PyCon 2009 - A Tour of Python Standard Library Documentation

Release 2

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CHAPTER

A TOUR OF PYTHON STANDARD LIBRARY

Conference PyCon 2009

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CHAPTER

TWO

SOMETHING ABOUT PYTHON

2.1 Have you watched Ratatouille?

- Anyone can cook. ~ Gusteau
- Computer Programming for Everybody. ~ Guido.

2.2 What is Python?

- · Middle-layer between shell and system
- Easy to use for end programmers.
- · Also convenient for library programmers.
- Multiple implementations: CPython, Jython, IronPython, PyPy
- Designed by Implementation, but still a very much designed languaged.
- Feature releases happen every 18 months and bug fix releases once in 3 months.
- Active Developer and User community.
- Python 2.x and Python 3k

2.3 Python Standard Library

Python's standard library is very extensive and it offers a wide range of facilities. The library contains built-in modules (written in C) that provide access to system functionality and also modules written in Python that provide standardized solutions for many problems that occur in everyday programming.

Some of these modules are explicitly designed to encourage and enhance the portability of Python programs by abstracting away platform-specifics into platform-neutral APIs.

Many large projects, both student level projects and industrial projects can be quickly accomplished by effective usage of the Python Standard Library modules.

Certain modules, which are written in C, are built into the interpreter. You can find the builtin modules in the following way:

```
>>> import sys
>>> print sys.builtin_module_names
```

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DIVING IN

Lets dissect a working Python Program and try to understand various aspects of it.

```
import socket
SERVER = 'irc.freenode.net'
PORT = 6667
NICKNAME = 'phoe6' # REPLACE WITH YOUR USERNAME
CHANNEL = '#python' # CHANGE CHANNEL IF DESIRED
IRC = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
def irc conn():
    IRC.connect((SERVER, PORT))
def send_data(command):
    IRC.send(command + ' \ r \ n')
def join(channel):
    send_data("JOIN %s" % channel)
def login(nickname, username='phoe6', password=None, realname='Senthil',
          hostname='freenode', servername='Server'):
    import getpass
    password = getpass.getpass('Enter password for %s:' % nickname)
    send_data("PASS %s" % password)
    send_data("USER %s %s %s %s" % (username, hostname, servername, realname))
    send_data("NICK %s" % nickname)
def part():
    send_data("PART")
irc_conn()
login (NICKNAME)
join(CHANNEL)
try:
    while True:
        buffer = IRC.recv(1024)
        msg = buffer.split()
        if msg[0] == "PING":
            # answer PING with PONG, as RFC 1459 specifies
            send_data("PONG %s" % msg[1])
        if msg[1] == 'PRIVMSG':
            nick_name = msg[0][:msg[0].find("!")]
            message = ' '.join(msg[3:])
```

```
print nick_name.lstrip(':'), '->', message.lstrip(':')
finally:
    part()
```

In the above program, you have

- modules
- function definitions
- try and finally block
- socket calls.
- print statement

PY3K, WHAT TO LOOK FOR IN BRIEF

- Simpler built-in types. Instead of having a built-in type for int and then for long as in Py26, have a single built-in type int in py3k, which will behave like long and serve for int as well.
- In py26, you and str and unicode. Now Its just str, which is internally unicode. So all strings are unicode in py3k. There is a separate bytes type for bytes of characters.
- 1/5 will be 0.2 in Python3k. If you want the result to be 0, like in Python26, do 1//5
- No comparisons supported between incompatible types. Documents from time immemorial advised the users to not to rely and it can change anytime. Well the change has happened.
- Its print() function for output now, just like input() function input. Two things here. Previously in py2x, input() expected an object and raw_input() was actually used to input. Now in py3k, its just input() which will behave just like raw_input() before.
- Everything is a new style class. All classes that you define will implicitly be derived from the object class.
- There is refactoring tool developed by python hackers which can be used to port your py2x code to py3k. Everyones resounding advice is Use It!. This will help in migration as well fix any issues with the refactoring tool.

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DIVING INTO PY3K

Lets look at the same program in Python 3k

```
# -*- coding: UTF-8 -*-
import socket
SERVER = 'irc.freenode.net'
PORT = 6667
NICKNAME = 'phoe6' # REPLACE WITH YOUR USERNAME
CHANNEL = '#python' # CHANGE CHANNEL IF DESIRED
IRC = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
def irc_conn():
    IRC.connect((SERVER, PORT))
def send_data(command):
    IRC.send((command + '\r\n').encode('utf-8'))
def join(channel):
    send_data("JOIN %s" % channel)
def login(nickname, username='phoe6', password=None, realname='Senthil',
         hostname='freenode', servername='Server'):
    import getpass
    password = getpass.getpass('Enter password for %s:' % nickname)
    send_data("PASS %s" % password)
    send_data("USER %s %s %s %s" % (username, hostname, servername, realname))
    send_data("NICK %s" % nickname)
def part():
    send_data("PART")
irc_conn()
login (NICKNAME)
join(CHANNEL)
filetxt = open('irc_messages.log','a+')
try:
    while True:
        buffer = IRC.recv(1024)
        print (buffer)
        msg = buffer.split()
        if msg[0] == "PING":
            # answer PING with PONG, as RFC 1459 specifies
```

- Note the change in print function.
- Sending bytes instead (encoded)

OS MODULE

This module provides a unified interface to a number of operating system functions.

Most of the functions in this module are implemented by platform specific modules, such as posix and nt. The os module automatically loads the right implementation module when it is first imported.

6.1 Differences from earlier python releases

- popen2,popen3,popen4 modules are Deprecated in Python 2.6
- popen2,popen3,popen4 modules are removed in Python 3.0.
- Most of the these functionalities are best adviced to be carried out through subprocess module.
- os.popen() method exists though to create child processes.

6.2 Working with directories and files

There are several functions for working with directories on filesystem, including creating, listing contents and removing them. Let us look into os.getcwd(), os.makedirs(path[,mode=777]), os.path.join(a,*p), os.listdir(path), os.unlink(path) and os.rmdir(path) with this example.

os.curdir and os.pardir attributes refer the current directory and parent directory respectively in a portable manner.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python2.6
import os
dir_name = 'os_directories_example'

print 'Starting at:', os.getcwd()
print os.listdir(os.curdir)

print 'Creating Directory:', dir_name
os.makedirs(dir_name)

file_name = os.path.join(dir_name, 'example.txt')
print 'Creating File:', file_name

f = open(file_name,'wt')
```

```
try:
    f.write('example file')
finally:
    f.close()

print 'Listing:', dir_name
print os.listdir(dir_name)

print 'Cleaning up'
os.unlink(file_name)
os.rmdir(dir_name)

print 'Moving up one directory:', os.pardir
os.chdir(os.pardir)

print 'After move:', os.getcwd()
print os.listdir(os.curdir)
```

6.2.1 Note

• There is difference between os.mkdir(path,[,mode=777]) and os.makedirs(path[,mode=777]), the latter is recursive and it best to use makedirs.

6.3 Checking file permissions.

We can test the permissions set on file, by using os.access (path, mode) module.

```
import os

print 'Testing:', __file__
print 'Exists:', os.access(__file__, os.F_OK)
print 'Readable:', os.access(__file__, os.R_OK)
print 'Writable:', os.access(__file__, os.W_OK)
print 'Executable:', os.access(__file__, os.X_OK)
```

• __file__ is a special attribute that points to the current file in python interpretor.

6.4 Change file permissions using chmod

Subsequent to the os.access (path, mode), os.chmod can be used to set the file permissions. Here we also see the *stat* module to retrieve the permission values to be set using os.chmod (path, mode)

```
import os
import stat

filename = 'os_stat_chmod_example.txt'

if os.path.exists(filename):
    existing_permissions = stat.S_IMODE(os.stat(filename).st_mode)
```

```
if os.access(filename, os.X_OK):
    print 'File Exists and has execute permissions.'
    print 'Removing Execute permissions'
    new_permissions = existing_permissions ^ stat.S_IXUSR
else:
    print 'File Exists and lacks execute permission.'
    print 'Adding Execute permissions'
    new_permissions = existing_permissions | stat.S_IXUSR
else:
    print 'Creating a file and Read, Write and Execute mode'
    f = open(filename,'wt')
    f.write('contents')
    f.close()
    new_permissions = stat.S_IWRITE| stat.S_IREAD | stat.S_IXUSR
os.chmod(filename, new_permissions)
```

6.5 file and file system status through stat system call

os.stat (path) returns stat information about *path* in the same formata on both Unix and Windows Operating Systems. The stat values are interpreted using the stat helper attributes.

