics.objects.get(id=topic_id)
    if topic.owner != request.user:
        raise Http404
    --snip--
```

Using a form to edit data

If you provide some initial data, Django generates a form with the user's existing data. Users can then modify and save their data.

Creating a form with initial data

The instance parameter allows you to specify initial data for a form.

```
form = EntryForm(instance=entry)
```

Modifying data before saving

The argument `commit=False` allows you to make changes before writing data to the database.

```
new_topic = form.save(commit=False)
new_topic.owner = request.user
new_topic.save()
```

More cheat sheets available at
ehmatthes.github.io/pcc/

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

Python Basics

Learn More Python for Data Science Interactively at www.datacamp.com

Variables and Data Types

Variable Assignment

```
>>> x=5
>>> x
 5
```

x // y --> **the result is rounded integer**

Calculations With Variables

```
>>> x+2
 7
>>> x-2
 3
>>> x*2
 10
>>> x**2
 25
>>> x%2
 1
>>> x/float(2)
 2.5
```

Sum of two variables
Subtraction of two variables
Multiplication of two variables
Exponentiation of a variable
Remainder of a variable
Division of a variable

Types and Type Conversion

str()	'5', '3.45', 'True'	Variables to strings
int()	5, 3, 1	Variables to integers
float()	5.0, 1.0	Variables to floats
bool()	True, True, True	Variables to booleans

Asking For Help

```
>>> help(str)
```

Lists

Also see NumPy Arrays

```
>>> a = 'is'
>>> b = 'nice'
>>> my_list = ['my', 'list', a, b]
>>> my_list2 = [[4,5,6,7], [3,4,5,6]]
```

Selecting List Elements

Index starts at 0

Subset

```
>>> my_list[1]
>>> my_list[-3]
```

Select item at index 1
Select 3rd last item

Slice

```
>>> my_list[1:3]
>>> my_list[1:]
>>> my_list[:3]
>>> my_list[:]
```

Select items at index 1 and 2
Select items after index 0
Select items before index 3
Copy my_list

Subset Lists of Lists

```
>>> my_list2[1][0]
>>> my_list2[1][:2]
```

my_list[list][itemOfList]

List Operations

```
>>> my_list + my_list
['my', 'list', 'is', 'nice', 'my', 'list', 'is', 'nice']
>>> my_list * 2
['my', 'list', 'is', 'nice', 'my', 'list', 'is', 'nice']
>>> my_list2 > 4
True
```

List Methods

```
>>> my_list.index(a)
>>> my_list.count(a)
>>> my_list.append('!')
>>> my_list.remove('!')
>>> del(my_list[0:1])
>>> my_list.reverse()
>>> my_list.extend('!')
>>> my_list.pop(-1)
>>> my_list.insert(0,'!')
>>> my_list.sort()
```

Get the index of an item
Count an item
Append an item at a time
Remove an item
Remove an item
Reverse the list
Append an item
Remove an item
Insert an item
Sort the list

Strings

```
>>> my_string = 'thisStringIsAwesome'
>>> my_string
'thisStringIsAwesome'
```

String Operations

```
>>> my_string * 2
 'thisStringIsAwesomethisStringIsAwesome'
>>> my_string + 'Innit'
 'thisStringIsAwesomeInnit'
>>> 'm' in my_string
 True
```

String Operations

Index starts at 0

```
>>> my_string[3]
>>> my_string[4:9]
```

String Methods

```
>>> my_string.upper()
>>> my_string.lower()
>>> my_string.count('w')
>>> my_string.replace('e', 'i')
>>> my_string.strip()
```

String to uppercase
String to lowercase
Count String elements
Replace String elements
Strip whitespaces

Libraries

Import libraries

```
>>> import numpy
>>> import numpy as np
```

Selective import

```
>>> from math import pi
```

pandas — Data analysis
learn — Machine learning
NumPy — Scientific computing
matplotlib — 2D plotting

Install Python

ANACONDA
Leading open data science platform powered by Python

spyder
Free IDE that is included with Anaconda

jupyter
Create and share documents with live code, visualizations, text, ...

Numpy Arrays

Also see Lists

```
>>> my_list = [1, 2, 3, 4]
>>> my_array = np.array(my_list)
>>> my_2darray = np.array([[1,2,3],[4,5,6]])
```

Selecting Numpy Array Elements

Index starts at 0

Subset

```
>>> my_array[1]
  2
```

Select item at index 1

Slice

```
>>> my_array[0:2]
  array([1, 2])
```

Select items at index 0 and 1

Subset 2D Numpy arrays

```
>>> my_2darray[:,0]
  array([1, 4])
```

my_2darray[rows, columns]

Numpy Array Operations

```
>>> my_array > 3
 array([False, False, False,  True], dtype=bool)
>>> my_array * 2
 array([2, 4, 6, 8])
>>> my_array + np.array([5, 6, 7, 8])
 array([6, 8, 10, 12])
```

Numpy Array Functions

```
>>> my_array.shape
>>> np.append(other_array)
>>> np.insert(my_array, 1, 5)
>>> np.delete(my_array,[1])
>>> np.mean(my_array)
>>> np.median(my_array)
>>> my_array.corrcoef()
>>> np.std(my_array)
```

Get the dimensions of the array
Append items to an array
Insert items in an array
Delete items in an array
Mean of the array
Median of the array
Correlation coefficient
Standard deviation

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

NumPy Basics

Learn Python for Data Science **Interactively** at www.DataCamp.com

NumPy

The **NumPy** library is the core library for scientific computing in Python. It provides a high-performance multidimensional array object, and tools for working with these arrays.

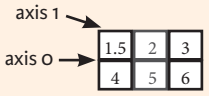
Use the following import convention:

```
>>> import numpy as np
```

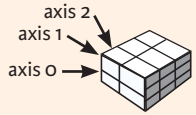
NumPy Arrays

1D array

2D array



3D array



Creating Arrays

```
>>> a = np.array([1,2,3])
>>> b = np.array([(1.5,2,3), (4,5,6)], dtype = float)
>>> c = np.array([[(1.5,2,3), (4,5,6)], [(3,2,1), (4,5,6)]],
                 dtype = float)
```

Initial Placeholders

```
>>> np.zeros((3,4))                  Create an array of zeros
>>> np.ones((2,3,4),dtype=np.int16)  Create an array of ones
>>> d = np.arange(10,25,5)           Create an array of evenly
                                     spaced values (step value)
>>> np.linspace(0,2,9)               Create an array of evenly
                                     spaced values (number of samples)
>>> e = np.full((2,2),7)             Create a constant array
>>> f = np.eye(2)                    Create a 2X2 identity matrix
>>> np.random.random((2,2))          Create an array with random values
>>> np.empty((3,2))                  Create an empty array
```

I/O

Saving & Loading On Disk

```
>>> np.save('my_array', a)
>>> np.savez('array.npz', a, b)
>>> np.load('my_array.npy')
```

Saving & Loading Text Files

```
>>> np.loadtxt("myfile.txt")
>>> np.genfromtxt("my_file.csv", delimiter=',')
>>> np.savetxt("myarray.txt", a, delimiter=" ")
```

Data Types

```
>>> np.int64       Signed 64-bit integer types
>>> np.float32     Standard double-precision floating point
>>> np.complex     Complex numbers represented by 128 floats
>>> np.bool        Boolean type storing TRUE and FALSE values
>>> np.object      Python object type
>>> np.string_     Fixed-length string type
>>> np.unicode_    Fixed-length unicode type
```

Inspecting Your Array

```
>>> a.shape             Array dimensions
>>> len(a)              Length of array
>>> b.ndim              Number of array dimensions
>>> e.size              Number of array elements
>>> b.dtype             Data type of array elements
>>> b.dtype.name        Name of data type
>>> b.astype(int)       Convert an array to a different type
```

Asking For Help

```
>>> np.info(np.ndarray.dtype)
```

Array Mathematics

Arithmetic Operations

```
>>> g = a - b                        Subtraction
  array([[-0.5,  0. ,  0. ],
         [-3. , -3. , -3. ]])
>>> np.subtract(a,b)                 Subtraction
>>> b + a                            Addition
  array([[ 2.5,  4. ,  6. ],
         [ 5. ,  7. ,  9. ]])
>>> np.add(b,a)                      Addition
>>> a / b                            Division
  array([[ 0.66666667,  1.        ,  1.        ],
         [ 0.25      ,  0.4       ,  0.5       ]])
>>> np.divide(a,b)                   Division
>>> a * b                            Multiplication
  array([[  1.5,   4. ,   9. ],
         [  4. ,  10. ,  18. ]])
>>> np.multiply(a,b)                 Multiplication
>>> np.exp(b)                        Exponentiation
>>> np.sqrt(b)                       Square root
>>> np.sin(a)                        Print sines of an array
>>> np.cos(b)                        Element-wise cosine
>>> np.log(a)                        Element-wise natural logarithm
>>> e.dot(f)                         Dot product
  array([[ 7.,  7.],
         [ 7.,  7.]])
```

Comparison

```
>>> a == b                           Element-wise comparison
  array([[False,  True,  True],
         [False, False, False]], dtype=bool)
>>> a < 2                            Element-wise comparison
  array([True, False, False], dtype=bool)
>>> np.array_equal(a, b)             Array-wise comparison
```

Aggregate Functions

```
>>> a.sum()                          Array-wise sum
>>> a.min()                          Array-wise minimum value
>>> b.max(axis=0)                    Maximum value of an array row
>>> b.cumsum(axis=1)                 Cumulative sum of the elements
>>> a.mean()                         Mean
>>> b.median()                       Median
>>> a.corrcoef()                     Correlation coefficient
>>> np.std(b)                        Standard deviation
```

Copying Arrays

```
>>> h = a.view()                     Create a view of the array with the same data
>>> np.copy(a)                       Create a copy of the array
>>> h = a.copy()                     Create a deep copy of the array
```

Sorting Arrays

```
>>> a.sort()                         Sort an array
>>> c.sort(axis=0)                   Sort the elements of an array's axis
```

Subsetting, Slicing, Indexing

Also see Lists

Subsetting

```
>>> a[2]                             Select the element at the 2nd index
  3
>>> b[1,2]                           Select the element at row 1 column 2
  6.0                                (equivalent to b[1][2])
```

Slicing

```
>>> a[0:2]                           Select items at index 0 and 1
  array([1, 2])
>>> b[0:2,1]                         Select items at rows 0 and 1 in column 1
  array([ 2.,  5.])
>>> b[:1]                            Select all items at row 0
  array([[1.5, 2., 3.]])             (equivalent to b[0:1, :])
>>> c[1,...]                         Same as [1,:,:]
  array([[[ 3.,  2.,  1.],
          [ 4.,  5.,  6.]]])
>>> a[ : :-1]                        Reversed array a
  array([3, 2, 1])
```

Boolean Indexing

```
>>> a[a<2]                           Select elements from a less than 2
  array([1])
```

Fancy Indexing

```
>>> b[[1, 0, 1, 0],[0, 1, 2, 0]]    Select elements (1,0),(0,1),(1,2) and (0,0)
  array([ 4. , 2. , 6. , 1.5])
>>> b[[1, 0, 1, 0]][:,[0,1,2,0]]    Select a subset of the matrix's rows
  array([[ 4. ,  5. ,  6. ,  4. ],   and columns
         [ 1.5,  2. ,  3. ,  1.5],
         [ 4. ,  5. ,  6. ,  4. ],
         [ 1.5,  2. ,  3. ,  1.5]])
```

Array Manipulation

Transposing Array

```
>>> i = np.transpose(b)              Permute array dimensions
>>> i.T                              Permute array dimensions
```

Changing Array Shape

```
>>> b.ravel()                        Flatten the array
>>> g.reshape(3,-2)                  Reshape, but don't change data
```

Adding/Removing Elements

```
>>> h.resize((2,6))                  Return a new array with shape (2,6)
>>> np.append(h,g)                   Append items to an array
>>> np.insert(a, 1, 5)               Insert items in an array
>>> np.delete(a,[1])                 Delete items from an array
```

Combining Arrays

```
>>> np.concatenate((a,d),axis=0)     Concatenate arrays
  array([ 1,  2,  3, 10, 15, 20])
>>> np.vstack((a,b))                 Stack arrays vertically (row-wise)
  array([[ 1. ,  2. ,  3. ],
         [ 1.5,  2. ,  3. ],
         [ 4. ,  5. ,  6. ]])
>>> np.r_[e,f]                       Stack arrays vertically (row-wise)
>>> np.hstack((e,f))                 Stack arrays horizontally (column-wise)
  array([[ 7.,  7.,  1.,  0.],
         [ 7.,  7.,  0.,  1.]])
>>> np.column_stack((a,d))           Create stacked column-wise arrays
  array([[ 1, 10],
         [ 2, 15],
         [ 3, 20]])
>>> np.c_[a,d]                       Create stacked column-wise arrays
```

Splitting Arrays

```
>>> np.hsplit(a,3)                   Split the array horizontally at the 3rd
  [array([1]),array([2]),array([3])]  index
>>> np.vsplit(c,2)                   Split the array vertically at the 2nd index
[array([[[ 1.5,  2. ,  1. ],
         [ 4. ,  5. ,  6. ]]]),
 array([[[ 3.,  2.,  3.],
         [ 4.,  5.,  6.]]])]
```

Range of values (maximum - minimum) along an axis

numpy.ptp

```
>>> x = np.arange(4).reshape((2,2))
>>> x
array([[0, 1],
       [2, 3]])

>>> np.ptp(x, axis=0)
array([2, 2])

>>> np.ptp(x, axis=1)
array([1, 1])
```

Boolean operators with Numpy

np.logical_and(), np_logical_or() ,
np.logical_not()

```
e.g
np.logical_and(your_house > 13,
               your_house <15)
```

Dimensions and brackets

```
np.array([[0,0,0,0]]).shape
Out[71]: (1, 4)
```

a 1 x 4 two-dimensional array

```
In [72]: np.array([0,0,0,0]).shape
Out[72]: (4,)
```

4 element one-dimensional array

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

SciPy - Linear Algebra

Learn More Python for Data Science Interactively at www.datacamp.com

SciPy

The **SciPy** library is one of the core packages for scientific computing that provides mathematical algorithms and convenience functions built on the NumPy extension of Python.

Interacting With NumPy

Also see NumPy

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> a = np.array([1,2,3])
>>> b = np.array([(1+5j,2j,3j), (4j,5j,6j)])
>>> c = np.array([[(1.5,2,3), (4,5,6)], [(3,2,1), (4,5,6)]])
```

Index Tricks

```
>>> np.mgrid[0:5,0:5]      Create a dense meshgrid
>>> np.ogrid[0:2,0:2]      Create an open meshgrid
>>> np.r_[3,[0]*5,-1:1:10j] Stack arrays vertically (row-wise)
>>> np.c_[b,c]             Create stacked column-wise arrays
```

Shape Manipulation

```
>>> np.transpose(b)        Permute array dimensions
>>> b.flatten()            Flatten the array
>>> np.hstack((b,c))       Stack arrays horizontally (column-wise)
>>> np.vstack((a,b))       Stack arrays vertically (row-wise)
>>> np.hsplit(c,2)         Split the array horizontally at the 2nd index
>>> np.vpslit(d,2)         Split the array vertically at the 2nd index
```

Polynomials

```
>>> from numpy import poly1d
>>> p = poly1d([3,4,5])    Create a polynomial object
```

Vectorizing Functions

```
>>> def myfunc(a):
        if a < 0:
          return a*2
        else:
          return a/2
>>> np.vectorize(myfunc)   Vectorize functions
```

Type Handling

```
>>> np.real(b)             Return the real part of the array elements
>>> np.imag(b)             Return the imaginary part of the array elements
>>> np.real_if_close(c,tol=1000) Return a real array if complex parts close to 0
>>> np.cast['f'](np.pi)    Cast object to a data type
```

Other Useful Functions

```
>>> np.angle(b,deg=True)   Return the angle of the complex argument
>>> g = np.linspace(0,np.pi,num=5) Create an array of evenly spaced values
                           (number of samples)
>>> g [3:] += np.pi
>>> np.unwrap(g)           Unwrap
>>> np.logspace(0,10,3)    Create an array of evenly spaced values (log scale)
>>> np.select([c<4],[c*2]) Return values from a list of arrays depending on
                           conditions
>>> misc.factorial(a)      Factorial
>>> misc.comb(10,3,exact=True) Combine N things taken at k time
>>> misc.central_diff_weights(3) Weights for Np-point central derivative
>>> misc.derivative(myfunc,1.0) Find the n-th derivative of a function at a point
```

Linear Algebra

Also see NumPy

You'll use the `linalg` and `sparse` modules. Note that `scipy.linalg` contains and expands on `numpy.linalg`.

```
>>> from scipy import linalg, sparse
```

Creating Matrices

```
>>> A = np.matrix(np.random.random((2,2)))
>>> B = np.asmatrix(b)
>>> C = np.mat(np.random.random((10,5)))
>>> D = np.mat([[3,4], [5,6]])
```

Basic Matrix Routines

Inverse

```
>>> A.I                    Inverse
>>> linalg.inv(A)          Inverse
```

Transposition

```
>>> A.T                    Tranpose matrix
>>> A.H                    Conjugate transposition
```

Trace

```
>>> np.trace(A)            Trace
```

Norm

```
>>> linalg.norm(A)         Frobenius norm
>>> linalg.norm(A,1)       L1 norm (max column sum)
>>> linalg.norm(A,np.inf)  L inf norm (max row sum)
```

Rank

```
>>> np.linalg.matrix_rank(C) Matrix rank
```

Determinant

```
>>> linalg.det(A)          Determinant
```

Solving linear problems

```
>>> linalg.solve(A,b)      Solver for dense matrices
>>> E = np.mat(a).T        Solver for dense matrices
>>> linalg.lstsq(F,E)      Least-squares solution to linear matrix
                           equation
```

Generalized inverse

```
>>> linalg.pinv(C)         Compute the pseudo-inverse of a matrix
                           (least-squares solver)
>>> linalg.pinv2(C)        Compute the pseudo-inverse of a matrix
                           (SVD)
```

Creating Sparse Matrices

```
>>> F = np.eye(3, k=1)     Create a 2X2 identity matrix
>>> G = np.mat(np.identity(2)) Create a 2x2 identity matrix
>>> C[C > 0.5] = 0
>>> H = sparse.csr_matrix(C) Compressed Sparse Row matrix
>>> I = sparse.csc_matrix(D) Compressed Sparse Column matrix
>>> J = sparse.dok_matrix(A) Dictionary Of Keys matrix
>>> E.todense()            Sparse matrix to full matrix
>>> sparse.isspmatrix_csc(A) Identify sparse matrix
```

Sparse Matrix Routines

Inverse

```
>>> sparse.linalg.inv(I)   Inverse
```

Norm

```
>>> sparse.linalg.norm(I)  Norm
```

Solving linear problems

```
>>> sparse.linalg.spsolve(H,I) Solver for sparse matrices
```

