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.

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/

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/

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

Importing Data

Learn Python for data science Interactively at www.DataCamp.com

Importing Data in Python

Most of the time, you'll use either **NumPy** or **pandas** to import your data:

```
>>> import numpy as np
>>> import pandas as pd
```

Help

```
>>> np.info(np.ndarray.dtype)
>>> help(pd.read_csv)
```

Text Files

Plain Text Files

```
>>> filename = 'huck_finn.txt'
>>> file = open(filename, mode='r')
>>> text = file.read()
>>> print(file.closed)
>>> file.close()
>>> print(text)
```

Open the file for reading
Read a file's contents
Check whether file is closed
Close file

Using the context manager `with`

```
>>> with open('huck_finn.txt', 'r') as file:
        print(file.readline())
        print(file.readline())
        print(file.readline())
```

Read a single line

Table Data: Flat Files

Importing Flat Files with numpy

Files with one data type

```
>>> filename = 'mnist.txt'
>>> data = np.loadtxt(filename,
                      delimiter=',',
                      skiprows=2,
                      usecols=[0,2],
                      dtype=str)
```

String used to separate values
Skip the first 2 lines
Read the 1st and 3rd column
The type of the resulting array

Files with mixed data types

```
>>> filename = 'titanic.csv'
>>> data = np.genfromtxt(filename,
                         delimiter=',',
                         names=True,
                         dtype=None)
```

Look for column header

```
>>> data_array = np.recfromcsv(filename)
```

The default `dtype` of the `np.recfromcsv()` function is `None`.

Importing Flat Files with pandas

```
>>> filename = 'winequality-red.csv'
>>> data = pd.read_csv(filename,
                       nrows=5,
                       header=None,
                       sep='\t',
                       comment='#',
                       na_values[""])
```

Number of rows of file to read
Row number to use as col names
Delimiter to use
Character to split comments
String to recognize as NA/NaN

Excel Spreadsheets

```
>>> file = 'urbanpop.xlsx'
>>> data = pd.ExcelFile(file)
>>> df_sheet2 = data.parse('1960-1966',
                           skiprows=[0],
                           names=['Country',
                                  'AAM: War(2002)'])
>>> df_sheet1 = data.parse(0,
                           parse_cols=[0],
                           skiprows=[0],
                           names=['Country'])
```

To access the sheet names, use the `sheet_names` attribute:

```
>>> data.sheet_names
```

SAS Files

```
>>> from sas7bdat import SAS7BDAT
>>> with SAS7BDAT('urbanpop.sas7bdat') as file:
        df_sas = file.to_data_frame()
```

Stata Files

```
>>> data = pd.read_stata('urbanpop.dta')
```

Relational Databases

```
>>> from sqlalchemy import create_engine
>>> engine = create_engine('sqlite://Northwind.sqlite')
```

Use the `table_names()` method to fetch a list of table names:

```
>>> table_names = engine.table_names()
```

Querying Relational Databases

```
>>> con = engine.connect()
>>> rs = con.execute("SELECT * FROM Orders")
>>> df = pd.DataFrame(rs.fetchall())
>>> df.columns = rs.keys()
>>> con.close()
```

Using the context manager `with`

```
>>> with engine.connect() as con:
        rs = con.execute("SELECT OrderID FROM Orders")
        df = pd.DataFrame(rs.fetchmany(size=5))
        df.columns = rs.keys()
```

Querying relational databases with pandas

```
>>> df = pd.read_sql_query("SELECT * FROM Orders", engine)
```

Exploring Your Data

NumPy Arrays

```
>>> data_array.dtype
>>> data_array.shape
>>> len(data_array)
```

Data type of array elements
Array dimensions
Length of array

pandas DataFrames

```
>>> df.head()
>>> df.tail()
>>> df.index
>>> df.columns
>>> df.info()
>>> data_array = data.values
```

Return first DataFrame rows
Return last DataFrame rows
Describe index
Describe DataFrame columns
Info on DataFrame
Convert a DataFrame to an a NumPy array