```
import os
import sys
import time

if len(sys.argv) == 1:
    filename = __file__
else:
    filename = sys.argv[1]

stat_info = os.stat(filename)

print 'os.stat(%s):' % filename
print '\tSize:', stat_info.st_size
print '\tPermissions:', oct(stat_info.st_mode)
print '\tOwner:', stat_info.st_uid
print '\tDevice:', stat_info.st_dev
print '\tLast Modified:', time.ctime(stat_info.st_mtime)
```

6.6 Creating a symbolic link to a file.

os.symlink(src,dst) method provides the facility to create a symbolic link at dst for the src. We also see os.readlink(path) and os.unlink(path) in this example.

• tempfile module is used to create a temporary file.

```
import os, tempfile
link_name = tempfile.mktemp()
```

```
print 'Creating link %s->%s' % (link_name, __file__)
os.symlink(__file__, link_name)
stat_info = os.lstat(link_name)
print 'Permissions:', oct(stat_info.st_mode)

print 'Points to:', os.readlink(link_name)
# cleanup
os.unlink(link_name)
```

6.7 Getting the user information.

User information details such as effective user id, actual user id, group id and login id can be got from os module. In this example, let us look at os.geteuid(), os.getegid(), os.getuid(), os.getgid(), os.getgid(), os.getgid(), os.getgid(), os.getgroups() and os.setegid(gid).

```
#!/usr/bin/env python2.5
# PyMOTW Copyright (c) 2009 Doug Hellmann All rights reserved.
import os
TEST_UID = 1000 # set your user id
TEST_GID = 1000 # set your user's group id
def show_user_info():
   print('Effective User: ', os.geteuid())
   print('Effective Group: ', os.getegid())
                           ', os.getuid(), os.getlogin())
   print('Actual User:
                          ', os.getgid())
   print('Actual Group:
   print('Actual Groups: ', os.getgroups())
   return
print('BEFORE CHANGE:')
show_user_info()
trv:
   os.setegid(TEST_GID)
except OSError:
   print('Error: Could not change effective group. Re-run as root.')
else:
   print('CHANGED GROUP')
    show_user_info()
try:
   os.seteuid(TEST_UID)
except OSError:
   print('Error: Could not change effective user. Re-run as root.')
   print('CHANGED USER')
   show_user_info()
```

• Exception OSError is raised on failure to perform any operation from os module.

6.8 Environment values and execution

Methods available os.environ provide facilities to get and set the environment variable. Please note that the environment variables are set for the Python process and cannot be reflected in the system environment variables outside in the parent process. That is, child process cannot change values of the parent process.

os.system(command) provides a facility to execute the command as executed by the operating system shell.

```
import os

print 'Initial value:', os.environ.get('TESTVAR',None)
print 'Child Process:', os.system('echo $TESTVAR')
print

os.environ['TESTVAR'] = 'THIS VALUE HAS CHANGED.'

print 'Changed Value:', os.environ['TESTVAR']
print 'Child Process:', os.system('echo $TESTVAR')
print

del os.environ['TESTVAR']

print 'Removed Value:', os.environ.get('TESTVAR', None)
print 'Child Process:', os.system('echo $TESTVAR')
```

6.9 popen - Open a pipe

```
popen(command [, mode='r' [, bufsize]]) -> pipe
Open a pipe to/from a command returning a file object.
```

```
import os

pipe_stdout = os.popen('echo "hello,world"','r')

try:
    stdout_value = pipe_stdout.read()

finally:
    pipe_stdout.close()

print stdout_value,

pipe_stdin = os.popen('cat -','w')

try:
    pipe_stdin.write('hello,world\n')

finally:
    pipe_stdin.close()
```

CHAPTER SEVEN

SHUTIL MODULE

This utility module contains some functions for copying files and directories. This module provide high level operations that get performed on a bunch of files or a collection.

Note that copy methods cannot reliably copy all the metadata. On POSIX platforms, this means that file owner and group are lost as well as ACLs. On Mac OS, the resource fork and other metadata are not used. This means that resources will be lost and file type and creator codes will not be correct. On Windows, file owners, ACLs and alternate data streams are not copied.

7.1 What's new shutil module in Py2.6 and Py3k.

• copytree function has an additional parameter called ignore, which takes callable as an argument. shutil also exposes a ignore_patterns function which can be used with ignore parameter.

7.2 Simplest shutil.copy example

The following snippet demonstrates, copy (src, dst) function. It copies the data as well as the mode bits and as the following shows, it can copy a file into a directory. The copy function copies a file in pretty much the same way as the Unix cp command.

```
import shutil
import os

os.mkdir('example')
print 'BEFORE:', os.listdir('example')
shutil.copy('shutil_copy.py','example')
print 'AFTER:', os.listdir('example')
os.unlink('example'+ os.sep + 'shutil_copy.py')
os.rmdir('example')
```

7.3 shutil.copy2 example

Copy data and all stat info ("cp -p src dst").

```
import shutil
import os
import time
```

```
def show_file_info(filename):
    stat_info = os.stat(filename)
    print '\tMode :', stat_info.st_mode
    print '\tCreated :', time.ctime(stat_info.st_ctime)
    print '\tAccessed:', time.ctime(stat_info.st_atime)
    print '\tModified:', time.ctime(stat_info.st_mtime)

os.mkdir('example')
print 'SOURCE:'
show_file_info('shutil_copy2.py')
shutil.copy2('shutil_copy2.py','example')
print 'DESTINATION:'
show_file_info('example' + os.sep + 'shutil_copy2.py')
os.unlink('example' + os.sep + 'shutil_copy2.py')
os.rmdir('example')
```

7.4 move, copytree, rmtree

The following snippet demonstrates, move (src, dst), which recursively move a file or directory to another location. This is similar to the unix *mv* command.

copytree(src, dst, symlinks=False, ignore=None), recursively copies a directory tree using copy2() function and rmtree(path, ignore_errors=False, onerror=None) recursively deletes a directory tree.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3.0
import os
import shutil
from subprocess import getoutput
# Create an example directory.
os.mkdir('example')
# Write an empty test file.
f = open('example.txt','wt')
f.write('contents')
f.close()
# move the file to that directory.
shutil.move('example.txt','example')
# copy the entire directory tree to a different location.
shutil.copytree('example','/tmp/example')
print('BEFORE:')
print(getoutput('ls -rlast /tmp/example'))
# remove the directory tree
shutil.rmtree('/tmp/example')
print('AFTER:')
print(getoutput('ls -rlast /tmp/example'))
```

```
shutil.rmtree('example')
```

• commands.getoutput, returns the output(stdout,stderr) as if executed from a shell.

7.5 copyfileobj function

copyfileobj(fsrc, fdst[, length=16384]),copy data from file-like object fsrc to file-like object fdst. length is optional. fsrc, and fdst should be open file handles.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python2.6
import shutil
# open a file, with w+ mode.
f1 = open('example1.txt','w+')
f1.write("""
I was born in a barrel of butcher knives
Trouble I love and peace I despise
Wild horses kicked me in my side
Then a rattlesnake bit me and he walked off and died.
                 -- Bo Diddley
# Writing would have changed the file-pointer, so I do a seek(0), in order to
# return it back to first position.
f1.seek(0)
f2 = open('example2.txt','w+')
\# I am going to copy using shutil.copyfileobj. This works on open file handles \# and copies the contents of the fsrc to fdst. The file handle will reach to
# the end again.
shutil.copyfileobj(f1,f2)
# Let me check, if both files are same now.
fl.seek(0)
f2.seek(0)
print f1.read() == f2.read()
# print contents from second file.
f2.seek(0)
print f2.read()
# time to close the file handlers.
f1.close()
f2.close()
```

7.6 copyfile and copymode

copyfile(src, dst), copies the src to dst. The permissions are set according to the umask of the current user. In order to copy the file mode bits from one file to another, we use copymode(src, dst). copymode, does not create a destination file, it assumes dst already exists.

