

Chapter 8. Dictionaries and Sets

If a word in the dictionary were misspelled, how would we know?

—Steven Wright

Dictionaries

A *dictionary* is similar to a list, but the order of items doesn't matter, and they aren't selected by an offset such as 0 or 1. Instead, you specify a unique *key* to associate with each *value*. This key is often a string, but it can actually be any of Python's immutable types: boolean, integer, float, tuple, string, and others that you'll see in later chapters. Dictionaries are mutable, so you can add, delete, and change their key-value elements. If you've worked with languages that support only arrays or lists, you'll love dictionaries.

NOTE

In other languages, dictionaries might be called *associative arrays*, *hashes*, or *hashmaps*. In Python, a dictionary is also called a *dict* to save syllables and make teenage boys snicker.

Create with {}

To create a dictionary, you place curly brackets (`{ }`) around comma-separated *key* : *value* pairs. The simplest dictionary is an empty one, containing no keys or values at all:

```
>>> empty_dict = {}
>>> empty_dict
{}

```

Let's make a small dictionary with quotes from Ambrose Bierce's *The Devil's Dictionary*:

```
>>> bierce = {  
...     "day": "A period of twenty-four hours, mostly misspent",  
...     "positive": "Mistaken at the top of one's voice",  
...     "misfortune": "The kind of fortune that never misses",  
... }  
>>>
```

Typing the dictionary's name in the interactive interpreter will print its keys and values:

```
>>> bierce  
{'day': 'A period of twenty-four hours, mostly misspent',  
'positive': 'Mistaken at the top of one's voice',  
'misfortune': 'The kind of fortune that never misses'}
```

NOTE

In Python, it's okay to leave a comma after the last item of a list, tuple, or dictionary. Also, you don't need to indent, as I did in the preceding example, when you're typing keys and values within the curly braces. It just helps readability.

Create with dict()

Some people don't like typing so many curly brackets and quotes. You can also create a dictionary by passing named arguments and values to the `dict()` function.

The traditional way:

```
>>> acme_customer = {'first': 'Wile', 'middle': 'E', 'last': 'Coyote'}  
>>> acme_customer  
{'first': 'Wile', 'middle': 'E', 'last': 'Coyote'}
```

Using `dict()`:

```
>>> acme_customer = dict(first="Wile", middle="E", last="Coyote")  
>>> acme_customer  
{'first': 'Wile', 'middle': 'E', 'last': 'Coyote'}
```

One limitation of the second way is that the argument names need to be legal variable names (no spaces, no reserved words):

```
>>> x = dict(name="Elmer", def="hunter")
File "<stdin>", line 1
    x = dict(name="Elmer", def="hunter")
                        ^
SyntaxError: invalid syntax
```

Convert with dict()

You can also use the `dict()` function to convert two-value sequences into a dictionary. You might run into such key-value sequences at times, such as “Strontium, 90, Carbon, 14.”¹ The first item in each sequence is used as the key and the second as the value.

First, here’s a small example using `lol` (a list of two-item lists):

```
>>> lol = [ ['a', 'b'], ['c', 'd'], ['e', 'f'] ]
>>> dict(lol)
{'a': 'b', 'c': 'd', 'e': 'f'}
```

We could have used any sequence containing two-item sequences. Here are other examples.

A list of two-item tuples:

```
>>> lot = [ ('a', 'b'), ('c', 'd'), ('e', 'f') ]
>>> dict(lot)
{'a': 'b', 'c': 'd', 'e': 'f'}
```

A tuple of two-item lists:

```
>>> tol = ( ['a', 'b'], ['c', 'd'], ['e', 'f'] )
>>> dict(tol)
{'a': 'b', 'c': 'd', 'e': 'f'}
```

A list of two-character strings:

```
>>> los = [ 'ab', 'cd', 'ef' ]
>>> dict(los)
{'a': 'b', 'c': 'd', 'e': 'f'}
```

A tuple of two-character strings:

```
>>> tos = ( 'ab', 'cd', 'ef' )
>>> dict(tos)
{'a': 'b', 'c': 'd', 'e': 'f'}
```

The section [“Iterate Multiple Sequences with zip\(\)”](#) introduces you to the `zip()` function, which makes it easy to create these two-item sequences.

Add or Change an Item by [*key*]

Adding an item to a dictionary is easy. Just refer to the item by its key and assign a value. If the key was already present in the dictionary, the existing value is replaced by the new one. If the key is new, it’s added to the dictionary with its value. Unlike lists, you don’t need to worry about Python throwing an exception during assignment by specifying an index that’s out of range.