Pickled Files

```
>>> import pickle
>>> with open('pickled_fruit.pkl', 'rb') as file:
        pickled_data = pickle.load(file)
```

HDF5 Files

```
>>> import h5py
>>> filename = 'H-H1_LOSC_4_v1-815411200-4096.hdf5'
>>> data = h5py.File(filename, 'r')
```

Matlab Files

```
>>> import scipy.io
>>> filename = 'workspace.mat'
>>> mat = scipy.io.loadmat(filename)
```

Exploring Dictionaries

Accessing Elements with Functions

```
>>> print(mat.keys())
>>> for key in data.keys():
        print(key)
meta
quality
strain
>>> pickled_data.values()
>>> print(mat.items())
```

Print dictionary keys
Print dictionary keys

Return dictionary values
Returns items in list format of (key, value) tuple pairs

Accessing Data Items with Keys

```
>>> for key in data ['meta'].keys()
        print(key)
Description
DescriptionURL
Detector
Duration
GPSstart
Observatory
Type
UTCstart
>>> print(data['meta']['Description'].value)
```

Explore the HDF5 structure

Retrieve the value for a key

Navigating Your FileSystem

Magic Commands

```
!ls
%cd ..
%pwd
```

List directory contents of files and directories
Change current working directory
Return the current working directory path

`os` Library

```
>>> import os
>>> path = "/usr/tmp"
>>> wd = os.getcwd()
>>> os.listdir(wd)
>>> os.chdir(path)
>>> os.rename("test1.txt",
              "test2.txt")
>>> os.remove("test1.txt")
>>> os.mkdir("newdir")
```

Store the name of current directory in a string
Output contents of the directory in a list
Change current working directory
Rename a file

Delete an existing file
Create a new directory

Data Science Cheat Sheet

NumPy

KEY

We'll use shorthand in this cheat sheet

`arr` - A numpy Array object

IMPORTS

Import these to start

```
import numpy as np
```

IMPORTING/EXPORTING

`np.loadtxt('file.txt')` - From a text file

`np.genfromtxt('file.csv',delimiter=',')` - From a CSV file

`np.savetxt('file.txt',arr,delimiter=' ')` - Writes to a text file

`np.savetxt('file.csv',arr,delimiter=',')` - Writes to a CSV file

CREATING ARRAYS

`np.array([1,2,3])` - One dimensional array

`np.array([(1,2,3),(4,5,6)])` - Two dimensional array

`np.zeros(3)` - 1D array of length **3** all values **0**

`np.ones((3,4))` - **3**x**4** array with all values **1**

`np.eye(5)` - **5**x**5** array of **0** with **1** on diagonal (Identity matrix)

`np.linspace(0,100,6)` - Array of **6** evenly divided values from **0** to **100**

`np.arange(0,10,3)` - Array of values from **0** to less than **10** with step **3** (eg **[0,3,6,9]**)

`np.full((2,3),8)` - **2**x**3** array with all values **8**

`np.random.rand(4,5)` - **4**x**5** array of random floats between **0**-**1**

`np.random.rand(6,7)*100` - **6**x**7** array of random floats between **0**-**100**

`np.random.randint(5,size=(2,3))` - **2**x**3** array with random ints between **0**-**4**

INSPECTING PROPERTIES

`arr.size` - Returns number of elements in `arr`

`arr.shape` - Returns dimensions of `arr` (rows, columns)

`arr.dtype` - Returns type of elements in `arr`

`arr.astype(dtype)` - Convert `arr` elements to type `dtype`

`arr.tolist()` - Convert `arr` to a Python list

`np.info(np.eye)` - View documentation for `np.eye`

COPYING/SORTING/RESHAPING

`np.copy(arr)` - Copies `arr` to new memory

`arr.view(dtype)` - Creates view of `arr` elements with type `dtype`

`arr.sort()` - Sorts `arr`

`arr.sort(axis=0)` - Sorts specific axis of `arr`

`two_d_arr.flatten()` - Flattens 2D array `two_d_arr` to 1D

`arr.T` - Transposes `arr` (rows become columns and vice versa)

