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Where X=python

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Python was created by Guido Van Rossum in the early 90s. It is now one of the most popular languages in existence. I fell in love with Python for its syntactic clarity. It's basically executable pseudocode.

Feedback would be highly appreciated! You can reach me at [@louiedinh](#) or [louiedinh \[at\] \[google's email service\]](#)

Note: This article applies to Python 2.7 specifically, but should be applicable to Python 2.x. Python 2.7 is reaching end of life and will stop being maintained in 2020, it is though recommended to start learning Python with Python 3. For Python 3.x, take a look at the [Python 3 tutorial](#).

It is also possible to write Python code which is compatible with Python 2.7 and 3.x at the same time, using Python [__future__ imports](#). `__future__` imports allow you to write Python 3 code that will run on Python 2, so check out the Python 3 tutorial.

```
# Single line comments start with a number symbol.
```

```
""" Multiline strings can be written
```

using three "s, and are often used
as comments

```
"""
```

```
#####
```

```
# 1. Primitive Datatypes and Operators
```

```
#####
```

```
# You have numbers
```

```
3 # => 3
```

```
# Math is what you would expect
```

```
1 + 1 # => 2
```

```
8 - 1 # => 7
```

```
10 * 2 # => 20
```

```
35 / 5 # => 7
```

```
# Division is a bit tricky. It is integer division and  
# floors the results
```

```
# automatically.
```

```
5 / 2 # => 2
```

```
# To fix division we need to learn about floats.

2.0 # This is a float

11.0 / 4.0 # => 2.75 ahhh...much better


# Result of integer division truncated down both for
# positive and negative.

5 // 3 # => 1

5.0 // 3.0 # => 1.0 # works on floats too

-5 // 3 # => -2

-5.0 // 3.0 # => -2.0


# Note that we can also import division module(Section
# 6 Modules)

# to carry out normal division with just one '/'.

from __future__ import division


11 / 4 # => 2.75 ...normal division

11 // 4 # => 2 ...floored division


# Modulo operation

7 % 3 # => 1
```

```
# Exponentiation (x to the yth power)
```

```
2 ** 4  # => 16
```

```
# Enforce precedence with parentheses
```

```
(1 + 3) * 2  # => 8
```

```
# Boolean Operators
```

```
# Note "and" and "or" are case-sensitive
```

```
True and False  # => False
```

```
False or True   # => True
```

```
# Note using Bool operators with ints
```

```
0 and 2  # => 0
```

```
-5 or 0  # => -5
```

```
0 == False  # => True
```

```
2 == True   # => False
```

```
1 == True   # => True
```

```
# negate with not
```

```
not True  # => False
```

```
not False # => True
```

```
# Equality is ==
1 == 1 # => True
2 == 1 # => False

# Inequality is !=
1 != 1 # => False
2 != 1 # => True

# More comparisons
1 < 10 # => True
1 > 10 # => False
2 <= 2 # => True
2 >= 2 # => True

# Comparisons can be chained!
1 < 2 < 3 # => True
2 < 3 < 2 # => False

# Strings are created with " or '
"This is a string."
'This is also a string.'
```

```
# Strings can be added too!

"Hello " + "world!" # => "Hello world!"

# Strings can be added without using '+'

"Hello " "world!" # => "Hello world!"


# ... or multiplied

"Hello" * 3 # => "HelloHelloHello"


# A string can be treated like a list of characters

"This is a string"[0] # => 'T'


# You can find the length of a string

len("This is a string") # => 16


# String formatting with %

# Even though the % string operator will be deprecated
# on Python 3.1 and removed

# later at some time, it may still be good to know how
# it works.

x = 'apple'

y = 'lemon'

z = "The items in the basket are %s and %s" % (x, y)
```

A newer way to format strings is the format method.