Let’s make a dictionary of most of the members of Monty Python, using their last names as keys, and first names as values:

```
>>> pythons = {
...     'Chapman': 'Graham',
...     'Cleeese': 'John',
...     'Idle': 'Eric',
...     'Jones': 'Terry',
...     'Palin': 'Michael',
...     }
>>> pythons
{'Chapman': 'Graham', 'Cleeese': 'John', 'Idle': 'Eric',
 'Jones': 'Terry', 'Palin': 'Michael'}
```

We’re missing one member: the one born in America, Terry Gilliam. Here’s an attempt by an anonymous programmer to add him, but he’s botched the first name:

```
>>> pythons['Gilliam'] = 'Gerry'
>>> pythons
{'Chapman': 'Graham', 'Cleese': 'John', 'Idle': 'Eric',
 'Jones': 'Terry', 'Palin': 'Michael', 'Gilliam': 'Gerry'}
```

And here's some repair code by another programmer who is Pythonic in more than one way:

```
>>> pythons['Gilliam'] = 'Terry'
>>> pythons
{'Chapman': 'Graham', 'Cleese': 'John', 'Idle': 'Eric',
 'Jones': 'Terry', 'Palin': 'Michael', 'Gilliam': 'Terry'}
```

By using the same key ('Gilliam'), we replaced the original value 'Gerry' with 'Terry' .

Remember that dictionary keys must be *unique*. That's why we used last names for keys instead of first names here—two members of Monty Python have the first name 'Terry' ! If you use a key more than once, the last value wins:

```
>>> some_pythons = {
...     'Graham': 'Chapman',
...     'John': 'Cleese',
...     'Eric': 'Idle',
...     'Terry': 'Gilliam',
...     'Michael': 'Palin',
...     'Terry': 'Jones',
...     }
>>> some_pythons
{'Graham': 'Chapman', 'John': 'Cleese', 'Eric': 'Idle',
 'Terry': 'Jones', 'Michael': 'Palin'}
```

We first assigned the value 'Gilliam' to the key 'Terry' and then replaced it with the value 'Jones' .

Get an Item by [key] or with get()

This is the most common use of a dictionary. You specify the dictionary and key to get the corresponding value: Using `some_pythons` from the

previous section:

```
>>> some_pythons['John']  
'Cleese'
```

If the key is not present in the dictionary, you'll get an exception:

```
>>> some_pythons['Groucho']  
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>  
KeyError: 'Groucho'
```

There are two good ways to avoid this. The first is to test for the key at the outset by using `in`, as you saw in the previous section:

```
>>> 'Groucho' in some_pythons  
False
```

The second is to use the special dictionary `get()` function. You provide the dictionary, key, and an optional value. If the key exists, you get its value:

```
>>> some_pythons.get('John')  
'Cleese'
```

If not, you get the optional value, if you specified one:

```
>>> some_pythons.get('Groucho', 'Not a Python')  
'Not a Python'
```

Otherwise, you get `None` (which displays nothing in the interactive interpreter):

```
>>> some_pythons.get('Groucho')  
>>>
```

Get All Keys with `keys()`

You can use `keys()` to get all of the keys in a dictionary. We'll use a different sample dictionary for the next few examples:

```
>>> signals = {'green': 'go', 'yellow': 'go faster', 'red': 'smile for the camera'}
>>> signals.keys()
dict_keys(['green', 'yellow', 'red'])
```

NOTE

In Python 2, `keys()` just returns a list. Python 3 returns `dict_keys()`, which is an iterable view of the keys. This is handy with large dictionaries because it doesn't use the time and memory to create and store a list that you might not use. But often you actually *do* want a list. In Python 3, you need to call `list()` to convert a `dict_keys` object to a list.

```
>>> list( signals.keys() )
['green', 'yellow', 'red']
```

In Python 3, you also need to use the `list()` function to turn the results of `values()` and `items()` into normal Python lists. I use that in these examples.

Get All Values with `values()`

To obtain all the values in a dictionary, use `values()`:

```
>>> list( signals.values() )
['go', 'go faster', 'smile for the camera']
```

Get All Key-Value Pairs with `items()`

When you want to get all the key-value pairs from a dictionary, use the `items()` function:

```
>>> list( signals.items() )
[('green', 'go'), ('yellow', 'go faster'), ('red', 'smile for the camera')]
```

Each key and value is returned as a tuple, such as ('green', 'go').

Get Length with len()

Count your key-value pairs:

```
>>> len(signals)
3
```

Combine Dictionaries with ****a, **b**

Starting with Python 3.5, there's a new way to merge dictionaries, using the `**` unicorn glitter, which has a very different use in [Chapter 9](#):

```
>>> first = {'a': 'agony', 'b': 'bliss'}
>>> second = {'b': 'bagels', 'c': 'candy'}
>>> **first, **second
{'a': 'agony', 'b': 'bagels', 'c': 'candy'}
```

Actually, you can pass more than two dictionaries:

```
>>> third = {'d': 'donuts'}
>>> **first, **third, **second
{'a': 'agony', 'b': 'bagels', 'd': 'donuts', 'c': 'candy'}
```

These are *shallow* copies. See the discussion of `deepcopy()` ([“Copy Everything with deepcopy\(\)”](#)) if you want full copies of the keys and values, with no connection to their origin dictionaries.