Sparse Matrix Functions

```
>>> sparse.linalg.expm(I)  Sparse matrix exponential
```

Matrix Functions

Addition

```
>>> np.add(A,D)            Addition
```

Subtraction

```
>>> np.subtract(A,D)       Subtraction
```

Division

```
>>> np.divide(A,D)         Division
```

Multiplication

```
>>> A @ D                  Multiplication operator (Python 3)
>>> np.multiply(D,A)       Multiplication
>>> np.dot(A,D)            Dot product
>>> np.vdot(A,D)           Vector dot product
>>> np.inner(A,D)          Inner product
>>> np.outer(A,D)          Outer product
>>> np.tensordot(A,D)      Tensor dot product
>>> np.kron(A,D)           Kronecker product
```

Exponential Functions

```
>>> linalg.expm(A)         Matrix exponential
>>> linalg.expm2(A)        Matrix exponential (Taylor Series)
>>> linalg.expm3(D)        Matrix exponential (eigenvalue decomposition)
```

Logarithm Function

```
>>> linalg.logm(A)         Matrix logarithm
```

Trigonometric Functions

```
>>> linalg.sinm(D)         Matrix sine
>>> linalg.cosm(D)         Matrix cosine
>>> linalg.tanm(A)         Matrix tangent
```

Hyperbolic Trigonometric Functions

```
>>> linalg.sinhm(D)        Hyperbolic matrix sine
>>> linalg.coshm(D)        Hyperbolic matrix cosine
>>> linalg.tanhm(A)        Hyperbolic matrix tangent
```

Matrix Sign Function

```
>>> np.signm(A)            Matrix sign function
```

Matrix Square Root

```
>>> linalg.sqrtm(A)        Matrix square root
```

Arbitrary Functions

```
>>> linalg.funm(A, lambda x: x*x) Evaluate matrix function
```

Decompositions

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

```
>>> la, v = linalg.eig(A)  Solve ordinary or generalized
                           eigenvalue problem for square matrix
>>> l1, l2 = la            Unpack eigenvalues
>>> v[:,0]                 First eigenvector
>>> v[:,1]                 Second eigenvector
>>> linalg.eigvals(A)      Unpack eigenvalues
```

Singular Value Decomposition

```
>>> U,s,Vh = linalg.svd(B) Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
>>> M,N = B.shape
>>> Sig = linalg.diagsvd(s,M,N) Construct sigma matrix in SVD
```

LU Decomposition

```
>>> P,L,U = linalg.lu(C)   LU Decomposition
```

Sparse Matrix Decompositions

```
>>> la, v = sparse.linalg.eigs(F,1) Eigenvalues and eigenvectors
>>> sparse.linalg.svds(H, 2)        SVD
```

Asking For Help

```
>>> help(scipy.linalg.diagsvd)
>>> np.info(np.matrix)
```

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

Pandas Basics

Learn Python for Data Science Interactively at www.DataCamp.com

Pandas

The **Pandas** library is built on NumPy and provides easy-to-use **data structures** and **data analysis** tools for the Python programming language.

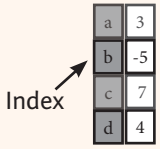
Use the following import convention:

```
>>> import pandas as pd
```

Pandas Data Structures

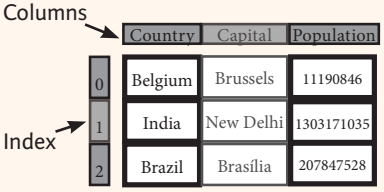
Series

A **one-dimensional** labeled array capable of holding any data type




```
>>> s = pd.Series([3, -5, 7, 4], index=['a', 'b', 'c', 'd'])
```

DataFrame



A **two-dimensional** labeled data structure with columns of potentially different types

```
>>> data = {'Country': ['Belgium', 'India', 'Brazil'],
            'Capital': ['Brussels', 'New Delhi', 'Brasília'],
            'Population': [11190846, 1303171035, 207847528]}

>>> df = pd.DataFrame(data,
                      columns=['Country', 'Capital', 'Population'])
```

Asking For Help

```
>>> help(pd.Series.loc)
```

Selection

Also see NumPy Arrays

Getting

```
>>> s['b']
 -5

>>> df[1:]
   Country     Capital   Population
 1   India  New Delhi   1303171035
 2  Brazil   Brasília    207847528
```

Get one element

Get subset of a DataFrame

Selecting, Boolean Indexing & Setting

By Position

```
>>> df.iloc[[0],[0]]
 'Belgium'
>>> df.iat([0],[0])
 'Belgium'
```

Select single value by row & column

By Label

```
>>> df.loc[[0], ['Country']]
 'Belgium'
>>> df.at([0], ['Country'])
 'Belgium'
```

Select single value by row & column labels

By Label/Position

```
>>> df.ix[2]
Country      Brazil
Capital    Brasília
Population  207847528
```

Select single row of subset of rows

```
>>> df.ix[:,'Capital']
0     Brussels
1    New Delhi
2     Brasília
```

Select a single column of subset of columns

```
>>> df.ix[1,'Capital']
 'New Delhi'
```

Select rows and columns

Boolean Indexing

```
>>> s[~(s > 1)]
>>> s[(s < -1)  |  (s > 2)]
>>> df[df['Population']>1200000000]
```

Series `s` where value is not >1
`s` where value is <-1 or >2
Use filter to adjust DataFrame

Setting

```
>>> s['a'] = 6
```

Set index `a` of Series `s` to 6

Dropping

```
>>> s.drop(['a', 'c'])
>>> df.drop('Country', axis=1)
```

Drop values from rows (axis=0)
Drop values from columns(axis=1)

Sort & Rank

```
>>> df.sort_index()
>>> df.sort_values(by='Country')
>>> df.rank()
```

Sort by labels along an axis
Sort by the values along an axis
Assign ranks to entries

Retrieving Series/DataFrame Information

Basic Information

```
>>> df.shape
>>> df.index
>>> df.columns
>>> df.info()
>>> df.count()
```

(rows,columns)
Describe index
Describe DataFrame columns
Info on DataFrame
Number of non-NA values

Summary

```
>>> df.sum()
>>> df.cumsum()
>>> df.min()/df.max()
>>> df.idxmin()/df.idxmax()
>>> df.describe()
>>> df.mean()
>>> df.median()
```

Sum of values
Cummulative sum of values
Minimum/maximum values
Minimum/Maximum index value
Summary statistics
Mean of values
Median of values

Applying Functions

```
>>> f = lambda x: x*2
>>> df.apply(f)
>>> df.applymap(f)
```

Apply function
Apply function element-wise

Data Alignment

Internal Data Alignment

NA values are introduced in the indices that don't overlap:

```
>>> s3 = pd.Series([7, -2, 3], index=['a', 'c', 'd'])
>>> s + s3
  a     10.0
  b      NaN
  c      5.0
  d      7.0
```

Arithmetic Operations with Fill Methods

You can also do the internal data alignment yourself with the help of the fill methods:

```
>>> s.add(s3, fill_value=0)
  a    10.0
  b    -5.0
  c    5.0
  d    7.0
>>> s.sub(s3, fill_value=2)
>>> s.div(s3, fill_value=4)
>>> s.mul(s3, fill_value=3)
```

I/O

Read and Write to CSV

```
>>> pd.read_csv('file.csv', header=None, nrows=5)
>>> df.to_csv('myDataFrame.csv')
```

Read and Write to Excel

```
>>> pd.read_excel('file.xlsx')
>>> pd.to_excel('dir/myDataFrame.xlsx', sheet_name='Sheet1')
```

Read multiple sheets from the same file

```
>>> xlsx = pd.ExcelFile('file.xls')
>>> df = pd.read_excel(xlsx, 'Sheet1')
```

Read and Write to SQL Query or Database Table

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import create_engine
>>> engine = create_engine('sqlite:///:memory:')
>>> pd.read_sql("SELECT * FROM my_table;", engine)
>>> pd.read_sql_table('my_table', engine)
>>> pd.read_sql_query("SELECT * FROM my_table;", engine)
```

`read_sql()` is a convenience wrapper around `read_sql_table()` and `read_sql_query()`

```
>>> pd.to_sql('myDf', engine)
```

The DataFrame is one of Pandas' most important data structures. It's basically a way to store tabular data where you can label the rows and the columns. One way to build a DataFrame is from a dictionary.
Each dictionary key is a column label and each value is a list which contains the column elements.

```
import pandas as pd

my_dict = {
    'country':['United States', 'Australia', 'Japan', 'Indi
    'drives_right':[True, False, False, False, True, True,
    'cars_per_cap':[809, 731, 588, 18, 200, 70, 45]
}

cars = pd.DataFrame(my_dict)

print (cars)
```

	cars_per_cap	country	drives_right
0	809	United States	True
1	731	Australia	False
2	588	Japan	False
3	18	India	False
4	200	Russia	True
5	70	Morocco	True
6	45	Egypt	True

#Return DataFrame with duplicate rows removed,
optionally only considering certain columns

```
pandas.DataFrame.drop_duplicates
```

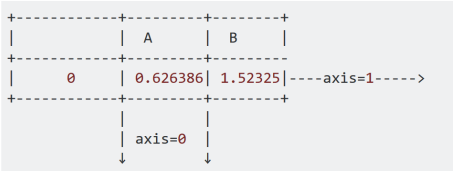
#Return boolean DataFrame showing whether
each element in the DataFrame is contained in values.

```
DataFrame.isin(values)[source]
```

#`~` is used for elementwise comparison of arrays
in numpy/pandas

e.g

```
df_madMen[~df_madMen['Status'].isin(['END','End'])].head(2)
```



Axis 0 will act on all the ROWS in each COLUMN
Axis 1 will act on all the COLUMNS in each ROW

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

Pandas

Learn Python for Data Science **Interactively** at www.DataCamp.com

Reshaping Data

Pivot

```
>>> df3= df2.pivot(index='Date',
                   columns='Type',
                   values='Value')
```

Spread rows into columns

	Date	Type	Value
0	2016-03-01	a	11.432
1	2016-03-02	b	13.031
2	2016-03-01	c	20.784
3	2016-03-03	a	99.906
4	2016-03-02	a	1.303
5	2016-03-03	c	20.784

Type	a	b	c
Date			
2016-03-01	11.432	NaN	20.784
2016-03-02	1.303	13.031	NaN
2016-03-03	99.906	NaN	20.784

Pivot Table

```
>>> df4 = pd.pivot_table(df2,
                         values='Value',
                         index='Date',
                         columns='Type'])
```

Spread rows into columns

Stack / Unstack

```
>>> stacked = df5.stack()
>>> stacked.unstack()
```

Pivot a level of column labels
Pivot a level of index labels

		0	1
1	5	0.233482	0.390959
2	4	0.184713	0.237102
3	3	0.433522	0.429401

Unstacked

1	5	0	0.233482
		1	0.390959
2	4	0	0.184713
		1	0.237102
3	3	0	0.433522
		1	0.429401

Stacked

Melt

```
>>> pd.melt(df2,
            id_vars=["Date"],
            value_vars=["Type", "Value"],
            value_name="Observations")
```

Gather columns into rows

	Date	Type	Value
0	2016-03-01	a	11.432
1	2016-03-02	b	13.031
2	2016-03-01	c	20.784
3	2016-03-03	a	99.906
4	2016-03-02	a	1.303
5	2016-03-03	c	20.784

	Date	Variable	Observations
0	2016-03-01	Type	a
1	2016-03-02	Type	b
2	2016-03-01	Type	c
3	2016-03-03	Type	a
4	2016-03-02	Type	a
5	2016-03-03	Type	c
6	2016-03-01	Value	11.432
7	2016-03-02	Value	13.031
8	2016-03-01	Value	20.784
9	2016-03-03	Value	99.906
10	2016-03-02	Value	1.303
11	2016-03-03	Value	20.784

Iteration

```
>>> df.iteritems()
>>> df.iterrows()
```

(Column-index, Series) pairs
(Row-index, Series) pairs

Advanced Indexing

Also see NumPy Arrays

Selecting

```
>>> df3.loc[:,(df3>1).any()]
>>> df3.loc[:,(df3>1).all()]
>>> df3.loc[:,df3.isnull().any()]
>>> df3.loc[:,df3.notnull().all()]
```

Select cols with any vals >1
Select cols with vals > 1
Select cols with NaN
Select cols without NaN

Indexing With isin

```
>>> df[(df.Country.isin(df2.Type))]
>>> df3.filter(items="a","b"])
>>> df.select(lambda x: not x%5)
```

Find same elements
Filter on values
Select specific elements

Where

```
>>> s.where(s > 0)
```

Subset the data

Query

```
>>> df6.query('second > first')
```

Query DataFrame

Setting/Resetting Index

```
>>> df.set_index('Country')
>>> df4 = df.reset_index()
>>> df = df.rename(index=str,
                   columns={"Country":"cntry",
                            "Capital":"cptl",
                            "Population":"ppltn"})
```

Set the index
Reset the index
Rename DataFrame

Reindexing

```
>>> s2 = s.reindex(['a','c','d','e','b'])
```

Forward Filling

```
>>> df.reindex(range(4),
               method='ffill')
   Country     Capital   Population
0  Belgium    Brussels    11190846
1    India   New Delhi  1303171035
2   Brazil    Brasília   207847528
3   Brazil    Brasília   207847528
```

Backward Filling

```
>>> s3 = s.reindex(range(5),
                   method='bfill')
0    3
1    3
2    3
3    3
4    3
```

MultiIndexing

```
>>> arrays = [np.array([1,2,3]),
              np.array([5,4,3])]
>>> df5 = pd.DataFrame(np.random.rand(3, 2), index=arrays)
>>> tuples = list(zip(*arrays))
>>> index = pd.MultiIndex.from_tuples(tuples,
                                      names=['first', 'second'])
>>> df6 = pd.DataFrame(np.random.rand(3, 2), index=index)
>>> df2.set_index(["Date", "Type"])
```

Duplicate Data

```
>>> s3.unique()
>>> df2.duplicated('Type')
>>> df2.drop_duplicates('Type', keep='last')
>>> df.index.duplicated()
```

Return unique values
Check duplicates
Drop duplicates
Check index duplicates

Grouping Data

Aggregation

```
>>> df2.groupby(by=['Date','Type']).mean()
>>> df4.groupby(level=0).sum()
>>> df4.groupby(level=0).agg({'a':lambda x:sum(x)/len(x),
                              'b': np.sum})
```

Transformation

```
>>> customSum = lambda x: (x+x%2)
>>> df4.groupby(level=0).transform(customSum)
```

Missing Data

```
>>> df.dropna()
>>> df3.fillna(df3.mean())
>>> df2.replace("a", "f")
```

Drop NaN values
Fill NaN values with a predetermined value
Replace values with others

Combining Data

data1

	X1	X2
a	11.432
b	1.303
c	99.906

data2

	X1	X3
a	20.784
b	NaN
d	20.784

Merge

```
>>> pd.merge(data1,
             data2,
             how='left',
             on='X1')
```

	X1	X2	X3
a	11.432	20.784
b	1.303	NaN
c	99.906	NaN

```
>>> pd.merge(data1,
             data2,
             how='right',
             on='X1')
```

	X1	X2	X3
a	11.432	20.784
b	1.303	NaN
d	NaN	20.784

```
>>> pd.merge(data1,
             data2,
             how='inner',
             on='X1')
```

	X1	X2	X3
a	11.432	20.784
b	1.303	NaN

```
>>> pd.merge(data1,
             data2,
             how='outer',
             on='X1')
```

	X1	X2	X3
a	11.432	20.784
b	1.303	NaN
c	99.906	NaN
d	NaN	20.784

Join

```
>>> data1.join(data2, how='right')
```

Concatenate

Vertical

```
>>> s.append(s2)
```

Horizontal/Vertical

```
>>> pd.concat([s,s2],axis=1, keys=['One','Two'])
>>> pd.concat([data1, data2], axis=1, join='inner')
```

Dates

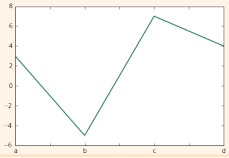
```
>>> df2['Date']= pd.to_datetime(df2['Date'])
>>> df2['Date']= pd.date_range('2000-1-1',
                               periods=6,
                               freq='M')
>>> dates = [datetime(2012,5,1), datetime(2012,5,2)]
>>> index = pd.DatetimeIndex(dates)
>>> index = pd.date_range(datetime(2012,2,1), end, freq='BM')
```

Visualization

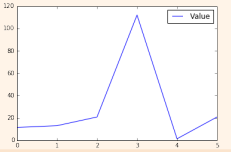
Also see Matplotlib

```
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

```
>>> s.plot()
>>> plt.show()
```



```
>>> df2.plot()
>>> plt.show()
```



Data Wrangling

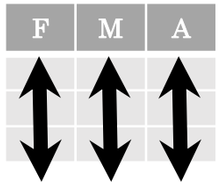
with pandas

Cheat Sheet

http://pandas.pydata.org

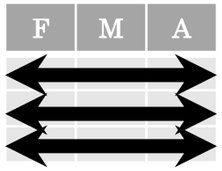
Tidy Data – A foundation for wrangling in pandas

In a tidy data set:



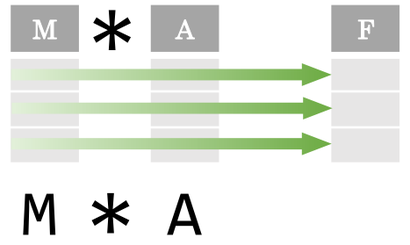
Each **variable** is saved in its own **column**

&



Each **observation** is saved in its own **row**

Tidy data complements pandas's **vectorized operations**. pandas will automatically preserve observations as you manipulate variables. No other format works as intuitively with pandas.



Syntax – Creating DataFrames

	a	b	c
1	4	7	10
2	5	8	11
3	6	9	12

```
df = pd.DataFrame(
        {"a" : [4 ,5, 6],
         "b" : [7, 8, 9],
         "c" : [10, 11, 12]},
       index = [1, 2, 3])
```

Specify values for each column.

```
df = pd.DataFrame(
    [[4, 7, 10],
     [5, 8, 11],
     [6, 9, 12]],
    index=[1, 2, 3],
    columns=['a', 'b', 'c'])
```

Specify values for each row.

		a	b	c
n	v			
d	1	4	7	10
	2	5	8	11
e	2	6	9	12

```
df = pd.DataFrame(
        {"a" : [4 ,5, 6],
         "b" : [7, 8, 9],
         "c" : [10, 11, 12]},
index = pd.MultiIndex.from_tuples(
        [('d',1),('d',2),('e',2)],
          names=['n','v'])))
```

Create DataFrame with a MultiIndex

Method Chaining

Most pandas methods return a DataFrame so that another pandas method can be applied to the result. This improves readability of code.

```
df = (pd.melt(df)
        .rename(columns={
                'variable' : 'var',
                'value' : 'val'})
        .query('val >= 200')
    )
```

Reshaping Data – Change the layout of a data set

pd.melt(df)
Gather columns into rows.

df.pivot(columns='var', values='val')
Spread rows into columns.

pd.concat([df1,df2])
Append rows of DataFrames

pd.concat([df1,df2], axis=1)
Append columns of DataFrames

df.sort_values('mpg')
Order rows by values of a column (low to high).

df.sort_values('mpg',ascending=False)
Order rows by values of a column (high to low).