```
# By default when a new file is created under Unix, it receives permissions
# based on the umask of the current user. To copy the permissions from one file
# to another use copymode
import shutil
import subprocess
import os
# Create an example file.
f = open('example.txt','w+')
f.write('content')
f.close()
# Set the mode to 0444
os.chmod('example.txt',0444)
shutil.copyfile('example.txt','newfile.txt')
subprocess.call(['ls', '-ld', 'example.txt'])
print 'With shutil.copyfile:'
subprocess.call(['ls', '-ld', 'newfile.txt'])
print 'After shutil.copymode:'
shutil.copymode('example.txt','newfile.txt')
subprocess.call(['ls', '-ld', 'newfile.txt'])
os.unlink('example.txt')
os.unlink('newfile.txt')
```

7.7 copystat

shutil.copystat(src, dst), copie all stat info (mode bits, atime, mtime, flags) from src to dst. It is best verified from the following example.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python2.6

# Copyright 2009: PyMOTW, Doug Hellman. All Rights Reserved.

from shutil import *
import os
import time

def show_file_info(filename):
    stat_info = os.stat(filename)
    print '\tMode :',stat_info.st_mode
```

```
print '\tCreated :', time.ctime(stat_info.st_ctime)
print '\tAccessed :', time.ctime(stat_info.st_atime)
print '\tModified :', time.ctime(stat_info.st_mtime)

f = open('file_to_change.txt','wt')
f.write('content')
f.close()

os.chmod('file_to_change.txt',0444)

print 'BEFORE:'
show_file_info('file_to_change.txt')
copystat('shutil_copystat.py','file_to_change.txt')
print 'AFTER:'
show_file_info('file_to_change.txt')
os.unlink('file_to_change.txt')
```

7.8 Assignment

• Write a script that can export a svn or cvs directory.

7.8. Assignment 23

SUBPROCESS

The *subprocess* module allows you to spawn new processes, connect to their input/output/error pipes, and obtain their return codes.

8.1 subprocess.call(*popenargs, **kwargs)

This is convenience function provided by subprocess module which executes the command given by the argument, when shell=True is the shell variables are expanded in the command line.

```
# using os.system() you could call the external operating system calls
# That is equivalent to call() method from subprocess.
# Optional shell argument provides the facility to pass the shell variables.
# Doing it os.system way
import os
import subprocess
os.system('date')
# Doing it subprocess way
subprocess.call('date')
# Accessing shell variables
# Since we set shell=True, the shell variables are expanded in the command line
subprocess.call('echo $PATH', shell=True)
```

8.2 Popen method

subprocess module defines a class called Popen.

- :: class subprocess.Popen(args, bufsize=0, executable=None, stdin=None, stdout=None, stderr=None, pre-exec_fn=None, close_fds=False, shell=False, cwd=None, env=None, universal_newlines=False, startupinfo=None, creationflags=0)
 - subprocess.PIPE: Special value that can be used as the stdin, stdout or stderr argument to Popen and indicates that a pipe to the standard stream should be opened.
 - subprocess.STDOUT: Special value that can be used as the stderr argument to Popen and indicates that standard error should go into the same handle as standard output.

```
import subprocess
print 'subprocess demo: reading output of child process'
proc = subprocess.Popen('echo "Hello, World"', shell=True, stdout=subprocess.PIPE)
cout = proc.communicate()[0]
print cout
print 'subprocess demo: writing to the input of a pipe'
proc = subprocess.Popen('cat -', shell=True, stdin=subprocess.PIPE)
proc.communicate('Hello, World')
print
print 'subprocess replacement of popen2, reading and writing through pipes'
proc = subprocess.Popen('cat -', shell=True, stdin=subprocess.PIPE,
                        stdout=subprocess.PIPE)
cout = proc.communicate("""
We were so poor we couldn't afford a watchdog. If we heard a noise at night,
we'd bark ourselves.
                -- Crazy Jimmy
""") [0]
print cout
print 'subprocess replacement of popen3, handling stdin, stdout and stderr'
proc = subprocess.Popen('cat -;echo "This will be an Error Message" 1>&2',
                        shell=True,
                        stdin=subprocess.PIPE,
                        stdout=subprocess.PIPE,
                        {\tt stderr=subprocess.PIPE}
cout, cerr = proc.communicate('This is the Input Message')
print cout
print cerr
```

CHAPTER

NINE

GLOB

Credits: Dough Hellman for PyMOTW

This module generates lists of files matching given patterns, just like the Unix shell.

File patterns are similar to regular expressions, but simpler. An asterisk (*) matches zero or more characters, and a question mark (?) exactly one character. You can also use brackets to indicate character ranges, such as [0-9] for a single digit. All other characters match themselves.

glob(pattern) returns a list of all files matching a given pattern.

Note that glob returns full path names, unlike the os.listdir function. glob uses the *fnmatch* module to do the actual pattern matching.

The following are some example programs which demonstrates the usage of glob module.

To test these programs, we must use *glob_maketestdata.py*.

9.1 Get all files and directories

```
import glob
for name in glob.glob('dir/*'):
    print name
```

9.2 Specify with a range

```
import glob
for name in glob.glob('dir/*[0-9].*'):
    print name
```

9.3 Using a single wild character

```
import glob
for name in glob.glob('dir/file?.txt'):
    print name
```

9.4 Finding within a subdirectory

```
import glob

print 'Named explicitly:'
for name in glob.glob('dir/subdir/*'):
    print '\t', name

print 'Named with wildcard'
for name in glob.glob('dir/*/*'):
    print '\t', name
```

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CHAPTER

TEN

TIME

This module provides a number of functions to deal with dates and the time within a day. It is a thin layer on top of the C runtime library.

A given date and time can either be represented as a floating point value (the number of seconds since a reference date, usually January 1st, 1970), or as a time tuple.

10.1 time, ctime, clock and sleep

time.time() returns the unix time, that is the simple since the epoch. To know what is the epoch, look at time.gmtime(0), which is start of unix time since 1 Jan 1970.

time.ctime() returns the wallclock time and time.clock() provides the processor clock time, which is often used for benchmarking.

time.sleep(seconds) would sleep (do nothing) for the given seconds.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python2.6
import time
print 'unix time:', time.time()
print 'wallclock time:', time.ctime()
print 'processor clock time:', time.clock()

for i in range(1,6):
    print '%s %0.2f %0.2f' % (time.ctime(), time.time(), time.clock())
    time.sleep(i)
```

10.2 Benchmarking using time.clock

The values returned from clock() can be used for performance testing, benchmarking etc, since they reflect the actual time used by programs and can be more precise than the values from time()

```
#!/usr/bin/env python2.6
# PyMOTW Copyright (c) 2009 Doug Hellmann All rights reserved.
import hashlib
import time
# Data to use to calculate md5 checksums
```

```
data = open(__file__,'rt').read()

for i in range(5):
    h = hashlib.shal()
    print time.ctime(), ': %0.3f %0.3f' % (time.time(), time.clock())
    for i in range(100000):
        h.update(data)
    cksum = h.digest()
```

hashlib - interface to many hash functions

10.3 Parsing time

In this snippet let us look into:

- time.strptime(string[, format]), which parse a string representing a time according to a format. The return value is a struct_time as returned by gmtime() or localtime().
- time.strftime(format[, t]) converts a tuple or struct_time representing a time as returned by gm-time() or localtime() to a string as specified by the format argument
- time.gmtime(), time.localtime return a tuple or struct_time which can be parsed into various time components, like month, day, hour etc. Difference between gmtime and localtime is gmtime returns UTC while localtime returns the localtime.
- time.mktime() is the inverse of time.localtime which takes the time.localtime tuple and expresses it in localtime, which is in unix time format.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python2.6

import time

now = time.ctime()
print 'time.ctime:', now
parsed = time.strptime(now)
print 'time.strptime(now):', parsed

print 'time.strftime(format, strptime):', time.strftime("%a %b %d %H:%M:%S %Y", parsed)
print 'time.strftime(format, gmtime):', time.strftime("%a %b %d %H:%M:%S %Y", time.gmtime())
print 'time.strftime(format, localtime):', time.strftime("%a %b %d %H:%M:%S %Y", time.localtime())

t = time.localtime()

print 'Day of the month:', t.tm_mday
print 'Day of the week:', t.tm_wday
print 'Day of the year:', t.tm_yday

print 'mktime :', time.mktime(time.localtime())
```

10.4 Time Zone Calculations

• time.timezone is the offset of the local (non-DST) timezone, in seconds west of UTC (negative in most of Western Europe, positive in the US, zero in the UK).