`arr.reshape(3,4)` - Reshapes `arr` to **3** rows, **4** columns without changing data

`arr.resize((5,6))` - Changes `arr` shape to **5**x**6** and fills new values with **0**

ADDING/REMOVING ELEMENTS

`np.append(arr,values)` - Appends `values` to end of `arr`

`np.insert(arr,2,values)` - Inserts `values` into `arr` before index **2**

`np.delete(arr,3,axis=0)` - Deletes row on index **3** of `arr`

`np.delete(arr,4,axis=1)` - Deletes column on index **4** of `arr`

COMBINING/SPLITTING

`np.concatenate((arr1,arr2),axis=0)` - Adds `arr2` as rows to the end of `arr1`

`np.concatenate((arr1,arr2),axis=1)` - Adds `arr2` as columns to end of `arr1`

`np.split(arr,3)` - Splits `arr` into **3** sub-arrays

`np.hsplit(arr,5)` - Splits `arr` horizontally on the **5**th index

INDEXING/SLICING/SUBSETTING

`arr[5]` - Returns the element at index **5**

`arr[2,5]` - Returns the 2D array element on index **[2][5]**

`arr[1]=4` - Assigns array element on index **1** the value **4**

`arr[1,3]=10` - Assigns array element on index **[1][3]** the value **10**

`arr[0:3]` - Returns the elements at indices **0,1,2** (On a 2D array: returns rows **0,1,2**)

`arr[0:3,4]` - Returns the elements on rows **0,1,2** at column **4**

`arr[:2]` - Returns the elements at indices **0,1** (On a 2D array: returns rows **0,1**)

`arr[:,1]` - Returns the elements at index **1** on all rows

`arr<5` - Returns an array with boolean values

`(arr1<3) & (arr2>5)` - Returns an array with boolean values

`~arr` - Inverts a boolean array

`arr[arr<5]` - Returns array elements smaller than **5**

SCALAR MATH

`np.add(arr,1)` - Add **1** to each array element

`np.subtract(arr,2)` - Subtract **2** from each array element

`np.multiply(arr,3)` - Multiply each array element by **3**

`np.divide(arr,4)` - Divide each array element by **4** (returns `np.nan` for division by zero)

`np.power(arr,5)` - Raise each array element to the **5**th power

VECTOR MATH

`np.add(arr1,arr2)` - Elementwise add `arr2` to `arr1`

`np.subtract(arr1,arr2)` - Elementwise subtract `arr2` from `arr1`

`np.multiply(arr1,arr2)` - Elementwise multiply `arr1` by `arr2`

`np.divide(arr1,arr2)` - Elementwise divide `arr1` by `arr2`

`np.power(arr1,arr2)` - Elementwise raise `arr1` raised to the power of `arr2`

`np.array_equal(arr1,arr2)` - Returns `True` if the arrays have the same elements and shape

`np.sqrt(arr)` - Square root of each element in the array

`np.sin(arr)` - Sine of each element in the array

`np.log(arr)` - Natural log of each element in the array

`np.abs(arr)` - Absolute value of each element in the array

`np.ceil(arr)` - Rounds up to the nearest int

`np.floor(arr)` - Rounds down to the nearest int

`np.round(arr)` - Rounds to the nearest int

STATISTICS

`np.mean(arr,axis=0)` - Returns mean along specific axis

`arr.sum()` - Returns sum of `arr`

`arr.min()` - Returns minimum value of `arr`

`arr.max(axis=0)` - Returns maximum value of specific axis

`np.var(arr)` - Returns the variance of array

`np.std(arr,axis=1)` - Returns the standard deviation of specific axis

`arr.corrcoef()` - Returns correlation coefficient of array

Data Science Cheat Sheet

Pandas

KEY

We'll use shorthand in this cheat sheet

`df` - A pandas DataFrame object

`s` - A pandas Series object

IMPORTS

Import these to start

```
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
```

IMPORTING DATA

`pd.read_csv(filename)` - From a CSV file

`pd.read_table(filename)` - From a delimited text file (like TSV)

`pd.read_excel(filename)` - From an Excel file

`pd.read_sql(query, connection_object)` - Reads from a SQL table/database

`pd.read_json(json_string)` - Reads from a JSON formatted string, URL or file.

