

String methods

The `capitalize()` method

Let's go through some standard Python string methods. We're going to go through them in alphabetical order - to be honest, any order has as many disadvantages as advantages, so the choice may as well be random.

The `capitalize()` method does exactly what it says - **it creates a new string filled with characters taken from the source string**, but it tries to modify them in the following way:

- **if the first character inside the string is a letter** (note: the first character is an element with an index equal to 0, not just the first visible character), **it will be converted to upper-case;**
- **all remaining letters from the string will be converted to lower-case.**

Don't forget that:

- the original string (from which the method is invoked) is not changed in any way (a string's immutability must be obeyed without reservation)
- the modified (capitalized in this case) string is returned as a result - if you don't use it in any way (assign it to a variable, or pass it to a function/method) it will disappear without a trace.

Note: methods don't have to be invoked from within variables only. They can be invoked directly from within string literals. We're going to use that convention regularly - it will simplify the examples, as the most important aspects will not disappear among unnecessary assignments.

Take a look at the example.

```
1 # Demonstrating the capitalize() method
2 print('aBcD'.capitalize())
```

Run it.

This is what it prints:

```
Abcd
```

Try some more advanced examples and test their output:

```
print("Alpha".capitalize())
print('ALPHA'.capitalize())
print(' Alpha'.capitalize())
print('123'.capitalize())
print("αβγδ".capitalize())
```

The `center()` method

The one-parameter variant of the `center()` method makes a copy of the original string, trying to center it inside a field of a specified width.

The centering is actually done by **adding some spaces before and after the string**.

Don't expect this method to demonstrate any sophisticated skills. It's rather simple.

The example below uses brackets to clearly show you where the centered string actually begins and terminates.

```
1 # Demonstrating the center() method
2 print('[' + 'alpha'.center(10) + ']')
```

Its output looks as follows:

```
[ alpha ]
```

If the target field's length is too small to fit the string, the original string is returned.

You can see the `center()` method in more examples here:

```
print('[' + 'Beta'.center(2) + ']')
print('[' + 'Beta'.center(4) + ']')
print('[' + 'Beta'.center(6) + ']')
```

Run the snippets above and check what output they produce.

The two-parameter variant of `center()` makes use of the character from the second argument, instead of a space. Analyze the example below:

```
print('[' + 'gamma'.center(20, '*') + ']')
```

This is why the output now looks like this:

```
[*****gamma*****]
```

Carry out more experiments.

The `endswith()` method

The `endswith()` method **checks if the given string ends with the specified argument and returns `True` or `False`**, depending on the check result.

Note: the substring must adhere to the string's last character - it cannot just be located somewhere near the end of the string.

Look at our example, analyze it, and run it.

```

1 # Demonstrating the endswith() method
2 if "epsilon".endswith("on"):
3     print("yes")
4 else:
5     print("no")

```

It outputs:

```
yes
```

You should now be able to predict the output of the snippet below:

```

t = "zeta"
print(t.endswith("a"))
print(t.endswith("A"))
print(t.endswith("et"))
print(t.endswith("eta"))

```

Run the code to check your predictions.

The `find()` method

The `find()` method is similar to `index()`, which you already know - **it looks for a substring and returns the index of first occurrence of this substring**, but:

- it's safer - it **doesn't generate an error for an argument containing a non-existent substring** (it returns `-1` then)
- it **works with strings only** - don't try to apply it to any other sequence.

Look at the code.

```

1 # Demonstrating the find() method
2 print("Eta".find("ta"))
3 print("Eta".find("mma"))

```

This is how you can use it.

The example prints:

```

1
-1

```

Note: don't use `find()` if you only want to check if a single character occurs within a string - the `in`

Here is another example:

```

t = 'theta'
print(t.find('eta'))
print(t.find('et'))
print(t.find('the'))
print(t.find('ha'))

```

Can you predict the output? Run it and check your predictions.

If you want to perform the find, not from the string's beginning, but **from any position**, you can use a **two-parameter variant** of the `find()` method. Look at the example:

```
print('kappa'.find('a', 2))
```

The second argument **specifies the index at which the search will be started (it doesn't have to fit inside the string)**.

Among the two *a* letters, only the second will be found. Run the snippet and check.

You can use the `find()` method to search for all the substring's occurrences, like here:

```
txt = """A variation of the ordinary lorem ipsum  
text has been used in typesetting since the 1960s  
or earlier, when it was popularized by advertisements  
for Letraset transfer sheets. It was introduced to  
the Information Age in the mid-1980s by the Aldus Corporation,  
which employed it in graphics and word-processing templates  
for its desktop publishing program PageMaker (from Wikipedia)"""
```

```
fnd = txt.find('the')  
while fnd != -1:  
    print(fnd)  
    fnd = txt.find('the', fnd + 1)
```

The code prints the indices of all occurrences of the article *the*, and its output looks like this:

```
15  
80  
198  
221  
238
```

There is also a **three-parameter mutation of the `find()` method** - the third argument **points to the first index which won't be taken into consideration during the search** (it's actually the upper limit of the search).