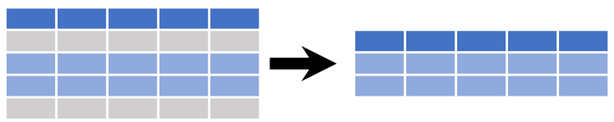
df.rename(columns = {'y':'year'})
Rename the columns of a DataFrame

df.sort_index()
Sort the index of a DataFrame

df.reset_index()
Reset index of DataFrame to row numbers, moving index to columns.

df.drop(columns=['Length','Height'])
Drop columns from DataFrame

Subset Observations (Rows)



df[df.Length > 7]
Extract rows that meet logical criteria.

df.drop_duplicates()
Remove duplicate rows (only considers columns).

df.head(n)
Select first n rows.

df.tail(n)
Select last n rows.

df.sample(frac=0.5)
Randomly select fraction of rows.

df.sample(n=10)
Randomly select n rows.

df.iloc[10:20]
Select rows by position.

df.nlargest(n, 'value')
Select and order top n entries.

df.nsmallest(n, 'value')
Select and order bottom n entries.

Logic in Python (and pandas)			
<	Less than	!=	Not equal to
>	Greater than	df.column.isin(*values*)	Group membership
==	Equals	pd.isnull(*obj*)	Is NaN
<=	Less than or equals	pd.notnull(*obj*)	Is not NaN
>=	Greater than or equals	&,|,~,^,df.any(),df.all()	Logical and, or, not, xor, any, all

Subset Variables (Columns)

df[['width','length','species']]
Select multiple columns with specific names.

df['width'] *or* **df.width**
Select single column with specific name.

df.filter(regex='*regex*')
Select columns whose name matches regular expression *regex*.

regex (Regular Expressions) Examples	
'\.'	Matches strings containing a period '.'
'Length$'	Matches strings ending with word 'Length'
'^Sepal'	Matches strings beginning with the word 'Sepal'
'^x[1-5]$'	Matches strings beginning with 'x' and ending with 1,2,3,4,5
''^(?!Species$).*'	Matches strings except the string 'Species'

df.loc[:,'x2':'x4']
Select all columns between x2 and x4 (inclusive).

df.iloc[:,[1,2,5]]
Select columns in positions 1, 2 and 5 (first column is 0).

df.loc[df['a'] > 10, ['a','c']]
Select rows meeting logical condition, and only the specific columns .

Summarize Data

`df['w'].value_counts()`
Count number of rows with each unique value of variable

`len(df)`
# of rows in DataFrame.

`df['w'].nunique()`
# of distinct values in a column.

`df.describe()`
Basic descriptive statistics for each column (or GroupBy)

pandas provides a large set of **summary functions** that operate on different kinds of pandas objects (DataFrame columns, Series, GroupBy, Expanding and Rolling (see below)) and produce single values for each of the groups. When applied to a DataFrame, the result is returned as a pandas Series for each column. Examples:

`sum()`
Sum values of each object.

`count()`
Count non-NA/null values of each object.

`median()`
Median value of each object.

`quantile([0.25,0.75])`
Quantiles of each object.

`apply(function)`
Apply function to each object.

`min()`
Minimum value in each object.

`max()`
Maximum value in each object.

`mean()`
Mean value of each object.

`var()`
Variance of each object.

`std()`
Standard deviation of each object.

Group Data

`df.groupby(by="col")`
Return a GroupBy object, grouped by values in column named "col".

`df.groupby(level="ind")`
Return a GroupBy object, grouped by values in index level named "ind".

All of the summary functions listed above can be applied to a group. Additional GroupBy functions:

`size()`
Size of each group.

`agg(function)`
Aggregate group using function.

The examples below can also be applied to groups. In this case, the function is applied on a per-group basis, and the returned vectors are of the length of the original DataFrame.

`shift(1)`
Copy with values shifted by 1.

`rank(method='dense')`
Ranks with no gaps.

`rank(method='min')`
Ranks. Ties get min rank.

`rank(pct=True)`
Ranks rescaled to interval [0, 1].

`rank(method='first')`
Ranks. Ties go to first value.

`shift(-1)`
Copy with values lagged by 1.

`cumsum()`
Cumulative sum.

`cummax()`
Cumulative max.

`cummin()`
Cumulative min.

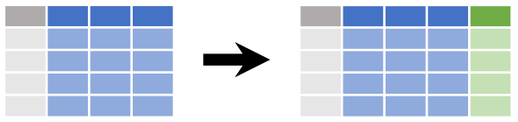
`cumprod()`
Cumulative product.

Handling Missing Data

`df.dropna()`
Drop rows with any column having NA/null data.

`df.fillna(value)`
Replace all NA/null data with value.

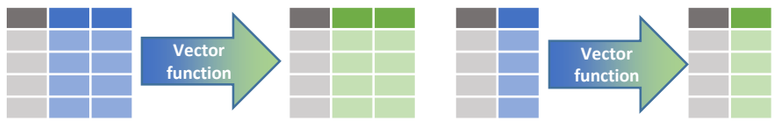
Make New Columns



`df.assign(Area=lambda df: df.Length*df.Height)`
Compute and append one or more new columns.

`df['Volume'] = df.Length*df.Height*df.Depth`
Add single column.

`pd.qcut(df.col, n, labels=False)`
Bin column into n buckets.



pandas provides a large set of **vector functions** that operate on all columns of a DataFrame or a single selected column (a pandas Series). These functions produce vectors of values for each of the columns, or a single Series for the individual Series. Examples:

`max(axis=1)`
Element-wise max.

`clip(lower=-10,upper=10)`
Trim values at input thresholds

`min(axis=1)`
Element-wise min.

`abs()`
Absolute value.

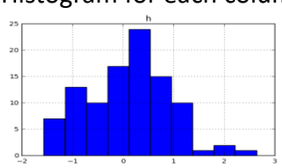
Windows

`df.expanding()`
Return an Expanding object allowing summary functions to be applied cumulatively.

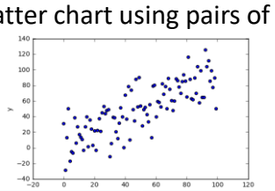
`df.rolling(n)`
Return a Rolling object allowing summary functions to be applied to windows of length n.

Plotting

`df.plot.hist()`
Histogram for each column



`df.plot.scatter(x='w',y='h')`
Scatter chart using pairs of points



Combine Data Sets

adf

x1	x2
A	1
B	2
C	3

+

bdf

x1	x3
A	T
B	F
D	T

=

Standard Joins

x1	x2	x3
A	1	T
B	2	F
C	3	NaN

`pd.merge(adf, bdf, how='left', on='x1')`
Join matching rows from bdf to adf.

x1	x2	x3
A	1.0	T
B	2.0	F
D	NaN	T

`pd.merge(adf, bdf, how='right', on='x1')`
Join matching rows from adf to bdf.

x1	x2	x3
A	1	T
B	2	F

`pd.merge(adf, bdf, how='inner', on='x1')`
Join data. Retain only rows in both sets.

x1	x2	x3
A	1	T
B	2	F
C	3	NaN
D	NaN	T

`pd.merge(adf, bdf, how='outer', on='x1')`
Join data. Retain all values, all rows.

Filtering Joins

x1	x2
A	1
B	2

`adf[adf.x1.isin(bdf.x1)]`
All rows in adf that have a match in bdf.

x1	x2
C	3

`adf[~adf.x1.isin(bdf.x1)]`
All rows in adf that do not have a match in bdf.

ydf

x1	x2
A	1
B	2
C	3

+

zdf

x1	x2
B	2
C	3
D	4

=

Set-like Operations

x1	x2
B	2
C	3

`pd.merge(ydf, zdf)`
Rows that appear in both ydf and zdf (Intersection).

x1	x2
A	1
B	2
C	3
D	4

`pd.merge(ydf, zdf, how='outer')`
Rows that appear in either or both ydf and zdf (Union).

x1	x2
A	1

```
pd.merge(ydf, zdf, how='outer',
         indicator=True)
.query('_merge == "left_only"')
.drop(columns=['_merge'])
```
Rows that appear in ydf but not zdf (Setdiff).

Pandas_walkthrough

Importing

```
import pandas as pd

users = pd.read_table('datasets/users.txt')
users = pd.read_table('datasets/users.txt',
sep = '|', index_col= 'user_id' )

drinks = pd.read_table(local_drinks_csv, sep=',')
drinks = pd.read_csv(local_drinks_csv)   # assumes separator is comma

users.head(5)
users.tail(2)
```

Create DataFrame from original file that lacks header

```
user_cols = ['user_id', 'age', 'gender', 'occupation', 'zip_code']
users = pd.read_table(local_user_file, sep='|', header=None, names=user_cols,
index_col='user_id')
```

Print the index and columns:

```
print(users.index[0:5])
print(users.columns)
```

Find the dtypes of the columns.

```
users.dtypes
```

Find the dimensions of the DataFrame.

```
users.shape
```

Find the number of rows of DataFrame

```
users.shape[0]
```

Extract the underlying numpy array as a new variable.

```
X = users.values
print(type(X), X.shape)
```

Selecting Columns

```
gender = users['gender']
type(gender)
```

Select gender and occupation as a new DataFrame.

```
gen_occ = users[['gender','occupation']]
```

Describing Data

```
users.describe()
```

Describe the "object" (string) columns.

```
users.describe(include=['object'])
```

Describe all of the columns, regardless of type.

```
users.describe(include='all')
```

Describe the gender Series from the users DataFrame.

```
users['gender'].describe()
```

Simple statistics

```
users['age'].mean()
users['gender'].value_counts()
users['age'].value_counts()[0:5]
```

Filtering and Sorting DataFrames

Show users age < 20 using a Boolean mask.

```
young_bool = users['age'] < 20         # Create a Series of Booleans...
users[young_bool].head()               # ...and use that Series to filter rows.
```

Calculate the value counts of occupation for users age < 20

```
users[users['age'] < 20]['occupation'].value_counts()
```

Print the male users age < 20

```
users[(users['age'] < 20) & (users['gender']=='M')]
```

Print the users age < 10 or age > 70.

```
users[(users['age'] < 10) | (users['age'] > 70)].head()
```

Sorting

Return the age column sorted in ascending order.

```
users['age'].sort_values()
```

Sort the users DataFrame by the age column (ascending).

```
users.sort_values('age').head()
```

Sort the users DataFrame by the age column in descending order.

```
users.sort_values('age', ascending=False).head()
```

Sort `users` by `occupation` and then by `age` in a single command.

```
users.sort_values(['occupation', 'age'])
```

Filter `users` to only include doctors and lawyers

```
users[users['occupation'].isin(['doctor', 'lawyer'])].head()
```

Renaming, Adding, and Removing Columns

Rename beer_servings as beer and wine_servings as wine in the drinks DataFrame,

```
renamed_drinks = drinks.rename(columns={'beer_servings':'beer',
'wine_servings':'wine'})
```

Perform the same renaming for drinks, but in place.

```
drinks.rename(columns={'beer_servings':'beer', 'wine_servings':'wine'},
inplace=True)
```

Replace all column names.

```
drink_cols = ['country', 'beer', 'spirit', 'wine', 'liters', 'continent']
drinks.columns = drink_cols
```

Replace these names when loading a `.csv` or other file:

```
Drinks = pd.read_csv('drinks.csv', header=0, names=drink_cols)
```

Adding Columns

Make a servings column combines beer, spirit, and wine.

```
drinks['servings'] = drinks['beer'] + drinks['spirit'] + drinks['wine']
```

Removing columns

Remove the mL column, returning a new DataFrame.

```
dropped = drinks.drop('mL', axis=1) # axis=0 for rows, 1 for columns
```

Remove the mL and servings columns from drinks in place.

```
drinks.drop(['mL', 'servings'], axis=1, inplace=True)   # Drop multiple columns.
```

Handling Missing Values

Finding Missing Values

```
# Missing values are usually excluded by default.
print(drinks['continent'].value_counts()  )           # Excludes missing values
print(drinks['continent'].value_counts(dropna=False))  # Includes missing values
```

Find missing values in a Series.

```
is_null = drinks['continent'].isnull() # True if missing
is_not_null = drinks['continent'].notnull() # True if not missing
```

Use a Boolean Series to filter DataFrame rows.

```
drinks_continent_null = drinks[drinks['continent'].isnull()]
# Only show rows where `continent` is missing

drinks_continent_notnull = drinks[drinks['continent'].notnull()]
# Only show rows where `continent` is not missing
```

Find missing values in a DataFrame.

```
drinks.isnull()             # DataFrame of True/False Booleans
drinks.isnull().sum()       # Count the missing values in each column
```

Dropping Missing Values

Drop rows where ANY values are missing in drinks (returning a new DataFrame).

```
print(drinks.shape)
d = drinks.dropna()
print(d.shape)
```

Drop rows only where ALL values are missing in drinks.

```
print(drinks.shape)
d = drinks.dropna(how='all')
print(d.shape)
```

Filling in Missing Values

```
drinks['continent'].fillna(value='NA', inplace=True)
```

Turn off the missing value filter when loading the drinks .csv.

```
drinks = pd.read_csv(local_drinks_csv, header=0, names=drink_cols,
na_filter=False)
```

Understanding axes

```
print(drinks.sum())      # Sums "down" the 0 axis (rows)
print(drinks.sum(axis=0))# Equivalent (as axis=0 is the default)
print(drinks.sum(axis=1).head())      # Sums "across" the 1 axis (columns)
```

Split-Apply-Combine

For each continent, calculate the mean `beer` servings.
```
drinks.groupby('continent')['beer'].mean()
```

Describe the beer column by continent.
```
drinks.groupby('continent')['beer'].describe()
```

Find the count, mean, minimum, and maximumof the beer column by continent.
```
drinks.groupby('continent')['beer'].agg(['count', 'mean', 'min', 'max'])
```

now sort the output by the mean column.
```
drinks.groupby('continent')['beer'].agg(['count', 'mean', 'min',
'max']).sort_values('mean')
```

Find the first value of each column by continent
```
drinks.groupby('continent').apply(lambda x: x.iloc[0,:])
```

For each combination of `occupation` and `gender`, calculate the mean age.
```
users.groupby(['occupation', 'gender'])['age'].mean()
```

Indexing

Location Indexing With .loc()

Select all rows and the city column from the UFO data set using .loc().

```
d = ufo.loc[:, 'City'] # Colon means "all rows;" then, select one column
```

Select two columns
```
d = ufo.loc[:, ['City', 'State']]   # Select two columns
```

Select a range of columns.
```
d = ufo.loc[:, 'City':'State']
```

Position indexing with .iloc

Select all rows and columns in position 0 and 3.
```
d = ufo.iloc[:, [0, 3]]
```

Select rows in positions 0:3, along with all columns.
```
d = ufo.iloc[0:3, :]
```

Frequently used features

Using Map Functions With Replacement Dictionaries

```
users['is_male'] = users['gender'].map({'F':0, 'M':1})
# Map existing values to a different set of values.
```

Encoding Strings as Integers With .factorize()
```
users['occupation_num'] = users['occupation'].factorize()[0]
```

Count the number of unique values.
```
users['occupation'].nunique()
```

Return the unique values.
```
users['occupation'].unique()
```

Replace all instances of a value in a column (must match the entire value).
```
ufo['State'].replace('Fl', 'FL', inplace=True)
```

Series String Methods With .str

```
ufo['State'].str.upper()                                  # Converts to uppercase
ufo['Colors_Reported'].str.contains('RED', na='False').head(2) # Checks for a
substring
```

Datetime Conversion and Arithmetic

```
# Convert a string to the datetime format.
ufo['Time'] = pd.to_datetime(ufo['Time'])
ufo['Time'].dt.hour                          # Datetime format exposes convenient
attributes.
(ufo['Time'].max() - ufo['Time'].min()).days  # It also allows you to do datetime
"math."
ufo[ufo['Time'] > pd.datetime(2014, 1, 1)].head(2) # Boolean filtering with the
datetime format
```

Setting and Resetting the Index

```
# Setting and then removing an index
ufo.set_index('Time', inplace=True)
ufo.reset_index(inplace=True)
```

Sorting by Index

```
# Sort a column by its index.
ufo['State'].value_counts().sort_index()[0:3]
```

Changing the Data Type of a Column

```
# Change the data type of a column.
drinks['beer'] = drinks['beer'].astype('float')

# Change the data type of a column when reading in a file.
d = pd.read_csv('../datasets/drinks.csv', dtype={'beer_servings':float})
```

Creating Dummy-Coded Columns

```
# Create dummy variables for `continent` and exclude the first dummy column.
continent_dummies = pd.get_dummies(drinks['continent'], prefix='cont').iloc[:,
1:]
continent_dummies.head(3)
```

Concatenating DataFrames

```
# Concatenate two DataFrames (axis=0 for rows, axis=1 for columns).
drinks = pd.concat([drinks, continent_dummies], axis=1)
```

Detecting and Dropping Duplicate Rows

```
# Detecting duplicate rows:
d = users.duplicated()          # True if a row is identical to a previous row.
d = users.duplicated().sum()    # Count of duplicates.
d = users[users.duplicated()]   # Only shows duplicates.
d = users.drop_duplicates()     # Drops duplicate rows.
d = users.age.duplicated()      # Checks a single column for duplicates.
d = users.duplicated(['age', 'gender', 'zip_code']).sum()   # Specifies columns
for finding duplicates.
```

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

Matplotlib

Learn Python Interactively at www.DataCamp.com

Matplotlib

Matplotlib is a Python 2D plotting library which produces publication-quality figures in a variety of hardcopy formats and interactive environments across platforms.

matplotlib

1 Prepare The Data

Also see Lists & NumPy

1D Data

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> x = np.linspace(0, 10, 100)
>>> y = np.cos(x)
>>> z = np.sin(x)
```

2D Data or Images

```
>>> data = 2 * np.random.random((10, 10))
>>> data2 = 3 * np.random.random((10, 10))
>>> Y, X = np.mgrid[-3:3:100j, -3:3:100j]
>>> U = -1 - X**2 + Y
>>> V = 1 + X - Y**2
>>> from matplotlib.cbook import get_sample_data
>>> img = np.load(get_sample_data('axes_grid/bivariate_normal.npy'))
```

2 Create Plot

```
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

Figure

```
>>> fig = plt.figure()
>>> fig2 = plt.figure(figsize=plt.figaspect(2.0))
```