Combine Dictionaries with `update()`

You can use the `update()` function to copy the keys and values of one dictionary into another.

Let's define the `pythons` dictionary, with all members:

```
>>> pythons = {
...     'Chapman': 'Graham',
...     'Cleese': 'John',
```



```

...     'Gilliam': 'Terry',
...     'Idle': 'Eric',
...     'Jones': 'Terry',
...     'Palin': 'Michael',
...     }
>>> pythons
{'Chapman': 'Graham', 'Cleese': 'John', 'Gilliam': 'Terry',
 'Idle': 'Eric', 'Jones': 'Terry', 'Palin': 'Michael'}

```

We also have a dictionary of other humorous persons called `others` :

```

>>> others = { 'Marx': 'Groucho', 'Howard': 'Moe' }

```

Now, along comes another anonymous programmer who decides that the members of `others` should be members of Monty Python:

```

>>> pythons.update(others)
>>> pythons
{'Chapman': 'Graham', 'Cleese': 'John', 'Gilliam': 'Terry',
 'Idle': 'Eric', 'Jones': 'Terry', 'Palin': 'Michael',
 'Marx': 'Groucho', 'Howard': 'Moe'}

```

What happens if the second dictionary has the same key as the dictionary into which it's being merged? The value from the second dictionary wins:

```

>>> first = {'a': 1, 'b': 2}
>>> second = {'b': 'platypus'}
>>> first.update(second)
>>> first
{'a': 1, 'b': 'platypus'}

```

Delete an Item by Key with `del`

The previous `pythons.update(others)` code from our anonymous programmer was technically correct, but factually wrong. The members of `others`, although funny and famous, were not in Monty Python. Let's undo those last two additions:

```

>>> del pythons['Marx']
>>> pythons

```

```
{'Chapman': 'Graham', 'Cleese': 'John', 'Gilliam': 'Terry',
 'Idle': 'Eric', 'Jones': 'Terry', 'Palin': 'Michael',
 'Howard': 'Moe'}
>>> del pythons['Howard']
>>> pythons
{'Chapman': 'Graham', 'Cleese': 'John', 'Gilliam': 'Terry',
 'Idle': 'Eric', 'Jones': 'Terry', 'Palin': 'Michael'}
```

Get an Item by Key and Delete It with pop()

This combines `get()` and `del`. If you give `pop()` a key and it exists in the dictionary, it returns the matching value and deletes the key-value pair. If it doesn't exist, it raises an exception:

```
>>> len(pythons)
6
>>> pythons.pop('Palin')
'Michael'
>>> len(pythons)
5
>>> pythons.pop('Palin')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
KeyError: 'Palin'
```

But if you give `pop()` a second default argument (as with `get()`), all is well and the dictionary is not changed:

```
>>> pythons.pop('First', 'Hugo')
'Hugo'
>>> len(pythons)
5
```

Delete All Items with clear()

To delete all keys and values from a dictionary, use `clear()` or just reassign an empty dictionary (`{}`) to the name:

```
>>> pythons.clear()
>>> pythons
```

```
{}  
>>> pythons = {}  
>>> pythons  
{}
```

Test for a Key with in

If you want to know whether a key exists in a dictionary, use `in`. Let's re-define the `pythons` dictionary again, this time omitting a name or two:

```
>>> pythons = {'Chapman': 'Graham', 'Cleese': 'John',  
... 'Jones': 'Terry', 'Palin': 'Michael', 'Idle': 'Eric'}
```

Now let's see who's in there:

```
>>> 'Chapman' in pythons  
True  
>>> 'Palin' in pythons  
True
```

Did we remember to add Terry Gilliam this time?

```
>>> 'Gilliam' in pythons  
False
```

Drat.

Assign with =

As with lists, if you make a change to a dictionary, it will be reflected in all the names that refer to it:

```
>>> signals = {'green': 'go',  
... 'yellow': 'go faster',  
... 'red': 'smile for the camera'}  
>>> save_signals = signals  
>>> signals['blue'] = 'confuse everyone'  
>>> save_signals  
{'green': 'go',
```

```
'yellow': 'go faster',  
'red': 'smile for the camera',  
'blue': 'confuse everyone'}
```

Copy with copy()

To actually copy keys and values from a dictionary to another dictionary and avoid this, you can use `copy()` :

```
>>> signals = {'green': 'go',  
... 'yellow': 'go faster',  
... 'red': 'smile for the camera'}  
>>> original_signals = signals.copy()  
>>> signals['blue'] = 'confuse everyone'  
>>> signals  
{'green': 'go',  
'yellow': 'go faster',  
'red': 'smile for the camera',  
'blue': 'confuse everyone'}  
>>> original_signals  
{'green': 'go',  
'yellow': 'go faster',  
'red': 'smile for the camera'}  
>>>
```

This is a *shallow* copy, and works if the dictionary values are immutable (as they are in this case). If they aren't, you need `deepcopy()` .