Look at our example below:

```
print('kappa'.find('a', 1, 4))  
print('kappa'.find('a', 2, 4))
```

The second argument specifies the index at which the search will be started (it doesn't have to fit inside the string).

Therefore, the modified example outputs:

```
1  
-1
```

(a cannot be found within the given search boundaries in the second `print()`).

The `isalnum()` method

The parameterless method named `isalnum()` **checks if the string contains only digits or alphabetical characters (letters), and returns `True` or `False`** according to the result.

Look at the example and run it.

```
1 # Demonstrating the isalnum() method
2 print('lambda30'.isalnum())
3 print('lambda'.isalnum())
4 print('30'.isalnum())
5 print('@'.isalnum())
6 print('lambda_30'.isalnum())
7 print('').isalnum()
```

Note: any string element that is not a digit or a letter causes the method to return `False`. An empty string does, too.

The example output is:

```
True
True
True
False
False
False
```

Three more intriguing examples are here:

```
t = 'Six lambdas'
print(t.isalnum())
```

```
t = 'AβΓδ'
print(t.isalnum())
```

```
t = '20E1'
print(t.isalnum())
```

Run them and check their output.

Hint: the cause of the first result is a space - it's neither a digit nor a letter.

The `isalpha()` method

The `isalpha()` method is more specialized - it's interested in **letters only**.

```

1 # Example 1: Demonstrating the isalpha() method
2 print("Moooo".isalpha())
3 print('Mu40'.isalpha())
4
5 # Example 2: Demonstrating the isdigit() method
6 print('2018'.isdigit())
7 print("Year2019".isdigit())

```

Look at Example 1 - its output is:

```

True
False

```

The isdigit() method

In turn, the `isdigit()` method looks at **digits only** - anything else produces `False` as the result.

Look at Example 2 - its output is:

```

True
False

```

Carry out more experiments.

The islower() method

The `islower()` method is a fussy variant of `isalpha()` - it accepts **lower-case letters only**.

```

1 # Example 1: Demonstrating the islower() method
2 print("Moooo".islower())
3 print('moooo'.islower())
4
5 # Example 2: Demonstrating the isspace() method
6 print(' \n '.isspace())
7 print(" ".isspace())
8 print("mooo mooo".isspace())
9
10 # Example 3: Demonstrating the isupper() method
11 print("Moooo".isupper())
12 print('moooo'.isupper())
13 print('MOOOO'.isupper())

```

Look at Example 1 in the editor - it outputs:

```

False
True

```

The isspace() method

The `isspace()` method **identifies whitespaces only** - it disregards any other character (the result is `False` then).

Look at Example 2 in the editor - the output is:

```
True
True
False
```

The `isupper()` method

The `isupper()` method is the upper-case version of `islower()` - it concentrates on **upper-case letters only**.

Again, Look at the code in the editor - Example 3 produces the following output:

```
False
False
True
```

The `join()` method

The `join()` method is rather complicated, so let us guide you step by step thorough it:

- as its name suggests, the method **performs a join** - it expects one argument as a list; it must be assured that all the list's elements are strings - the method will raise a `TypeError` exception otherwise;
- all the list's elements will be **joined into one string** but...
- ...the string from which the method has been invoked is **used as a separator**, put among the strings;
- the newly created string is returned as a result.

Take a look at the example.

```
1 # Demonstrating the join() method
2 print(",".join(["omicron", "pi", "rho"]))
```

Let's analyze it:

- the `join()` method is invoked from within a string containing a comma (the string can be arbitrarily long, or it can be empty)
- the `join()`'s argument is a list containing three strings;
- the method returns a new string.

Here it is:

```
omicron,pi,rh
```

The `lower()` method

The `lower()` method **makes a copy of a source string, replaces all upper-case letters with their lower-case counterparts**, and returns the string as the result. Again, the source string remains untouched.

If the string doesn't contain any upper-case characters, the method returns the original string.

Note: The `lower()` method doesn't take any parameters.

```
1 # Demonstrating the lower() method
2 print("SiGmA=60".lower())
```

The example outputs:

```
sigma=60
```

As usual, carry out your own experiments.

The `lstrip()` method

The parameterless `lstrip()` method **returns a newly created string formed from the original one by removing all leading whitespaces**.

Analyze the example code.

```
1 # Demonstrating the lstrip() method
2 print "[" + " tau ".lstrip() + "]"
```

The brackets are not a part of the result - they only show the result's boundaries.