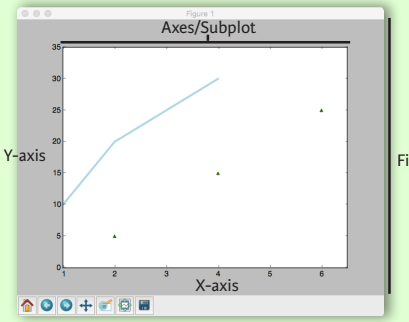
Axes

All plotting is done with respect to an `Axes`. In most cases, a subplot will fit your needs. A subplot is an axes on a grid system.

```
>>> fig.add_axes()
>>> ax1 = fig.add_subplot(221) # row-col-num
>>> ax3 = fig.add_subplot(212)
>>> fig3, axes = plt.subplots(nrows=2,ncols=2)
>>> fig4, axes2 = plt.subplots(ncols=3)
```

Plot Anatomy & Workflow

Plot Anatomy



Workflow

The basic steps to creating plots with matplotlib are:

1 Prepare data 2 Create plot 3 Plot 4 Customize plot 5 Save plot 6 Show plot

```
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> x = [1,2,3,4]                          Step 1
>>> y = [10,20,25,30]
>>> fig = plt.figure()                     Step 2
>>> ax = fig.add_subplot(111)              Step 3
>>> ax.plot(x, y, color='lightblue', linewidth=3)   Step 3, 4
>>> ax.scatter([2,4,6],
               [5,15,25],
               color='darkgreen',
               marker='^')
>>> ax.set_xlim(1, 6.5)
>>> plt.savefig('foo.png')
>>> plt.show()                             Step 6
```

4 Customize Plot

Colors, Color Bars & Color Maps

```
>>> plt.plot(x, x, x, x**2, x, x**3)
>>> ax.plot(x, y, alpha = 0.4)
>>> ax.plot(x, y, c='k')
>>> fig.colorbar(im, orientation='horizontal')
>>> im = ax.imshow(img,
                   cmap='seismic')
```

Markers

```
>>> fig, ax = plt.subplots()
>>> ax.scatter(x,y,marker=".")
>>> ax.plot(x,y,marker="o")
```

Linestyles

```
>>> plt.plot(x,y,linewidth=4.0)
>>> plt.plot(x,y,ls='solid')
>>> plt.plot(x,y,ls='--')
>>> plt.plot(x,y,'--',x**2,y**2,'-.')
>>> plt.setp(lines,color='r',linewidth=4.0)
```

Text & Annotations

```
>>> ax.text(1,
            -2.1,
            'Example Graph',
            style='italic')
>>> ax.annotate("Sine",
                xy=(8, 0),
                xycoords='data',
                xytext=(10.5, 0),
                textcoords='data',
                arrowprops=dict(arrowstyle="->",
                                connectionstyle="arc3"),)
```

Mathtext

```
>>> plt.title(r'$sigma_i=15$', fontsize=20)
```

Limits, Legends & Layouts

Limits & Autoscaling

```
>>> ax.margins(x=0.0,y=0.1)                  Add padding to a plot
>>> ax.axis('equal')                         Set the aspect ratio of the plot to 1
>>> ax.set(xlim=[0,10.5],ylim=[-1.5,1.5])    Set limits for x-and y-axis
>>> ax.set_xlim(0,10.5)                      Set limits for x-axis
```

Legends

```
>>> ax.set(title='An Example Axes',          Set a title and x-and y-axis labels
           ylabel='Y-Axis',
           xlabel='X-Axis')
>>> ax.legend(loc='best')                    No overlapping plot elements
```

Ticks

```
>>> ax.xaxis.set(ticks=range(1,5),           Manually set x-ticks
                 ticklabels=[3,100,-12,"foo"])
>>> ax.tick_params(axis='y',                 Make y-ticks longer and go in and out
                   direction='inout',
                   length=10)
```

Subplot Spacing

```
>>> fig3.subplots_adjust(wspace=0.5,         Adjust the spacing between subplots
                         hspace=0.3,
                         left=0.125,
                         right=0.9,
                         top=0.9,
                         bottom=0.1)
>>> fig.tight_layout()                       Fit subplot(s) in to the figure area
```

Axis Spines

```
>>> ax1.spines['top'].set_visible(False)     Make the top axis line for a plot invisible
>>> ax1.spines['bottom'].set_position(('outward',10))   Move the bottom axis line outward
```

3 Plotting Routines

1D Data

```
>>> lines = ax.plot(x,y)                     Draw points with lines or markers connecting them
>>> ax.scatter(x,y)                          Draw unconnected points, scaled or colored
>>> axes[0,0].bar([1,2,3],[3,4,5])           Plot vertical rectangles (constant width)
>>> axes[1,0].barh([0.5,1,2.5],[0,1,2])      Plot horiontal rectangles (constant height)
>>> axes[1,1].axhline(0.45)                  Draw a horizontal line across axes
>>> axes[0,1].axvline(0.65)                  Draw a vertical line across axes
>>> ax.fill(x,y,color='blue')                Draw filled polygons
>>> ax.fill_between(x,y,color='yellow')      Fill between y-values and o
```

Vector Fields

```
>>> axes[0,1].arrow(0,0,0.5,0.5)             Add an arrow to the axes
>>> axes[1,1].quiver(y,z)                    Plot a 2D field of arrows
>>> axes[0,1].streamplot(X,Y,U,V)            Plot 2D vector fields
```

Data Distributions

```
>>> ax1.hist(y)                              Plot a histogram
>>> ax3.boxplot(y)                           Make a box and whisker plot
>>> ax3.violinplot(z)                        Make a violin plot
```

2D Data or Images

```
>>> fig, ax = plt.subplots()
>>> im = ax.imshow(img,                      Colormapped or RGB arrays
                   cmap='gist_earth',
                   interpolation='nearest',
                   vmin=-2,
                   vmax=2)
```

```
>>> axes2[0].pcolor(data2)                   Pseudocolor plot of 2D array
>>> axes2[0].pcolormesh(data)                Pseudocolor plot of 2D array
>>> CS = plt.contour(Y,X,U)                  Plot contours
>>> axes2[2].contourf(data1)                 Plot filled contours
>>> axes2[2]= ax.clabel(CS)                  Label a contour plot
```

5 Save Plot

Save figures

```
>>> plt.savefig('foo.png')
```

Save transparent figures

```
>>> plt.savefig('foo.png', transparent=True)
```

6 Show Plot

```
>>> plt.show()
```

Close & Clear

```
>>> plt.cla()                                Clear an axis
>>> plt.clf()                                Clear the entire figure
>>> plt.close()                              Close a window
```

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

Seaborn

Learn Data Science Interactively at www.DataCamp.com

Statistical Data Visualization With Seaborn

The Python visualization library **Seaborn** is based on matplotlib and provides a high-level interface for drawing attractive statistical graphics.

Make use of the following aliases to import the libraries:

```
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import seaborn as sns
```

The basic steps to creating plots with Seaborn are:

1. Prepare some data
2. Control figure aesthetics
3. Plot with Seaborn
4. Further customize your plot

```
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
>>> import seaborn as sns
>>> tips = sns.load_dataset("tips")                    Step 1
>>> sns.set_style("whitegrid")                         Step 2
>>> g = sns.lmplot(x="tip",                            Step 3
                   y="total_bill",
                   data=tips,
                   aspect=2)
>>> g = (g.set_axis_labels("Tip","Total bill(USD)").
set(xlim=(0,10),ylim=(0,100)))                         Step 4
>>> plt.title("title")
>>> plt.show(g)                                        Step 5
```

1 Data

Also see Lists, NumPy & Pandas

```
>>> import pandas as pd
>>> import numpy as np
>>> uniform_data = np.random.rand(10, 12)
>>> data = pd.DataFrame({'x':np.arange(1,101),
                         'y':np.random.normal(0,4,100)})
```

Seaborn also offers built-in data sets:

```
>>> titanic = sns.load_dataset("titanic")
>>> iris = sns.load_dataset("iris")
```

2 Figure Aesthetics

Also see Matplotlib

```
>>> f, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(5,6))
```
Create a figure and one subplot

Seaborn styles

```
>>> sns.set()
>>> sns.set_style("whitegrid")
>>> sns.set_style("ticks",
                  {"xtick.major.size":8,
                   "ytick.major.size":8})
>>> sns.axes_style("whitegrid")
```
(Re)set the seaborn default
Set the matplotlib parameters
Set the matplotlib parameters

Return a dict of params or use with `with` to temporarily set the style

Context Functions

```
>>> sns.set_context("talk")
>>> sns.set_context("notebook",
                    font_scale=1.5,
                    rc={"lines.linewidth":2.5})
```
Set context to `"talk"`
Set context to `"notebook"`, scale font elements and override param mapping

Color Palette

```
>>> sns.set_palette("husl",3)
>>> sns.color_palette("husl")
>>> flatui = ["#9b59b6","#3498db","#95a5a6","#e74c3c","#34495e","#2ecc71"]
>>> sns.set_palette(flatui)
```
Define the color palette
Use with `with` to temporarily set palette
Set your own color palette

3 Plotting With Seaborn

Axis Grids

```
>>> g = sns.FacetGrid(titanic,
                      col="survived",
                      row="sex")
>>> g = g.map(plt.hist,"age")
```
Subplot grid for plotting conditional relationships

```
>>> sns.factorplot(x="pclass",
                   y="survived",
                   hue="sex",
                   data=titanic)
```
Draw a categorical plot onto a Facetgrid

```
>>> sns.lmplot(x="sepal_width",
               y="sepal_length",
               hue="species",
               data=iris)
```
Plot data and regression model fits across a FacetGrid

```
>>> h = sns.PairGrid(iris)
>>> h = h.map(plt.scatter)
>>> sns.pairplot(iris)
```
Subplot grid for plotting pairwise relationships
Plot pairwise bivariate distributions

```
>>> i = sns.JointGrid(x="x",
                      y="y",
                      data=data)
>>> i = i.plot(sns.regplot,
               sns.distplot)
```
Grid for bivariate plot with marginal univariate plots

```
>>> sns.jointplot("sepal_length",
                  "sepal_width",
                  data=iris,
                  kind='kde')
```
Plot bivariate distribution

Categorical Plots

Scatterplot

```
>>> sns.stripplot(x="species",
                  y="petal_length",
                  data=iris)
```
Scatterplot with one categorical variable

```
>>> sns.swarmplot(x="species",
                  y="petal_length",
                  data=iris)
```
Categorical scatterplot with non-overlapping points

Bar Chart

```
>>> sns.barplot(x="sex",
                y="survived",
                hue="class",
                data=titanic)
```
Show point estimates and confidence intervals with scatterplot glyphs

Count Plot

```
>>> sns.countplot(x="deck",
                  data=titanic,
                  palette="Greens_d")
```
Show count of observations

Point Plot

```
>>> sns.pointplot(x="class",
                  y="survived",
                  hue="sex",
                  data=titanic,
                  palette={"male":"g",
                           "female":"m"},
                  markers=["^","o"],
                  linestyles=["-","--"])
```
Show point estimates and confidence intervals as rectangular bars

Boxplot

```
>>> sns.boxplot(x="alive",
                y="age",
                hue="adult_male",
                data=titanic)
```
Boxplot

```
>>> sns.boxplot(data=iris,orient="h")
```
Boxplot with wide-form data

Violinplot

```
>>> sns.violinplot(x="age",
                   y="sex",
                   hue="survived",
                   data=titanic)
```
Violin plot

swarmplot: **`sns.swarmplot(x,y,data=)`**

Regression Plots

```
>>> sns.regplot(x="sepal_width",
                y="sepal_length",
                data=iris,
                ax=ax)
```
Plot data and a linear regression model fit

Distribution Plots

```
>>> plot = sns.distplot(data.y,
                        kde=False,
                        color="b")
```
Plot univariate distribution

Matrix Plots

```
>>> sns.heatmap(uniform_data,vmin=0,vmax=1)
```
Heatmap

4 Further Customizations

Also see Matplotlib

Axisgrid Objects

```
>>> g.despine(left=True)
>>> g.set_ylabels("Survived")
>>> g.set_xticklabels(rotation=45)
>>> g.set_axis_labels("Survived",
                      "Sex")
```
Remove left spine
Set the labels of the y-axis
Set the tick labels for x
Set the axis labels

```
>>> h.set(xlim=(0,5),
          ylim=(0,5),
          xticks=[0,2.5,5],
          yticks=[0,2.5,5])
```
Set the limit and ticks of the x-and y-axis

Plot

```
>>> plt.title("A Title")
>>> plt.ylabel("Survived")
>>> plt.xlabel("Sex")
>>> plt.ylim(0,100)
>>> plt.xlim(0,10)
>>> plt.setp(ax,yticks=[0,5])
>>> plt.tight_layout()
```
Add plot title
Adjust the label of the y-axis
Adjust the label of the x-axis
Adjust the limits of the y-axis
Adjust the limits of the x-axis
Adjust a plot property
Adjust subplot params

5 Show or Save Plot

Also see Matplotlib

```
>>> plt.show()
>>> plt.savefig("foo.png")
>>> plt.savefig("foo.png",
                transparent=True)
```
Show the plot
Save the plot as a figure
Save transparent figure

Close & Clear

Also see Matplotlib

```
>>> plt.cla()
>>> plt.clf()
>>> plt.close()
```
Clear an axis
Clear an entire figure
Close a window

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

Scikit-Learn

Learn Python for data science Interactively at www.DataCamp.com

Scikit-learn

Scikit-learn is an open source Python library that implements a range of machine learning, preprocessing, cross-validation and visualization algorithms using a unified interface.

A Basic Example

```
>>> from sklearn import neighbors, datasets, preprocessing
>>> from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
>>> from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
>>> iris = datasets.load_iris()
>>> X, y = iris.data[:, :2], iris.target
>>> X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, random_state=33)
>>> scaler = preprocessing.StandardScaler().fit(X_train)
>>> X_train = scaler.transform(X_train)
>>> X_test = scaler.transform(X_test)
>>> knn = neighbors.KNeighborsClassifier(n_neighbors=5)
>>> knn.fit(X_train, y_train)
>>> y_pred = knn.predict(X_test)
>>> accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
```

Loading The Data

Also see NumPy & Pandas

Your data needs to be numeric and stored as NumPy arrays or SciPy sparse matrices. Other types that are convertible to numeric arrays, such as Pandas DataFrame, are also acceptable.

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> X = np.random.random((10,5))
>>> y = np.array(['M','M','F','F','M','F','M','M','F','F','F'])
>>> X[X < 0.7] = 0
```

Training And Test Data

```
>>> from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
>>> X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X,
                                                        y,
                                                        random_state=0)
```

Create Your Model

Supervised Learning Estimators

Linear Regression

```
>>> from sklearn.linear_model import LinearRegression
>>> lr = LinearRegression(normalize=True)
```

Support Vector Machines (SVM)

```
>>> from sklearn.svm import SVC
>>> svc = SVC(kernel='linear')
```

Naive Bayes

```
>>> from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB
>>> gnb = GaussianNB()
```

KNN

```
>>> from sklearn import neighbors
>>> knn = neighbors.KNeighborsClassifier(n_neighbors=5)
```

Unsupervised Learning Estimators

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

```
>>> from sklearn.decomposition import PCA
>>> pca = PCA(n_components=0.95)
```

K Means

```
>>> from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
>>> k_means = KMeans(n_clusters=3, random_state=0)
```

Model Fitting

Supervised learning	
`>>> lr.fit(X, y)`	Fit the model to the data
`>>> knn.fit(X_train, y_train)`	
`>>> svc.fit(X_train, y_train)`	
Unsupervised Learning	
`>>> k_means.fit(X_train)`	Fit the model to the data
`>>> pca_model = pca.fit_transform(X_train)`	Fit to data, then transform it

Prediction

Supervised Estimators	
`>>> y_pred = svc.predict(np.random.random((2,5)))`	Predict labels
`>>> y_pred = lr.predict(X_test)`	Predict labels
`>>> y_pred = knn.predict_proba(X_test)`	Estimate probability of a label
Unsupervised Estimators	
`>>> y_pred = k_means.predict(X_test)`	Predict labels in clustering algos

Preprocessing The Data

Standardization

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
>>> scaler = StandardScaler().fit(X_train)
>>> standardized_X = scaler.transform(X_train)
>>> standardized_X_test = scaler.transform(X_test)
```

Normalization

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import Normalizer
>>> scaler = Normalizer().fit(X_train)
>>> normalized_X = scaler.transform(X_train)
>>> normalized_X_test = scaler.transform(X_test)
```

Binarization

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import Binarizer
>>> binarizer = Binarizer(threshold=0.0).fit(X)
>>> binary_X = binarizer.transform(X)
```

Encoding Categorical Features

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelEncoder
>>> enc = LabelEncoder()
>>> y = enc.fit_transform(y)
```

Imputing Missing Values

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import Imputer
>>> imp = Imputer(missing_values=0, strategy='mean', axis=0)
>>> imp.fit_transform(X_train)
```

Generating Polynomial Features

```
>>> from sklearn.preprocessing import PolynomialFeatures
>>> poly = PolynomialFeatures(5)
>>> poly.fit_transform(X)
```

Evaluate Your Model's Performance

Classification Metrics

Accuracy Score

```
>>> knn.score(X_test, y_test)
```
Estimator score method

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
>>> accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
```
Metric scoring functions

Classification Report

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import classification_report
>>> print(classification_report(y_test, y_pred))
```
Precision, recall, f1-score and support

Confusion Matrix

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix
>>> print(confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred))
```

Regression Metrics

Mean Absolute Error

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import mean_absolute_error
>>> y_true = [3, -0.5, 2]
>>> mean_absolute_error(y_true, y_pred)
```

Mean Squared Error

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error
>>> mean_squared_error(y_test, y_pred)
```

R^2 Score

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import r2_score
>>> r2_score(y_true, y_pred)
```

Clustering Metrics

Adjusted Rand Index

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import adjusted_rand_score
>>> adjusted_rand_score(y_true, y_pred)
```

Homogeneity

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import homogeneity_score
>>> homogeneity_score(y_true, y_pred)
```

V-measure

```
>>> from sklearn.metrics import v_measure_score
>>> metrics.v_measure_score(y_true, y_pred)
```

Cross-Validation

```
>>> from sklearn.cross_validation import cross_val_score
>>> print(cross_val_score(knn, X_train, y_train, cv=4))
>>> print(cross_val_score(lr, X, y, cv=2))
```

Tune Your Model

Grid Search

```
>>> from sklearn.grid_search import GridSearchCV
>>> params = {"n_neighbors": np.arange(1,3),
              "metric": ["euclidean", "cityblock"]}
>>> grid = GridSearchCV(estimator=knn,
                        param_grid=params)
>>> grid.fit(X_train, y_train)
>>> print(grid.best_score_)
>>> print(grid.best_estimator_.n_neighbors)
```

Randomized Parameter Optimization

```
>>> from sklearn.grid_search import RandomizedSearchCV
>>> params = {"n_neighbors": range(1,5),
              "weights": ["uniform", "distance"]}
>>> rsearch = RandomizedSearchCV(estimator=knn,
                                 param_distributions=params,
                                 cv=4,
                                 n_iter=8,
                                 random_state=5)
>>> rsearch.fit(X_train, y_train)
>>> print(rsearch.best_score_)
```

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

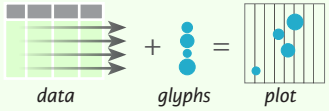
Bokeh

Learn Bokeh Interactively at www.DataCamp.com, taught by Bryan Van de Ven, core contributor

Plotting With Bokeh

The Python interactive visualization library **Bokeh** enables high-performance visual presentation of large datasets in modern web browsers.