Copy Everything with deepcopy()

Suppose that the value for `red` in the previous example was a list instead of a single string:

```
>>> signals = {'green': 'go',  
... 'yellow': 'go faster',  
... 'red': ['stop', 'smile']}  
>>> signals_copy = signals.copy()  
>>> signals  
{'green': 'go',  
'yellow': 'go faster',  
'red': ['stop', 'smile']}  
>>> signals_copy
```

```

{'green': 'go',
 'yellow': 'go faster',
 'red': ['stop', 'smile']}
>>>

```

Let's change one of the values in the `red` list:

```

>>> signals['red'][1] = 'sweat'
>>> signals
{'green': 'go',
 'yellow': 'go faster',
 'red': ['stop', 'sweat']}
>>> signals_copy
{'green': 'go',
 'yellow': 'go faster',
 'red': ['stop', 'sweat']}

```

You get the usual change-by-either-name behavior. The `copy()` method copied the values as-is, meaning `signal_copy` got the same list value for `'red'` that `signals` had.

The solution is `deepcopy()`:

```

>>> import copy
>>> signals = {'green': 'go',
... 'yellow': 'go faster',
... 'red': ['stop', 'smile']}
>>> signals_copy = copy.deepcopy(signals)
>>> signals
{'green': 'go',
 'yellow': 'go faster',
 'red': ['stop', 'smile']}
>>> signals_copy
{'green': 'go',
 'yellow': 'go faster',
 'red': ['stop', 'smile']}
>>> signals['red'][1] = 'sweat'
>>> signals
{'green': 'go',
 'yellow': 'go faster',
 'red': ['stop', 'sweat']}
>>> signals_copy
{'green': 'go',

```

```
'yellow': 'go faster',  
red': ['stop', 'smile']}]}
```

Compare Dictionaries

Much like lists and tuples in the previous chapter, dictionaries can be compared with the simple comparison operators `==` and `!=`:

```
>>> a = {1:1, 2:2, 3:3}  
>>> b = {3:3, 1:1, 2:2}  
>>> a == b  
True
```

Other operators won't work:

```
>>> a = {1:1, 2:2, 3:3}  
>>> b = {3:3, 1:1, 2:2}  
>>> a <= b  
Traceback (most recent call last):  
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>  
TypeError: '<=' not supported between instances of 'dict' and 'dict'
```

Python compares the keys and values one by one. The order in which they were originally created doesn't matter. In this example, `a` and `b` are equal, except key `1` has the list value `[1, 2]` in `a` and the list value `[1, 1]` in `b`:

```
>>> a = {1: [1, 2], 2: [1], 3:[1]}  
>>> b = {1: [1, 1], 2: [1], 3:[1]}  
>>> a == b  
False
```

Iterate with for and in

Iterating over a dictionary (or its `keys()` function) returns the keys. In this example, the keys are the types of cards in the board game Clue (Cluedo outside of North America):

```
>>> accusation = {'room': 'ballroom', 'weapon': 'lead pipe',
```

```

...             'person': 'Col. Mustard'}
>>> for card in accusation: # or, for card in accusation.keys():
...     print(card)
...
room
weapon
person

```

To iterate over the values rather than the keys, you use the dictionary's `values()` function:

```

>>> for value in accusation.values():
...     print(value)
...
ballroom
lead pipe
Col. Mustard

```

To return both the key and value as a tuple, you can use the `items()` function:

```

>>> for item in accusation.items():
...     print(item)
...
('room', 'ballroom')
('weapon', 'lead pipe')
('person', 'Col. Mustard')

```

You can assign to a tuple in one step. For each tuple returned by `items()`, assign the first value (the key) to `card`, and the second (the value) to `contents`:

```

>>> for card, contents in accusation.items():
...     print('Card', card, 'has the contents', contents)
...
Card weapon has the contents lead pipe
Card person has the contents Col. Mustard
Card room has the contents ballroom

```

Dictionary Comprehensions

Not to be outdone by those bourgeois lists, dictionaries also have comprehensions. The simplest form looks familiar:

```
{key_expression : value_expression for expression in iterable}
```

```
>>> word = 'letters'
>>> letter_counts = {letter: word.count(letter) for letter in word}
>>> letter_counts
{'l': 1, 'e': 2, 't': 2, 'r': 1, 's': 1}
```