The example outputs:

```
[tau ]
```

The **one-parameter** `lstrip()` method does the same as its parameterless version, but **removes all characters enlisted in its argument** (a string), not just whitespaces:

```
print("www.cisco.com".lstrip("w."))
```

Brackets aren't needed here, as the output looks as follows:

```
cisco.com
```

Can you guess the output of the snippet below? Think carefully. Run the code and check your predictions.

```
print("pythoninstitute.org".lstrip(".org"))
```

Surprised? **Leading** characters, leading whitespaces. Again, experiment with your own examples.

The `replace()` method

The **two-parameter** `replace()` method **returns a copy of the original string in which all occurrences of the first argument have been replaced by the second argument.**

Look at the example code.

```
1 # Demonstrating the replace() method
2 print("www.netacad.com".replace("netacad.com", "pythoninstitute.org"))
3 print("This is it!".replace("is", "are"))
4 print("Apple juice".replace("juice", ""))
```

Run it.

The second argument can be an empty string (replacing is actually removing, then), but the first cannot be.

The example outputs:

```
www.pythoninstitute.org Thare are it! Apple
```

The **three-parameter** `replace()` variant uses the third argument (a number) to **limit the number of replacements.**

Look at the modified example code below:

```
print("This is it!".replace("is", "are", 1))
print("This is it!".replace("is", "are", 2))
```

Can you guess its output? Run the code and check your guesses.

The `rfind()` method

The one-, two-, and three-parameter methods named `rfind()` do nearly the same things as their counterparts (the ones devoid of the *r* prefix), but **start their searches from the end of the string**, not the beginning (hence the prefix *r*, for *right*).

Take a look at the example code below and try to predict its output.

```
1 # Demonstrating the rfind() method
2 print("tau tau tau".rfind("ta"))
3 print("tau tau tau".rfind("ta", 9))
4 print("tau tau tau".rfind("ta", 3, 9))
```

Run the code to check if you were right.

The `rstrip()` method

Two variants of the `rstrip()` method do nearly the same as `lstrip()`, but **affect the opposite side of the string.**

Look at the code example.

```
1 # Demonstrating the rstrip() method
2 print "[" + "  epsilon ".rstrip() + "]"
3 print ("cisco.com".rstrip(".com"))
```

Can you guess its output? Run the code to check your guesses.

As usual, we encourage you to experiment with your own examples.

The `split()` method

The `split()` method does what it says - it **splits the string and builds a list of all detected substrings**.

The method **assumes that the substrings are delimited by whitespaces** - the spaces don't take part in the operation, and aren't copied into the resulting list.

If the string is empty, the resulting list is empty too.

Look at the code.

```
1 # Demonstrating the split() method
2 print ("phi      chi\npsi".split())
```

The example produces the following output:

```
['phi', 'chi', 'psi']
```

Note: the reverse operation can be performed by the `join()` method.

The `startswith()` method

The `startswith()` method is a mirror reflection of `endswith()` - it **checks if a given string starts with the specified substring**.

Look at the example.

```
1 # Demonstrating the startswith() method
2 print ("omega".startswith("meg"))
3 print ("omega".startswith("om"))
4
5 print()
6
7 # Demonstrating the strip() method
8 print "[" + "  aleph  ".strip() + "]"
```

This is the result from it:

```
False
True
```

The `strip()` method

The `strip()` method combines the effects caused by `rstrip()` and `lstrip()` - it **makes a new string lacking all the leading and trailing whitespaces**.

Look at the second example in the editor. This is the result it returns:

```
[aleph]
```

Now carry out your own experiments with the two methods.

The `swapcase()` method

The `swapcase()` method **makes a new string by swapping the case of all letters within the source string**: lower-case characters become upper-case, and vice versa.

All other characters remain untouched.

Look at the first example.

```
1 # Demonstrating the swapcase() method
2 print("I know that I know nothing.".swapcase())
3
4 print()
5
6 # Demonstrating the title() method
7 print("I know that I know nothing. Part 1.".title())
8
9 print()
10
11 # Demonstrating the upper() method
12 print("I know that I know nothing. Part 2.".upper())
```

Can you guess the output? It won't look good, but you must see it:

```
i KNOW THAT i KNOW NOTHING.
```

The `title()` method

The `title()` method performs a somewhat similar function - it **changes every word's first letter to upper-case, turning all other ones to lower-case**.

Look at the second example in the editor. Can you guess its output? This is the result:

```
I Know That I Know Nothing. Part 1.
```

The `upper()` method

Last but not least, the `upper()` method **makes a copy of the source string, replaces all lower-case letters with their upper-case counterparts**, and returns the string as the result.

Look at the third example in the editor. It outputs:

```
I KNOW THAT I KNOW NOTHING. PART 2.
```

Hooray! We've made it to the end of this section. Are you surprised with any of the string methods we've discussed so far? Take a couple of minutes to review them, and let's move on to the next part of the course where we'll show you what great things we can do with strings.