Python Home Page (https://www.kaggle.com/learn/python)

This lesson will be a double-shot of 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, and is one big perk of Python in this context.

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:

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

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

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

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

What you type	What you get	example	<pre>print(example)</pre>
\ '	1	'What\'s up?'	What's up?
\"	п	"That's \"cool\""	That's "cool"
\\	\	"Look, a mountain: /\\"	Look, a mountain: /\
\n		"1\n2 3"	1 2 3

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.

```
In [6]:
    triplequoted_hello = """hello
    world"""
    print(triplequoted_hello)
    triplequoted_hello == hello

    hello
    world

Out[6]:
    True
```

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
    hellopluto
```

Strings are sequences

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.

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!'

In [14]:
    # all lowercase
    claim.lower()

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]:
    claim.endswith('dwarf 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.

```
In [22]:
    planet + ', 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."
                                                    Traceback (most recent call 1
         TypeError
         ast)
         <ipython-input-23-73295f9638cc> in <module>
                1 position = 9
         ----> 2 planet + ", you'll always be the " + position + "th planet to m
         e."
         TypeError: must be str, not int
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
                                                                             sep
         arate with commas
         "{} weighs about {:.2} kilograms ({:.3%} of Earth's mass). It is home
         to {:,} Plutonians.".format(
             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 h
         ome 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}.
         {0}!
         {1}!""".format('planet', 'dwarf planet')
         print(s)
         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 (https://pyformat.info/) and the official docs (https://docs.python.org/3/library/string.html#formatstrings) for further reading.

Dictionaries

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

```
In [28]:
    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 [29]:
    numbers['one']

Out[29]:
    1
```

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

```
In [30]:
    numbers['eleven'] = 11
    numbers

Out[30]:
    {'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3, 'eleven': 11}
```

Or to change the value associated with an existing key

```
In [31]:
    numbers['one'] = 'Pluto'
    numbers

Out[31]:
    {'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 [32]:
    planets = ['Mercury', 'Venus', 'Earth', 'Mars', 'Jupiter', 'Saturn', 'U
    ranus', 'Neptune']
    planet_to_initial = {planet: planet[0] for planet in planets}
    planet_to_initial

Out[32]:

{'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

```
In [33]:
    'Saturn' in planet_to_initial

Out[33]:
    True

In [34]:
    'Betelgeuse' in planet_to_initial

Out[34]:
    False
```

A for loop over a dictionary will loop over its keys

```
In [35]:
    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 [36]:
    # Get all the initials, sort them alphabetically, and put them in a spac
    e-separated string.
    ' '.join(sorted(planet_to_initial.values()))

Out[36]:
    'E J M M N S U V'
```

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)

```
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 (https://docs.python.org/3/library/stdtypes.html#dict).

```
In [38]: help(dict)
```

Your Turn

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