This method is the preferred way

```
"{} is a {}".format("This", "placeholder")
```

```
"{0} can be {1}".format("strings", "formatted")
```

You can use keywords if you don't want to count.

```
"{name} wants to eat {food}".format(name="Bob",  
food="lasagna")
```

None is an object

```
None # => None
```

Don't use the equality "==" symbol to compare objects to None

Use "is" instead

```
"etc" is None # => False
```

```
None is None # => True
```

The 'is' operator tests for object identity. This isn't

very useful when dealing with primitive values, but is

very useful when dealing with objects.

```

# Any object can be used in a Boolean context.
# The following values are considered falsey:
#     - None
#     - zero of any numeric type (e.g., 0, 0L, 0.0, 0j)
#     - empty sequences (e.g., '', (), [])
#     - empty containers (e.g., {}, set())
#     - instances of user-defined classes meeting
certain conditions
#     see:
https://docs.python.org/2/reference/datamodel.html#object.\_\_nonzero\_\_
#
# All other values are truthy (using the bool()
function on them returns True).

bool(0)    # => False
bool("")   # => False

#####

# 2. Variables and Collections

#####

```



```
# Python has a print statement

print "I'm Python. Nice to meet you!" # => I'm Python.
Nice to meet you!


# Simple way to get input data from console

input_string_var = raw_input(

    "Enter some data: ") # Returns the data as a
string

input_var = input("Enter some data: ") # Evaluates the
data as python code


# Warning: Caution is recommended for input() method
usage


# Note: In python 3, input() is deprecated and
raw_input() is renamed to input()


# No need to declare variables before assigning to
them.

some_var = 5 # Convention is to use
lower_case_with_underscores

some_var # => 5


# Accessing a previously unassigned variable is an
exception.


# See Control Flow to learn more about exception
handling.
```

```
some_other_var  # Raises a name error

# if can be used as an expression
# Equivalent of C's '?:' ternary operator
"yahoo!" if 3 > 2 else 2  # => "yahoo!"

# Lists store sequences

li = []

# You can start with a prefilled list
other_li = [4, 5, 6]

# Add stuff to the end of a list with append
li.append(1)  # li is now [1]
li.append(2)  # li is now [1, 2]
li.append(4)  # li is now [1, 2, 4]
li.append(3)  # li is now [1, 2, 4, 3]

# Remove from the end with pop
li.pop()  # => 3 and li is now [1, 2, 4]

# Let's put it back
li.append(3)  # li is now [1, 2, 4, 3] again.

# Access a list like you would any array
```

```
li[0]    # => 1

# Assign new values to indexes that have already been
# initialized with =

li[0] = 42

li[0]    # => 42

li[0] = 1  # Note: setting it back to the original
# value

# Look at the last element

li[-1]    # => 3


# Looking out of bounds is an IndexError

li[4]     # Raises an IndexError


# You can look at ranges with slice syntax.
# (It's a closed/open range for you mathy types.)

li[1:3]    # => [2, 4]

# Omit the beginning

li[2:]     # => [4, 3]

# Omit the end

li[:3]     # => [1, 2, 4]

# Select every second entry

li[::2]     # => [1, 4]
```

```
# Reverse a copy of the list
li[::-1] # => [3, 4, 2, 1]

# Use any combination of these to make advanced slices
# li[start:end:step]

# Remove arbitrary elements from a list with "del"
del li[2] # li is now [1, 2, 3]

# You can add lists
li + other_li # => [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]

# Note: values for li and for other_li are not
modified.

# Concatenate lists with "extend()"
li.extend(other_li) # Now li is [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]

# Remove first occurrence of a value
li.remove(2) # li is now [1, 3, 4, 5, 6]

li.remove(2) # Raises a ValueError as 2 is not in the
list

# Insert an element at a specific index
```

```
li.insert(1, 2)  # li is now [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6] again