`pd.read_html(url)` - Parses an html URL, string or file and extracts tables to a list of dataframes

`pd.read_clipboard()` - Takes the contents of your clipboard and passes it to `read_table()`

`pd.DataFrame(dict)` - From a dict, keys for columns names, values for data as lists

EXPORTING DATA

`df.to_csv(filename)` - Writes to a CSV file

`df.to_excel(filename)` - Writes to an Excel file

`df.to_sql(table_name, connection_object)` - Writes to a SQL table

`df.to_json(filename)` - Writes to a file in JSON format

`df.to_html(filename)` - Saves as an HTML table

`df.to_clipboard()` - Writes to the clipboard

CREATE TEST OBJECTS

Useful for testing

`pd.DataFrame(np.random.rand(20,5))` - 5 columns and 20 rows of random floats

`pd.Series(my_list)` - Creates a series from an iterable `my_list`

`df.index = pd.date_range('1900/1/30', periods=df.shape[0])` - Adds a date index

VIEWING/INSPECTING DATA

`df.head(n)` - First `n` rows of the DataFrame

`df.tail(n)` - Last `n` rows of the DataFrame

`df.shape()` - Number of rows and columns

`df.info()` - Index, Datatype and Memory information

`df.describe()` - Summary statistics for numerical columns

`s.value_counts(dropna=False)` - Views unique values and counts

`df.apply(pd.Series.value_counts)` - Unique values and counts for all columns

SELECTION

`df[col]` - Returns column with label `col` as Series

`df[[col1, col2]]` - Returns Columns as a new DataFrame

`s.iloc[0]` - Selection by position

`s.loc[0]` - Selection by index

`df.iloc[0,:]` - First row

`df.iloc[0,0]` - First element of first column

DATA CLEANING

`df.columns = ['a','b','c']` - Renames columns

`pd.isnull()` - Checks for null Values, Returns Boolean Array

`pd.notnull()` - Opposite of `s.isnull()`

`df.dropna()` - Drops all rows that contain null values

`df.dropna(axis=1)` - Drops all columns that contain null values

`df.dropna(axis=1,thresh=n)` - Drops all rows have have less than `n` non null values

`df.fillna(x)` - Replaces all null values with `x`

`s.fillna(s.mean())` - Replaces all null values with the mean (mean can be replaced with almost any function from the statistics section)

`s.astype(float)` - Converts the datatype of the series to float

`s.replace(1,'one')` - Replaces all values equal to `1` with `'one'`

`s.replace([1,3],['one','three'])` - Replaces all `1` with `'one'` and `3` with `'three'`

`df.rename(columns=lambda x: x + 1)` - Mass renaming of columns

`df.rename(columns={'old_name': 'new_name'})` - Selective renaming

`df.set_index('column_one')` - Changes the index

`df.rename(index=lambda x: x + 1)` - Mass renaming of index

FILTER, SORT, & GROUPBY

`df[df[col] > 0.5]` - Rows where the `col` column is greater than `0.5`

`df[(df[col] > 0.5) & (df[col] < 0.7)]` - Rows where `0.7 > col > 0.5`

`df.sort_values(col1)` - Sorts values by `col1` in ascending order

`df.sort_values(col2,ascending=False)` - Sorts values by `col2` in descending order

`df.sort_values([col1,col2], ascending=[True,False])` - Sorts values by `col1` in ascending order then `col2` in descending order

`df.groupby(col)` - Returns a groupby object for values from one column

`df.groupby([col1,col2])` - Returns a groupby object values from multiple columns

`df.groupby(col1)[col2].mean()` - Returns the mean of the values in `col2`, grouped by the values in `col1` (mean can be replaced with almost any function from the statistics section)

`df.pivot_table(index=col1,values=[col2,col3],aggfunc=mean)` - Creates a pivot table that groups by `col1` and calculates the mean of `col2` and `col3`

