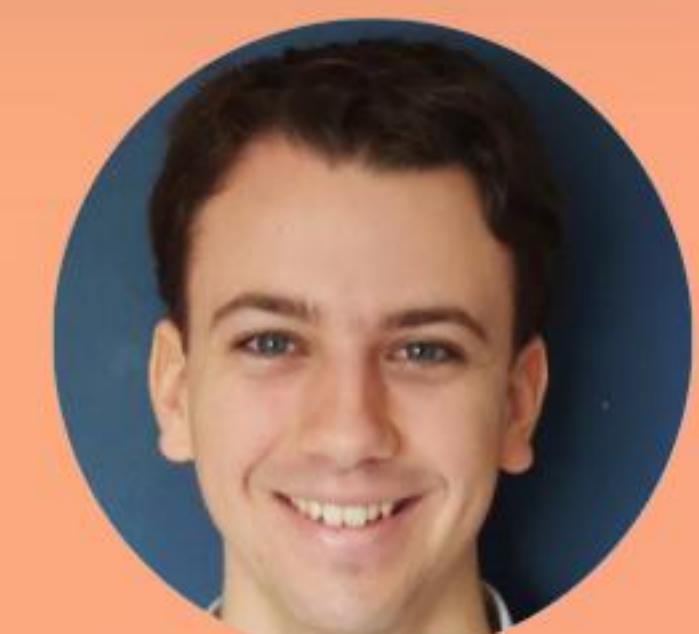


zip's keyword argument strict

Set `strict=True` if you expect the arguments to have the same length.
`zip` will error if they do not.

The error only happens when zip reaches
the end of one, but not all, of the arguments.



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Case-insensitive string comparisons

When comparing strings in a case-insensitive manner, use the method `casifold`, which is designed specifically for this task.

You need `casifold` because some characters across different languages are... kinda funky!

This string is lowercase...

But converting to upper and back to lowercase doesn't roundtrip!

```
print("straße".lower())
#straße

print("straße".upper().lower())
#strasse

print("STRASSE".casifold() == "straße".casifold())
#True

print("straße".casifold())
#strasse
```

💡 The methods `lower/upper` can be used if you are **sure** you're only working with ASCII.



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Type unions with pipe in `isinstance`

Types can be combined with the pipe operator `|` to create a type union.

This works, for example, inside `isinstance`, to make it more convenient to check if a value has one of 2+ types.

This checks if `x` is an int OR a float OR a complex number.

```
def is_number(x):
    return isinstance(x, int | float | complex)

print(is_number(34)) # True
print(is_number("hey")) # False
```



Only available in Python 3.10+.

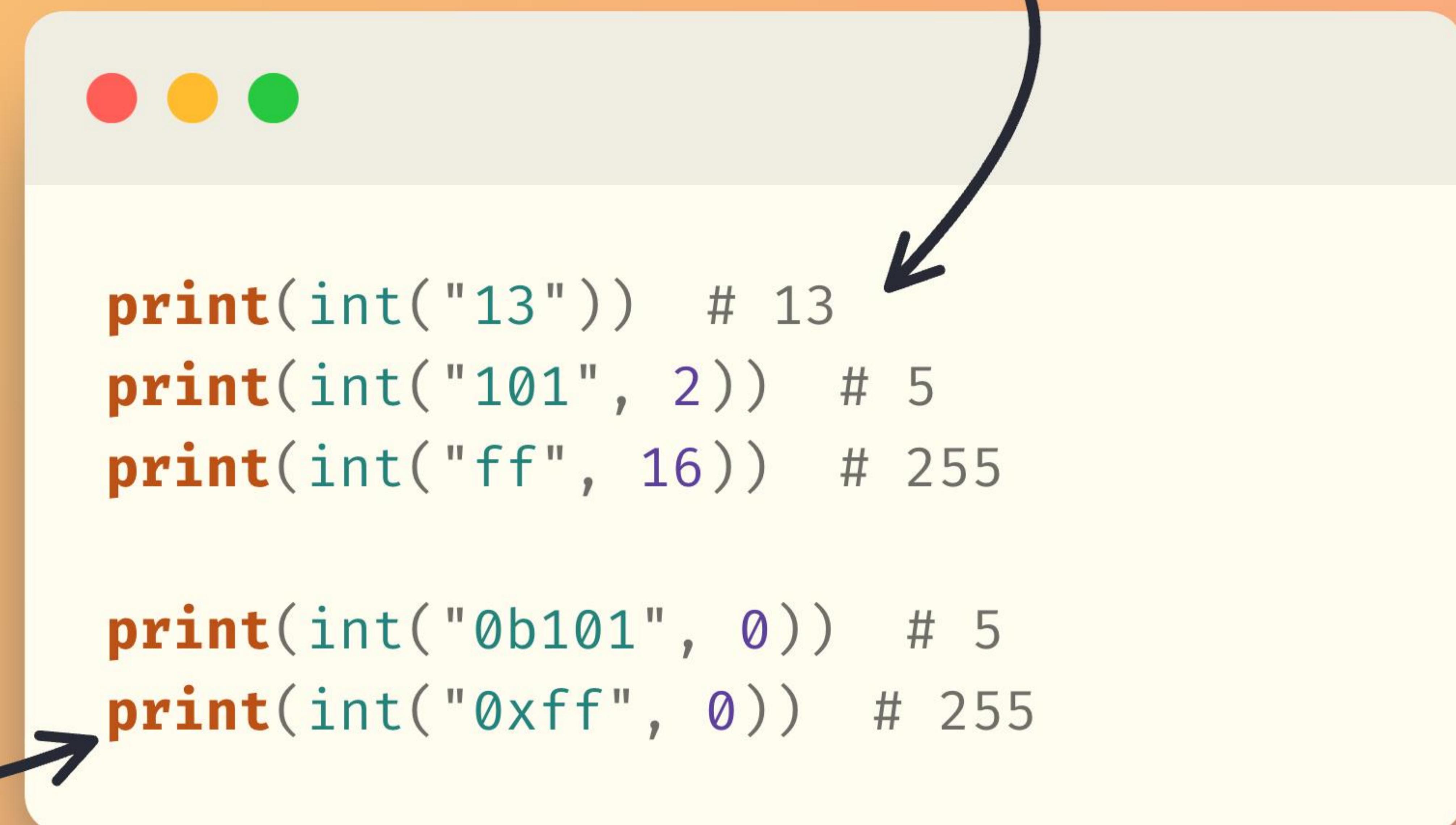


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Parsing integers from different bases

The built-in `int` can parse integers from any base from binary to base 36 (including octal, decimal, and hexadecimal).

`0` tells `int` to interpret the string as a string literal (which uses the prefix to guess the base).



