This lesson will cover two essential Python types: **strings** and **dictionaries**.

Strings

One place where the Python language really shines is in the manipulation of strings. This section will cover some of Python's built-in string methods and formatting operations.

Such string manipulation patterns come up often in the context of data science work.

String syntax

You've already seen plenty of strings in examples during the previous lessons, but just to recap, strings in Python can be defined using either single or double quotations. They are functionally equivalent.

```
In [1]: x = 'Pluto is a planet'
y = "Pluto is a planet"
x == y
```

Out[1]: True

Double quotes are convenient if your string contains a single quote character (e.g. representing an apostrophe).

Similarly, it's easy to create a string that contains double-quotes if you wrap it in single quotes:

```
In [2]: print("Pluto's a planet!")
  print('My dog is named "Pluto"')
```

Pluto's a planet!
My dog is named "Pluto"

If we try to put a single quote character inside a single-quoted string, Python gets confused:

```
In [3]: 'Pluto's a planet!'

Cell In[3], line 1
    'Pluto's a planet!'
    ^
SyntaxError: unterminated string literal (detected at line 1)
```

We can fix this by "escaping" the single quote with a backslash.

```
Tn [4]: 'Pluto\'s a planet!'

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```

```
Out[4]: "Pluto's a planet!"
```

The table below summarizes some important uses of the backslash character.

The last sequence, \n , represents the *newline character*. It causes Python to start a new line.

```
In [5]: hello = "hello\nworld"
print(hello)
```

hello world

In addition, Python's triple quote syntax for strings lets us include newlines literally (i.e. by just hitting 'Enter' on our keyboard, rather than using the special '\n' sequence). We've already seen this in the docstrings we use to document our functions, but we can use them anywhere we want to define a string.

The print() function automatically adds a newline character unless we specify a value for the keyword argument end other than the default value of '\n':

```
In [7]: print("hello")
    print("world")
    print("hello", end='')
    print("pluto", end='')

hello
    world
```

Strings are sequences

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hellopluto

Strings can be thought of as sequences of characters. Almost everything we've seen that we can do to a list, we can also do to a string.

```
In [8]: # Indexing
         planet = 'Pluto'
         planet[0]
 Out[8]: 'P'
 In [9]: # Slicing
         planet[-3:]
 Out[9]: 'uto'
In [10]: # How long is this string?
         len(planet)
Out[10]: 5
In [11]: # Yes, we can even loop over them
         [char+'! ' for char in planet]
Out[11]: ['P! ', 'l! ', 'u! ', 't! ', 'o! ']
         But a major way in which they differ from lists is that they are immutable. We can't
         modify them.
In [12]: planet[0] = 'B'
         # planet.append doesn't work either
        TypeError
                                                    Traceback (most recent call last)
        Cell In[12], line 1
        ----> 1 planet[0] = 'B'
              2 # planet.append doesn't work either
        TypeError: 'str' object does not support item assignment
```

String methods

Like list, the type str has lots of very useful methods. I'll show just a few examples here.

```
In [13]: # ALL CAPS

claim = "Pluto is a planet!"

claim.upper()

Out[13]: 'PLUTO IS A PLANET!'

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Claim.cower()
```

```
Out[14]: 'pluto is a planet!'
In [15]: # Searching for the first index of a substring
          claim.index('plan')
Out[15]: 11
In [16]: claim.startswith(planet)
Out[16]: True
In [17]: # false because of missing exclamation mark
          claim.endswith('planet')
Out[17]: False
          Going between strings and lists: .split() and .join()
          str.split() turns a string into a list of smaller strings, breaking on whitespace by
          default. This is super useful for taking you from one big string to a list of words.
In [18]: words = claim.split()
          words
Out[18]: ['Pluto', 'is', 'a', 'planet!']
          Occasionally you'll want to split on something other than whitespace:
In [19]: datestr = '1956-01-31'
          year, month, day = datestr.split('-')
          str.join() takes us in the other direction, sewing a list of strings up into one long
          string, using the string it was called on as a separator.
In [20]:
          '/'.join([month, day, year])
Out[20]:
          '01/31/1956'
In [21]: # Yes, we can put unicode characters right in our string literals :)
          ' \( \) '.join([word.upper() for word in words])
Out[21]: 'PLUTO " IS " A " PLANET!'
```

Building strings with . format()

Python lets us concatenate strings with the + operator.