`df.groupby(col1).agg(np.mean)` - Finds the average across all columns for every unique column 1 group

`df.apply(np.mean)` - Applies a function across each column

`df.apply(np.max, axis=1)` - Applies a function across each row

JOIN/COMBINE

`df1.append(df2)` - Adds the rows in `df1` to the end of `df2` (columns should be identical)

`pd.concat([df1, df2],axis=1)` - Adds the columns in `df1` to the end of `df2` (rows should be identical)

`df1.join(df2,on=col1,how='inner')` - SQL-style joins the columns in `df1` with the columns on `df2` where the rows for `col` have identical values. `how` can be one of `'left'`, `'right'`, `'outer'`, `'inner'`

STATISTICS

These can all be applied to a series as well.

`df.describe()` - Summary statistics for numerical columns

`df.mean()` - Returns the mean of all columns

`df.corr()` - Returns the correlation between columns in a DataFrame

`df.count()` - Returns the number of non-null values in each DataFrame column

`df.max()` - Returns the highest value in each column

`df.min()` - Returns the lowest value in each column

`df.median()` - Returns the median of each column

`df.std()` - Returns the standard deviation of each column

Python For Data Science *Cheat Sheet*

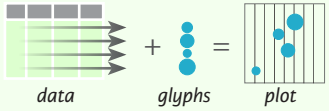
Bokeh

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'])
```

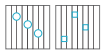
```
>>> from bokeh.models import ColumnDataSource
>>> cds_df = ColumnDataSource(df)
```

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()
```

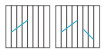
3 Renderers & Visual Customizations

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')
```

Data Science Cheat Sheet

Python Basics

BASICS, PRINTING AND GETTING HELP

`x = 3` - Assign **3** to the variable **x**
`print(x)` - Print the value of **x**
`type(x)` - Return the type of the variable **x** (in this case, **int** for integer)
`help(x)` - Show documentation for the **str** data type
`help(print)` - Show documentation for the **print()** function

READING FILES

```
f = open("my_file.txt","r")
file_as_string = f.read()
```

- Open the file **my_file.txt** and assign its contents to **s**

```
import csv
f = open("my_dataset.csv","r")
csvreader = csv.reader(f)
csv_as_list = list(csvreader)
```

- Open the CSV file **my_dataset.csv** and assign its data to the list of lists **csv_as_list**

STRINGS

`s = "hello"` - Assign the string **"hello"** to the variable **s**

```
s = """She said,
"there's a good idea."
"""
```

- Assign a multi-line string to the variable **s**. Also used to create strings that contain both **"** and **'** characters

`len(s)` - Return the number of characters in **s**
`s.startswith("hel")` - Test whether **s** starts with the substring **"hel"**
`s.endswith("lo")` - Test whether **s** ends with the substring **"lo"**
`"{} plus {} is {}".format(3,1,4)` - Return the string with the values **3**, **1**, and **4** inserted
`s.replace("e","z")` - Return a new string based on **s** with all occurances of **"e"** replaced with **"z"**
`s.split(" ")` - Split the string **s** into a list of strings, separating on the character **" "** and return that list

NUMERIC TYPES AND MATHEMATICAL OPERATIONS

`i = int("5")` - Convert the string **"5"** to the integer **5** and assign the result to **i**
`f = float("2.5")` - Convert the string **"2.5"** to the float value **2.5** and assign the result to **f**
`5 + 5` - Addition
`5 - 5` - Subtraction
`10 / 2` - Division
`5 * 2` - Multiplication
`3 ** 2` - Raise **3** to the power of **2** (or 3^2)
`27 ** (1/3)` - The **3**rd root of **27** (or $\sqrt[3]{27}$)
`x += 1` - Assign the value of **x + 1** to **x**
`x -= 1` - Assign the value of **x - 1** to **x**

LISTS

`l = [100,21,88,3]` - Assign a list containing the integers **100**, **21**, **88**, and **3** to the variable **l**
`l = list()` - Create an empty list and assign the result to **l**
`l[0]` - Return the first value in the list **l**
`l[-1]` - Return the last value in the list **l**
`l[1:3]` - Return a slice (list) containing the second and third values of **l**
`len(l)` - Return the number of elements in **l**
`sum(l)` - Return the sum of the values of **l**
`min(l)` - Return the minimum value from **l**
`max(l)` - Return the maximum value from **l**
`l.append(16)` - Append the value **16** to the end of **l**
`l.sort()` - Sort the items in **l** in ascending order
`" ".join(["A","B","C","D"])` - Converts the list **["A", "B", "C", "D"]** into the string **"A B C D"**

DICTIONARIES

`d = {"CA":"Canada","GB":"Great Britain", "IN":"India"}` - Create a dictionary with keys of **"CA"**, **"GB"**, and **"IN"** and corresponding values of of **"Canada"**, **"Great Britain"**, and **"India"**
`d["GB"]` - Return the value from the dictionary **d** that has the key **"GB"**
`d.get("AU","Sorry")` - Return the value from the dictionary **d** that has the key **"AU"**, or the string **"Sorry"** if the key **"AU"** is not found in **d**
`d.keys()` - Return a list of the keys from **d**
`d.values()` - Return a list of the values from **d**
`d.items()` - Return a list of **(key, value)** pairs from **d**

MODULES AND FUNCTIONS

The body of a function is defined through indentation.

`import random` - Import the module **random**
`from math import sqrt` - Import the function **sqrt** from the module **math**