Bokeh's mid-level general purpose `bokeh.plotting` interface is centered around two main components: data and glyphs.



The basic steps to creating plots with the `bokeh.plotting` interface are:

1. Prepare some data:

Python lists, NumPy arrays, Pandas DataFrames and other sequences of values

2. Create a new plot
3. Add renderers for your data, with visual customizations
4. Specify where to generate the output
5. Show or save the results

```
>>> from bokeh.plotting import figure
>>> from bokeh.io import output_file, show
>>> x = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]                          Step 1
>>> y = [6, 7, 2, 4, 5]
>>> p = figure(title="simple line example",      Step 2
              x_axis_label='x',
              y_axis_label='y')
>>> p.line(x, y, legend="Temp.", line_width=2)   Step 3
>>> output_file("lines.html")                    Step 4
>>> show(p)                                      Step 5
```

1 Data

Also see Lists, NumPy & Pandas

Under the hood, your data is converted to Column Data Sources. You can also do this manually:

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> import pandas as pd
>>> df = pd.DataFrame(np.array([[33.9,4,65, 'US'],
                                [32.4,4,66, 'Asia'],
                                [21.4,4,109, 'Europe']]),
                      columns=['mpg','cyl', 'hp', 'origin'],
                      index=['Toyota', 'Fiat', 'Volvo'])
```

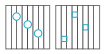
```
>>> from bokeh.models import ColumnDataSource
>>> cds_df = ColumnDataSource(df)
```

2 Plotting

```
>>> from bokeh.plotting import figure
>>> p1 = figure(plot_width=300, tools='pan,box_zoom')
>>> p2 = figure(plot_width=300, plot_height=300,
                x_range=(0, 8), y_range=(0, 8))
>>> p3 = figure()
```

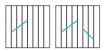
3 Renderers & Visual Customizations

Glyphs



Scatter Markers

```
>>> p1.circle(np.array([1,2,3]), np.array([3,2,1]),
              fill_color='white')
>>> p2.square(np.array([1.5,3.5,5.5]), [1,4,3],
              color='blue', size=1)
```



Line Glyphs

```
>>> p1.line([1,2,3,4], [3,4,5,6], line_width=2)
>>> p2.multi_line(pd.DataFrame([[1,2,3],[5,6,7]]),
                  pd.DataFrame([[3,4,5],[3,2,1]]),
                  color="blue")
```

Customized Glyphs

Also see Data

Selection and Non-Selection Glyphs

```
>>> p = figure(tools='box_select')
>>> p.circle('mpg', 'cyl', source=cds_df,
             selection_color='red',
             nonselection_alpha=0.1)
```

Hover Glyphs

```
>>> hover = HoverTool(tooltips=None, mode='vline')
>>> p3.add_tools(hover)
```

Colormapping

```
>>> color_mapper = CategoricalColorMapper(
                   factors=['US', 'Asia', 'Europe'],
                   palette=['blue', 'red', 'green'])
>>> p3.circle('mpg', 'cyl', source=cds_df,
              color=dict(field='origin',
                         transform=color_mapper),
                         legend='Origin'))
```

Rows & Columns Layout

Rows

```
>>> from bokeh.layouts import row
>>> layout = row(p1,p2,p3)
```

Columns

```
>>> from bokeh.layouts import columns
>>> layout = column(p1,p2,p3)
```

Nesting Rows & Columns

```
>>>layout = row(column(p1,p2), p3)
```

Grid Layout

```
>>> from bokeh.layouts import gridplot
>>> row1 = [p1,p2]
>>> row2 = [p3]
>>> layout = gridplot([[p1,p2],[p3]])
```

Tabbed Layout

```
>>> from bokeh.models.widgets import Panel, Tabs
>>> tab1 = Panel(child=p1, title="tab1")
>>> tab2 = Panel(child=p2, title="tab2")
>>> layout = Tabs(tabs=[tab1, tab2])
```

Linked Plots

Also see Data

Linked Axes

```
>>> p2.x_range = p1.x_range
>>> p2.y_range = p1.y_range
```

Linked Brushing

```
>>> p4 = figure(plot_width = 100, tools='box_select,lasso_select')
>>> p4.circle('mpg', 'cyl', source=cds_df)
>>> p5 = figure(plot_width = 200, tools='box_select,lasso_select')
>>> p5.circle('mpg', 'hp', source=cds_df)
>>> layout = row(p4,p5)
```

Legends

Legend Location

Inside Plot Area

```
>>> p.legend.location = 'bottom_left'
```

Outside Plot Area

```
>>> r1 = p2.asterisk(np.array([1,2,3]), np.array([3,2,1])
>>> r2 = p2.line([1,2,3,4], [3,4,5,6])
>>> legend = Legend(items=[("One" , [p1, r1]),("Two" , [r2])], location=(0, -30))
>>> p.add_layout(legend, 'right')
```

Legend Orientation

```
>>> p.legend.orientation = "horizontal"
>>> p.legend.orientation = "vertical"
```

Legend Background & Border

```
>>> p.legend.border_line_color = "navy"
>>> p.legend.background_fill_color = "white"
```

4 Output

Output to HTML File

```
>>> from bokeh.io import output_file, show
>>> output_file('my_bar_chart.html', mode='cdn')
```

Notebook Output

```
>>> from bokeh.io import output_notebook, show
>>> output_notebook()
```

Embedding

Standalone HTML

```
>>> from bokeh.embed import file_html
>>> html = file_html(p, CDN, "my_plot")
```

Components

```
>>> from bokeh.embed import components
>>> script, div = components(p)
```

5 Show or Save Your Plots

```
>>> show(p1)
>>> show(layout)
```

```
>>> save(p1)
>>> save(layout)
```

Statistical Charts With Bokeh

Also see Data

Bokeh's high-level `bokeh.charts` interface is ideal for quickly creating statistical charts

Bar Chart

```
>>> from bokeh.charts import Bar
>>> p = Bar(df, stacked=True, palette=['red','blue'])
```

Box Plot

```
>>> from bokeh.charts import BoxPlot
>>> p = BoxPlot(df, values='vals', label='cyl',
                legend='bottom_right')
```

Histogram