A screenshot of a terminal window with a light gray background and three colored window control buttons (red, yellow, green) at the top. The terminal displays the following Python code:

```
print(int("13")) # 13
print(int("101", 2)) # 5
print(int("ff", 16)) # 255

print(int("0b101", 0)) # 5
print(int("0xff", 0)) # 255
```

Two black curved arrows point from the explanatory text above to the terminal window: one arrow points from the text "The built-in int can parse integers from any base from binary to base 36" to the first two code examples, and another arrow points from the text "0 tells int to interpret the string as a string literal" to the third and fourth code examples.



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First element that satisfies a condition

Need the first element of an iterable that satisfies some condition?

Use a generator expression and the built-in `next`.

The built-in `next` accepts a fallback to return if it finds nothing. If you don't specify the fallback, you get a `StopIteration` exception instead.

```
important_numbers = [42, 73, 10, 16, 0]
print(next(n for n in important_numbers if n % 2))
) # 73

important_numbers = [42, 10, 16, 0]
print(next(
    (n for n in important_numbers if n % 2),
    "?!", None
)) # ?!
```



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Last element that satisfies a condition

Need the last element of an iterable that satisfies some condition?

Use a deque from the module collections.

If there is no element in the iterable that satisfies the condition, the deque will be empty and you can't pop from it (you get an IndexError).

```
from collections import deque

important_numbers = [42, 73, 10, 16, 0]
print( # Last even number.
      deque(
          (n for n in important_numbers if n % 2 == 0),
          maxlen=1,
      )
).pop() # 0

large = (n for n in important_numbers if n > 100)
if (d := deque(large, maxlen=1)):
    print(d.pop())
else:
    print("No large numbers present!")
```

Unique elements from a list



```
nums = [42, 73, 42, 42, 0, 73, 10, 10, 16]
for unique_num in set(nums):
    print(unique_num, end=" ")
# 0 73 42 10 16
```

You can get the unique elements of a list (or of another iterable) with the built-in set type.
The result is in an arbitrary order.



If you need to preserve the original order, you can use `dict.fromkeys` instead.

```
nums = [42, 73, 42, 42, 0, 73, 10, 10, 16]
for unique_num in dict.fromkeys(nums):
    print(unique_num, end=" ")
# 42 73 0 10 16
```

- Both examples only work with hashable



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How to schedule program cleanup

Use the function `register` from the module `atexit` to schedule a function to run at program exit.

Your cleanup function will likely clear resources you're using, like database connections.

```
import atexit

def cleanup():
    """Clean up program resources."""
    db.close_connection()
    print("Cleaned up!")

atexit.register(cleanup)
```

Registered functions run even if the program terminates with an exception.

 `register` can be used as a decorator.



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map with multiple arguments

The built-in map can accept 2+ iterable arguments if the function it's mapping takes 2+ arguments.

This makes map a viable alternative to list comprehensions/generator expressions in some situations.

```
nums = (b ** exp for b, exp in zip(bases, exps))  
# vs  
nums = map(pow, bases, exps)
```

```
bases = [2, 3, 4, 2, 3, 4]  
exp = [2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3]  
  
for num in map(pow, bases, exps):  
    print(num, end=" ")  
# 4 9 16 8 27 64
```

💡 In Python 3.14, map gets a keyword argument strict, like zip's.



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Remove punctuation from a string

The string method `translate` lets you replace (or delete) multiple characters of a string in one go. (Kind of like multiple calls to the method `replace`.)

```
import string

s = "Hello, world!"
print(s.translate(str.maketrans("", "", string.punctuation)))
# Hello world
```

The string method `translate` expects a “translation table”, which we build with the auxiliary class method `maketrans`.

The third argument is a string of characters we want to delete.

' ! "#\$%&\ '()*)+, -./:; <=>?@[\\"]^_`{ | }~'



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Count characters in a file

Use chain, from the module `itertools`, to iterate over the characters of a file.

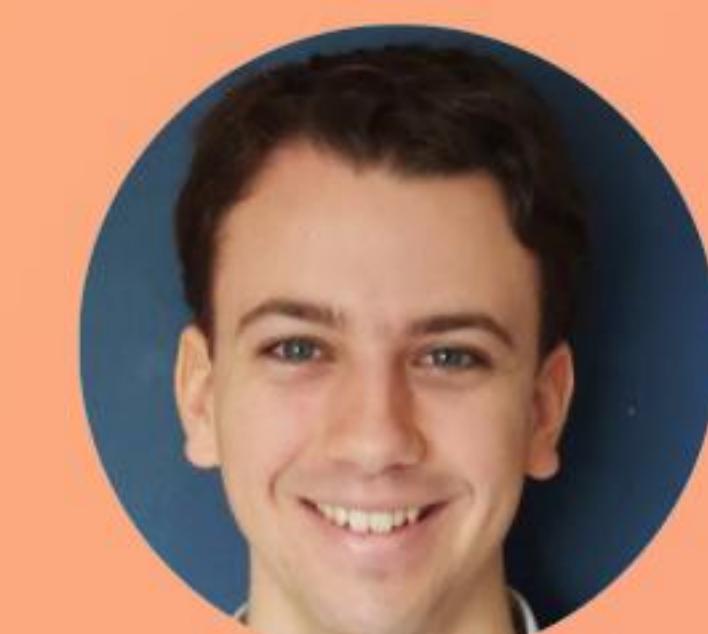
Used with Counter, from the module `collections`, lets you count the characters in a file.

```
from collections import Counter
from itertools import chain

with open("/Users/rodrigogs/.zshrc") as f:
    chars = Counter(chain.from_iterable(f))

print(chars.most_common(5))
# [(' ', 583), ('e', 314), ('t', 273), ('o', 264), ('n', 216)]
```

f lets you iterate over the lines of the file, so `chain.from_iterable(f)` lets you iterate over the characters in each line of the file in turn.



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Run-length encoding

Use `groupby`, from the module `itertools`, to group consecutive equal elements into groups.

When used right, `groupby` has many useful use cases.

```
from itertools import groupby

def run_length_encoding(iterable):
    for val, group in groupby(iterable):
        yield val, len(list(group))

print(list(run_length_encoding("AAAB0AA")))
# [('A', 3), ('B', 1), ('0', 1), ('A', 2)]
```

If the groups are very long, this way of computing the length of the group might be a waste of memory.

💡 `groupby` also accepts a keyword argument `key`, if you want to apply a transformation to the values before grouping.

E.g., using `key=str.casefold` would group equal characters regardless of their casing.



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String prefixes and suffixes

Strings have a method `startswith` to check if a string has a certain prefix and a method `removeprefix` (3.9+) to remove the given prefix from the string.

```
string = "Hello, world!"  
  
print(string.startswith("Hello"))  
# True  
print(string.removeprefix("Hello"))  
# ', world!'
```

```
string = "Hello, world!"  
  
print(string.startswith("Hey"))  
# False  
print(string.removeprefix("Hey"))  
# 'Hello, world!'
```

If the prefix isn't there, `removeprefix` leaves the string unchanged.