```
def calculate(addition_one,addition_two,
exponent=1,factor=1):
  result = (value_one + value_two) ** exponent * factor
  return result
```

- Define a new function **calculate** with two required and two optional named arguments which calculates and returns a result.

`addition(3,5,factor=10)` - Run the **addition** function with the values **3** and **5** and the named argument **10**

BOOLEAN COMPARISONS

`x == 5` - Test whether **x** is equal to **5**
`x != 5` - Test whether **x** is not equal to **5**
`x > 5` - Test whether **x** is greater than **5**
`x < 5` - Test whether **x** is less than **5**
`x >= 5` - Test whether **x** is greater than or equal to **5**
`x <= 5` - Test whether **x** is less than or equal to **5**
`x == 5 or name == "alfred"` - Test whether **x** is equal to **5** or **name** is equal to **"alfred"**
`x == 5 and name == "alfred"` - Test whether **x** is equal to **5** and **name** is equal to **"alfred"**
`5 in l` - Checks whether the value **5** exists in the list **l**
`"GB" in d` - Checks whether the value **"GB"** exists in the keys for **d**

IF STATEMENTS AND LOOPS

The body of if statements and loops are defined through indentation.

```
if x > 5:
  print("{} is greater than five".format(x))
elif x < 0:
  print("{} is negative".format(x))
else:
  print("{} is between zero and five".format(x))
```

- Test the value of the variable **x** and run the code body based on the value