We're running a loop over each of the seven letters in the string 'letters' and counting how many times that letter appears. Two uses of `word.count(letter)` are a waste of time because we have to count all the `e`'s twice and all the `t`'s twice. But when we count the `e`'s the second time, we do no harm because we just replace the entry in the dictionary that was already there; the same goes for counting the `t`'s. So, the following would have been a teeny bit more Pythonic:

```
>>> word = 'letters'
>>> letter_counts = {letter: word.count(letter) for letter in set(word)}
>>> letter_counts
{'t': 2, 'l': 1, 'e': 2, 'r': 1, 's': 1}
```

The dictionary's keys are in a different order than the previous example because iterating `set(word)` returns letters in a different order than iterating the string `word`.

Similar to list comprehensions, dictionary comprehensions can also have `if` tests and multiple `for` clauses:

```
{key_expression : value_expression for expression in iterable if condition}
```

```
>>> vowels = 'aeiou'
>>> word = 'onomatopoeia'
>>> vowel_counts = {letter: word.count(letter) for letter in set(word)
                    if letter in vowels}
>>> vowel_counts
{'e': 1, 'i': 1, 'o': 4, 'a': 2}
```


See [PEP-274](#) for more examples of dictionary comprehensions.

Sets

A *set* is like a dictionary with its values thrown away, leaving only the keys. As with a dictionary, each key must be unique. You use a set when you only want to know that something exists, and nothing else about it. It's a bag of keys. Use a dictionary if you want to attach some information to the key as a value.

At some bygone time, in some places, set theory was taught in elementary school along with basic mathematics. If your school skipped it (or you were staring out the window), [Figure 8-1](#) shows the ideas of set union and intersection.

Suppose that you take the union of two sets that have some keys in common. Because a set must contain only one of each item, the union of two sets will contain only one of each key. The *null* or *empty* set is a set with zero elements. In [Figure 8-1](#), an example of a null set would be female names beginning with X.

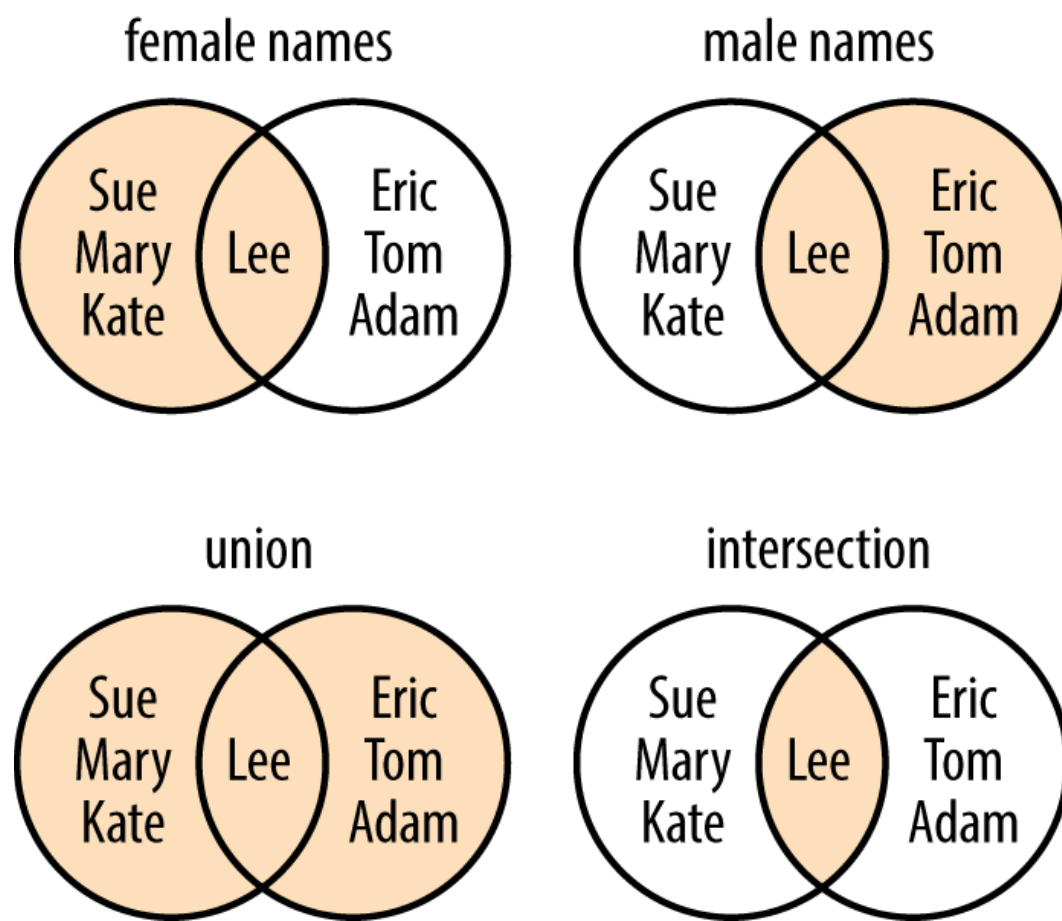


Figure 8-1. Common things to do with sets

Create with set()