```
>>> from bokeh.charts import Histogram
>>> p = Histogram(df, title='Histogram')
```

Scatter Plot

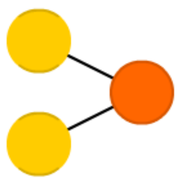
```
>>> from bokeh.charts import Scatter
>>> p = Scatter(df, x='mpg', y ='hp', marker='square',
                xlabel='Miles Per Gallon',
                ylabel='Horsepower')
```

A mostly complete chart of

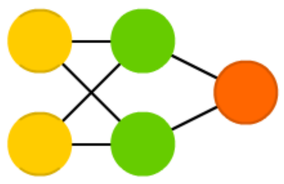
Neural Networks

- Backfed Input Cell
- Input Cell
- Noisy Input Cell
- Hidden Cell
- Probablistic Hidden Cell
- Spiking Hidden Cell
- Output Cell
- Match Input Output Cell
- Recurrent Cell
- Memory Cell
- Different Memory Cell
- Kernel
- Convolution or Pool

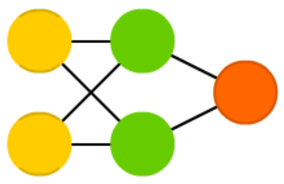
Perceptron (P)



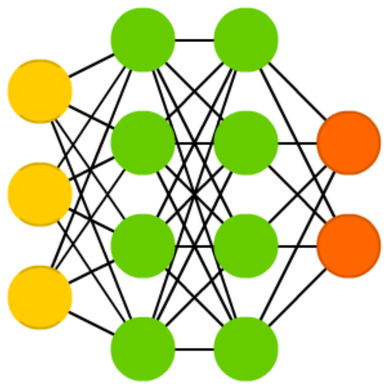
Feed Forward (FF)



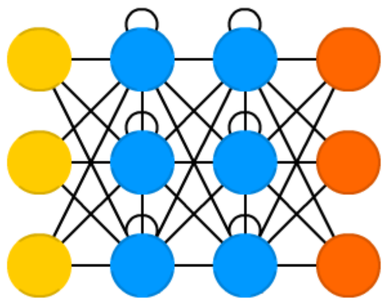
Radial Basis Network (RBF)



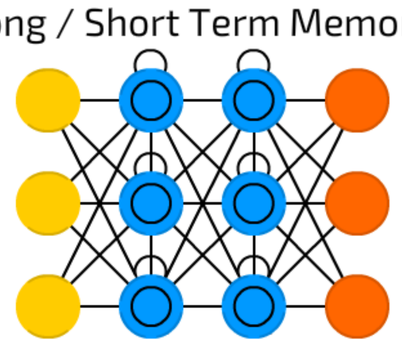
Deep Feed Forward (DFF)



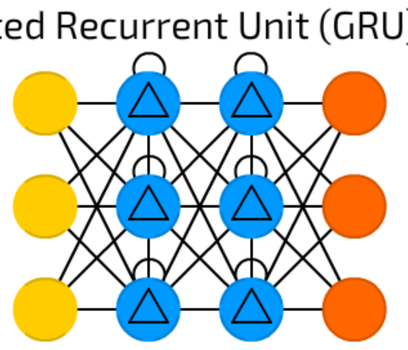
Recurrent Neural Network (RNN)



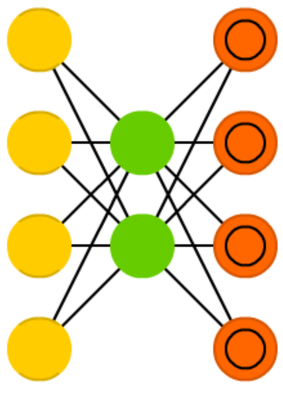
Long / Short Term Memory (LSTM)



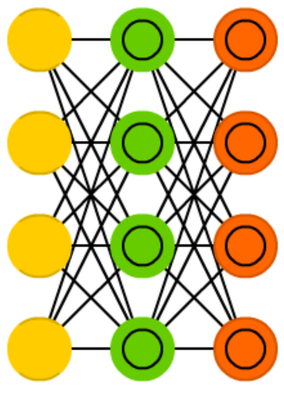
Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU)



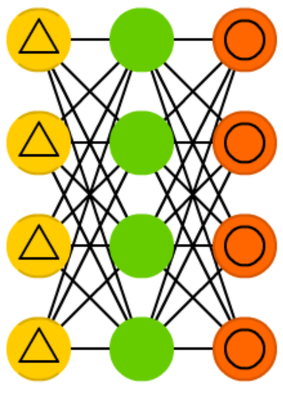
Auto Encoder (AE)



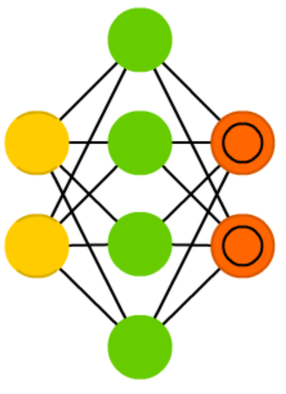
Variational AE (VAE)



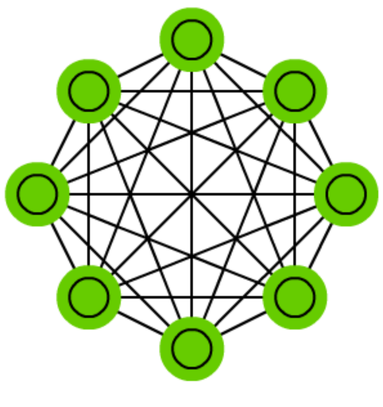
Denoising AE (DAE)



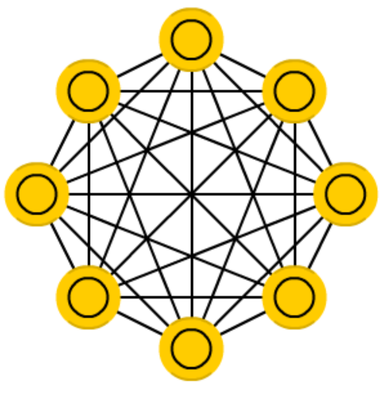
Sparse AE (SAE)



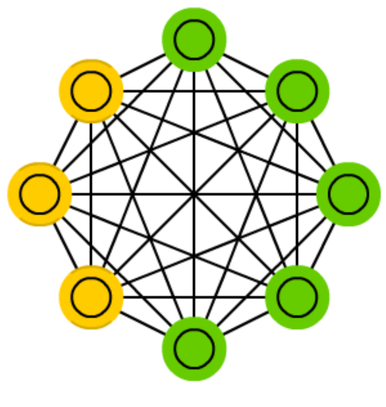
Markov Chain (MC)



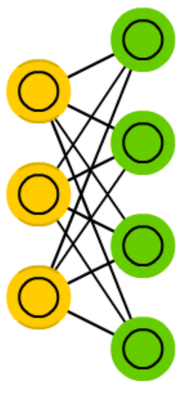
Hopfield Network (HN)



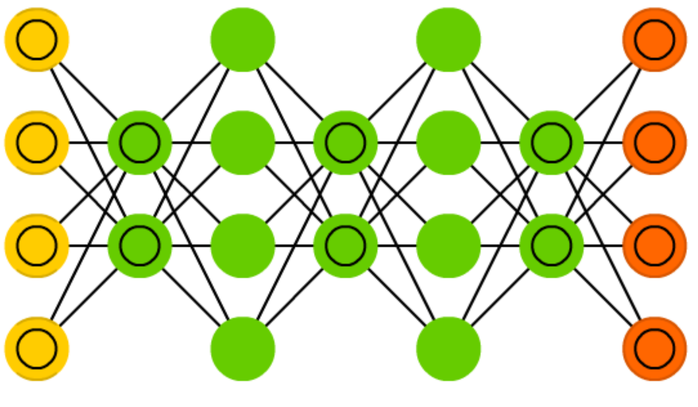
Boltzmann Machine (BM)



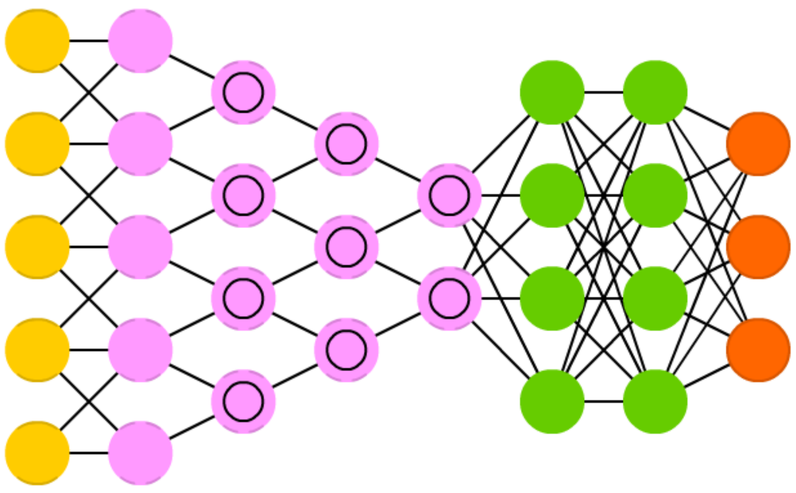
Restricted BM (RBM)



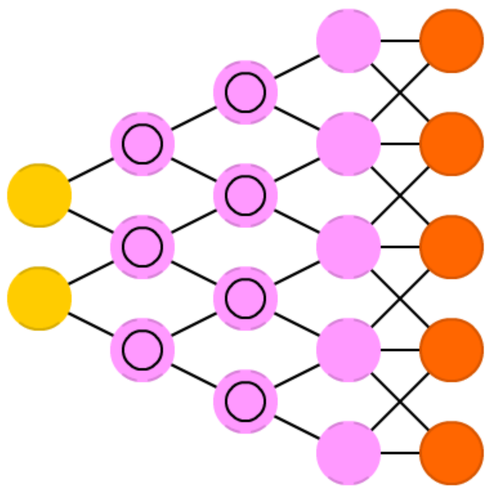
Deep Belief Network (DBN)



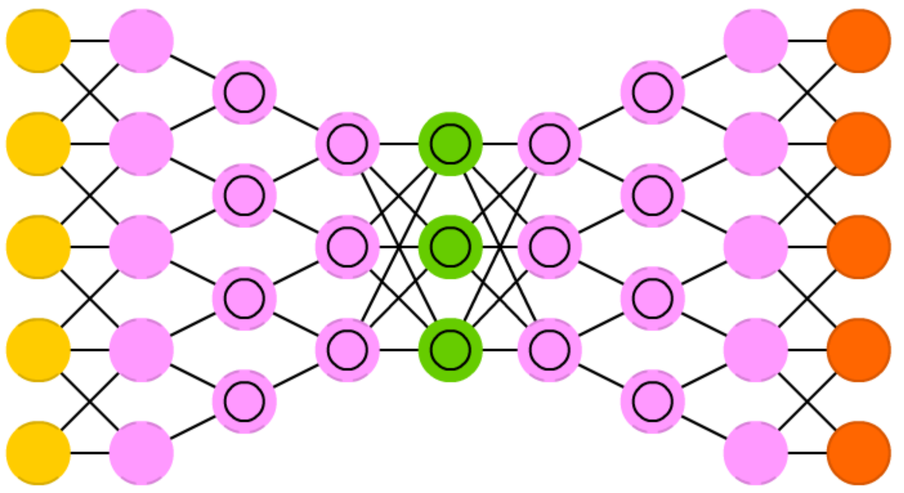
Deep Convolutional Network (DCN)



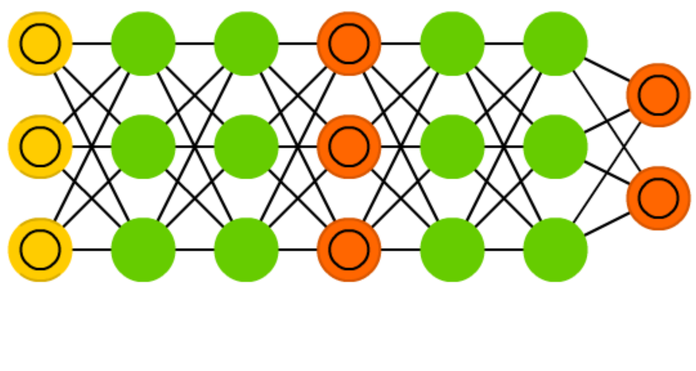
Deconvolutional Network (DN)



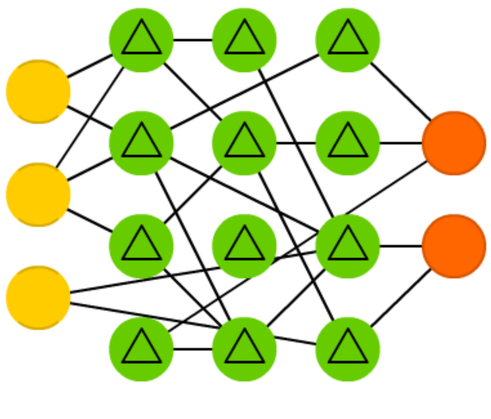
Deep Convolutional Inverse Graphics Network (DCIGN)



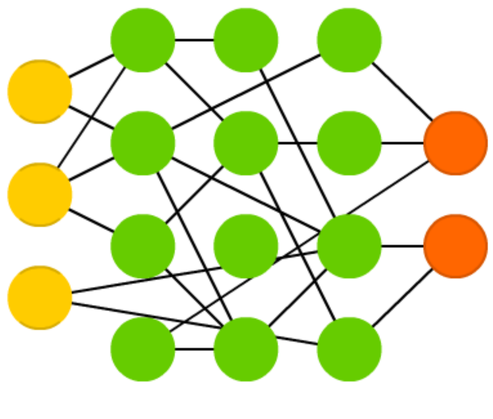
Generative Adversarial Network (GAN)



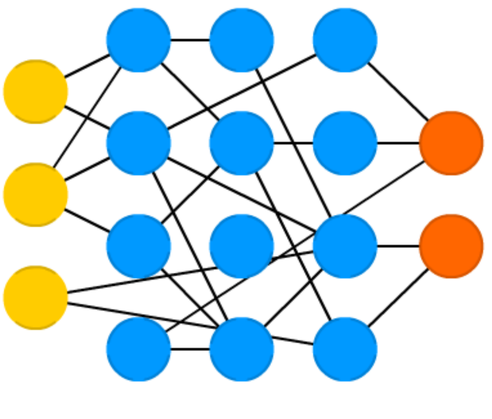
Liquid State Machine (LSM)



Extreme Learning Machine (ELM)



Echo State Network (ESN)



Deep Residual Network (DRN)

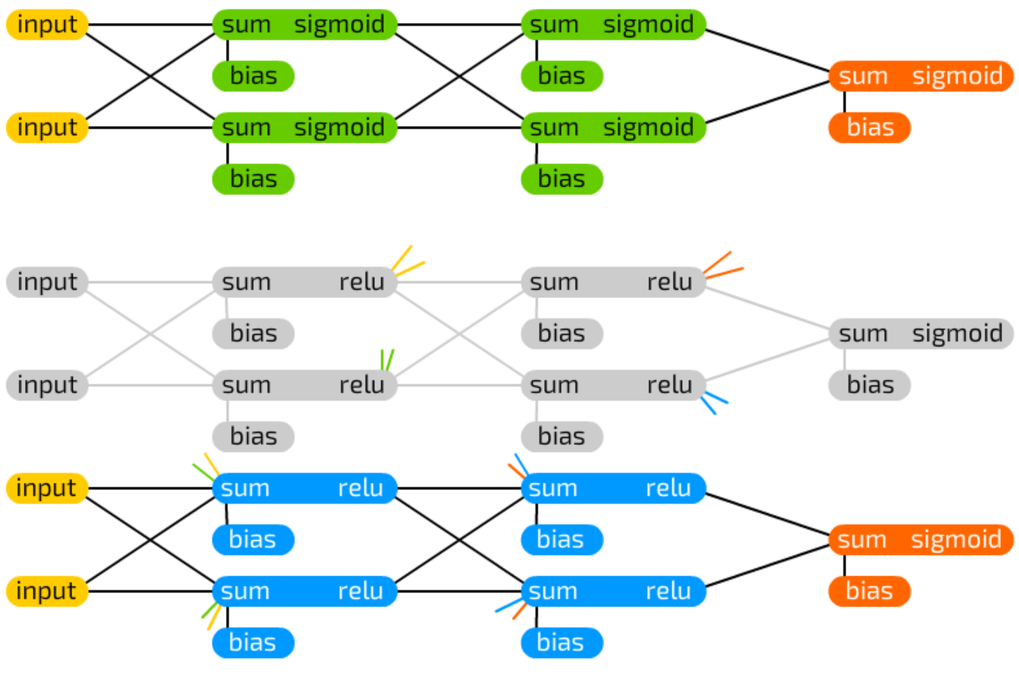
Kohonen Network (KN)

Support Vector Machine (SVM)

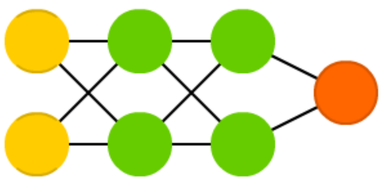
Neural Turing Machine (NTM)

An informative chart to build

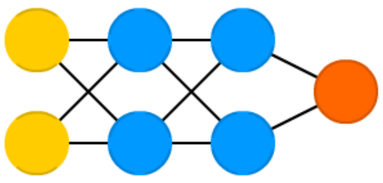
Neural Network Graphs



Deep Feed Forward Example

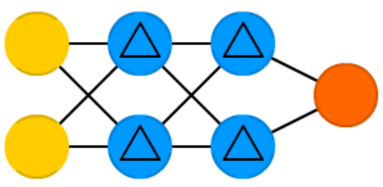


Deep Recurrent Example
(previous iteration)



Deep Recurrent Example

Deep GRU Example
(previous iteration)



Deep GRU Example

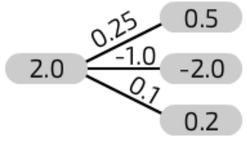
Deep LSTM Example
(previous iteration)

Deep LSTM Example

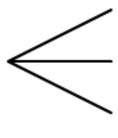
An informative chart to build

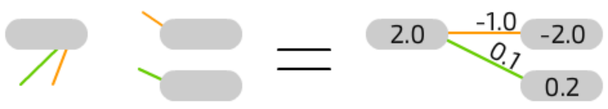
Neural Network Cells

Fixed Weight
(fixed at 1)

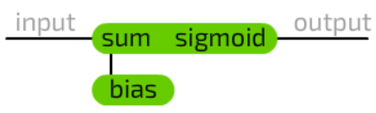


Weights

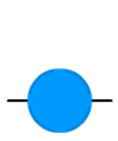


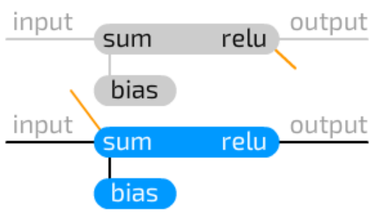


Recurrent Weights
(grouped by colour)



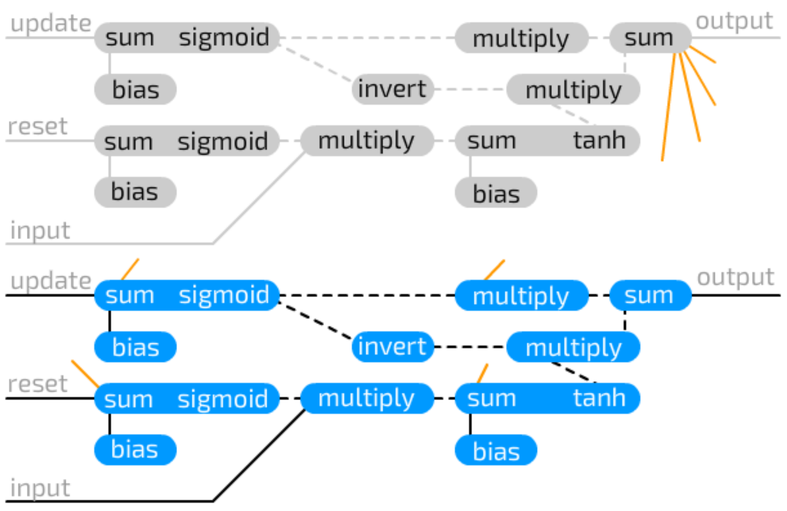
Feed Forward Cell
(basic cell)



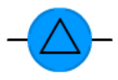


Recurrent Cell
(previous iteration)

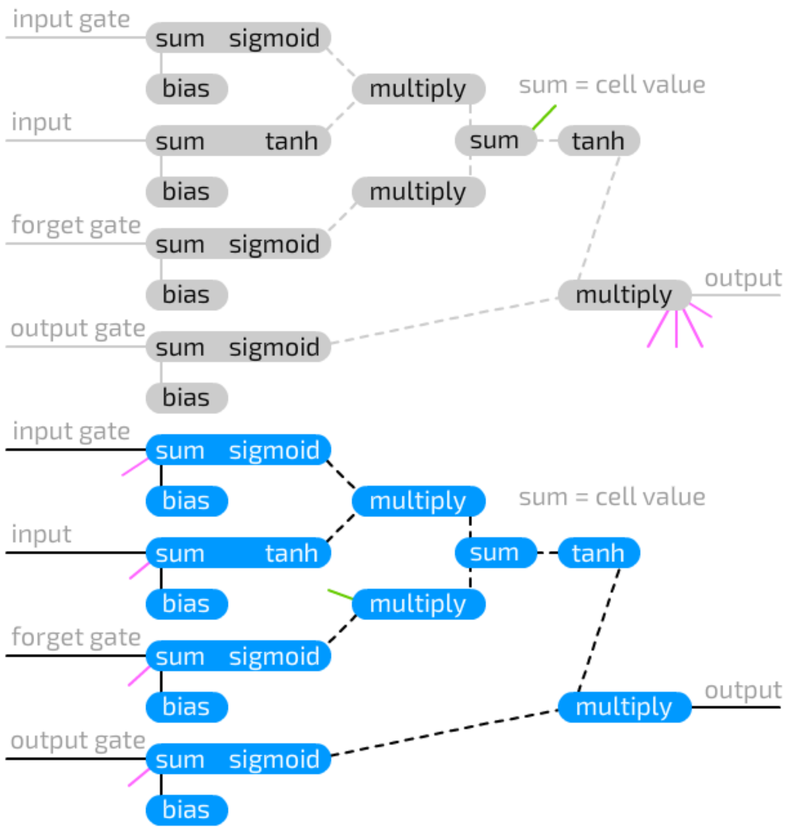
Recurrent Cell



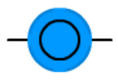
GRU Cell
(previous iteration)



GRU Cell



LSTM Cell
(previous iteration)



LSTM Cell

Linear algebra explained in four pages

Excerpt from the NO BULLSHIT GUIDE TO LINEAR ALGEBRA by Ivan Savov

***Abstract*—This document will review the fundamental ideas of linear algebra. We will learn about matrices, matrix operations, linear transformations and discuss both the theoretical and computational aspects of linear algebra. The tools of linear algebra open the gateway to the study of more advanced mathematics. A lot of *knowledge buzz* awaits you if you choose to follow the path of *understanding*, instead of trying to memorize a bunch of formulas.**

I. INTRODUCTION

Linear algebra is the math of vectors and matrices. Let n be a positive integer and let $\mathbb{R}$ denote the set of real numbers, then $\mathbb{R}^n$ is the set of all n-tuples of real numbers. A vector $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is an n-tuple of real numbers. The notation "$\in S$" is read "element of S." For example, consider a vector that has three components:

$$\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3) \ \in \ (\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}) \equiv \mathbb{R}^3.$$

A matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a rectangular array of real numbers with m rows and n columns. For example, a 3×2 matrix looks like this:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \in \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{R} & \mathbb{R} \\ \mathbb{R} & \mathbb{R} \\ \mathbb{R} & \mathbb{R} \end{bmatrix} \equiv \mathbb{R}^{3\times 2}.$$

The purpose of this document is to introduce you to the mathematical operations that we can perform on vectors and matrices and to give you a feel of the power of linear algebra. Many problems in science, business, and technology can be described in terms of vectors and matrices so it is important that you understand how to work with these.

Prerequisites

The only prerequisite for this tutorial is a basic understanding of high school math concepts[1] like numbers, variables, equations, and the fundamental arithmetic operations on real numbers: addition (denoted $+$), subtraction (denoted $-$), multiplication (denoted implicitly), and division (fractions).

You should also be familiar with *functions* that take real numbers as inputs and give real numbers as outputs, $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. Recall that, by definition, the *inverse function* f^{-1} *undoes* the effect of f. If you are given $f(x)$ and you want to find x, you can use the inverse function as follows: $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$. For example, the function $f(x) = \ln(x)$ has the inverse $f^{-1}(x) = e^x$, and the inverse of $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is $g^{-1}(x) = x^2$.

II. DEFINITIONS

A. Vector operations

We now define the math operations for vectors. The operations we can perform on vectors $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$ and $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ are: addition, subtraction, scaling, norm (length), dot product, and cross product:

$$\begin{aligned}
\vec{u} + \vec{v} &= (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, u_3 + v_3) \\
\vec{u} - \vec{v} &= (u_1 - v_1, u_2 - v_2, u_3 - v_3) \\
\alpha\vec{u} &= (\alpha u_1, \alpha u_2, \alpha u_3) \\
||\vec{u}|| &= \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2} \\
\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} &= u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + u_3 v_3 \\
\vec{u} \times \vec{v} &= (u_2 v_3 - u_3 v_2, \ u_3 v_1 - u_1 v_3, \ u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1)
\end{aligned}$$

The dot product and the cross product of two vectors can also be described in terms of the angle θ between the two vectors. The formula for the dot product of the vectors is $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\|\|\vec{v}\| \cos\theta$. We say two vectors $\vec{u}$ and $\vec{v}$ are *orthogonal* if the angle between them is 90°. The dot product of orthogonal vectors is zero: $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\|\|\vec{v}\| \cos(90^\circ) = 0$.

The *norm* of the cross product is given by $\|\vec{u} \times \vec{v}\| = \|\vec{u}\|\|\vec{v}\| \sin\theta$. The cross product is not commutative: $\vec{u} \times \vec{v} \neq \vec{v} \times \vec{u}$, in fact $\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = -\vec{v} \times \vec{u}$.

[1] A good textbook to (re)learn high school math is `minireference.com`

B. Matrix operations

We denote by A the matrix as a whole and refer to its entries as a_{ij}. The mathematical operations defined for matrices are the following:

- addition (denoted $+$)

$$C = A + B \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad c_{ij} = a_{ij} + b_{ij}.$$

- subtraction (the inverse of addition)
- matrix product. The product of matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times \ell}$ is another matrix $C \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times \ell}$ given by the formula

$$C = AB \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj},$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \\ a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} & a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- matrix inverse (denoted A^{-1})
- matrix transpose (denoted $^\mathsf{T}$):

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_3 \\ \beta_1 & \beta_2 & \beta_3 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 \\ \alpha_2 & \beta_2 \\ \alpha_3 & \beta_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- matrix trace: $\text{Tr}[A] \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$
- determinant (denoted $\det(A)$ or $|A|$)

Note that the matrix product is not a commutative operation: $AB \neq BA$.

C. Matrix-vector product

The matrix-vector product is an important special case of the matrix-matrix product. The product of a 3×2 matrix A and the 2×1 column vector $\vec{x}$ results in a 3×1 vector $\vec{y}$ given by:

$$\vec{y} = A\vec{x} \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 \\ a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= x_1 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{31} \end{bmatrix} + x_2 \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ a_{32} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{(C)}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} (a_{11}, a_{12}) \cdot \vec{x} \\ (a_{21}, a_{22}) \cdot \vec{x} \\ (a_{31}, a_{32}) \cdot \vec{x} \end{bmatrix}. \qquad \text{(R)}$$

There are two[2] fundamentally different yet equivalent ways to interpret the matrix-vector product. In the column picture, **(C)**, the multiplication of the matrix A by the vector $\vec{x}$ produces a **linear combination of the columns of the matrix**: $\vec{y} = A\vec{x} = x_1 A_{[:,1]} + x_2 A_{[:,2]}$, where $A_{[:,1]}$ and $A_{[:,2]}$ are the first and second columns of the matrix A.

In the row picture, **(R)**, multiplication of the matrix A by the vector $\vec{x}$ produces a column vector with coefficients equal to the **dot products of rows of the matrix** with the vector $\vec{x}$.

D. Linear transformations

The matrix-vector product is used to define the notion of a *linear transformation*, which is one of the key notions in the study of linear algebra. Multiplication by a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$ can be thought of as computing a *linear transformation* T_A that takes n-vectors as inputs and produces m-vectors as outputs:

$$T_A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m.$$

[2] For more info see the video of Prof. Strang's MIT lecture: `bit.ly/10vmKcL`

Instead of writing $\vec{y} = T_A(\vec{x})$ for the linear transformation T_A applied to the vector $\vec{x}$, we simply write $\vec{y} = A\vec{x}$. Applying the linear transformation T_A to the vector $\vec{x}$ corresponds to the product of the matrix A and the column vector $\vec{x}$. We say T_A is *represented by* the matrix A.

You can think of linear transformations as "vector functions" and describe their properties in analogy with the regular functions you are familiar with:

function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$	$\Leftrightarrow$	linear transformation $T_A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$
input $x \in \mathbb{R}$	$\Leftrightarrow$	input $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
output $f(x)$	$\Leftrightarrow$	output $T_A(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$
$g \circ f = g(f(x))$	$\Leftrightarrow$	$T_B(T_A(\vec{x})) = BA\vec{x}$
function inverse f^{-1}	$\Leftrightarrow$	matrix inverse A^{-1}
zeros of f	$\Leftrightarrow$	$\mathcal{N}(A) \equiv$ null space of A
range of f	$\Leftrightarrow$	$\mathcal{C}(A) \equiv$ column space of A = range of T_A

Note that the combined effect of applying the transformation T_A followed by T_B on the input vector $\vec{x}$ is equivalent to the matrix product $BA\vec{x}$.

E. Fundamental vector spaces

A *vector space* consists of a set of vectors and all linear combinations of these vectors. For example the vector space $\mathcal{S} = \text{span}\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2\}$ consists of all vectors of the form $\vec{v} = \alpha\vec{v}_1 + \beta\vec{v}_2$, where α and β are real numbers. We now define three fundamental vector spaces associated with a matrix A.

The *column space* of a matrix A is the set of vectors that can be produced as linear combinations of the columns of the matrix A:

$$\mathcal{C}(A) \equiv \{\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \vec{y} = A\vec{x} \text{ for some } \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$$

The column space is the *range* of the linear transformation T_A (the set of possible outputs). You can convince yourself of this fact by reviewing the definition of the matrix-vector product in the column picture **(C)**. The vector $A\vec{x}$ contains x_1 times the 1st column of A, x_2 times the 2nd column of A, etc. Varying over all possible inputs $\vec{x}$, we obtain all possible linear combinations of the columns of A, hence the name "column space."

The *null space* $\mathcal{N}(A)$ of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$ consists of all the vectors that the matrix A sends to the zero vector:

$$\mathcal{N}(A) \equiv \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid A\vec{x} = \vec{0}\}.$$

The vectors in the null space are *orthogonal* to all the rows of the matrix. We can see this from the row picture **(R)**: the output vectors is $\vec{0}$ if and only if the input vector $\vec{x}$ is orthogonal to all the rows of A.

The *row space* of a matrix A, denoted $\mathcal{R}(A)$, is the set of linear combinations of the rows of A. The row space $\mathcal{R}(A)$ is the orthogonal complement of the null space $\mathcal{N}(A)$. This means that for all vectors $\vec{v} \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ and all vectors $\vec{w} \in \mathcal{N}(A)$, we have $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = 0$. Together, the null space and the row space form the domain of the transformation T_A, $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathcal{N}(A) \oplus \mathcal{R}(A)$, where $\oplus$ stands for *orthogonal direct sum*.

F. Matrix inverse

By definition, the inverse matrix A^{-1} *undoes* the effects of the matrix A. The cumulative effect of applying A^{-1} after A is the identity matrix $\mathbb{1}$:

$$A^{-1}A = \mathbb{1} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The identity matrix (ones on the diagonal and zeros everywhere else) corresponds to the identity transformation: $T_{\mathbb{1}}(\vec{x}) = \mathbb{1}\vec{x} = \vec{x}$, for all $\vec{x}$.

The matrix inverse is useful for solving matrix equations. Whenever we want to get rid of the matrix A in some matrix equation, we can "hit" A with its inverse A^{-1} to make it disappear. For example, to solve for the matrix X in the equation $XA = B$, multiply both sides of the equation by A^{-1} from the right: $X = BA^{-1}$. To solve for X in $ABCXD = E$, multiply both sides of the equation by D^{-1} on the right and by A^{-1}, B^{-1} and C^{-1} (in that order) from the left: $X = C^{-1}B^{-1}A^{-1}ED^{-1}$.

III. Computational linear algebra

Okay, I hear what you are saying "Dude, enough with the theory talk, let's see some calculations." In this section we'll look at one of the fundamental algorithms of linear algebra called Gauss–Jordan elimination.

A. Solving systems of equations

Suppose we're asked to solve the following system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} 1x_1 + 2x_2 &= 5, \\ 3x_1 + 9x_2 &= 21. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Without a knowledge of linear algebra, we could use substitution, elimination, or subtraction to find the values of the two unknowns x_1 and x_2.

Gauss–Jordan elimination is a systematic procedure for solving systems of equations based the following *row operations*:

α) Adding a multiple of one row to another row
β) Swapping two rows
γ) Multiplying a row by a constant

These row operations allow us to simplify the system of equations without changing their solution.

To illustrate the Gauss–Jordan elimination procedure, we'll now show the sequence of row operations required to solve the system of linear equations described above. We start by constructing an *augmented matrix* as follows:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} \mathbf{1} & 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 9 & 21 \end{array}\right].$$

The first column in the augmented matrix corresponds to the coefficients of the variable x_1, the second column corresponds to the coefficients of x_2, and the third column contains the constants from the right-hand side.

The Gauss-Jordan elimination procedure consists of two phases. During the first phase, we proceed left-to-right by choosing a row with a leading one in the leftmost column (called a *pivot*) and systematically subtracting that row from all rows below it to get zeros below in the entire column. In the second phase, we start with the rightmost pivot and use it to eliminate all the numbers above it in the same column. Let's see this in action.

1) The first step is to use the pivot in the first column to eliminate the variable x_1 in the second row. We do this by subtracting three times the first row from the second row, denoted $R_2 \leftarrow R_2 - 3R_1$,
$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} \mathbf{1} & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 3 & 6 \end{array}\right].$$
2) Next, we create a pivot in the second row using $R_2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{3}R_2$:
$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & \mathbf{1} & 2 \end{array}\right].$$
3) We now start the backward phase and eliminate the second variable from the first row. We do this by subtracting two times the second row from the first row $R_1 \leftarrow R_1 - 2R_2$:
$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array}\right].$$
The matrix is now in *reduced row echelon form* (RREF), which is its "simplest" form it could be in. The solutions are: $x_1 = 1$, $x_2 = 2$.

B. Systems of equations as matrix equations

We will now discuss another approach for solving the system of equations. Using the definition of the matrix-vector product, we can express this system of equations (1) as a matrix equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 21 \end{bmatrix}.$$

This matrix equation had the form $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$, where A is a 2×2 matrix, $\vec{x}$ is the vector of unknowns, and $\vec{b}$ is a vector of constants. We can solve for $\vec{x}$ by multiplying both sides of the equation by the matrix inverse A^{-1}:

$$A^{-1}A\vec{x} = \mathbb{1}\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = A^{-1}\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{2}{3} \\ -1 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 21 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

But how did we know what the inverse matrix A^{-1} is?

IV. Computing the inverse of a matrix

In this section we'll look at several different approaches for computing the inverse of a matrix. The matrix inverse is *unique* so no matter which method we use to find the inverse, we'll always obtain the same answer.

A. Using row operations

One approach for computing the inverse is to use the Gauss–Jordan elimination procedure. Start by creating an array containing the entries of the matrix A on the left side and the identity matrix on the right side:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 9 & 0 & 1 \end{array}\right].$$

Now we perform the Gauss-Jordan elimination procedure on this array.

1) The first row operation is to subtract three times the first row from the second row: $R_2 \leftarrow R_2 - 3R_1$. We obtain:
$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 & 1 \end{array}\right].$$
2) The second row operation is divide the second row by 3: $R_2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{3}R_2$
$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & \frac{1}{3} \end{array}\right].$$
3) The third row operation is $R_1 \leftarrow R_1 - 2R_2$
$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 3 & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & \frac{1}{3} \end{array}\right].$$

The array is now in reduced row echelon form (RREF). The inverse matrix appears on the right side of the array.

Observe that the sequence of row operations we used to solve the specific system of equations in $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ in the previous section are the same as the row operations we used in this section to find the inverse matrix. Indeed, in both cases the combined effect of the three row operations is to "undo" the effects of A. The right side of the 2×4 array is simply a convenient way to record this sequence of operations and thus obtain A^{-1}.

B. Using elementary matrices

Every row operation we perform on a matrix is equivalent to a left-multiplication by an *elementary matrix*. There are three types of elementary matrices in correspondence with the three types of row operations:

$$\mathcal{R}_\alpha : R_1 \leftarrow R_1 + mR_2 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad E_\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & m \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathcal{R}_\beta : R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad E_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathcal{R}_\gamma : R_1 \leftarrow mR_1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad E_\gamma = \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let's revisit the row operations we used to find A^{-1} in the above section representing each row operation as an elementary matrix multiplication.

1) The first row operation $R_2 \leftarrow R_2 - 3R_1$ corresponds to a multiplication by the elementary matrix E_1:
$$E_1 A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$
2) The second row operation $R_2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{3}R_2$ corresponds to a matrix E_2:
$$E_2(E_1 A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$
3) The final step, $R_1 \leftarrow R_1 - 2R_2$, corresponds to the matrix E_3:
$$E_3(E_2 E_1 A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that $E_3 E_2 E_1 A = \mathbb{1}$, so the product $E_3 E_2 E_1$ must be equal to A^{-1}:

$$A^{-1} = E_3 E_2 E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -\frac{2}{3} \\ -1 & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The elementary matrix approach teaches us that every invertible matrix can be decomposed as the product of elementary matrices. Since we know $A^{-1} = E_3 E_2 E_1$ then $A = (A^{-1})^{-1} = (E_3 E_2 E_1)^{-1} = E_1^{-1} E_2^{-1} E_3^{-1}$.

C. Using a computer

The last (and most practical) approach for finding the inverse of a matrix is to use a computer algebra system like the one at `live.sympy.org`.