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- time.tzname is a tuple of two strings: the first is the name of the local non-DST timezone, the second is the name of the local DST timezone.
- time.daylight defines the daylight savings time.
- time.tzset(), resets the time conversion rules used by the library routines. The environment variable TZ specifies how this is done. On many Unix systems, it is more convenient to use the system's zoneinfo (tzfile(5)) database to specify the timezone rules. To do this, set the TZ environment variable to the path of the required timezone datafile, relative to the root of the systems *zoneinfo* timezone database, usually located at /usr/share/zoneinfo.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python2.6
# PyMOTW Copyright (c) 2009 Doug Hellmann All rights reserved.
import time
import os
def show_zone_info():
   print '\tTZ :', os.environ.get('TZ','(not set)')
   print '\ttzname :', time.tzname
   print '\tZone : %d (%d)' % (time.timezone, (time.timezone / 3600))
                  :', time.daylight
   print '\tDST
   print '\tTime :', time.ctime()
   print
print 'Default:'
show_zone_info()
for zone in ['US/Eastern','US/Pacific', 'GMT',
             'Europe/Amsterdam','Asia/Culcutta']:
   os.environ['TZ'] = zone
   time.tzset()
   print zone, ':'
    show_zone_info()
```

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CHAPTER

ELEVEN

BUILTIN MODULES

Let us start with the __builtin__ functions and exceptions which Python Standard Library defines.:

```
>>>import __builtin__
>>>dir(__builtin__)
```

11.1 all

This would list the various functions and exceptions that are available to the interpreter. Let us look into certain important ones:

```
>>> all([True, True, True, True])
True
>>> all([False, True, True, True])
False
```

11.2 any

```
:: >>> any([False,False,False,True])
True
>>> any([False,False,False,False])
False
```

11.3 callable(object)

Return True if the object argument appears callable, False if not. If this returns true, it is still possible that a call fails, but if it is false, calling object will never succeed. Note that classes are callable (calling a class returns a new instance); class instances are callable if they have a __call__() method.

11.4 staticmethod

In Object Oriented Programming, you create a method which gets associated either with a class or with an instance of the class, namely an object. This is concept is the first thing to understand.

And most often in our regular practice, we always create methods to be associated with an object. Those are called instance methods.

For e.g:

```
class Car:
    def cartype(self):
        self.model = "Audi"
mycar = Car()
mycar.cartype()
print mycar.model
```

Here cartype() is an instance method, it associates itself with an instance (mycar) of the class (Car) and that is defined by the first argument ('self').

When you want a method not to be associated with an instance, you call that as a staticmethod.

How can you do such a thing in Python?

The following would never work:

```
>>> class Car:
... def getmodel():
... return "Audi"
... def type(self):
... self.model = getmodel()
```

Because, getmodel() is defined inside the class, Python binds it to the Class Object. You cannot call it by the following way also, namely: Car.getmodel() or Car().getmodel(), because in this case we are passing it through an instance (Class Object or a Instance Object) as one of the argument while our definition does not take any argument.

As you can see, there is a conflict here and in effect the case is, It is an "unbound local method" inside the class.

Now comes Staticmethod.

Now, in order to call getmodel(), you can to change it to a static method.

Now, I have called it as Car.getmodel() even though my definition of getmodel did not take any argument. This is what staticmethod function did. getmodel() is a method which does not need an instance now, but still you do it as Car.getmodel() because getmodel() is still bound to the Class object.

11.5 Decorators

getmodel = staticmethod(getmodel)

If you look at the previous code example, the function staticmethod took a function as a argument and returned a function which we assigned to a variable (named as SAME functionname) and made it a function. Correct?

staticmethod() function thus wrapped our getmodel function with some extra features and this wrapping is called as Decorator.

The same code can be written like this.

```
>>> class Car:
...    @staticmethod
...    def getmodel():
...        return "Audi"
...    def cartype(self):
...        self.model = Car.getmodel()
...
>>> mycar = Car()
>>> mycar.cartype()
>>> mycar.model
'Audi'
```

Good reference on Decorators would be: http://personalpages.tds.net/~kent37/kk/00001.html

Please remember that this concept of Decorator is independent of staticmethod and classmethod.

11.6 classmethod

Now, what is a difference between staticmethod and classmethod?

In languages like Java,C++, both the terms denote the same :- methods for which we do not require instances. But there is a difference in Python. A class method receives the class it was called on as the first argument. This can be useful with subclasses.

We can see the above example with the classmethod and a decorator as:

```
>>>
>>>
class Car:
...    @classmethod
...    def getmodel(cls):
...         return "Audi"
...    def gettype(self):
...         self.model = Car.getmodel()
...
>>> mycar = Car()
>>> mycar.gettype()
>>> mycar.model
'Audi'
```

The following are the references in order to understand further: 1) Alex-Martelli explaining it with code: http://code.activestate.com/recipes/52304/2) Decorators: http://personalpages.tds.net/~kent37/kk/00001.html

11.7 ellipsis

• ellipsis is another builtin. It is only used in slicing.

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11.8 property

```
print "---- First Section ----"
class Name(object):
   def __init__(self):
        self.name = "PyCon 2009"
    def confname(self):
        return self.name
conference = Name()
print conference.confname
print conference.confname()
print "---- Second Section ----"
class Name2(object):
    def __init__(self):
        self.name = "PyCon 2009"
    def confname(self):
        return self.name
    confname = property(confname)
conference2 = Name2()
print conference2.confname
# print conference2.confname() is not possible, because it is an attribute and
# not callable.
print "---- Third Section ----"
class Name3(object):
   def __init__(self):
        self.name = "PyCon 2009"
    @property
    def confname(self):
        return self.name
conference3 = Name3()
print conference3.confname
11.9 super
class A(object):
    def __init__(self):
        print "A init"
```

class B(A):

def __init__(self):

```
print "B init"
        super(B, self).__init__()
class C(A):
    def __init__(self):
        print "C init"
        super(C, self).__init__()
class D(B,C):
    def __init__(self):
        print "D init"
        super(D, self).__init__()
obj = D()
class A(object):
    def __init__(self):
        print "A init"
        print self.__class__._mro__
class B(A):
    def __init__(self):
       print "B init"
        print self.__class__._mro__
        super(B, self).__init__()
class C(A):
    def __init__(self):
        print "C init"
        print self.__class__.__mro__
        super(C, self).__init__()
class D(B, C):
    def __init__(self):
        print "D init"
        print self.__class__.__mro__
        super(D, self).__init__()
x = D()
class Farm(object):
    def __init__(self):
        self.x = "I am from Farm"
class Barm(Farm):
    def __init__(self):
        super(Barm, self).__init__()
obj = Barm()
print obj.x
class Farm(object):
    def __init__(self):
        self.x = "I am from Farm"
```

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```
class Barm(Farm):
    def __init__(self):
        Farm.__init__(self)

obj = Barm()
print obj.x
```

11.10 compile

```
source = "import os;print os.listdir(os.getcwd())"
obj = compile(source,'<string>','exec')
eval(obj)
exec(obj)
```

11.11 Exceptions

- Exceptions are Classes and are __builtin__ to the interpreter.
- Until 1.5, simple string messages were exceptions.
- The exception classes are defined in a hierarchy, related exceptions can be caught by catching their base classes.