- 💡 Use these methods instead of slicing for readability.
- 💡 Use `endswith` and `removesuffix` to work with suffixes.



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match multiple options

In structural pattern matching (match statement, Python 3.10+) you can use the vertical bar to separate multiple options.

```
def walk(direction):
    match direction:
        case NORTH: →
            return (0, -1)
        case UP: →
            return (0, -1)
    ...
    ...
```

```
def walk(direction):
    match direction:
        case NORTH | UP:
            return (0, -1)
        ...
        ...
```



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Round to “pretty” whole numbers

The built-in `round` accepts negative integers as its argument.

A negative integer rounds to a power of 10, which tends to be a “nice”/“pretty” whole number.

```
price = 1374
hundreds = round(price, -2)

print(
    f"It cost roughly {hundreds} dollars."
)
# It cost roughly 1400 dollars.
```

The integer without the sign gives the number of 0s.



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type statements

Python 3.12 introduced type statements: a convenient way of creating type aliases that can also be made generic.

```
from typing import TypeAlias, TypeVar

T = TypeVar("T")

Pair: TypeAlias = tuple[T, T]
```

```
type Pair[T] = tuple[T, T]
```

The type variable for the generic doesn't need to be defined separately.

```
x: Pair[int] = (3, 4)
```



Both versions type-check correctly.



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Create context managers with contextlib.contextmanager

Use `contextlib.contextmanager` as a decorator to turn a generator into a context manager.

```
from contextlib import contextmanager

@contextmanager
def my_open(path, mode):
    try:
        file = open(path, mode)
        yield file
    finally:
        file.close()
```

What you `yield` (if anything) can be captured by the “`as ...`”

```
with my_open(".zshrc", "r") as f:
    print(len(list(f))) # 129
```

Regardless of whether there's an error or not, the file will be closed.



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Immutable dictionary

You can use `MappingProxyType` to create an immutable / read-only dictionary.

```
from types import MappingProxyType

my_dict = MappingProxyType(
    {
        "url": "mathspp.com",
        "email": "rodrigo@mathspp.com",
    }
)
```

Access values with keys, as usual.

```
print(my_dict["url"])
# mathspp.com

# TypeErrors:
my_dict["name"] = "Rodrigo"
my_dict["url"] = ""
```

Modifying values or creating new key/value pairs raises a `TypeError`.

💡 Don't keep references to the underlying dictionary, because that's still mutable...



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self-debugging f-strings

Include an equals sign = at the end of a formatted value and the f-string will print the expression you are formatting (in code) together with its value.



```
name = "RoDrIgO"
print(f"Method title: {name.title() = }")
```

The code block shows a screenshot of a terminal window. It contains Python code that prints the result of an f-string. The f-string includes a formatted value and an equals sign followed by the expression being formatted. Two arrows point from the text 'Code' and 'Value' to the corresponding parts of the f-string: the method call and the equals sign and expression respectively.

Method title: name.title() = 'Rodrigo'

- 💡 The spaces around the equal sign aren't necessary but the result looks better with those.



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Dunder attribute `__file__`

In a Python file, the dunder attribute `__file__` gives you the full path of your file.

tool.py

```
print(__file__)
# /Users/rodrigogs/Documents/tmp/tool.py
```

→ Useful, for example, to locate resources that are “next” to your script.

```
from pathlib import Path
```

```
RESOURCES = (Path(__file__).parent / "res").resolve()
```



`__file__` isn't *always* available. For example, in Jupyter notebooks.



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Current date and time

The module `datetime` has two functions to produce a date object with the current date and a `datetime` object with the current date and time.



```
import datetime as dt

today = dt.date.today()
print(f"{today:%c}")
# Tue Apr 1 00:00:00 2025

now = dt.datetime.now()
print(f"{now:%c}")
# Tue Apr 1 13:43:44 2025
```

The format specifier `%c` displays the date (and time) in a locale-appropriate way.



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Set operations with dict.keys()

Dictionary keys objects support set operations.

```
en_pt = {  
    "yellow": "amarelo",  
    "red": "vermelho",  
}  
  
en_fr = {  
    "red": "rouge",  
    "blue": "bleu",  
}
```

```
# Keys in both:  
print(en_pt.keys() & en_fr.keys())  
# {'red'}  
  
# Keys in en_pt but not in en_fr:  
print(en_pt.keys() - en_fr.keys())  
# {'yellow'}  
  
# Keys in either:  
print(en_pt.keys() | en_fr.keys())  
# {'red', 'blue', 'yellow'}
```

Some operations supported include difference, union, and intersection.



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Chain multiple dictionaries

You can use ChainMap from the module `collections` to create a unified view over a hierarchy of dictionaries.

```
default = {  
    "user": "user",  
    "theme": "light",  
    "lan": "en",  
}
```

```
local = {  
    "theme": "dark",  
}
```

```
user = {  
    "user": "rodrigo",  
}
```



```
from collections import ChainMap  
  
settings = ChainMap(user, local, default)  
  
print(settings["user"]) # rodrigo  
print(settings["theme"]) # dark  
print(settings["lan"]) # en
```