# Get the index of the first item found
li.index(2)  # => 1

li.index(7)  # Raises a ValueError as 7 is not in the
list

# Check for existence in a list with "in"
1 in li  # => True

# Examine the length with "len()"
len(li)  # => 6

# Tuples are like lists but are immutable.
tup = (1, 2, 3)
tup[0]  # => 1
tup[0] = 3  # Raises a TypeError

# You can do all those list thingies on tuples too
len(tup)  # => 3
tup + (4, 5, 6)  # => (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
tup[:2]  # => (1, 2)
```

```
2 in tup    # => True

# You can unpack tuples (or lists) into variables
a, b, c = (1, 2, 3)    # a is now 1, b is now 2 and c is
                        now 3

d, e, f = 4, 5, 6    # you can leave out the parentheses

# Tuples are created by default if you leave out the
parentheses

g = 4, 5, 6    # => (4, 5, 6)

# Now look how easy it is to swap two values
e, d = d, e    # d is now 5 and e is now 4


# Dictionaries store mappings
empty_dict = {}

# Here is a prefilled dictionary
filled_dict = {"one": 1, "two": 2, "three": 3}

# Look up values with []
filled_dict["one"]    # => 1

# Get all keys as a list with "keys()"
filled_dict.keys()    # => ["three", "two", "one"]
```

```
# Note - Dictionary key ordering is not guaranteed.
# Your results might not match this exactly.

# Get all values as a list with "values()"
filled_dict.values()  # => [3, 2, 1]

# Note - Same as above regarding key ordering.

# Get all key-value pairs as a list of tuples with
"items()"
filled_dicts.items()  # => [("one", 1), ("two", 2),
("three", 3)]

# Check for existence of keys in a dictionary with "in"
"one" in filled_dict  # => True
1 in filled_dict      # => False

# Looking up a non-existing key is a KeyError
filled_dict["four"]  # KeyError

# Use "get()" method to avoid the KeyError
filled_dict.get("one")  # => 1
filled_dict.get("four")  # => None
```

```
# The get method supports a default argument when the
value is missing

filled_dict.get("one", 4)  # => 1

filled_dict.get("four", 4)  # => 4

# note that filled_dict.get("four") is still => None
# (get doesn't set the value in the dictionary)


# set the value of a key with a syntax similar to lists
filled_dict["four"] = 4  # now, filled_dict["four"] =>
4


# "setdefault()" inserts into a dictionary only if the
given key isn't present

filled_dict.setdefault("five", 5)  #
filled_dict["five"] is set to 5

filled_dict.setdefault("five", 6)  #
filled_dict["five"] is still 5


# Sets store ... well sets (which are like lists but
can contain no duplicates)

empty_set = set()

# Initialize a "set()" with a bunch of values

some_set = set([1, 2, 2, 3, 4])  # some_set is now
set([1, 2, 3, 4])
```



```
# order is not guaranteed, even though it may sometimes look sorted
```

```
another_set = set([4, 3, 2, 2, 1]) # another_set is now set([1, 2, 3, 4])
```

```
# Since Python 2.7, {} can be used to declare a set
```

```
filled_set = {1, 2, 2, 3, 4} # => {1, 2, 3, 4}
```

```
# Add more items to a set
```

```
filled_set.add(5) # filled_set is now {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}
```

```
# Do set intersection with &
```

```
other_set = {3, 4, 5, 6}
```

```
filled_set & other_set # => {3, 4, 5}
```

```
# Do set union with |
```

```
filled_set | other_set # => {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}
```

```
# Do set difference with -
```

```
{1, 2, 3, 4} - {2, 3, 5} # => {1, 4}
```

```

# Do set symmetric difference with ^
{1, 2, 3, 4} ^ {2, 3, 5} # => {1, 4, 5}

# Check if set on the left is a superset of set on the
right
{1, 2} >= {1, 2, 3} # => False

# Check if set on the left is a subset of set on the
right
{1, 2} <= {1, 2, 3} # => True

# Check for existence in a set with in
2 in filled_set # => True
10 in filled_set # => False

#####

# 3. Control Flow

#####

# Let's just make a variable
some_var = 5