```
for value in l:
  print(value)
```

- Iterate over each value in **l**, running the code in the body of the loop with each iteration

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

- Run the code in the body of the loop until the value of **x** is no longer less than **10**

Data Science Cheat Sheet

Python - Intermediate

KEY BASICS, PRINTING AND GETTING HELP

This cheat sheet assumes you are familiar with the content of our Python Basics Cheat Sheet

`s` - A Python string variable
`i` - A Python integer variable
`f` - A Python float variable
`l` - A Python list variable
`d` - A Python dictionary variable

LISTS

`l.pop(3)` - Returns the fourth item from `l` and deletes it from the list
`l.remove(x)` - Removes the first item in `l` that is equal to `x`
`l.reverse()` - Reverses the order of the items in `l`
`l[1::2]` - Returns every second item from `l`, commencing from the `1`st item
`l[-5:]` - Returns the last 5 items from `l` specific axis

STRINGS

`s.lower()` - Returns a lowercase version of `s`
`s.title()` - Returns `s` with the first letter of every word capitalized
`"23".zfill(4)` - Returns `"0023"` by left-filling the string with `0`'s to make it's length `4`.
`s.splitlines()` - Returns a list by splitting the string on any newline characters.

Python strings share some common methods with lists

`s[:5]` - Returns the first `5` characters of `s`
`"fri" + "end"` - Returns `"friend"`
`"end" in s` - Returns `True` if the substring `"end"` is found in `s`

RANGE

Range objects are useful for creating sequences of integers for looping.

`range(5)` - Returns a sequence from `0` to `4`
`range(2000,2018)` - Returns a sequence from `2000` to `2017`
`range(0,11,2)` - Returns a sequence from `0` to `10`, with each item incrementing by `2`
`range(0,-10,-1)` - Returns a sequence from `0` to `-9`
`list(range(5))` - Returns a list from `0` to `4`

DICTIONARIES

`max(d, key=d.get)` - Return the key that corresponds to the largest value in `d`
`min(d, key=d.get)` - Return the key that corresponds to the smallest value in `d`

SETS

`my_set = set(l)` - Return a `set` object containing the unique values from `l`
`len(my_set)` - Returns the number of objects in `my_set` (or, the number of unique values from `l`)
`a in my_set` - Returns `True` if the value `a` exists in `my_set`

REGULAR EXPRESSIONS

`import re` - Import the Regular Expressions module
`re.search("abc",s)` - Returns a `match` object if the regex `"abc"` is found in `s`, otherwise `None`
`re.sub("abc","xyz",s)` - Returns a string where all instances matching regex `"abc"` are replaced by `"xyz"`

LIST COMPREHENSION

A one-line expression of a for loop

`[i ** 2 for i in range(10)]` - Returns a list of the squares of values from `0` to `9`
`[s.lower() for s in l_strings]` - Returns the list `l_strings`, with each item having had the `.lower()` method applied
`[i for i in l_floats if i < 0.5]` - Returns the items from `l_floats` that are less than `0.5`

FUNCTIONS FOR LOOPING

```
for i, value in enumerate(l):
  print("The value of item {} is {}".
  format(i,value))
```

- Iterate over the list `l`, printing the index location of each item and its value

```
for one, two in zip(l_one,l_two):
  print("one: {}, two: {}".format(one,two))
```

- Iterate over two lists, `l_one` and `l_two` and print each value

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

- Run the code in the body of the loop until the value of `x` is no longer less than `10`

DATETIME

`import datetime as dt` - Import the `datetime` module
`now = dt.datetime.now()` - Assign `datetime` object representing the current time to `now`
`wks4 = dt.datetime.timedelta(weeks=4)` - Assign a `timedelta` object representing a timespan of 4 weeks to `wks4`
`now - wks4` - Return a `datetime` object representing the time 4 weeks prior to `now`
`newyear_2020 = dt.datetime(year=2020, month=12, day=31)` - Assign a `datetime` object representing December 25, 2020 to `newyear_2020`
`newyear_2020.strftime("%A, %b %d, %Y")` - Returns `"Thursday, Dec 31, 2020"`
`dt.datetime.strptime('Dec 31, 2020',"%b %d, %Y")` - Return a `datetime` object representing December 31, 2020

RANDOM

`import random` - Import the `random` module
`random.random()` - Returns a random float between `0.0` and `1.0`
`random.randint(0,10)` - Returns a random integer between `0` and `10`
`random.choice(l)` - Returns a random item from the list `l`

COUNTER

`from collections import Counter` - Import the `Counter` class
`c = Counter(l)` - Assign a `Counter` (dict-like) object with the counts of each unique item from `l`, to `c`
`c.most_common(3)` - Return the 3 most common items from `l`

TRY/EXCEPT

Catch and deal with Errors

`l_ints = [1, 2, 3, "", 5]` - Assign a list of integers with one missing value to `l_ints`

```
l_floats = []
for i in l_ints:
  try:
    l_floats.append(float(i))
  except:
    l_floats.append(i)
```

- Convert each value of `l_ints` to a float, catching and handling `ValueError: could not convert string to float:` where values are missing.