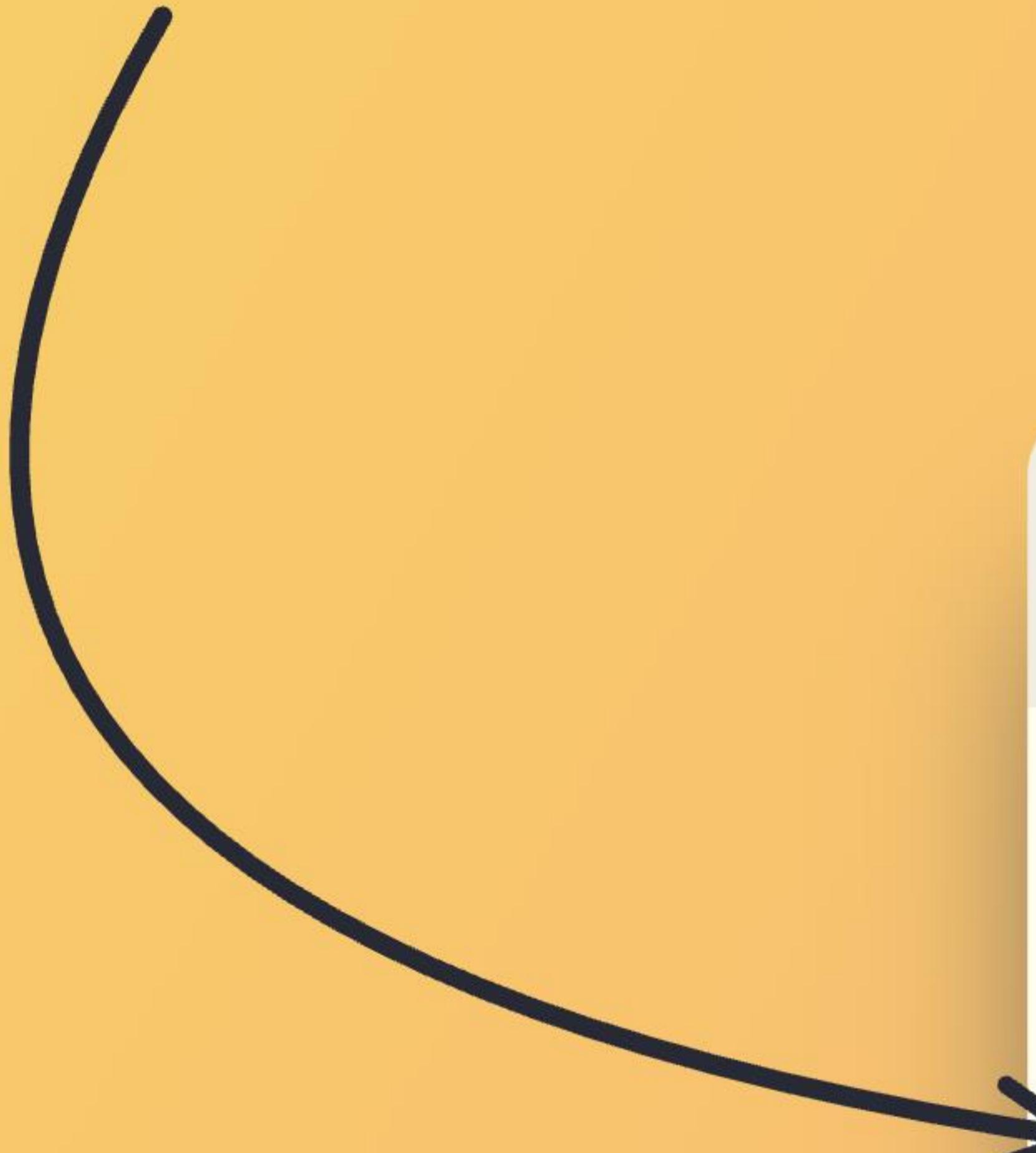
In this example, we can read settings from the user, from the local installation, or the defaults. Each level can be edited individually.



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Longest word in a string

You can find the longest word in a string by using the built-in `max` and by specifying the built-in `len` as the key.



```
s = "These are just some sensational words"  
print(max(s.split(), key=len))  
# sensational
```

Using the built-in `min` would produce the shortest word instead (`are`) and using the built-in `sorted` would order the words by length.



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Dynamic attribute manipulation

The built-ins `getattr`, `setattr`, and `delattr`, can be used to manipulate attributes dynamically.

You'll rarely use these, but when you need them, they are very powerful.

```
class Colour:  
    pass  
  
c = Colour()  
  
setattr(c, "r", 255)  
setattr(c, "g", 125)  
setattr(c, "b", 0)  
  
print(c.g) # 125
```

```
attr = "g"  
print(getattr(c, attr)) # 125
```

```
print(getattr(c, "x", "heh")) # heh
```

```
delattr(c, "g")  
print(c.g) # AttributeError
```

Default value.

The first two arguments are the object and the name of its attribute being manipulated.

⚠ This shows how the functions work but not necessarily how you'd use them in “real life”.



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Notify parent class when subclassing

The class method `__init_subclass__` can be used to notify a class when it's subclassed. Effective for some metaprogramming without metaclasses.

```
class ParentCls:  
    def __init_subclass__(cls, **kwargs):  
        print(f"{cls} created with {kwargs = }")
```

The new subclass is the `cls` passed in.

```
class ChildCls(ParentCls, example=True):  
    pass
```

The keyword arguments given to the new class are passed to `__init_subclass__` as well.

```
# <class '__main__.ChildCls'> created  
# with kwargs = {'example': True}
```



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Enforce keyword args for options

Use a single asterisk * between commas to force all following arguments to be keyword only.

Particularly helpful for options or “config-like” arguments.

```
def get_temperature(room, *, unit="celsius"):
    pass

get_temperature("bedroom", "fahrenheit") # ! TypeError

get_temperature("bedroom", unit="fahrenheit") # ✓
```

The argument `unit` must be passed as a keyword argument.



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Flag enumerations

The module `enum` contains a `Flag` type that you can use for enumerations that should support the Boolean operations & (AND), | (OR), ^ (XOR), and ~ (INVERT).

Purple is red with blue.

```
from enum import Flag, auto
class Color(Flag):
    RED = auto()
    GREEN = auto()
    BLUE = auto()

purple = Color.RED | Color.BLUE
print(Color.GREEN in purple) # False
print(list(purple)) # [<Color.RED: 1>, <Color.BLUE: 4>]
```

Is the flag GREEN set?

What flags is
purple composed
of? (Python 3.11+)



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Use Literal for options

Use the type `Literal` from the module `typing` when a function accepts a small number of specific values that represent configurations or options.

```
def get_temperature(city: str, unit: str) -> float: ...
```

```
from typing import Literal
```

```
def get_temperature(  
    city: str,  
    unit: Literal["celsius", "fahrenheit"],  
) -> float:  
    ...
```

```
print(get_temperature("Lisbon", "celsius")) # 18.0  
print(get_temperature("Lisbon", "fahrenheit")) # 64.4
```

Literal
side-benefit:
documents the
valid values.



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Return value of a generator

When a generator is finished, you can return an arbitrary value (like a normal function).

```
def my_generator_function():
    yield 1
    yield 2
    return 73
```

```
gen = my_generator_function()
print(next(gen), next(gen)) # 1 2
try:
    next(gen)
except StopIteration as err:
    print(err.value) # 73
```

The return value of a generator is attached to the exception `StopIteration` it raises when it's finished.



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Enumerations of string values

When creating various string values, for example for function options or configurations, you can group them under a string enumeration `StrEnum` from the module `enum`.

```
from enum import StrEnum  
  
class Direction(StrEnum):  
    UP = "UP"  
    DOWN = "DOWN"
```

```
def move(direction: Direction) -> None:  
    if direction == Direction.UP:  
        print("Going up.")  
    elif direction == Direction.DOWN:  
        print("Going down.")  
    else:  
        raise ValueError()
```

If needed, you can use the string directly at runtime.
(But it won't pass type checking.)

```
move(Direction.UP) # Going up.  
move("DOWN") # Going down. (Doesn't type-check.)
```

⚠ Python 3.11+ only.



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Most recently-modified file

Use the built-in `max` and a custom key function to find the most recently modified file in a folder in a single line of code.

```
from pathlib import Path

folder = Path("/path/to/folder")
most_recent = max(folder.iterdir(), key=lambda p: p.stat().st_mtime)
print(most_recent) # /path/to/folder/some_file.txt
```

```
most_recent = max(
    (p for p in folder.iterdir() if p.is_file()),
    key=lambda p: p.stat().st_mtime,
)
```

`.stat()` provides access to file statistics and `st_mtime` is the modified time.