```

```
# Here is an if statement. Indentation is significant in python!
```

```
# prints "some_var is smaller than 10"
```

```
if some_var > 10:
```

```
    print "some_var is totally bigger than 10."
```

```
elif some_var < 10: # This elif clause is optional.
```

```
    print "some_var is smaller than 10."
```

```
else: # This is optional too.
```

```
    print "some_var is indeed 10."
```

```
"""
```

```
For loops iterate over lists
```

```
prints:
```

```
    dog is a mammal
```

```
    cat is a mammal
```

```
    mouse is a mammal
```

```
"""
```

```
for animal in ["dog", "cat", "mouse"]:
```

```
    # You can use {0} to interpolate formatted strings.  
(See above.)
```

```
    print "{0} is a mammal".format(animal)
```

```
"""
```

```
"range(number)" returns a list of numbers  
from zero to the given number
```

```
prints:
```

```
0
```

```
1
```

```
2
```

```
3
```

```
"""
```

```
for i in range(4):
```

```
    print i
```

```
"""
```

```
"range(lower, upper)" returns a list of numbers  
from the lower number to the upper number
```

```
prints:
```

```
4
```

```
5
```

```
6
```

```
7
```

```
"""
```

```
for i in range(4, 8):
```

```
    print i
```

```
"""
```

While loops go until a condition is no longer met.

prints:

0

1

2

3

```
"""
```

```
x = 0
```

```
while x < 4:
```

```
    print x
```

```
    x += 1  # Shorthand for x = x + 1
```

Handle exceptions with a try/except block

Works on Python 2.6 and up:

```
try:
```

```
    # Use "raise" to raise an error
```

```
    raise IndexError("This is an index error")
```

```

except IndexError as e:

    pass # Pass is just a no-op. Usually you would do
    recovery here.

except (TypeError, NameError):

    pass # Multiple exceptions can be handled
    together, if required.

else: # Optional clause to the try/except block. Must
    follow all except blocks

    print "All good!" # Runs only if the code in try
    raises no exceptions

finally: # Execute under all circumstances

    print "We can clean up resources here"

# Instead of try/finally to cleanup resources you can
use a with statement

with open("myfile.txt") as f:

    for line in f:

        print line

#####

# 4. Functions

#####

```

```
# Use "def" to create new functions

def add(x, y):

    print "x is {0} and y is {1}".format(x, y)

    return x + y # Return values with a return
statement


# Calling functions with parameters

add(5, 6) # => prints out "x is 5 and y is 6" and
returns 11


# Another way to call functions is with keyword
arguments

add(y=6, x=5) # Keyword arguments can arrive in any
order.


# You can define functions that take a variable number
of

# positional args, which will be interpreted as a tuple
by using *

def varargs(*args):

    return args
```

```
varargs(1, 2, 3)  # => (1, 2, 3)
```

```
# You can define functions that take a variable number  
of
```

```
# keyword args, as well, which will be interpreted as a  
dict by using **
```

```
def keyword_args(**kwargs):  
    return kwargs
```

```
# Let's call it to see what happens
```

```
keyword_args(big="foot", loch="ness")  # => {"big":  
"foot", "loch": "ness"}
```

```
# You can do both at once, if you like
```

```
def all_the_args(*args, **kwargs):  
    print args  
    print kwargs
```



```
"""
```

```
all_the_args(1, 2, a=3, b=4) prints:
```

```
(1, 2)
```

```
{"a": 3, "b": 4}
```

```
"""
```

```
# When calling functions, you can do the opposite of  
args/kwargs!
```

```
# Use * to expand positional args and use ** to expand  
keyword args.
```

```
args = (1, 2, 3, 4)
```

```
kwargs = {"a": 3, "b": 4}
```

```
all_the_args(*args) # equivalent to foo(1, 2, 3, 4)
```

```
all_the_args(**kwargs) # equivalent to foo(a=3, b=4)
```

```
all_the_args(*args, **kwargs) # equivalent to foo(1,  
2, 3, 4, a=3, b=4)
```

```
# you can pass args and kwargs along to other functions  
that take args/kwargs
```

```
# by expanding them with * and ** respectively
```

```
def pass_all_the_args(*args, **kwargs):
```

```
    all_the_args(*args, **kwargs)
```

```
print varargs(*args)

print keyword_args(**kwargs)
```

```
# Function Scope
```

```
x = 5
```

```
def set_x(num):
```

```
    # Local var x not the same as global variable x
```

```
    x = num    # => 43
```

```
    print x    # => 43
```

```
def set_global_x(num):
```

```
    global x
```

```
    print x    # => 5
```

```
    x = num    # global var x is now set to 6
```

```
    print x    # => 6
```

```
set_x(43)
```

```
set_global_x(6)
```

```
# Python has first class functions
```

```
def create_adder(x):
```

```
    def adder(y):
```

```
        return x + y
```

```
    return adder
```

```
add_10 = create_adder(10)
```

```
add_10(3)  # => 13
```

```
# There are also anonymous functions
```

```
(lambda x: x > 2)(3)  # => True
```

```
(lambda x, y: x ** 2 + y ** 2)(2, 1)  # => 5
```

```
# There are built-in higher order functions
```

```
map(add_10, [1, 2, 3])  # => [11, 12, 13]
```

```
map(max, [1, 2, 3], [4, 2, 1])  # => [4, 2, 3]
```

```
filter(lambda x: x > 5, [3, 4, 5, 6, 7])  # => [6, 7]
```

```
# We can use list comprehensions for nice maps and filters
```

```
[add_10(i) for i in [1, 2, 3]]  # => [11, 12, 13]
```

```
[x for x in [3, 4, 5, 6, 7] if x > 5]  # => [6, 7]
```

```
# You can construct set and dict comprehensions as well.
```

```
{x for x in 'abcddeef' if x in 'abc'}  # => {'a', 'b', 'c'}
```

```
{x: x ** 2 for x in range(5)}  # => {0: 0, 1: 1, 2: 4, 3: 9, 4: 16}
```

```
#####
```

```
# 5. Classes
```

```
#####
```

```
# We subclass from object to get a class.
```

```
class Human(object):
```

```
    # A class attribute. It is shared by all instances of this class
```

```
    species = "H. sapiens"
```