11.11.1 BaseException

Baseclass for all exceptions. Implements logic for creating the string representation of the exception using the str() from the arguments passed to the constructor.

11.11.2 Exception

Baseclass for the exception that do not result in quitting the running application. All user-defined exceptions should use Exception as a base class.

11.11.3 StandardError

Baseclass for builtin exceptions used in Standard Library.

11.11.4 ArthimeticError

Baseclass for math related errors.

11.11.5 LookupError

When something cannot be found.

11.11.6 EnvironmentError

Base class for errors that come from outside of Python (the operating system, filesystem, etc.).

11.11.7 AssertionError

An AssertionError is raised by a failed assert statement.

:: >>>assert False, 'The assertion failed' >>># This should throw a simple AssertionError

11.11.8 AttributeError

When an attribute reference or assignment fails, AttributeError is raised.

AttributeError will also be raised when trying to modify a read-only attribute.

```
class MyClass(object):
    @property
    def attribute(self):
        return 'This is the attribute value'
        o = MyClass()
        print o.attribute
        o.attribute = 'New value'
```

11.11.9 **EOFError**

An EOFError is raised when a builtin function like input() or raw_input() do not read any data before encountering the end of their input stream.

11.11.10 IOError

Raised when input or output fails, for example if a disk fills up or an input file does not exist.

```
:: f = open('/does/not/exist', 'r')
```

11.11.11 importError

Raised when a module, or member of a module, cannot be imported.

11.11.12 IndexError

An IndexError is raised when a sequence reference is out of range.

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```
my_seq = [ 0, 1, 2 ]
print my_seq[3]
```

11.11.13 KeyError

A KeyError is raised when a value is not found as a key of a dictionary.

```
:: d = { 'a':1, 'b':2 } print d['c']
```

11.11.14 KeyboardInterrupt

A KeyboardInterrupt occurs whenever the user presses Ctrl-C (or Delete) to stop a running program. Unlike most of the other exceptions, KeyboardInterrupt inherits directly from BaseException to avoid being caught by global exception handlers that catch Exception.

```
try:
    print 'Press Return or Ctrl-C:',
    ignored = raw_input()

except Exception, err:
    print 'Caught exception:', err

except KeyboardInterrupt, err:
    print 'Caught KeyboardInterrupt'
else:
    print 'No exception'
```

11.11.15 MemoryError

If your program runs out of memory and it is possible to recover (by deleting some objects, for example), a Memory-Error is raised.

```
import itertools
```

```
# Try to create a MemoryError by allocating a lot of memory
l = []
for i in range(3):
    try:
        for j in itertools.count(1):
            print i, j
            l.append('*' * (2**30))
    except MemoryError:
        print '(error, discarding existing list)'
        l = []
```

11.11.16 NameError

NameErrors are raised when your code refers to a name that does not exist in the current scope. For example, an unqualified variable name.

11.11.17 NotImplementedError

User-defined base classes can raise NotImplementedError to indicate that a method or behavior needs to be defined by a subclass, simulating an interface.

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TWELVE

URLLIB

```
import urllib
query_args = {'q':'query_string', 'foo':'bar'}
encoded_args = urllib.urlencode(query_args)
print 'Encoded:', encoded_args
url = 'http://localhost:8000/?' + encoded_args
print urllib.urlopen(url).read()
import urllib
response = urllib.urlopen('http://www.example.com')
for line in response:
   print line.rstrip()
import urllib
response = urllib.urlopen('http://localhost:8080/')
print 'RESPONSE:', response
print 'URL
              :', response.geturl()
headers = response.info()
print 'DATE:', headers['date']
print 'HEADERS:'
print '----'
print headers
data = response.read()
print 'LENGTH :', len(data)
print 'DATA
print '----'
print data
import os
from urllib import pathname2url, url2pathname
print '==Default=='
path = '/a/b/c'
```

```
print 'Original:', path
print 'URL:', pathname2url(path)
print 'Path:', url2pathname('/d/e/f')
from nturl2path import pathname2url, url2pathname
print '== Windows without a Drive Letter =='
path = path.replace('/','\\')
print 'Original:', path
print 'URL:', pathname2url(path)
print 'Path:', url2pathname('/d/e/f')
print '== Windows URL with a Drive Letter =='
path = 'C:\\' + path.replace('/','\\')
print 'Original:', path
print 'URL
             :', pathname2url(path)
print 'Path :', url2pathname('/d/e/f')
import urllib
query_args = {'q':'query string', 'foo':'bar'}
encoded_args = urllib.urlencode(query_args)
url = 'http://localhost:8000/'
print urllib.urlopen(url, encoded_args).read()
import urllib
url = 'http://uthcode.sarovar.org/~senthil'
print 'urlencode():', urllib.urlencode({'url':url})
print 'quote():', urllib.quote(url)
print 'quote_plus():', urllib.quote_plus(url)
quoted = urllib.quote(url)
quoteplused = urllib.quote_plus(url)
print 'unquote', urllib.unquote(quoted)
print 'unquote_plus', urllib.unquote_plus(quoteplused)
import urllib
import os
def reporthook(blocks_read, block_size, total_size):
    if not blocks_read:
        print 'Connection opened'
        return
    if total_size < 0:</pre>
        # unknown size
        print 'Read %d blocks' % blocks_read
    else:
        amount_read = blocks_read * block_size
        print 'Read %d blocks, or %d %d' % (blocks_read, amount_read,
                                            total_size)
        return
```

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BASEHTTPSEVER

```
import BaseHTTPServer
import cgi, random, sys
MESSAGES = [
    "I like maxims that don't encourage behavior modification.",
    "Reality continues to ruin my life.",
    "Weekends don't count unless you spend them doing something completely \setminus
    pointless.",
    "Life's disappointments are harder to take when you don't know any swear \
    words."
1
class Handler(BaseHTTPServer.BaseHTTPRequestHandler):
    def do_GET(self):
        if self.path != "/":
            self.send_error(404, "File not Found!")
            return
        self.send_response(200)
        self.send_header("Content-type:", "text/html")
        self.end_headers()
        try:
            # redirect stdout to client
            stdout = sys.stdout
            sys.stdout = self.wfile
            self.makepage()
        finally:
            sys.stdout = stdout # restore
    def makepage(self):
        # generate a random message
        tagline = random.choice(MESSAGES)
        print "<html>"
        print "<body>"
        print "Today's Quote:"
        print "<i>%s</i>" % cgi.escape(tagline)
        print "</body>"
        print "</html>"
PORT = 8000
httpd = BaseHTTPServer.HTTPServer(("", PORT), Handler)
print "serving at port", PORT
httpd.serve_forever()
```

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SIMPLEXMLPRCSERVER

```
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer
import logging
import os
# Set up logging
logging.basicConfig(level=logging.DEBUG)
server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(('localhost',9000), logRequests=True)
# Expose a function
def list_contents(dir_name):
    logging.debug('list_contents(%s)', dir_name)
   return os.listdir(dir_name)
server.register_function(list_contents)
try:
   print 'Use Control-C to quit.'
   server.serve_forever()
except KeyboardInterrupt:
   print 'Exiting'
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer
import os
server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(('localhost',9000), allow_none=True)
server.register_function(os.listdir, 'dir.list')
server.register_function(os.mkdir,'dir.create')
server.register_function(os.rmdir,'dir.remove')
try:
   print 'Use Control-C to quit'
   server.serve_forever()
except KeyboardInterrupt:
   print 'Exiting'
from SimpleXMLRPCServer import SimpleXMLRPCServer, list_public_methods
import os
import inspect
server = SimpleXMLRPCServer(('localhost', 9000), logRequests=True)
```