Files only (no directories).



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Normalise strings by removing accents

You can use the built-in module `unicodedata` to write a function that removes accents from strings, normalising all characters into the ASCII range.

```
import unicodedata

def remove_accents(string):
    return "".join(
        char for char in unicodedata.normalize("NFD", string)
        if unicodedata.category(char) != "Mn"
    )

print(remove_accents("Rodrigo Girão Serrão")) # Rodrigo Girao Serrao
print(remove_accents("ääàãñç")) # aaaanc
```

```
list(unicodedata.normalize("NFD", "ääàãñç"))
# ['a', 'ä', 'a', 'à', 'ã', 'ñ', 'ç']
```



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Transpose a list of lists

The built-in `zip` can be used with the splat operator `*` to transpose a list of lists.

```
persons = [[ "Han", "Solo"], [ "Obi-Wan", "Kenobi"], [ "Darth", "Vader"]]  
firsts, lasts = zip(*persons)  
print(firsts)  
# ('Han', 'Obi-Wan', 'Darth')  
print(lasts)  
# ('Solo', 'Kenobi', 'Vader')
```

You can also look at this operation as “undoing” what a `zip` does (you can get `firsts` and `lasts` from `persons` and vice-versa).

```
print  
    list(zip(firsts, lasts)) == persons  
) # True
```



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Inline lists and tuples

The splat operator * can be used to inline lists, tuples, and other iterables.

```
firssts = ("Han", "Obi-Wan", "Darth")  
  
def more_firssts():  
    yield "Frodo"  
    yield "Gandalf"  
  
huge_crossover = [  
    "Harry", "Hermione", "Ron",  
    *firssts, <-- ----->  
    *more_firssts(), <-- ----->  
    "Guido",  
]
```

```
print(huge_crossover)  
# ['Harry', 'Hermione', 'Ron',  
#  'Han', 'Obi-Wan', 'Darth',  
#  'Frodo', 'Gandalf', 'Guido']
```

The splat operator *
“flattens” the iterables as if
their values were written out
explicitly inside this list.



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Typing iterables instead of lists

If you're accepting an iterable argument, don't type it as a list.

Instead, use `typing.Iterable` or `collections.abc.Iterable`.



```
# ❌  
def create_files(files: list[Path]) -> None:  
    for file in files:  
        ...
```

Using `list[Path]` is too restrictive; all you need is to be able to iterate over files.

Python 3.9+

Python 3.8

```
from collections.abc import Iterable  
  
def create_files(files: Iterable[Path]) -> None: ...
```

```
from typing import Iterable
```

```
def create_files(files: Iterable[Path]) -> None: ...
```



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Multi-dictionary

You can create a dictionary that maps a single key to multiple values. (Kind of).
The easiest way is with `collections.defaultdict` and the built-in `list`.



```
from collections import defaultdict  
  
multidict = defaultdict(list)
```

All keys will map to an empty list by default:

```
• print(multidict["SW"]) # []  
• print(multidict["LotR"]) # []
```

By accessing the key and appending, you map a single key to “multiple” values.

```
multidict["SW"].append("Han Solo")  
multidict["SW"].append("R2D2")  
print(multidict["SW"]) # ['Han Solo', 'R2D2']
```



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Global enumeration members



```
from enum import Flag, auto, global_enum  
  
@global_enum  
class FilePermissions(Flag):  
    READ = auto()  
    WRITE = auto()  
    EXECUTE = auto()
```

Use the decorator `global_enum` from the module `enum` to automatically export enumeration members to your globals.

BASE_PERMISSIONS = READ | WRITE

BASE_PERMISSIONS = FilePermissions.READ | FilePermissions.WRITE

You can still access the members through the enumeration class.

(Class decorator; pretty cool, right?)



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Automatic enumeration values

The module enum lets you use auto to automatically assign values to the enumeration members. Works well with flags and string enumerations, too!



```
from enum import Flag, auto

class Permissions(Flag):
    READ = auto()      # 1
    WRITE = auto()     # 2
    EXECUTE = auto()   # 4 <-- dashed arrow

print(repr(Permissions.EXECUTE))
# <Permissions.EXECUTE: 4> <-- dashed arrow
```



```
from enum import StrEnum, auto

class Direction(StrEnum):
    NORTH = auto()    # north <-- dashed arrow
    SOUTH = auto()    # south
    ...

print(repr(Direction.NORTH))
# <Direction.NORTH: 'north'> <-- dashed arrow
```

For flags, values are consecutive powers of 2.

For string enumerations, values are the lowercase member name.



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OS-agnostic line splitting

Strings have a method `splitlines` that you should use when splitting a string on newlines. Don't use `.split("\n")` because of carriage returns!

```
windows_string = WindowsPath("some_file.txt").read_text()
```

Lines on Windows can be terminated with `\r\n` instead of just `\n`:

```
print(windows_string.split("\n"))
# ['This is a\r',
#  'multiline string\r',  
  ↪
#  'from a Windows machine.]
```

```
print(windows_string.splitlines())
# ['This is a',
#  'multiline string',
#  'from a Windows machine.]
```

💡 use `.splitlines(keepends=True)` to preserve the line-ending characters.



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Longest and shortest

The built-ins `max/min`, the built-in `len`, and `functools.partial`, can be put together to create the custom functions `longest` and `shortest`.



```
from functools import partial

longest = partial(max, key=len)
shortest = partial(min, key=len)

words = "This is a truly extraordinary sentence".split()
print(longest(words)) # extraordinary
print(shortest(words)) # a
```

`partial` lets you create different functions by combining simple functions you already know.



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Bounded cache

Use `functools.lru_cache` to create a memory-bounded cache.

The argument specifies how many values to cache.

Cache up to
1024 values.

```
from functools import lru_cache
@lru_cache(1024)
def function_to_cache(*args): ...
# Some function calls...
print(function_to_cache.cache_info().currsize) # 35
print(function_to_cache.cache_info())
# CacheInfo(hits=12, misses=35, maxsize=1024, currsize=35)
```

Access cache stats through `.cache_info` on the cached function.

 When the cache is full, the Least-Recently Used values (LRU) are evicted to make room for the new ones.



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Read files in chunks

The built-in `iter` has the superpower of turning functions into iterables.
`iter(f, value)` creates an iterator that calls `f` until it returns the given value.

In this example, `iter` creates an iterable that reads the file in chunks of 16 characters.

```
from functools import partial  
  
with open("bee-movie-script.txt", "r") as f:  
    chunk_reader = iter(partial(f.read, 16), "")  
    for chunk in chunk_reader:  
        print(chunk)  
  
"""  
According to all  
known laws of a  
viation, there i  
s no way a bee s  
hould be able to  
...  
"""
```



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Format specifier !r

Use the format specifier !r in f-strings to improve your print-debugging.