```
>>> A = Matrix( [[1,2],[3,9]] )            # define A
    [1, 2]
    [3, 9]

>>> A.inv()                 # calls the inv method on A
    [ 3, -2/3]
    [-1,  1/3]
```

You can use `sympy` to "check" your answers on homework problems.

V. Other topics

We'll now discuss a number of other important topics of linear algebra.

A. Basis

Intuitively, a basis is any set of vectors that can be used as a coordinate system for a vector space. You are certainly familiar with the standard basis for the xy-plane that is made up of two orthogonal axes: the x-axis and the y-axis. A vector $\vec{v}$ can be described as a coordinate pair (v_x, v_y) with respect to these axes, or equivalently as $\vec{v} = v_x\hat{\imath} + v_y\hat{\jmath}$, where $\hat{\imath} \equiv (1, 0)$ and $\hat{\jmath} \equiv (0, 1)$ are unit vectors that point along the x-axis and y-axis respectively. However, other coordinate systems are also possible.

Definition (Basis)**.** *A basis for a n-dimensional vector space $\mathcal{S}$ is any set of n linearly independent vectors that are part of $\mathcal{S}$.*

Any set of two linearly independent vectors $\{\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2\}$ can serve as a basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$. We can write any vector $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ as a linear combination of these basis vectors $\vec{v} = v_1\hat{e}_1 + v_2\hat{e}_2$.

Note the *same* vector $\vec{v}$ corresponds to different coordinate pairs depending on the basis used: $\vec{v} = (v_x, v_y)$ in the standard basis $B_s \equiv \{\hat{\imath}, \hat{\jmath}\}$, and $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2)$ in the basis $B_e \equiv \{\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2\}$. Therefore, it is important to keep in mind the basis with respect to which the coefficients are taken, and if necessary specify the basis as a subscript, e.g., $(v_x, v_y)_{B_s}$ or $(v_1, v_2)_{B_e}$.

Converting a coordinate vector from the basis B_e to the basis B_s is performed as a multiplication by a *change of basis* matrix:

$$\left[\vec{v}\right]_{B_s} = {}_{B_s}\left[\begin{array}{c} \\ \mathbb{1} \\ \\ \end{array}\right]_{B_e} \left[\vec{v}\right]_{B_e} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\imath}\cdot\hat{e}_1 & \hat{\imath}\cdot\hat{e}_2 \\ \hat{\jmath}\cdot\hat{e}_1 & \hat{\jmath}\cdot\hat{e}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note the change of basis matrix is actually an identity transformation. The vector $\vec{v}$ remains unchanged—it is simply expressed with respect to a new coordinate system. The change of basis from the B_s-basis to the B_e-basis is accomplished using the inverse matrix: ${}_{B_e}[\mathbb{1}]_{B_s} = ({}_{B_s}[\mathbb{1}]_{B_e})^{-1}$.

B. Matrix representations of linear transformations

Bases play an important role in the representation of linear transformations $T\colon \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$. To fully describe the matrix that corresponds to some linear transformation T, it is sufficient to know the effects of T to the n vectors of the standard basis for the input space. For a linear transformation $T\colon \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$, the matrix representation corresponds to

$$M_T = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ T(\hat{\imath}) & T(\hat{\jmath}) \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2\times 2}.$$

As a first example, consider the transformation Π_x which projects vectors onto the x-axis. For any vector $\vec{v} = (v_x, v_y)$, we have $\Pi_x(\vec{v}) = (v_x, 0)$. The matrix representation of Π_x is

$$M_{\Pi_x} = \begin{bmatrix} \Pi_x\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) & \Pi_x\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

As a second example, let's find the matrix representation of R_θ, the counterclockwise rotation by the angle θ:

$$M_{R_\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} R_\theta\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) & R_\theta\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}.$$

The first column of M_{R_θ} shows that R_θ maps the vector $\hat{\imath} \equiv 1\angle 0$ to the vector $1\angle\theta = (\cos\theta, \sin\theta)^\mathsf{T}$. The second column shows that R_θ maps the vector $\hat{\jmath} = 1\angle\frac{\pi}{2}$ to the vector $1\angle(\frac{\pi}{2} + \theta) = (-\sin\theta, \cos\theta)^\mathsf{T}$.

C. Dimension and bases for vector spaces

The *dimension* of a vector space is defined as the number of vectors in a basis for that vector space. Consider the following vector space $\mathcal{S} = \text{span}\{(1,0,0),(0,1,0),(1,1,0)\}$. Seeing that the space is described by three vectors, we might think that $\mathcal{S}$ is 3-dimensional. This is not the case, however, since the three vectors are not linearly independent so they don't form a basis for $\mathcal{S}$. Two vectors are sufficient to describe any vector in $\mathcal{S}$; we can write $\mathcal{S} = \text{span}\{(1,0,0),(0,1,0)\}$, and we see these two vectors are linearly independent so they form a basis and $\dim(\mathcal{S}) = 2$.

There is a general procedure for finding a basis for a vector space. Suppose you are given a description of a vector space in terms of m vectors $\mathcal{V} = \text{span}\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \ldots, \vec{v}_m\}$ and you are asked to find a basis for $\mathcal{V}$ and the dimension of $\mathcal{V}$. To find a basis for $\mathcal{V}$, you must find a set of linearly independent vectors that span $\mathcal{V}$. We can use the Gauss–Jordan elimination procedure to accomplish this task. Write the vectors $\vec{v}_i$ as the rows of a matrix M. The vector space $\mathcal{V}$ corresponds to the row space of the matrix M. Next, use row operations to find the reduced row echelon form (RREF) of the matrix M. Since row operations do not change the row space of the matrix, the row space of reduced row echelon form of the matrix M is the same as the row space of the original set of vectors. The nonzero rows in the RREF of the matrix form a basis for vector space $\mathcal{V}$ and the numbers of nonzero rows is the dimension of $\mathcal{V}$.

D. Row space, columns space, and rank of a matrix

Recall the fundamental vector spaces for matrices that we defined in Section II-E: the column space $\mathcal{C}(A)$, the null space $\mathcal{N}(A)$, and the row space $\mathcal{R}(A)$. A standard linear algebra exam question is to give you a certain matrix A and ask you to find the dimension and a basis for each of its fundamental spaces.

In the previous section we described a procedure based on Gauss–Jordan elimination which can be used "distill" a set of linearly independent vectors which form a basis for the row space $\mathcal{R}(A)$. We will now illustrate this procedure with an example, and also show how to use the RREF of the matrix A to find bases for $\mathcal{C}(A)$ and $\mathcal{N}(A)$.

Consider the following matrix and its reduced row echelon form:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 & 7 & 6 \\ 3 & 9 & 9 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{rref}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The reduced row echelon form of the matrix A contains three pivots. The locations of the pivots will play an important role in the following steps.

The vectors $\{(1,3,0,0),(0,0,1,0),(0,0,0,1)\}$ form a basis for $\mathcal{R}(A)$.

To find a basis for the column space $\mathcal{C}(A)$ of the matrix A we need to find which of the columns of A are linearly independent. We can do this by identifying the columns which contain the leading ones in $\text{rref}(A)$. The corresponding columns in the original matrix form a basis for the column space of A. Looking at $\text{rref}(A)$ we see the first, third, and fourth columns of the matrix are linearly independent so the vectors $\{(1,2,3)^\mathsf{T}, (3,7,9)^\mathsf{T}, (3,6,10)^\mathsf{T}\}$ form a basis for $\mathcal{C}(A)$.

Now let's find a basis for the null space, $\mathcal{N}(A) \equiv \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid A\vec{x} = \vec{0}\}$. The second column does not contain a pivot, therefore it corresponds to a *free variable*, which we will denote s. We are looking for a vector with three unknowns and one free variable $(x_1, s, x_3, x_4)^\mathsf{T}$ that obeys the conditions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ s \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{aligned} 1x_1 + 3s &= 0 \\ 1x_3 &= 0 \\ 1x_4 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Let's express the unknowns x_1, x_3, and x_4 in terms of the free variable s. We immediately see that $x_3 = 0$ and $x_4 = 0$, and we can write $x_1 = -3s$. Therefore, any vector of the form $(-3s, s, 0, 0)$, for any $s \in \mathbb{R}$, is in the null space of A. We write $\mathcal{N}(A) = \text{span}\{(-3,1,0,0)^\mathsf{T}\}$.

Observe that the $\dim(\mathcal{C}(A)) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(A)) = 3$, this is known as the *rank* of the matrix A. Also, $\dim(\mathcal{R}(A)) + \dim(\mathcal{N}(A)) = 3 + 1 = 4$, which is the dimension of the input space of the linear transformation T_A.

E. Invertible matrix theorem

There is an important distinction between matrices that are invertible and those that are not as formalized by the following theorem.

Theorem. *For an $n \times n$ matrix A, the following statements are equivalent:*

1) *A is invertible*
2) *The RREF of A is the $n \times n$ identity matrix*
3) *The rank of the matrix is n*
4) *The row space of A is $\mathbb{R}^n$*
5) *The column space of A is $\mathbb{R}^n$*
6) *A doesn't have a null space (only the zero vector $\mathcal{N}(A) = \{\vec{0}\}$)*
7) *The determinant of A is nonzero $\det(A) \neq 0$*

For a given matrix A, the above statements are either all true or all false.

An invertible matrix A corresponds to a linear transformation T_A which maps the n-dimensional input vector space $\mathbb{R}^n$ to the n-dimensional output vector space $\mathbb{R}^n$ such that there exists an inverse transformation T_A^{-1} that can faithfully undo the effects of T_A.

On the other hand, an $n \times n$ matrix B that is not invertible maps the input vector space $\mathbb{R}^n$ to a subspace $\mathcal{C}(B) \subsetneq \mathbb{R}^n$ and has a nonempty null space. Once T_B sends a vector $\vec{w} \in \mathcal{N}(B)$ to the zero vector, there is no T_B^{-1} that can undo this operation.

F. Determinants

The determinant of a matrix, denoted $\det(A)$ or $|A|$, is a special way to combine the entries of a matrix that serves to check if a matrix is invertible or not. The determinant formulas for 2×2 and 3×3 matrices are

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}, \qquad \text{and}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{12} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{13} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{vmatrix}.$$

If the $|A| = 0$ then A is not invertible. If $|A| \neq 0$ then A is invertible.

G. Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

The set of eigenvectors of a matrix is a special set of input vectors for which the action of the matrix is described as a simple *scaling*. When a matrix is multiplied by one of its eigenvectors the output is the same eigenvector multiplied by a constant $A\vec{e}_\lambda = \lambda\vec{e}_\lambda$. The constant λ is called an *eigenvalue* of A.

To find the eigenvalues of a matrix we start from the eigenvalue equation $A\vec{e}_\lambda = \lambda\vec{e}_\lambda$, insert the identity $\mathbb{1}$, and rewrite it as a null-space problem:

$$A\vec{e}_\lambda = \lambda\mathbb{1}\vec{e}_\lambda \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad (A - \lambda\mathbb{1})\,\vec{e}_\lambda = \vec{0}.$$

This equation will have a solution whenever $|A - \lambda\mathbb{1}| = 0$. The eigenvalues of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, denoted $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$, are the roots of the *characteristic polynomial* $p(\lambda) = |A - \lambda\mathbb{1}|$. The *eigenvectors* associated with the eigenvalue λ_i are the vectors in the null space of the matrix $(A - \lambda_i\mathbb{1})$.

Certain matrices can be written entirely in terms of their eigenvectors and their eigenvalues. Consider the matrix Λ that has the eigenvalues of the matrix A on the diagonal, and the matrix Q constructed from the eigenvectors of A as columns:

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ \vec{e}_{\lambda_1} & \cdots & \vec{e}_{\lambda_n} \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{then} \quad A = Q\Lambda Q^{-1}.$$

Matrices that can be written this way are called diagonalizable.

The decomposition of a matrix into its eigenvalues and eigenvectors gives valuable insights into the properties of the matrix. Google's original `PageRank` algorithm for ranking webpages by "importance" can be formalized as an eigenvector calculation on the matrix of web hyperlinks.

VI. Textbook plug

If you're interested in learning more about linear algebra, check out the NO BULLSHIT GUIDE TO LINEAR ALGEBRA. The book is available via `lulu.com`, `amazon.com`, and also here: `gum.co/noBSLA`.

Replication
Passing the same seed to random, and then calling it will give you the same set of numbers.