```
server.register_introspection_functions()
class DirectoryService:
    def _listMethods(self):
        return list_public_methods(self)
    def _methodHelp(self, method):
        f = getattr(self, method)
        return inspect.getdoc(f)
    def list(self, dir_name):
        """list(dir_name) => [<filename>]
        Returns a list containing the contents of the named directory.
        return os.listdir(dir_name)
server.register_instance(DirectoryService())
try:
    print 'Use CTRL-C to exit'
    server.serve_forever()
except KeyboardInterrupt:
   print 'Exitting'
```

14.1 xmlrpclib

```
import xmlrpclib
proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy('http://localhost:9000')
print proxy.list_contents('/home/senthil')
import xmlrpclib
proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy('http://localhost:9000')
print 'BEFORE :', 'Example' in proxy.dir.list('/home/senthil')
print 'CREATE :', proxy.dir.create('/home/senthil/Example')
print 'SHOULD EXIST :', 'Example' in proxy.dir.list('/home/senthil/')
print 'REMOVE :', proxy.dir.remove('/home/senthil/Example')
print 'AFTER
              :', 'Example' in proxy.dir.list('/home/senthil')
import xmlrpclib
proxy = xmlrpclib.ServerProxy('http://localhost:9000')
for method_name in proxy.system.listMethods():
   print '=' * 60
   print method_name
   print '-' * 60
   print proxy.system.methodHelp(method_name)
   print
```

SMTPD AND SMTPLIB

```
import smtpd
import asyncore
class CustomSMTPServer(smtpd.SMTPServer):
    def process_message(self, peer, mailfrom, rcpttos, data):
       print 'Receiving message from:', peer
       print 'Message addressed from:', mailfrom
       print 'Message addressed to :', rcpttos
       print 'Message length
                                    :', len(data)
       print 'Message is
                                    :', data
        return
server = CustomSMTPServer(('127.0.0.1',1025), None)
asyncore.loop()
import smtplib
import email.utils
from email.mime.text import MIMEText
# Create the message
msg = MIMEText('Well, it just seemed wrong to cheat on an ethics test. --\
               Calvin')
msg['To'] = email.utils.formataddr(('Recipient','recipient@example.com'))
msg['From'] = email.utils.formataddr(('Author','author@example.com'))
msg['Subject'] = 'I am home, Hobbes.'
server = smtplib.SMTP('127.0.0.1', 1025)
server.set_debuglevel(True) # Logs the communication with the server
try:
   server.sendmail('author@example.com',
                    ['recipient@example.com'], msg.as_string())
finally:
    server.quit()
```

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SOCKET MODULE

The Python socket module provides direct access to the standard BSD socket interface, which is available on most modern computer systems. The advantage of using Python for socket programming is that socket addressing is simpler and much of the buffer allocation is done automatically. In addition, it is easy to create secure sockets and several higher-level socket abstractions are available.

To create a server, you need to:

- 1. create a socket
- 2. bind the socket to an address and port
- 3. listen for incoming connections
- 4. wait for clients
- 5. accept a client
- 6. send and receive data

To create a client, you need to:

- 1. create a socket
- 2. connect to the server
- 3. send and receive data

import socket

```
host = '127.0.0.1'
port = 50000
size = 1024

s = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
s.connect((host, port))
s.send("Hello,World")
data = s.recv(size)
s.close()
print 'Received:', data

import socket
host = '127.0.0.1'
```

```
port = 50000
backlog = 5
size = 1024
s = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
s.bind((host, port))
s.listen(backlog)
while True:
    client, address = s.accept()
    data = client.recv(size)
    if data:
        client.send(data)
    client.close()
```

16.1 Additional Notes of Socket Programming.

16.1.1 Addresses

The BSD socket interface defines several different types of addresses called families. These include:

- AF_UNIX: A Unix socket allows two processes running on the same machine to communicate with each other through the socket interface. In Python, UNIX socket addresses are represented as a string.
- AF_INET: An IPv4 socket is a socket between two processes, potentially running on different machines, using the current version of IP (IP version 4). This is the type of socket most programs use today. In Python, IPv4 socket addresses are represented using a tuple of (host, port), where host is a string host name and port is an integer called the port number. For the host name you can specify either a standard Internet name, such as 'www.cnn.com' or an IP address in dotted decimal notation, such as '64.236.24.20'.
- AF_INET6: An IPv6 socket is similar to an IPv4 socket, except that it uses IPv6. The main change in IPv6 is that it uses 128 bit addresses, whereas IPv4 uses only 32 bits; this allows IPv6 to better meet the current high demand for IP

addresses. In addition, IPv6 uses flow identifiers to provide different Quality of Service to applications (i.e. low delay or guaranteed bandwidth) and scope identifiers to limit packet delivery to various administrative boundaries. In Python, IPv6 socket addresses are represented using a tuple of (host, port, flowinfo, scopeid), where flowinfo is the flow identifier and scopeid is the scope identifier. Since support of IPv6 in many host operating systems is still incomplete, we will not discuss IPv6 further in this tutorial.

16.1.2 Sockets

To create a socket in Python, use the socket() method

```
socket(family,type[,protocol])
```

The family is either AF_UNIX, AF_INET, or AF_INET6. There are several different types of sockets; the main ones are SOCK_STREAM for TCP sockets and SOCK_DGRAM for UDP sockets. You can skip the protocol number in most cases.

Please note that the constants listed above for socket family and socket type are defined inside the socket module. This means that you must import the socket module and then reference them as 'socket.AF_INET'.

The important thing about the socket() method is it returns a socket object. You can then use the socket object to call each of its methods, such as bind, listen, accept, and connect.

16.1.3 s.listen(backlog)

This tells the operating system to keep a backlog of five connections. This means that you can have at most five clients waiting while the server is handling the current client. You can set this higher, but the operating system will typically allow a maximum of 5 waiting connections. To cope with this, busy servers need to generate a new thread to handle each incoming connection so that it can quickly serve the queue of waiting clients.

http://ilab.cs.byu.edu/python/socketmodule.html

THREADING

```
import threading, zipfile
class AsyncZip (threading.Thread):
    def __init__(self, infile, outfile):
        threading.Thread.__init__(self)
        self.infile = infile
        self.outfile = outfile
    def run(self):
        f = zipfile.ZipFile(self.outfile, 'w', zipfile.ZIP_DEFLATED)
        f.write(self.infile)
        f.close()
        print 'Finished background zip of : ', self.infile
background = AsyncZip('mydata.txt','myarchive.zip')
background.start()
print 'The main program continues to run in the foreground.'
background.join()
print 'Main program waited until background was done.'
import threading
class MyThread(threading.Thread):
    def run(self):
        print 'Insert some thread stuff here.'
        print 'It will be executed.'
        print 'There is nothing much here.'
# To create a thread, just call its start() method.
# That is it.
MyThread().start()
from threading import Thread
class MyThread (Thread):
    def run(self):
        print "I am a thread!"
foobar = MyThread()
```

```
foobar.start()
foobar.join()
from threading import Thread
class myObject (Thread):
    def __init__(self):
       self.\_val = 1
    def get(self):
        return self._val
    def increment(self):
        self._val += 1
def t1(ob):
    ob.increment()
    print 't1:', ob.get() == 2
def t2(ob):
    ob.increment()
    print 't2:', ob.get() == 2
ob = myObject()
# Create two threads modifying the same ob instance
thread1 = Thread(target=t1, args=(ob,))
thread2 = Thread(target=t2, args=(ob,))
# Run the thread
thread1.start()
thread2.start()
thread1.join()
thread2.join()
# Instead of a single thread, create a group of threads.
import threading
theVar = 1
class MyThread(threading.Thread):
    def run(self):
        global theVar
        print 'This is a thread' + str(theVar) + 'speaking'
        print 'Hello and Good Bye'
        theVar = theVar + 1
for x in xrange(20):
    MyThread().start()
```