This uses a value's `repr`, which is better for debugging.

```
● ○ ●  
string = "3"  
number = 3  
  
print(f"{string} {number}") # 3 3  
print(f"{string!r} {number!r}") # '3' 3  
  
from fractions import Fraction  
  
one_third = Fraction(1, 3)  
print(f"{one_third}, {one_third!r}")  
# 1/3, Fraction(1, 3)
```

Strings and numbers
look the same...
Unless you use !r.

Printing a fraction will pretty-print it.

Using !r, we can be sure it's a
Fraction object.



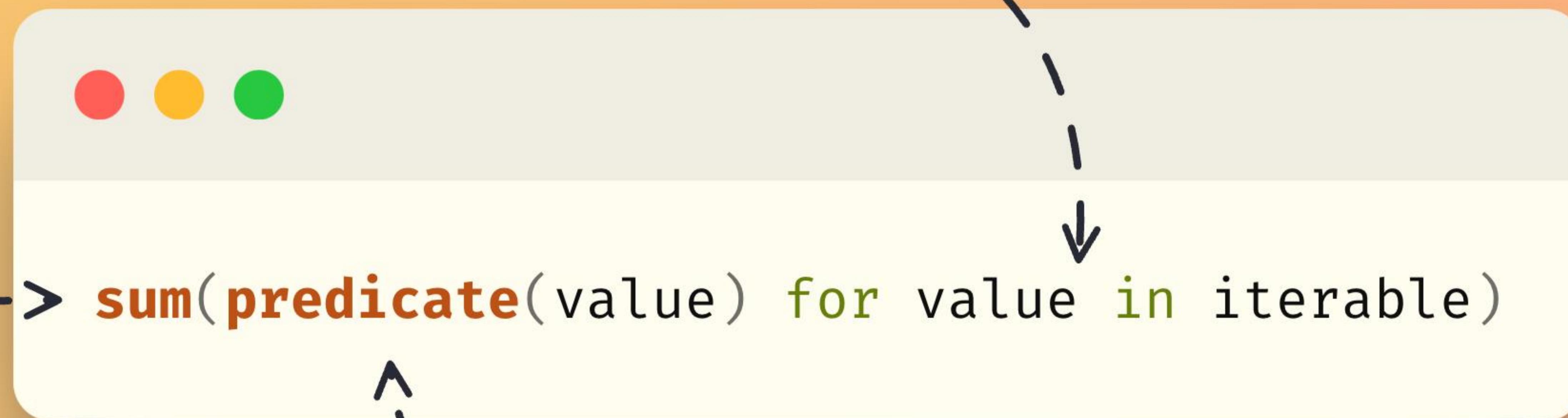
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Counting values

Do you want to count how many values satisfy a given condition?

Use the built-in sum and a generator expression.

1. The generator expression goes over all values you want to consider...



2. The predicate evaluates the condition on each value, returning True or False.

3. The built-in sum accumulates all the Boolean values, effectively counting the number of Trues.



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The evolution of the dot product

How the idiom to compute the dot product has evolved in Python, using the module operator, the built-ins map and zip, and more.

“Standard” idiom in older versions of Python.

```
# Python 3.12+
from itertools import starmap

sum(starmap(< - - - - -
            operator.mul,
            zip(vec1, vec2, strict=True),
            ))
```

```
# Python <=3.11
sum(map(operator.mul, vec1, vec2))
```

strict=True ensures the vectors have the same length.

itertools.starmap gets the multiplication “inside” the pairs produced by zip.

```
# Python 3.14+
sum(map(operator.mul, vec1, vec2, strict=True))
```

In 3.14 we go back to the original idiom because map now supports strict=True.



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Batching API calls

Since Python 3.12, the module `itertools` provides `batched`, that slices the given iterable in batches of the specified size. Use it for batch processing anything, e.g., API calls:

Hit the API once per user...



```
all_user_data = []
for user in users_to_fetch:
    user_data = api.get_user(user)
    all_user_data.append(
        user_data.stuff_you_want
    )
```

Ask for data from 50 users at a time.



```
from itertools import batched

all_user_data = []
for batch in batched(users_to_fetch, 50):
    users_data = api.get_users(batch)
    all_user_data.extend(
        ud.stuff_you_want
        for ud in users_data
    )
```

Fewer API calls is good because:

- much faster
- less rate limiting



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Redact email addresses

You can use f-strings to create the effect of redacted/private data such as phone numbers or email addresses. (The format spec is doing all the work!)

```
def redact_email(email):
    user, _, domain = email.partition("@")
    return f"{user[:2]:*{len(user)}}@{domain}"
```

Show first two chars.

Align the two chars on the left...

and use *...



to fill the field with the width of the user.

```
print(redact_email("rodrigo@mathspp.com"))
# ro*****@mathspp.com
```



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Random choices

Use the functions `random.choices` and `random.sample` to randomly pick elements from a sequence, with and without replacement, respectively.



```
import random

coin_sides = ["heads", "tails"]

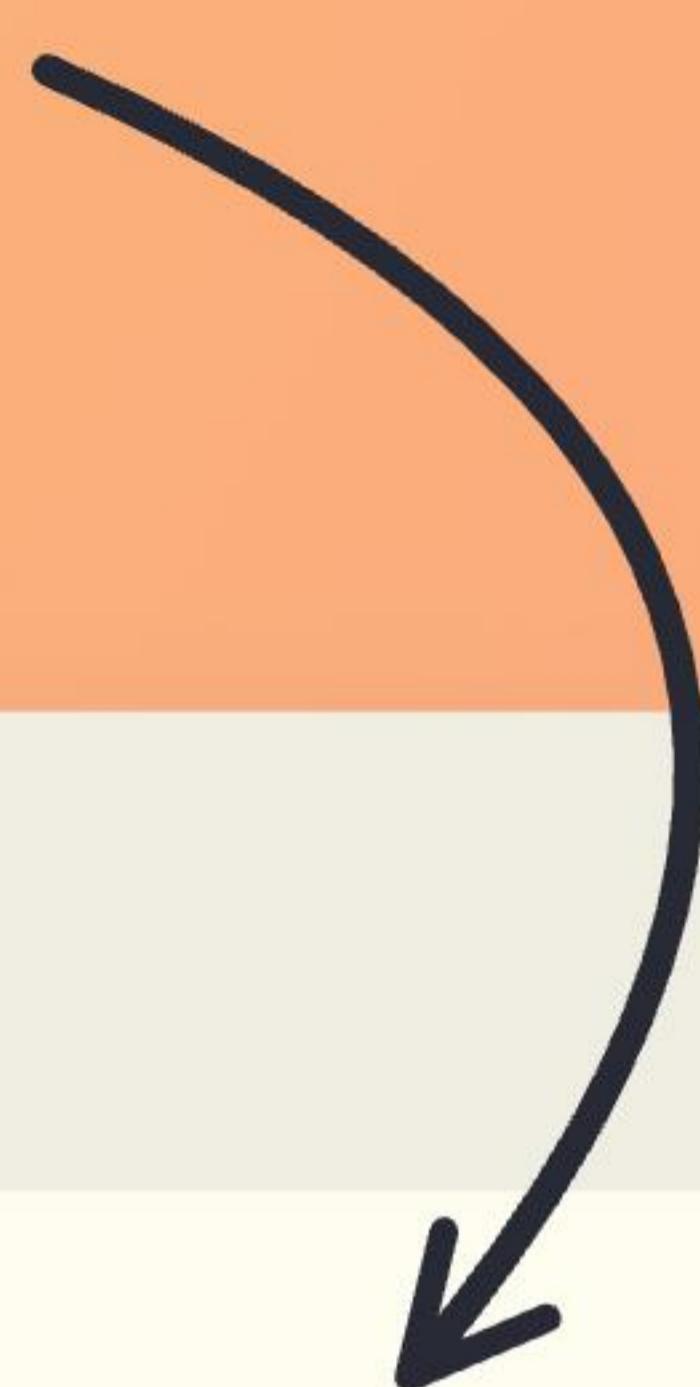
print(random.choices(coin_sides, k=4))
# ['heads', 'tails', 'tails', 'tails']
```



```
import random

colours = ["red", "green", "blue",
           "black", "white"]

print(random.sample(colours, k=3))
# ['black', 'green', 'blue']
```