Basic initializer, this is called when this class is instantiated.

Note that the double leading and trailing underscores denote objects

or attributes that are used by python but that live in user-controlled

namespaces. You should not invent such names on your own.

```
def __init__(self, name):
```

Assign the argument to the instance's name attribute

```
self.name = name
```

Initialize property

```
self.age = 0
```

An instance method. All methods take "self" as the first argument

```
def say(self, msg):
```

```
    return "{0}: {1}".format(self.name, msg)
```

A class method is shared among all instances

They are called with the calling class as the first argument

@classmethod

```
def get_species(cls):  
    return cls.species
```

A static method is called without a class or instance reference

@staticmethod

```
def grunt() :  
    return "*grunt*"
```

A property is just like a getter.

It turns the method age() into an read-only attribute

of the same name.

@property

```
def age(self):  
    return self._age
```

This allows the property to be set

@age.setter

```
def age(self, age):
```

```
        self._age = age

    # This allows the property to be deleted

    @age.deleter

    def age(self):

        del self._age


# Instantiate a class

i = Human(name="Ian")

print i.say("hi")    # prints out "Ian: hi"


j = Human("Joel")

print j.say("hello") # prints out "Joel: hello"


# Call our class method

i.get_species()    # => "H. sapiens"


# Change the shared attribute

Human.species = "H. neanderthalensis"

i.get_species()    # => "H. neanderthalensis"

j.get_species()    # => "H. neanderthalensis"
```

```
# Call the static method
Human.grunt() # => "*grunt*"

# Update the property
i.age = 42

# Get the property
i.age # => 42

# Delete the property
del i.age
i.age # => raises an AttributeError

#####

# 6. Modules

#####

# You can import modules
import math

print math.sqrt(16) # => 4
```


You can get specific functions from a module

```
from math import ceil, floor
```

```
print ceil(3.7)  # => 4.0
```

```
print floor(3.7)  # => 3.0
```

You can import all functions from a module.