```
Loading [MathJax]/extensions/Safe.js We miss you.'
```

```
Out[22]: 'Pluto, we miss you.'
           If we want to throw in any non-string objects, we have to be careful to call str() on
           them first
 In [23]: position = 9
           planet + ", you'll always be the " + position + "th planet to me."
          TypeError
                                                      Traceback (most recent call last)
          Cell In[23], line 2
                1 position = 9
          ----> 2 planet + ", you'll always be the " + position + "th planet to me."
         TypeError: can only concatenate str (not "int") to str
 In [24]: planet + ", you'll always be the " + str(position) + "th planet to me."
 Out[24]: "Pluto, you'll always be the 9th planet to me."
           This is getting hard to read and annoying to type. str.format() to the rescue.
 In [25]: "{}, you'll always be the {}th planet to me.".format(planet, position)
 Out[25]: "Pluto, you'll always be the 9th planet to me."
           So much cleaner! We call .format() on a "format string", where the Python values we
           want to insert are represented with {} placeholders.
           Notice how we didn't even have to call str() to convert position from an int.
           format() takes care of that for us.
           If that was all that format() did, it would still be incredibly useful. But as it turns out, it
           can do a lot more. Here's just a taste:
 In [26]: pluto_mass = 1.303 * 10**22
           earth_mass = 5.9722 * 10**24
           population = 52910390
                     2 decimal points 3 decimal points, format as percent
           "{} weighs about {:.2} kilograms ({:.3%} of Earth's mass). It is home to {:,
               planet, pluto_mass, pluto_mass / earth_mass, population,
 Out[26]: "Pluto weighs about 1.3e+22 kilograms (0.218% of Earth's mass). It is home
           to 52,910,390 Plutonians."
 In [27]: # Referring to format() arguments by index, starting from 0
           s = """Pluto's a {0}.
           No, it's a {1}.
           {1}!""".format('planet', 'dwarf planet')
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```

```
Pluto's a planet.
No, it's a dwarf planet.
planet!
dwarf planet!
```

You could probably write a short book just on str.format, so I'll stop here, and point you to pyformat.info and the official docs for further reading.

Building strings with f-string

This is an alternative modernized way of building strings came with Python 3.6+

```
In [28]: f"{planet}, you'll always be the {position}th planet to me."
Out[28]: "Pluto, you'll always be the 9th planet to me."
Comparing to .format() command, f-string is cleaner. Especially, to do something like this

In [29]: pluto_mass = 1.303 * 10**22
    earth_mass = 5.9722 * 10**24
    population = 52910390
    pluto_earth_ratio = pluto_mass / earth_mass
    f"{planet} weighs about {pluto_mass:.2} kilograms ({pluto_earth_ratio:.3%} compared to 52,910,390 Plutonians."
```

Dictionaries

Dictionaries are a built-in Python data structure for mapping keys to values.

```
In [30]: numbers = {'one':1, 'two':2, 'three':3}
In this case 'one', 'two', and 'three' are the keys, and 1, 2 and 3 are their corresponding values.
```

Values are accessed via square bracket syntax similar to indexing into lists and strings.

```
In [31]: numbers['one']
Out[31]: 1
```

We can use the same syntax to add another key, value pair

```
In [32]: numbers ['eleven'] = 11

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```

```
Out[32]: {'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3, 'eleven': 11}
           Or to change the value associated with an existing key
 In [33]: numbers['one'] = 'Pluto'
           numbers
 Out[33]: {'one': 'Pluto', 'two': 2, 'three': 3, 'eleven': 11}
           Python has dictionary comprehensions with a syntax similar to the list comprehensions
           we saw in the previous tutorial.
 In [34]: planets = ['Mercury', 'Venus', 'Earth', 'Mars', 'Jupiter', 'Saturn', 'Uranus
           planet_to_initial = {planet: planet[0] for planet in planets}
           planet to initial
 Out[34]: {'Mercury': 'M',
             'Venus': 'V',
             'Earth': 'E',
             'Mars': 'M',
             'Jupiter': 'J',
             'Saturn': 'S',
             'Uranus': 'U',
             'Neptune': 'N'}
           The in operator tells us whether something is a key in the dictionary
            'Saturn' in planet_to_initial
 In [35]:
 Out[35]: True
 In [36]:
           'Betelgeuse' in planet_to_initial
 Out[36]: False
           A for loop over a dictionary will loop over its keys
 In [37]: for k in numbers:
                print("{} = {}".format(k, numbers[k]))
          one = Pluto
          two = 2
          three = 3
          eleven = 11
           We can access a collection of all the keys or all the values with dict.keys() and
           dict.values(), respectively.
 In [38]: # Get all the initials, sort them alphabetically, and put them in a space-se
            ' '.join(sorted(planet_to_initial.values()))
                        S U V'
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```