`k` determines how many values to pick.

💡 Don't use the module `random` for security-sensitive randomness. E.g., don't generate passwords with it. Use the module `secrets` instead.



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Dynamic regex replacements

Regex replacements can be computed dynamically, based on the match found. The function `re.sub` accepts a function that accepts the match and returns the replacement.

The function
is used
instead of a
replacement
string.

```
import re

def replace(match):
    return "*" * len(match.group(0))

text = "I know Python, C, C++, JavaScript, and Haskell."

bad_words = r"C(\+\+)?|JavaScript"
print(re.sub(bad_words, replace, text))
# I know Python, *, ***, *****, *****and Haskell.
```



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String constants

The module `string` defines many useful constants that you can, and should, use!
These will save you from plenty of easily-avoidable bugs.

```
import string

print(string.ascii_lowercase)
# abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

print(string.digits)
# 0123456789

print(string.punctuation)
# !"#$%&'()/*,-./:;=>?@[\]^_`{|}~
```



These are just 3 of
the many available
constants!

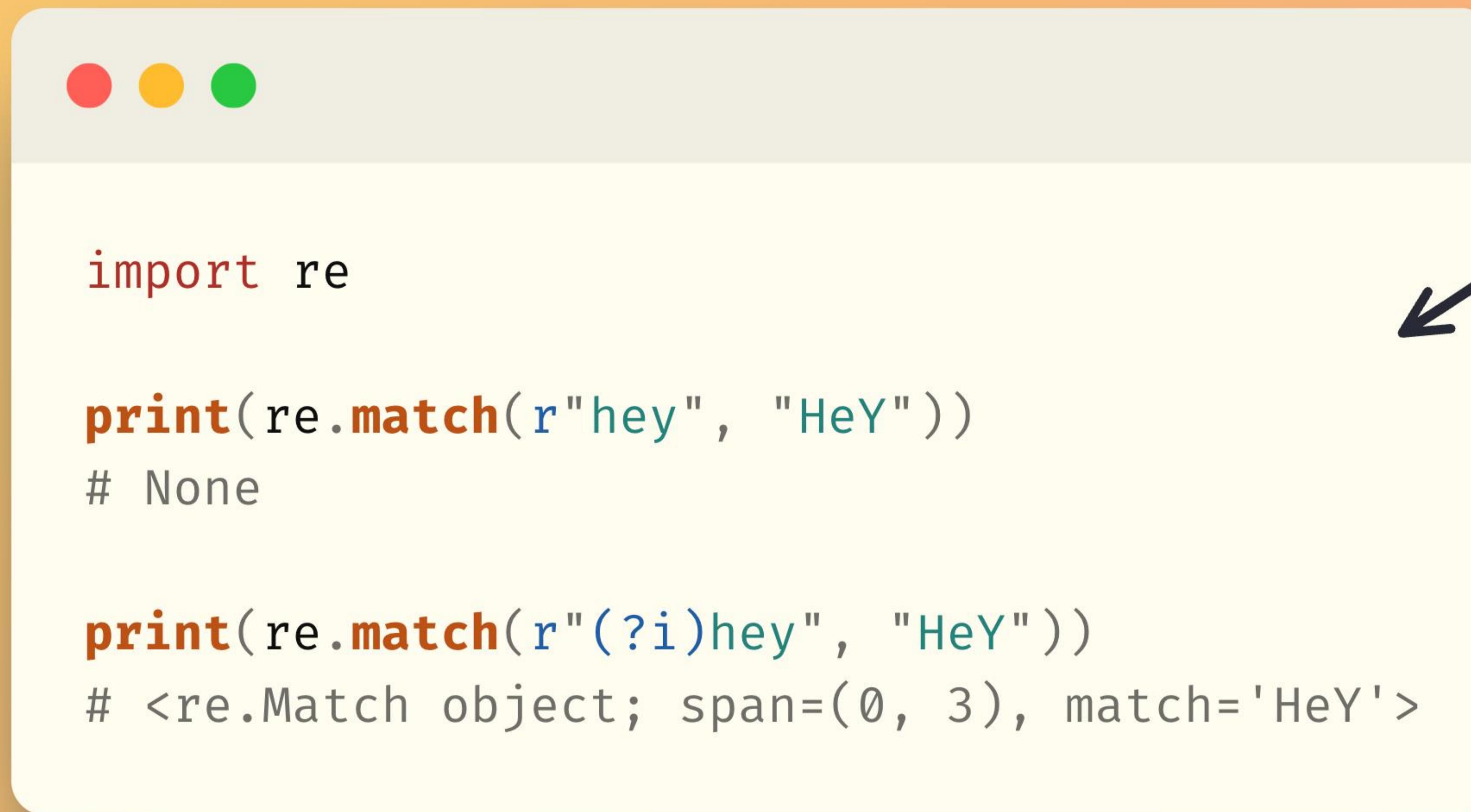
💡 Think this is silly? I found +10,000 repos on GitHub with bugs on
alphabet strings; avoidable with `string.ascii_lowercase`...



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Case-insensitive regular expressions

Regular expressions can start with the flag (?i), making them case-insensitive.



A screenshot of a terminal window with three colored window control buttons (red, yellow, green) at the top. The terminal displays the following Python code:

```
import re

print(re.match(r"hey", "HeY"))
# None

print(re.match(r"(?i)hey", "HeY"))
# <re.Match object; span=(0, 3), match='HeY'>
```

The second line of code, which includes the (?i) flag, results in a match object, while the first line without it does not.