```
import pickle
import socket
import threading
# We will pickle a list of numbers
somelist = [1, 2, 7, 9, 0]
pickledlist = pickle.dumps(somelist)
# Our thread class
class ClientThread(threading.Thread):
    # Override Thread's __init__ method to accept the parameters needed.
    def __init__(self, channel, details):
        self.channel = channel
        self.details = details
        threading.Thread.__init__(self)
    def run(self):
        print 'Received Connection:', self.details[0]
        self.channel.send(pickledlist)
        for x in xrange(10):
           print self.channel.recv(1024)
        self.channel.close()
        print 'Closed Connection:', self.details[0]
# Setup the server
server = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
server.bind(('',2727))
server.listen(5)
# Have the server serve forever
while True:
    channel, details = server.accept()
    ClientThread(channel, details).start()
import pickle
import socket
# Connect to the Server
client = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
client.connect((('localhost'), 2727))
print pickle.loads(client.recv(1024))
# Send some messages
for x in xrange(10):
   client.send('Hey,' + str(x) + ' \setminus n')
# Close the connection
```

```
client.close()
import threading
import time
class TestThread(threading.Thread):
    def run(self):
        print 'Patient: Doctor, am I going to die?'
class AnotherThread (TestThread):
    def run(self):
        TestThread.run(self)
        time.sleep(10)
dying = TestThread()
dying.start()
if dying.isAlive():
   print 'Doctor, No'
else:
   print 'Oops. Dead before I could do anything. Next!'
living = AnotherThread()
living.start()
if living.isAlive():
   print 'Doctor:No'
else:
   print 'Doctor: Next!'
from threading import Thread
from operator import add
import random
class Bank (object):
    def __init__(self, naccounts, ibalance):
        self._naccounts = naccounts
        self._ibalance = ibalance
        self.accounts = []
        for n in range(self._naccounts):
            self.accounts.append(self._ibalance)
    def size(self):
        return len(self.accounts)
    def getTotalBalance(self):
        return reduce(add, self.accounts)
    def transfer(self, name, afrom, ato, amount):
        if self.accounts[afrom] < amount: return</pre>
        self.accounts[afrom] -= amount
        self.accounts[ato] += amount
```

```
print "%-9s %8.2f from %2d to %2d Balance: %10.2f" % \
                (name, amount, afrom, ato, self.getTotalBalance())
class transfer(Thread):
    def __init__(self, bank, afrom, maxamt):
        Thread.__init__(self)
        self._bank = bank
        self._afrom = afrom
        self._maxamt = maxamt
    def run(self):
        while True:
        #for i in range(0, 3000):
            ato = random.choice(range(b.size()))
            amount = round((self._maxamt * random.random()), 2)
            self._bank.transfer(self.getName(), self._afrom, ato, amount)
naccounts = 2
initial balance = 10
b = Bank(naccounts, initial_balance)
threads = []
for i in range(0, naccounts):
    threads.append(transfer(b, i, 10))
    threads[i].start()
for i in range(0, naccounts):
    threads[i].join()
import pickle
import socket
import threading
# Here's our thread
class ConnectionThread(threading.Thread):
    def run(self):
        # Connect to the server
        client = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
        client.connect(('localhost',2727))
        # Retrive and unpickle the list object
        print pickle.loads(client.recv(1024))
        # Send some messages
        for x in xrange(10):
            client.send('Hey,' + str(x) + ' \setminus n')
        # Close the connection
        client.close()
# Lets spawn few threads
```

```
for x in xrange(5):
    ConnectionThread().start()
import thread
def athread(stuff):
    print "I' am a real boy!"
    print stuff
thread.start_new_thread(athread, ('Argument',))
import threading
import time
class ThreadOne (threading.Thread):
    def run(self):
        print 'Thread', self.getName(), 'started.'
        time.sleep(5)
        print 'Thread', self.getName(), 'ended.'
class ThreadTwo (threading.Thread):
    def run(self):
        print 'Thread', self.getName(), 'started.'
        thingOne.join()
        print 'Thread', self.getName(), 'ended.'
thingOne = ThreadOne()
thingOne.start()
thingTwo = ThreadTwo()
thingTwo.start()
import threading
class TestThread(threading.Thread):
    def run(self):
        print 'Hello, my name is', self.getName()
bombay = TestThread()
bombay.setName('bombay')
bombay.start()
madras = TestThread()
madras.setName('madras')
madras.start()
TestThread().start()
TestThread().start()
bangalore = TestThread()
bangalore.setName('bangalore')
```

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```
bangalore.start()
TestThread().start()
import pickle
import Queue
import socket
import threading
# We'll pickle a list of numbers, yet again:
somelist = [1, 2, 7, 9, 0]
pickledlist = pickle.dumps(somelist)
# A revised version of the thread class
class ClientThread(threading.Thread):
    # Note that we do not override Thread's __init__ method
    # The Queue module makes this as not neccessary
    def run(self):
        # Have our thread serve "forever".
        while True:
            # Get a client out of the queue.
            client = clientPool.get()
            # Check if actually have an actual client in the client variable.
            if client != None:
                print 'Received Connection:', client[1][0]
                client[0].send(pickledlist)
                for x in xrange(10):
                    print client[0].recv(1024)
                client[0].close()
                print 'Closed Connection:', client[1][0]
# Create our Queue
clientPool = Queue.Queue(0)
# Start two threads
for x in xrange(2):
   ClientThread().start()
# Setup the server
server = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
server.bind(('', 2727))
server.listen(5)
# Have the server 'serve' forever
while True:
    clientPool.put(server.accept())
```

```
import threading
import time
class DaemonThread(threading.Thread):
   def run(self):
        self.setDaemon(True)
        time.sleep(10)
DaemonThread().start()
print 'Leaving.'
from threading import Thread
import time
def myfunc():
   print "hello, world"
   time.sleep(4)
thread1 = Thread(target=myfunc)
thread1.start()
thread1.join(timeout=5)
print thread1.isAlive()
```

EIGHTEEN

LOGGING

```
import logging
LOG_FILENAME = 'logging_example.out'
logging.basicConfig(filename=LOG_FILENAME,
                    level=logging.DEBUG,
logging.debug('This message should go to the log file')
f = open(LOG_FILENAME, 'rt')
try:
   body = f.read()
finally:
   f.close()
print 'FILE:', LOG_FILENAME
print body
import logging
import sys
LEVELS = {'debug': logging.DEBUG,
          'info': logging.INFO,
          'warning': logging.WARNING,
          'error':logging.ERROR,
          'critical':logging.CRITICAL,
if len(sys.argv) > 1:
    level_name = sys.argv[1]
    level = LEVELS.get(level_name, logging.NOTSET)
    logging.basicConfig(level=level)
logging.debug('This is a debug message')
logging.info('This is an informational message')
logging.warning('This is an warning message')
logging.error('This is an error message.')
logging.critical('This is critical error message')
```

import logging

```
logging.basicConfig(level=logging.WARNING)
logger1 = logging.getLogger('package1.module1')
logger2 = logging.getLogger('package2.module2')
logger1.warning('This message comes from one module')
logger2.warning('This message comes from another module')
import glob
import logging
import logging.handlers
LOG_FILENAME = 'logging_rotatingfile_example.out'
# Set up a specific logger with our desired output level
my_logger = logging.getLogger('MyLogger')
my_logger.setLevel(logging.DEBUG)
# Add the log message handler to the logger
handler = logging.handlers.RotatingFileHandler(LOG_FILENAME, maxBytes=20,
                                               backupCount=5)
my_logger.addHandler(handler)
# Log some messages
for i in range(20):
   my_logger.debug('i= %d' % i)
# See what files are created
logfiles = glob.glob('%s*' % LOG_FILENAME)
for filename in logfiles:
   print filename
```

NINETEEN

DOCTEST

```
def add(a, b):
    """Add two arbitrary objects and return their sum.
   >>> add(1, 2)
   >>> add([1],[2])
   [1, 2]
   >>> add('Calvin ','& Hobbes')
   'Calvin & Hobbes'
   >>>
    >>> add([1], 2)
    Traceback (most recent call last):
    TypeError: can only concatenate list (not "int") to list
   return a + b
if __name__ == "__main__":
    import doctest
    doctest.testmod()
def add(a,b):
   return a+b
if __name__ == '__main__':
    import unittest, doctest
    suite = doctest.DocFileSuite('doctest_tests.txt')
    unittest.TextTestRunner().run(suite)
```