The very useful dict.items() method lets us iterate over the keys and values of a dictionary simultaneously. (In Python jargon, an **item** refers to a key, value pair)

```
In [39]: for planet, initial in planet_to_initial.items():
    print("{} begins with \"{}\"".format(planet.rjust(10), initial))

Mercury begins with "M"
    Venus begins with "V"
    Earth begins with "E"
    Mars begins with "M"
    Jupiter begins with "J"
    Saturn begins with "S"
    Uranus begins with "U"
    Neptune begins with "N"
```

To read a full inventory of dictionaries' methods, click the "output" button below to read the full help page, or check out the official online documentation.

```
In [40]: help(dict)
```

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Help on class dict in module builtins:

```
class dict(object)
              dict() -> new empty dictionary
              dict(mapping) -> new dictionary initialized from a mapping object's
                   (key, value) pairs
              dict(iterable) -> new dictionary initialized as if via:
                  for k, v in iterable:
                      d[k] = v
              dict(**kwargs) -> new dictionary initialized with the name=value pairs
                  in the keyword argument list. For example: dict(one=1, two=2)
              Built-in subclasses:
                  StgDict
              Methods defined here:
              __contains__(self, key, /)
                  True if the dictionary has the specified key, else False.
              __delitem__(self, key, /)
                  Delete self[key].
              __eq__(self, value, /)
                  Return self==value.
              __ge__(self, value, /)
                  Return self>=value.
              __getattribute__(self, name, /)
                  Return getattr(self, name).
              __getitem__(...)
                  x_{\underline{}} getitem__(y) <==> x[y]
              __gt__(self, value, /)
                  Return self>value.
              __init__(self, /, *args, **kwargs)
                  Initialize self. See help(type(self)) for accurate signature.
              __ior__(self, value, /)
                  Return self|=value.
              __iter__(self, /)
                  Implement iter(self).
              __le__(self, value, /)
                  Return self<=value.
              __len__(self, /)
                  Return len(self).
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```

```
_ne__(self, value, /)
        Return self!=value.
    __or__(self, value, /)
        Return self|value.
    __repr__(self, /)
        Return repr(self).
    __reversed__(self, /)
        Return a reverse iterator over the dict keys.
    __ror__(self, value, /)
        Return value|self.
    __setitem__(self, key, value, /)
        Set self[key] to value.
    __sizeof__(...)
        D.__sizeof__() -> size of D in memory, in bytes
   clear(...)
        D.clear() -> None. Remove all items from D.
    copy(...)
        D.copy() -> a shallow copy of D
    get(self, key, default=None, /)
        Return the value for key if key is in the dictionary, else default.
    items(...)
        D.items() -> a set-like object providing a view on D's items
    keys(...)
        D.keys() -> a set-like object providing a view on D's keys
    pop(...)
        D.pop(k[,d]) \rightarrow v, remove specified key and return the corresponding
value.
        If the key is not found, return the default if given; otherwise,
        raise a KeyError.
    popitem(self, /)
        Remove and return a (key, value) pair as a 2-tuple.
        Pairs are returned in LIFO (last-in, first-out) order.
        Raises KeyError if the dict is empty.
    setdefault(self, key, default=None, /)
        Insert key with a value of default if key is not in the dictionary.
        Return the value for key if key is in the dictionary, else default.
```

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```
D.update([E, ]**F) -> None. Update D from dict/iterable E and F.
       If E is present and has a .keys() method, then does: for k in E: D
[k] = E[k]
       If E is present and lacks a .keys() method, then does: for k, v in
E: D[k] = v
       In either case, this is followed by: for k in F: D[k] = F[k]
   values(...)
       D.values() -> an object providing a view on D's values
   Class methods defined here:
   __class_getitem__(...) from builtins.type
       See PEP 585
  fromkeys(iterable, value=None, /) from builtins.type
       Create a new dictionary with keys from iterable and values set to va
lue.
        _____
   Static methods defined here:
   __new__(*args, **kwargs) from builtins.type
       Create and return a new object. See help(type) for accurate signatu
re.
   Data and other attributes defined here:
  __hash__ = None
```

Your Turn

You've learned a lot of Python... go **demonstrate your new skills** with some realistic programming applications.

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