More convenient than lowercasing the strings to check.



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Module `itertools` categorisation

The 19 iterables from the module `itertools` can be classified into 5 categories.

This makes it easier to remember what tools you have at hand.

```
# Filtering 1  
from itertools import (  
    compress,  
    dropwhile,  
    filterfalse,  
    takewhile,  
)
```

```
# Reshaping 2  
from itertools import (  
    batched,  
    chain,  
    groupby,  
    islice,  
    pairwise,  
)
```

```
# Tool-complementing 3  
from itertools import (  
    accumulate, # reduce  
    starmap, # map  
    zip_longest, # zip  
)
```

```
# Infinite 4  
from itertools import (  
    count,  
    cycle,  
    repeat,  
)
```

```
# Combinatorial 5  
from itertools import (  
    combinations,  
    combinations_with_replacement,  
    permutations,  
    product,  
)
```

 There's also `tee`, which is not an iterable.



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t-strings for safe string formatting

t-strings (T, not F) are composed of string segments and the interpolated values. The interpolated values must be processed/converted by you, which means you can sanitise them.

```
to_format = "<script>alert('Malicious JS');</script>"  
html_page = t"<html>{to_format}</html>"  
print(interpolate_html_safe(html_page))  
# <html>&lt;script&gt;alert('Malicious JS');&lt;/script&gt;</html>  
#          ^^^^^^    ^^^^^^           ^^^^^^     ^^^^^^
```

The potentially malicious HTML, that contained a JS script, was escaped.

```
from string.Template import Template  
  
def interpolate_html_safe(template: Template) -> str:  
    ... # Processes interpolated values...
```

💡 Python 3.14+ only



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Structural unpacking

Python iterables (lists, tuples, ...) can be unpacked according to their length and nesting.

```
colour_info = ("AliceBlue", (240, 248, 255, 255))  
# name red green blue alpha  
  
name, (*rgb, alpha) = colour_info
```

The splat operator `*` can be used at any level of nesting to capture 0 or more values.

Tuples on the left of the assignment capture nesting.

```
print(name) # AliceBlue  
print(rgb) # [240, 248, 255]  
print(alpha) # 255
```

 Structural unpacking also works in `for` loops.



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Ergonomic multiline strings

When writing multiline strings I like to have the "''' on their one lines, which adds extra newlines at the beginning and end of the string. Use \ to escape them.

```
string = """  
Multiline string.  
No escaped newlines  
"""  
  
print("> " + string + "!")
```

```
>  
Multiline string.  
No escaped newlines  
!
```

```
string = """\  
Multiline string.  
First & last newlines escaped\  
"""  
  
print("> " + string + "!")
```

```
> Multiline string.  
First & last newlines escaped!
```

Avoid the leading newline.

Avoid the trailing newline.



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Underscore in the REPL

In the REPL, the special value `_` refers to the result of the most recent non-None expression.

The result is saved in `_`.

The function `print` returns `None`, so `_` still holds the previous result.

```
>>> 3 ** 3 ** 3
7625597484987
>>> print(_)
7625597484987

>>> _
7625597484987
>>> sum([_, _, _, _, _])
0
>>> _
```

The function `sum` produces a non-`None` value, so that updates the value in `_`.



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Subclassing immutable types

If you need to subclass an immutable type (uncommon, but not unheard of), you will need to override `__new__`, which runs before `__init__`.

Use the value
(4.5) to create
the float part.

```
class FloatSubclass(float):
    def __new__(cls, value, *args, **kwargs):
        print("__new__", value, args, kwargs)
        return super().__new__(cls, value)

    def __init__(self, value, *args, **kwargs):
        print("__init__", value, args, kwargs)
        # Do whatever with the args and kwargs

> x = FloatSubclass(4.5)
# __new__ 4.5 ('hello',) {'foo': True}
# __init__ 4.5 ('hello',) {'foo': True}
print(x) # 4.5
```



Subclass-specific
customisation
typically goes in
`__init__`.



There's more to the story than this, but this is the



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Idiomatic sequence slicing

The five sequence slicing patterns below are idioms you must learn so that you can understand the patterns automatically, without thinking.

```
string = "Slicing is easy!"
```

`[:n]` - first n chars.

```
print(slicing[:4])  
# Slic
```

`[:-n]` - without last n chars.

```
print(slicing[:-4])  
# Slicing is e
```

`[::-1]` - reversed.

```
print(slicing[::-1])  
# !ysae si gnicils
```

`[n:]` - after first n chars.

```
print(slicing[4:])  
# ing is easy!
```

`[-n:]` - last n chars.

```
print(slicing[-4:])  
# asy!
```

Built-in `reversed` is usually preferred.



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File tail

To get a file tail (the last few lines of a file), use a deque from the module collections.

```
from collections import deque

with open("/path/to/python/lib/this.py", "r") as f:
    tail = deque(f, maxlen=4)

for line in tail:
    print(line)

#     for i in range(26):
#         d[chr(i+c)] = chr((i+13) % 26 + c)
#
#     print("".join([d.get(c, c) for c in s]))
```

A diagram consisting of a solid black arrow pointing from the 'maxlen' parameter in the deque call to a dashed arrow. The dashed arrow points from the 'maxlen' parameter to a text annotation: 'Number of last lines to fetch.'

Number of last lines to fetch.



If the file has fewer lines than those requested, you get the full file.



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One-shot file I/O

For one-shot file I/O, you can use the methods `write_text` and `read_text` from `pathlib.Path`.

If the file exists,
`write_text`
overwrites the
contents of the file.

```
from pathlib import Path

filepath = Path("hello_world.txt")

filepath.write_text("Python is cool!")

print(filepath.read_text())
# Python is cool!
```

You get more control if you use a context
manager and open but this gets the job done
in most cases.



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Formatting big numbers

To improve readability when printing big numbers, use format specifiers to include thousands separators.

The comma (,) uses
commas as the
thousands separator.

The specifier n uses a
locale-appropriate
thousands separator...

```
bignum = 123541241234
print(f"Big money ${x:,}")
# Big money $123,541,241,234

print(f"Big money ${x:_}")
# Big money $123_541_241_234

print(f"Big money ${x:n}")
# Big money $123541241234
```

... which may be none!



The underscore (_) uses
underscores as the
thousands separator.



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Named groups in regex

When using regex with Python's module `re`, you can use the syntax `(?P<...>)` to create a named group, making it easier to retrieve match groups.

The group name
goes inside the <>.

```
import re

pattern = r"(?P<user>\S+)@(?P<domain>\S+)"
```



```
match = re.match(pattern, "rodrigo@mathspp.com")

print(match.group("user")) # rodrigo
print(match.group("domain")) # mathspp.com
```



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This is a Python-specific regex feature.