To create a set, you use the `set()` function or enclose one or more comma-separated values in curly brackets, as shown here:

```
>>> empty_set = set()
>>> empty_set
set()
>>> even_numbers = {0, 2, 4, 6, 8}
>>> even_numbers
{0, 2, 4, 6, 8}
>>> odd_numbers = {1, 3, 5, 7, 9}
>>> odd_numbers
{1, 3, 5, 7, 9}
```

Sets are unordered.

NOTE

Because `[]` creates an empty list, you might expect `{}` to create an empty set. Instead, `{}` creates an empty dictionary. That's also why the interpreter prints an empty set as `set()` instead of `{}`. Why? Dictionaries were in Python first and took possession of the curly brackets. And possession is nine-tenths of the law.²

Convert with set()

You can create a set from a list, string, tuple, or dictionary, discarding any duplicate values.

First, let's take a look at a string with more than one occurrence of some letters:

```
>>> set( 'letters' )
{'l', 'r', 's', 't', 'e'}
```

Notice that the set contains only one 'e' or 't', even though 'letters' contained two of each.

Now, let's make a set from a list:

```
>>> set( ['Dasher', 'Dancer', 'Prancer', 'Mason-Dixon'] )
{'Dancer', 'Dasher', 'Mason-Dixon', 'Prancer'}
```

This time, a set from a tuple:

```
>>> set( ('Ummagumma', 'Echoes', 'Atom Heart Mother') )
{'Ummagumma', 'Atom Heart Mother', 'Echoes'}
```

When you give `set()` a dictionary, it uses only the keys:

```
>>> set( {'apple': 'red', 'orange': 'orange', 'cherry': 'red'} )
{'cherry', 'orange', 'apple'}
```

Get Length with len()

Let's count our reindeer:

```
>>> reindeer = set( ['Dasher', 'Dancer', 'Prancer', 'Mason-Dixon'] )
>>> len(reindeer)
4
```

Add an Item with add()

Throw another item into a set with the set `add()` method:

```
>>> s = set((1,2,3))
>>> s
{1, 2, 3}
>>> s.add(4)
>>> s
{1, 2, 3, 4}
```

Delete an Item with remove()

You can delete a value from a set by value:

```
>>> s = set((1,2,3))
>>> s.remove(3)
>>> s
{1, 2}
```

Iterate with for and in

Like dictionaries, you can iterate over all items in a set:

```
>>> furniture = set(('sofa', 'ottoman', 'table'))
>>> for piece in furniture:
...     print(piece)
...
ottoman
table
sofa
```

Test for a Value with in

This is the most common use of a set. We'll make a dictionary called `drinks`. Each key is the name of a mixed drink, and the corresponding value is a set of that drink's ingredients:

```
>>> drinks = {
...     'martini': {'vodka', 'vermouth'},
...     'black russian': {'vodka', 'kahlua'},
...     'white russian': {'cream', 'kahlua', 'vodka'},
...     'manhattan': {'rye', 'vermouth', 'bitters'},
...     'screwdriver': {'orange juice', 'vodka'}
... }
```

Even though both are enclosed by curly braces (`{` and `}`), a set is just a bunch of values, and a dictionary contains *key : value* pairs.

Which drinks contain vodka?

```
>>> for name, contents in drinks.items():
...     if 'vodka' in contents:
...         print(name)
...
screwdriver
martini
black russian
white russian
```

We want something with vodka but are lactose intolerant, and think vermouth tastes like kerosene:

```
>>> for name, contents in drinks.items():
...     if 'vodka' in contents and not ('vermouth' in contents or
...         'cream' in contents):
...         print(name)
...
screwdriver
black russian
```

We'll rewrite this a bit more succinctly in the next section.

Combinations and Operators

What if you want to check for combinations of set values? Suppose that you want to find any drink that has orange juice or vermouth? Let's use the *set intersection operator*, which is an ampersand (&):

```
>>> for name, contents in drinks.items():
...     if contents & {'vermouth', 'orange juice'}:
...         print(name)
...
screwdriver
martini
manhattan
```

The result of the & operator is a set that contains all of the items that appear in both lists that you compare. If neither of those ingredients were in contents , the & returns an empty set, which is considered False .