```
import random
random.seed(insert_integer_here)
random.sample(list_or_series_to_be_sampled,sample_size)

e.g
random.seed(100)
random.sample(range(10),4)

>>>[2, 7, 8, 6]
```

Calculate correlation between two variables with Numpy

```
import numpy as np

np.corrcoef(var1,var2)
np.cov(var1,var2)
```

Plot Normal Distribution

#import relevant modules

```
import numpy as np
import scipy.stats as stats
import seaborn as sns
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

sns.set_style('whitegrid')

%config InlineBackend.figure_format = 'retina'
%matplotlib inline

#sampling
sample = np.random.choice(sample, samplezie)
```

#plot normal distribution N(mean,std) with scipy

```
# Generate points on the x axis:
xpoints = np.linspace(40, 160, 500)
                    =(start,end,num of samples)

# Use stats.norm.pdf to get values on
#the probability density function for the Normal distribution
ypoints = stats.norm.pdf(xpoints, 100, 15)
                                  (mean, std)

# initialize a matplotlib "figure":
fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(8,5))

# Plot the lines using matplotlib's plot function:
ax.plot(xpoints, ypoints, linewidth=3, color='darkred')
```

#histogram

```
#Set mean and standard deviation
mu, sigma = 100, 15

#Here is a set of points
xpoints=np.random.normal(mu, sigma, 50000)
avg=np.mean(xpoints)
std=np.std(xpoints)

#Define variables for 1,2,3 sigma
std1 = avg + std
std1_neg = avg - std
std2 = avg + 2*std
std2_neg = avg - 2*std
std3 = avg + 3*std
std3_neg = avg - 3*std

# 68%: (this is to add supporting line to draw boundaries
ax.axvline(std1_neg, ls='dashed', lw=3, color='#333333', alpha=0.7)
ax.axvline(std1, ls='dashed', lw=3, color='#333333', alpha=0.7)

# plot the lines using matplotlib's hist function:
ax.hist(xpoints,normed=True, bins=100)
```

#The Z-score

```
#use scipy.stats.zscore to covert vector of values to z-scores

import scipy as sp
values = np.array([2,3,4,5,6])
z_scores = sp.stats.zscore(values)
```

Distribution of sample means (point estimate)

$$\bar{X} \sim N(\bar{x}, \frac{s_x}{\sqrt{n}})$$

import relevant modules

```
mean = np.mean(sample)
std_error_mean = np.std(sample)/np.sqrt(len(sample))

xpoints = np.linspace(mean - std_error_mean*5,mean +std_error_mean*5,sampel_siez)

ypoints = stats.norm.pdf(xpoints,mean,std_error_mean)

fig = plt.figure(figsize=(8,5))

#get the current "axis" out of the figure:
ax = fig.gca()
```

#plot

```
ax.plot(xpoints,ypoints,linewidth=3,color='darkred')
ax.asvline(mean, linewidth=4,ls='dashed',c='black')
```

#original distribution

```
fig,ax = plt.subplots(figsize=(8,6))
ax = sns.distplot(sample, bins= 40,kde=False)  #kde: bool, whether to plot
                                               #a gaussian kernel density estimate

ax.plot(xpoints,ypoints*14, linewidth=3,color='darkred')
ax.axvline(mean,linewidth =2, ls ='dashed', c='black')
```

Confidence internvals $\text{CI} = \bar{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$

90%: z = 1.645
95%: z = 1.96
99%: z = 2.575

$z_{\alpha/2}$ is the z-score on the unit **Z ~ N(0, 1)**

#initialize matplotlib figure

```
fig = plt.figure(figsiez = (10,5))
ax = fig.gca()

zx = np.linspace(-3.5,3.5,250)
z = stats.norm(0,1)
zy = z.pdf(zx)

# 90%:
ax.axvline(-1.645, ls='dashed', lw=3, color='#333333', alpha=0.7)
ax.axvline(1.645, ls='dashed', lw=3, color='#333333', alpha=0.7, label='z=1.645, 90%')

# 95%:
ax.axvline(-1.96, ls='dashed', lw=3, color='#666666', alpha=0.7)
ax.axvline(1.96, ls='dashed', lw=3, color='#666666', alpha=0.7, label='z=1.96, 95%')

# 99%:
ax.axvline(-2.575, ls='dashed', lw=3, color='#999999', alpha=0.7)
ax.axvline(2.575, ls='dashed', lw=3, color='#999999', alpha=0.7, label='z=2.575, 99%')

ax.plot(zx, zy, linewidth=3, color='darkred')
ax.legend(loc='upper left')
```

Git Basic Workflow with GitHub

A quick introduction to Git with an hands on example starting with GitHub, making local changes and back to GitHub again.

Setup the Project Folder

Command Listing

```
pwd
mkdir projects
cd projects
pwd
```

Git Configuration

Command Listing

```
git version
git config --global user.name "Abe Lincoln"
git config --global user.email "mrabe@git.training"
git config --global --list
```

Copy the Repository (clone)

Command Listing

```
# paste in your GitHub HTTPS clone URL
git clone https://github.com/prezlincoln/github-demo.git
ls
cd github-demo
ls
git status
```

The First Commit

Command Listing

```
echo "Test Git Quick Start demo" >> start.txt
ls
cat start.txt
git status
git add start.txt
git status
git commit -m "Adding start text file"
git status
```

Publishing Changes to GitHub (push)

Command Listing

```
git push origin master
```

Check Git version and log in

```
git version
-------------------
git config --global user.name "jasonzxwu"
git config --global user.email "zxwujason@gmail.com"
```

Check:

```
git config --global --list
-------------------
```

Clone a repository
First go the desired directory then

```
git clone https://github.com/ ....
```

Then go the created ('cloned') direcotry

First commit
create a file using `echo`

```
touch test.txt
```

use `cat` to display the content

```
cat test.txt

git status

git add test.txt

git status

git commit -m "Adding start text file"

git status
---------------------
```

Pushing changes back to github

```
git push origin master
```

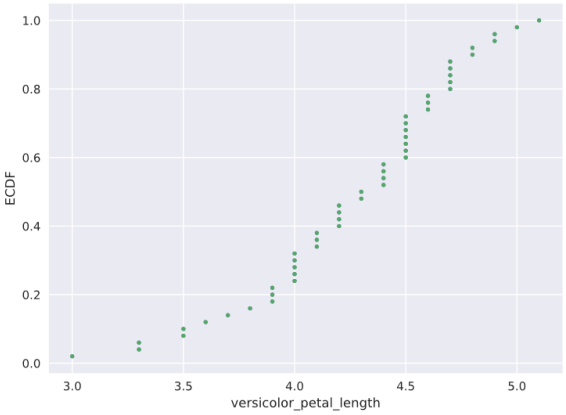
Go to Github to check repository

DataCamp Statistical Thinking in Python

Computing ECDF (empirical cumulative distribution function)

```
def ecdf(data):
    """Compute ECDF for a one-dimensional array of measurements."""
    # Number of data points: n
    n = len(data)

    # x-data for the ECDF: x
    x = np.sort(data)

    # y-data for the ECDF: y
    # The y data of the ECDF go from 1/n to 1
    in equally spaced increments.
    y = np.arange(1, n+1) / n

    return x, y   #this return two arrays, need to upack later
```

```
x,y = ecdf(data) #unpack arrays

_ = plt.plot(x,y,marker ='.', linestyle = 'none')   #plot
_ = plt.xlabel('x label')                           #label x-axis
_ = plt.ylabel('y label')                           #label y-axis
plt.show()                                          #display
```



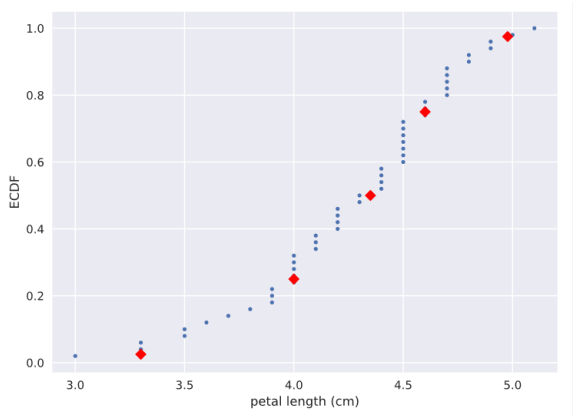
```
#comparison of (multiple) ECDFs
#compute ECDFs
x_1,y_1 = ecdf(data1)
x_2,y_2 = ecdf(data2)

#plot all ECDFs on the same plot
_ = plt.plot(x_1,y_2,marker ='.', linestyle = 'none')
_ = plt.plot(x_1,y_2,marker ='.', linestyle = 'none')

#annotate the plot
plt.legend(('x_1','x_2','x_3'),loc = 'lower right')
_ = plt.xlabel('x_label')
_ = plt.ylabel('ECDF')

plt.show()
```

Computing percentiles

```
percentiles = np.array([30,50,75]) #create an array of %s
per_data = np.percentile(data,percentiles)
print (per_data)
```

Compare percentiles to ECDF

```
#plot the ECDF
_ = plt.plot(x,y,'.')
_ = plt.xlabel('x_label')
_ = plt.ylabel('ECDF')

#overplay percentiles as red diamonds
_ = plt.plot(per_data,percentiles/100,marker='D',color='red',linestyle='none')

plt.show()
```



Create box plot with) Seaborn's default setting

```
_ = sns.boxplot(x='x_col_name',y='y_col_name',data=df)
_ = plt.xlabel('x_label')
_ = plt.ylabel('y_label')

plt.show()
```

Scatter plots

```
_ = plt.plot(x,y,marker='.',linestyle = 'none')
_ =plt.xlabel('x_label')
_ =plt.ylabel('y_label')
```

Covariance

```
covariance = np.cov(x,y)
```

Pearson correlation coefficient

```
def pearson_r(x,y):
    """Compute Pearson correlation coefficient between two arryas."""
    corr_matrix = np.corrcoef(x,y)
    return corr_matrix[0,1]
```

Generating random numbers using `np.random` module

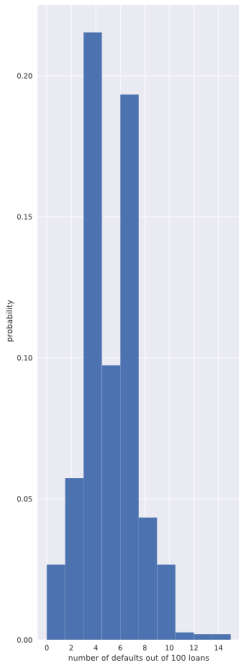
```
# Seed the random number generator
np.random.seed(42)

# Initialize random numbers: random_numbers
random_numbers=np.random.random(size=100000)

# Plot a histogram
_ = plt.hist(random_numbers)

# Show the plot
plt.show()
```

Bernoulli trials

```
def perform_bernoulli_trials(n, p):
    """Perform n Bernoulli trials with success probability p
    and return number of successes."""
    # Initialize number of successes: n_success
    n_success = 0

    # Perform trials
    for i in range(n):
        # Choose random number between zero and one
        random_number = np.random.random()

        # If less than p, it's a success so add one to n_success
        if random_number < p:
            n_success += 1

    return n_success
```

How many defaults we have?

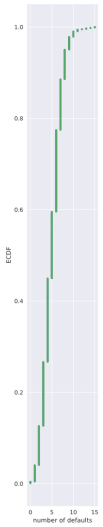
```
# Seed random number generator
np.random.seed(42)

# Initialize the number of defaults: n_defaults
# create an empty array with 1000 entries
n_defaults = np.empty(1000)

# Compute the number of defaults
# each time, it computes the number of defaults based on 100
# trials, if the random (0-1) generated is smaller than 0.05
for i in range(1000):
    n_defaults[i] = perform_bernoulli_trials(100,0.05)


# Plot the histogram with default number of bins; label your axes
_ = plt.hist(n_defaults, normed = True)
_ = plt.xlabel('number of defaults out of 100 loans')
_ = plt.ylabel('probability')

# Show the plot

plt.show()
```



Will the bank fail?

If interest rates are such that the bank will lose money if 10 or more of its loans are defaulted upon, what is the probability that the bank will lose money?

```
# Compute ECDF: x, y
x,y = ecdf(n_defaults)

# Plot the ECDF with labeled axes

_ =plt.plot(x,y,marker = '.',linestyle='none')
_ =plt.xlabel('number of defaults')
_ =plt.ylabel('ECDF')


# Show the plot
plt.show()

# Compute the number of 100-loan simulations with 10 or more defaults:

n_lose_money = np.sum(n_defaults>= 10)

# Compute and print probability of losing money
print('Probability of losing money =', n_lose_money / len(n_defaults))
```



The number *r* of successes in *n* Bernoulli trials with probability *p* of success, is Binomially distributed

The number *r* of heads in 4 coin flips with probability 0.5 of heads, is Binomially distributed

Sampling out of the Binomial distribution

Compute the probability mass function for the number of defaults we would expect for 100 loans as in the last section, but instead of simulating all of the Bernoulli trials, perform the sampling using np.random.binomial().

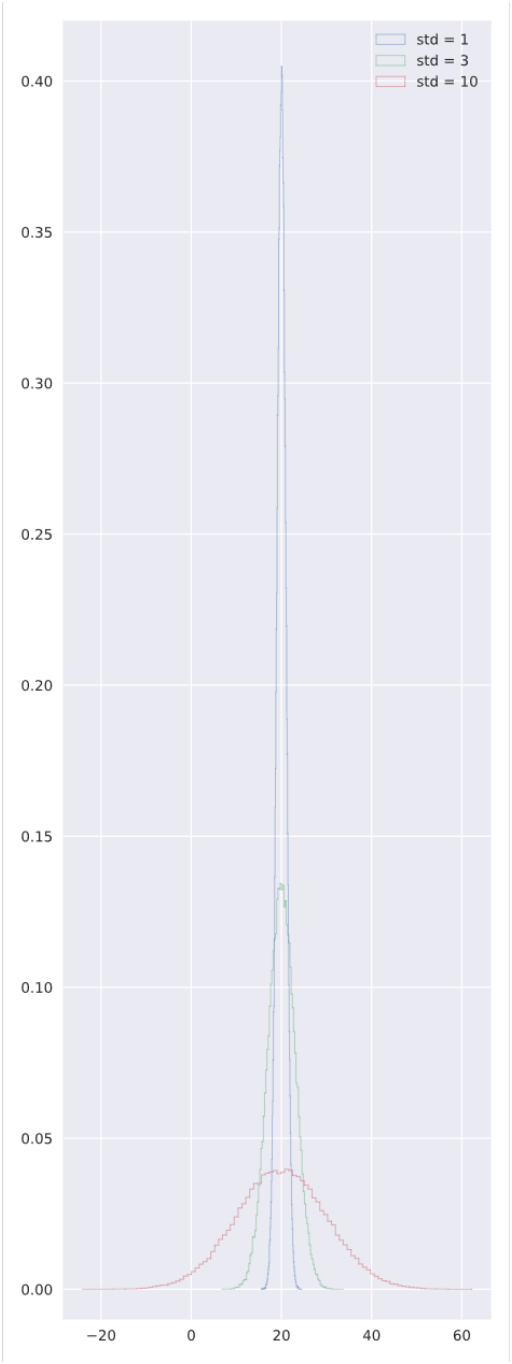
```
n_defaults = np.random.binomial(100,0.05,size=10000)
#this is the same as previously the perform_bernoulli_trials() function
```

Relationship between Binomial and Poisson distribution

```
# Draw 10,000 samples out of Poisson distribution: samples_poisson
#10 is mean
samples_poisson = np.random.poisson(10, size=10000)

# Print the mean and standard deviation
print('Poisson:     ', np.mean(samples_poisson),
                       np.std(samples_poisson))

# Specify values of n and p to consider for Binomial: n, p
n = [20, 100, 1000]
p = [0.5, 0.1, 0.01]

# Draw 10,000 samples for each n,p pair: samples_binomial
for i in range(3):
    samples_binomial = np.random.binomial(n[i], p[i], size=10000)

    # Print results
    print('n =', n[i], 'Binom:', np.mean(samples_binomial),
                                 np.std(samples_binomial))
```

Normal PDF

```
 # Draw 100000 samples from Normal distribution with stds of interest:
samples_std1, samples_std3, samples_std10

samples_std1 = np.random.normal(20,1,10**5)  #mean, std, size
samples_std3 = np.random.normal(20,3,10**5)
samples_std10 = np.random.normal(20,10,10**5)

# Make histograms
_ =plt.hist(samples_std1, bins=100,normed=True,histtype='step')
_ =plt.hist(samples_std3, bins=100,normed=True,histtype='step')
_ =plt.hist(samples_std10, bins=100,normed=True,histtype='step')

# Make a legend, set limits and show plot
_ = plt.legend(('std = 1', 'std = 3', 'std = 10'))
plt.ylim(-0.01, 0.42)
plt.show()
```



```
# Compute mean and standard deviation: mu, sigma
mu = np.mean(data)
sigma = np.std(data)


# Sample out of a normal distribution with this mu and sigma
# this is for theoretical CDF

samples = np.random.normal(mu,sigma,10000)

# Get the CDF of the samples and of the data

x_theor, y_theor = ecdf(samples)   #CDF
x,y = ecdf(belmont_no_outliers)    #ECDF

# Plot the CDFs and show the plot
_ = plt.plot(x_theor, y_theor)
_ = plt.plot(x, y, marker='.', linestyle='none')
_ = plt.xlabel('x_label')
_ = plt.ylabel('CDF')
plt.show()
```