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UNITTEST

```
#!/usr/bin/python
# This is for different methods to do unittests.
# Should serve as a handy reference and quick-lookup instead of digging into the
# docs.
import unittest
def raises_error(*args, **kwargs):
    print args, kwargs
    raise ValueError("Invalid Value:" + str(args), str(kwargs))
class UnitTestExamples (unittest.TestCase):
    def setUp(self):
        print 'In setUp()'
        self.fixture = range(1,10)
    def tearDown(self):
        print 'In tearDown()'
        del self.fixture
    # The following 3 Testcases are Same.
    def testAssertAlmostEqual(self):
        self.assertAlmostEqual(3.1, 4.24-1.1, places=1,msg="Upto 1 decimal place.")
    def testAssertAlmostEquals(self):
        self.assertAlmostEquals(3.1, 4.24-1.1, places=1, msg="Upto 1 decimal place.")
    def testFailUnlessAlmostEqual(self):
        self.failUnlessAlmostEqual(3.1, 4.24-1.1, places=1,msq="Upto 1 decimal place.")
    # The following 3 Testcases are same.
    def testAssertEqual(self):
        self.assertEqual(True, True)
        self.assertEqual(False, False)
    def testAssertEquals(self):
        self.assertEqual(True, True)
        self.assertEquals(False, False)
```

```
def testFailUnlessEqual(self):
        self.failUnlessEqual(True,True)
        self.assertEquals(False, False)
    # The following 2 testcases are same.
    def testAssertFalse(self):
        self.assertFalse(False)
    def testFailIf(self):
        self.failIf(False)
    # The following 3 testcases are same.
    def testAssertNotAlmostEqual(self):
        self.assertNotAlmostEqual(1.1,1.9,places=1)
    def testAssertNotAlmostEquals(self):
        self.assertNotAlmostEqual(1.1,1.9,places=1)
    def testFailIfAlmostEqual(self):
        self.failIfAlmostEqual(1.1,1.9,places=1)
    # The following 3 testcases are same.
    def testAssertNoEqual(self):
        self.assertNotEqual(True,False)
        self.assertNotEqual(False,True)
    def testAssertNoEquals(self):
        self.assertNotEquals(True, False)
        self.assertNotEquals(False, True)
    def testFailIfEqual(self):
        self.failIfEqual(False, True)
    # The following 2 testcases are same.
    def testAssertRaises(self):
        self.assertRaises(ValueError, raises_error, 'a', b='c')
    def testFailUnlessRaises(self):
        self.failUnlessRaises(ValueError, raises_error, 'a',b='c')
    # The following 3 testcases are same.
    def testAssertTrue(self):
        self.assertTrue(True)
    def testFailUnless(self):
        self.failUnless(True)
    def testassert_(self):
        self.assert_(True)
if __name__ == '__main__':
    unittest.main()
```

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CONFIGPARSER

The configuration files. The files should be written in a format similar to Windows INI files. The file contains one or more sections, separated by section names written in brackets. Each section can contain one or more configuration items.

21.1 Changes in Python 3k

The ConfigParser module has been renamed to configparser in Python 3.0. The 2to3 tool will automatically adapt imports when converting your sources to 3.0.

21.2 Reading a configfile

Class RawConfigParser and its subclass ConfigParser, provides the basic configuration object.

The sections of the configuration object can be accessed through the object's *sections()* method, the options for each section is available through object's *options(section)* method. and config value can be accessed through object's, *get(section,option)*.

The following example demonstrates the concepts which were discussed.

```
[book]
title = THE ADVENTURES OF TINTIN
autor = HERGE
language = English

[cost]
Euro = 12.99
INR = 600

import ConfigParser
import string

config = ConfigParser.ConfigParser()
config.read('config1.ini')

for section in config.sections():
    print string.upper(section)
    for option in config.options(section):
        print " ", string.capitalize(option), " = ", config.get(section, option)
```

21.3 Writing to a configfile

RawConfigParser object can be used to write Configuration files. When adding sections or items, add them in the reverse order of how you want them to be displayed in the actual file. In addition, please note that using RawConfigParser's and the raw mode of ConfigParser's respective set functions, you can assign non-string values to keys internally, but will receive an error when attempting to write to a file or when you get it in non-raw mode. SafeConfigParser does not allow such assignments to take place.

import ConfigParser

Configfile generated using this example

```
[Section1]
bar = Python
int = 15
float = 3.1415
baz = fun
bool = true
foo = %(bar)s is %(baz)s!
```

21.4 Reading the configfile with value types and interpolation

An example of reading the configuration file again.

```
import ConfigParser
```

```
config = ConfigParser.RawConfigParser()
config.read('example.cfg')

# getfloat() raises an exception if the value is not a float
# getint() and getboolean() also do this for their respective types
float = config.getfloat('Section1', 'float')
int = config.getint('Section1', 'int')
print float + int

# Notice that the next output does not interpolate '%(bar)s' or '%(baz)s'.
# This is because we are using a RawConfigParser().
if config.getboolean('Section1', 'bool'):
    print config.get('Section1', 'foo')
```

- Note that getint and getfloat return respective value types.
- Also RawConfigParser() does not interpolate the option values, so the output will still be % (bar)s' or '% (baz)s
- To get the output value interpolation (That is substition of option values at places denoted), use use a Config-Parser or SafeConfigParser and the third argument default 0 signifies interpolation and 1 indicates raw mode. There is a fourth argument possible, taking a dict which will take higher precedence to interpolation.

The following example demonstrates these concepts well.

PyCon 2009 - A Tour of Python Standard Library Documentation, Release 2

PYTHON SHORTCUTS

```
import copy
new_list = copy.copy(existing_list)
# When we want every item and attribute in the object to be separately copied,
# recursively use deepcopy
new_list_of_dicts = copy.deepcopy(existing_list_of_dicts)
# For normal shallow copies, we have a good alternative to copy.copy, if we know
# the type of object we want to copy. To copy a list L, call list(L); to copy a
# dict d, call dict(d), to copy a set call set(s).
# To copy a a copyable object o, which belongs to some built-in Python type t,
# we may generally just call t(o)
# The way to shorten a nested list.
def list_or_tuple(x):
    return isinstance(x, (list, tuple))
def flatten(sequence, to_expand=list_or_tuple):
    for item in sequence:
        if to_expand(item):
            for subitem in flatten(item, to_expand):
                yield subitem
        else:
            yield item
nested_list = [1, 2, [3, 4, 5], 6, 7, [8, [9, [10], 11, 12], 13]]
for x in flatten(nested_list):
   print x,
import os
import sys
import urllib
def _reporthook(numblocks, blocksize, filesize, url=None):
    # print "_reporthook(%s, %s, %s)" % (numblocks, blocksize, filesize)
   base = os.path.basename(url)
    #XXX Should handle the possible filesize -1
    try:
```

```
percent = min((numblocks*blocksize*100)/filesize, 100)
    except:
       percent = 100
    if numblocks != 0:
        sys.stdout.write("\b" *70)
    sys.stdout.write("%-66s%3d%%" % (base, percent))
def geturl(url, dst):
   print "get url '%s' to '%s'" % (url, dst)
    if sys.stdout.isatty():
        urllib.urlretrieve(url, dst,
                            lambda nb, bs, fs, url=url:_reporthook(nb, bs, fs,
                                                                     url))
        \texttt{sys.stdout.write}(' \setminus n')
    else:
        urllib.urlretrieve(url, dst)
if __name__ == '__main__':
    if len(sys.argv) == 2:
        url = sys.argv[1]
        base = url[url.rindex('/')+1:]
        geturl(url, base)
    elif len(sys.argv) == 3:
        url, base = sys.argv[1:]
        geturl(url, base)
    else:
        print "Usage: geturl.py URL [DEST]"
        sys.exit(1)
import string
for n in dir(string):
   if n.startswith('_'):
       continue
    v = getattr(string, n)
    if isinstance(v, basestring):
        print '%s %s' % (n, repr(v))
        print
```

CHAPTER

TWENTYTHREE

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