Now, let's rewrite the example from the previous section, in which we wanted vodka but neither cream nor vermouth:

```
>>> for name, contents in drinks.items():
...     if 'vodka' in contents and not contents & {'vermouth', 'cream'}:
...         print(name)
...
screwdriver
black russian
```

Let's save the ingredient sets for these two drinks in variables, just to save our delicate fingers some typing in the coming examples:

```
>>> bruss = drinks['black russian']
>>> wruss = drinks['white russian']
```

The following are examples of all the set operators. Some have special punctuation, some have special functions, and some have both. Let's use test sets a (contains 1 and 2) and b (contains 2 and 3):

```
>>> a = {1, 2}
>>> b = {2, 3}
```

As you saw earlier, you get the *intersection* (members common to both

sets) with the special punctuation symbol `&`. The set `intersection()` function does the same:

```
>>> a & b
{2}
>>> a.intersection(b)
{2}
```

This snippet uses our saved drink variables:

```
>>> bruss & wruss
{'kahlua', 'vodka'}
```

In this example, get the *union* (members of either set) by using `|` or the set `union()` function:

```
>>> a | b
{1, 2, 3}
>>> a.union(b)
{1, 2, 3}
```

And here's the alcoholic version:

```
>>> bruss | wruss
{'cream', 'kahlua', 'vodka'}
```

The *difference* (members of the first set but not the second) is obtained by using the character `-` or the `difference()` function:

```
>>> a - b
{1}
>>> a.difference(b)
{1}
```

```
>>> bruss - wruss
set()
>>> wruss - bruss
{'cream'}
```

By far, the most common set operations are union, intersection, and difference. I've included the others for completeness in the examples that follow, but you might never use them.

The *exclusive or* (items in one set or the other, but not both) uses `^` or `symmetric_difference()`:

```
>>> a ^ b
{1, 3}
>>> a.symmetric_difference(b)
{1, 3}
```

This finds the exclusive ingredient in our two russian drinks:

```
>>> bruss ^ wruss
{'cream'}
```

You can check whether one set is a *subset* of another (all members of the first set are also in the second set) by using `<=` or `issubset()`:

```
>>> a <= b
False
>>> a.issubset(b)
False
```

Adding cream to a black russian makes a white russian, so `wruss` is a superset of `bruss`:

```
>>> bruss <= wruss
True
```

Is any set a subset of itself? Yup.³

```
>>> a <= a
True
>>> a.issubset(a)
True
```

To be a *proper subset*, the second set needs to have all the members of the

first and more. Calculate it by using `<`, as in this example:

```
>>> a < b
False
>>> a < a
False
```

```
>>> bruss < wruss
True
```

A *superset* is the opposite of a subset (all members of the second set are also members of the first). This uses `>=` or `issuperset()`:

```
>>> a >= b
False
>>> a.issuperset(b)
False
```

```
>>> wruss >= bruss
True
```

Any set is a superset of itself:

```
>>> a >= a
True
>>> a.issuperset(a)
True
```

And finally, you can find a *proper superset* (the first set has all members of the second, and more) by using `>`, as shown here:

```
>>> a > b
False
```

```
>>> wruss > bruss
True
```

You can't be a proper superset of yourself:

```
>>> a > a
False
```

Set Comprehensions

No one wants to be left out, so even sets have comprehensions. The simplest version looks like the list and dictionary comprehensions that you've just seen:

```
{ expression for expression in iterable }
```

And it can have the optional condition tests:

```
{ expression for expression in iterable if condition }
```

```
>>> a_set = {number for number in range(1,6) if number % 3 == 1}
>>> a_set
{1, 4}
```

Create an Immutable Set with frozenset()

If you want to create a set that can't be changed, call the `frozenset()` function with any iterable argument:

```
>>> frozenset([3, 2, 1])
frozenset({1, 2, 3})
>>> frozenset(set([2, 1, 3]))
frozenset({1, 2, 3})
>>> frozenset({3, 1, 2})
frozenset({1, 2, 3})
>>> frozenset( (2, 3, 1) )
frozenset({1, 2, 3})
```

Is it really frozen?

```
>>> fs = frozenset([3, 2, 1])
>>> fs
frozenset({1, 2, 3})
>>> fs.add(4)
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

```
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>  
AttributeError: 'frozenset' object has no attribute 'add'
```

Yes, pretty frosty.

Data Structures So Far

To review, you *make*:

- A list by using square brackets (`[]`)
- A tuple by using commas and optional parentheses
- A dictionary or set by using curly brackets (`{}`)

For all but sets, you *access* a single element with square brackets. For the list and tuple, the value between the square brackets is an integer offset. For the dictionary, it's a key. For all three, the result is a value. For the set, it's either there or it's not; there's no index or key:

```
>>> marx_list = ['Groucho', 'Chico', 'Harpo']  
>>> marx_tuple = ('Groucho', 'Chico', 'Harpo')  
>>> marx_dict = {'Groucho': 'banjo', 'Chico': 'piano', 'Harpo': 'harp'}  
>>> marx_set = {'Groucho', 'Chico', 'Harpo'}  
>>> marx_list[2]  
'Harpo'  
>>> marx_tuple[2]  
'Harpo'  
>>> marx_dict['Harpo']  
'harp'  
>>> 'Harpo' in marx_list  
True  
>>> 'Harpo' in marx_tuple  
True  
>>> 'Harpo' in marx_dict  
True  
>>> 'Harpo' in marx_set  
True
```

Make Bigger Data Structures

We worked up from simple booleans, numbers, and strings to lists, tuples,

sets, and dictionaries. You can combine these built-in data structures into bigger, more complex structures of your own. Let's start with three different lists:

```
>>> marxex = ['Groucho', 'Chico', 'Harpo']
>>> pythons = ['Chapman', 'Cleese', 'Gilliam', 'Jones', 'Palin']
>>> stooges = ['Moe', 'Curly', 'Larry']
```

We can make a tuple that contains each list as an element:

```
>>> tuple_of_lists = marxex, pythons, stooges
>>> tuple_of_lists
(['Groucho', 'Chico', 'Harpo'],
 ['Chapman', 'Cleese', 'Gilliam', 'Jones', 'Palin'],
 ['Moe', 'Curly', 'Larry'])
```

And we can make a list that contains the three lists:

```
>>> list_of_lists = [marxex, pythons, stooges]
>>> list_of_lists
[['Groucho', 'Chico', 'Harpo'],
 ['Chapman', 'Cleese', 'Gilliam', 'Jones', 'Palin'],
 ['Moe', 'Curly', 'Larry']]
```

Finally, let's create a dictionary of lists. In this example, let's use the name of the comedy group as the key and the list of members as the value:

```
>>> dict_of_lists = {'Marxex': marxex, 'Pythons': pythons, 'Stooges': stooges}
>> dict_of_lists
{'Marxex': ['Groucho', 'Chico', 'Harpo'],
 'Pythons': ['Chapman', 'Cleese', 'Gilliam', 'Jones', 'Palin'],
 'Stooges': ['Moe', 'Curly', 'Larry']}
```

Your only limitations are those in the data types themselves. For example, dictionary keys need to be immutable, so a list, dictionary, or set can't be a key for another dictionary. But a tuple can be. For example, you could index sites of interest by GPS coordinates (latitude, longitude, and altitude; see [Chapter 21](#) for more mapping examples):

```
>>> houses = {
```

```
(44.79, -93.14, 285): 'My House',  
(38.89, -77.03, 13): 'The White House'  
}
```

Coming Up

Back to code structures. You'll learn how to wrap code in *functions*, and how to deal with *exceptions* when things go awry.

Things to Do

8.1 Make an English-to-French dictionary called `e2f` and print it. Here are your starter words: dog is chien, cat is chat, and walrus is morse.

8.2 Using your three-word dictionary `e2f`, print the French word for walrus.

8.3 Make a French-to-English dictionary called `f2e` from `e2f`. Use the `items` method.

8.4 Print the English equivalent of the French word `chien`.

8.5 Print the set of English words from `e2f`.

8.6 Make a multilevel dictionary called `life`. Use these strings for the topmost keys: 'animals', 'plants', and 'other'. Make the 'animals' key refer to another dictionary with the keys 'cats', 'octopi', and 'emus'. Make the 'cats' key refer to a list of strings with the values 'Henri', 'Grumpy', and 'Lucy'. Make all the other keys refer to empty dictionaries.

8.7 Print the top-level keys of `life`.

8.8 Print the keys for `life['animals']`.

8.9 Print the values for `life['animals']['cats']`.

8.10 Use a dictionary comprehension to create the dictionary `squares`.

Use `range(10)` to return the keys, and use the square of each key as its value.

8.11 Use a set comprehension to create the set `odd` from the odd numbers in `range(10)`.

8.12 Use a generator comprehension to return the string `'Got '` and a number for the numbers in `range(10)`. Iterate through this by using a `for` loop.

8.13 Use `zip()` to make a dictionary from the key tuple `('optimist', 'pessimist', 'troll')` and the values tuple `('The glass is half full', 'The glass is half empty', 'How did you get a glass?')`.

8.14 Use `zip()` to make a dictionary called `movies` that pairs these lists: `titles = ['Creature of Habit', 'Crewel Fate', 'Sharks On a Plane']` and `plots = ['A nun turns into a monster', 'A haunted yarn shop', 'Check your exits']`

1 Also, the final score in the Strontium-Carbon game.

2 According to lawyers and exorcists.

3 Although, paraphrasing Groucho Marx, “I wouldn’t want to belong to a club that would have someone like me as a member.”