Warning: this is not recommended

```
from math import *
```

You can shorten module names

```
import math as m
```

```
math.sqrt(16) == m.sqrt(16)  # => True
```

you can also test that the functions are equivalent

```
from math import sqrt
```

```
math.sqrt == m.sqrt == sqrt  # => True
```

Python modules are just ordinary python files. You

can write your own, and import them. The name of the

```
# module is the same as the name of the file.
```

```
# You can find out which functions and attributes
```

```
# defines a module.
```

```
import math
```

```
dir(math)
```

```
# If you have a Python script named math.py in the same
```

```
# folder as your current script, the file math.py will
```

```
# be loaded instead of the built-in Python module.
```

```
# This happens because the local folder has priority
```

```
# over Python's built-in libraries.
```

```
#####
```

```
# 7. Advanced
```

```
#####
```

```
# Generators
```

A generator "generates" values as they are requested instead of storing

everything up front

*# The following method (*NOT* a generator) will double all values and store it*

in `double_arr`. For large size of iterables, that might get huge!

```
def double_numbers(iterable):
```

```
    double_arr = []
```

```
    for i in iterable:
```

```
        double_arr.append(i + i)
```

```
    return double_arr
```

Running the following would mean we'll double all values first and return all

of them back to be checked by our condition

```
for value in double_numbers(range(1000000)): #  
    `test_non_generator`
```

```
    print value
```

```
    if value > 5:
```

```
        break
```

```
# We could instead use a generator to "generate" the  
doubled value as the item
```

```
# is being requested
```

```
def double_numbers_generator(iterable):
```

```
    for i in iterable:
```

```
        yield i + i
```

```
# Running the same code as before, but with a  
generator, now allows us to iterate
```

```
# over the values and doubling them one by one as they  
are being consumed by
```

```
# our logic. Hence as soon as we see a value > 5, we  
break out of the
```

```
# loop and don't need to double most of the values sent  
in (MUCH FASTER!)
```

```
for value in double_numbers_generator(xrange(1000000)):
```

```
    # `test_generator`
```

```
        print value
```

```
        if value > 5:
```

```
            break
```

```
# BTW: did you notice the use of `range` in
`test_non_generator` and `xrange` in `test_generator`?

# Just as `double_numbers_generator` is the generator
version of `double_numbers`

# We have `xrange` as the generator version of `range`

# `range` would return back an array with 1000000
values for us to use

# `xrange` would generate 1000000 values for us as we
request / iterate over those items


# Just as you can create a list comprehension, you can
create generator

# comprehensions as well.

values = (-x for x in [1, 2, 3, 4, 5])

for x in values:

    print(x) # prints -1 -2 -3 -4 -5 to
console/terminal


# You can also cast a generator comprehension directly
to a list.

values = (-x for x in [1, 2, 3, 4, 5])

gen_to_list = list(values)

print(gen_to_list) # => [-1, -2, -3, -4, -5]
```

```
# Decorators

# A decorator is a higher order function, which accepts
and returns a function.

# Simple usage example - add_apples decorator will add
'Apple' element into

# fruits list returned by get_fruits target function.

def add_apples(func):

    def get_fruits():

        fruits = func()

        fruits.append('Apple')

        return fruits

    return get_fruits

@add_apples

def get_fruits():

    return ['Banana', 'Mango', 'Orange']

# Prints out the list of fruits with 'Apple' element in
it:

# Banana, Mango, Orange, Apple

print ', '.join(get_fruits())

# in this example beg wraps say
```

```
# Beg will call say. If say_please is True then it will  
change the returned
```

```
# message
```

```
from functools import wraps
```

```
def beg(target_function):
```

```
    @wraps(target_function)
```

```
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
```

```
        msg, say_please = target_function(*args,  
**kwargs)
```

```
        if say_please:
```

```
            return "{} {}".format(msg, "Please! I am  
poor :(")
```

```
        return msg
```

```
    return wrapper
```

```
@beg
```

```
def say(say_please=False):
```

```
    msg = "Can you buy me a beer?"
```

```
    return msg, say_please
```

```
print say()    # Can you buy me a beer?

print say(say_please=True)    # Can you buy me a beer?
Please! I am poor :(
```

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Originally contributed by Louie Dinh, and updated by [60 contributor\(s\)](#).



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