Fundamentos de Programação

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Summary

- File input/output
- File paths and directories
- Command line arguments
- Exceptions
- Assertions



Text Files

- Most of the programs we have seen so far are transient in the sense that they run for a short time, take input and produce output, but when they end, everything disappears.
- One of the simplest ways for programs to maintain their data is by reading and writing text files.
- A text file is a sequence of characters stored on a persistent medium like a hard drive, flash memory, or CD-ROM.
- Characters are encoded in bytes according to a standard coding table such as <u>ASCII</u>, <u>Latin-1</u> or <u>UTF-8</u>, for instance.

Opening and closing files

- We must prepare a file before reading or writing. This is called opening the file.
- The built-in function <u>open</u> takes the name of the file and returns a file object that we can use to access it.

```
fileobj = open(file_name, 'r') # open for reading
fileobj = open(file name, 'w') # open for writing
```

- More modes: 'r', 'w', 'a', 'r+', 'w+', 'a+', 'rb', ...
- After using the file, remember to close it.

```
fileobj.close()
```

• Better: use with statement. It automatically closes files.

```
with open(file_name, mode) as fileobj:
    statements to read/write fileobj
# fileobj.close() not required!
```

Text versus binary mode

- Normally, files are opened in text mode. This means:
 - You write/read strings of characters (type str).
 - Newline characters ('\n') are converted to/from platform-specific line endings: LF in Unix, CRLF in Windows. (About CRLF in stackoverflow.)
 - Characters are encoded/decoded: each character is converted to/from one or more bytes. (For example, 'á' → 195, 161 in UTF-8).
 - You may specify the encoding with the optional encoding= argument.

```
fileobj = open(file name, 'r', encoding='utf-8')
```

- For files that don't contain text, you should use 'wb' or 'rb' to open in binary mode. This means:
 - You write/read strings of bytes (type bytes, not str).
 - No conversions occur.

Reading a file

We can use a for loop to read a file line by line.

```
fin = open('words.txt')
for line in fin:  # for each line from the file
    print(repr(line)) # do something with it
fin.close()
```

Another way is using the readline method.

```
while True:
    line = fin.readline()  # returns line to the end
    if line == "": break  # empty means end-of-file
    print(repr(line))
```

We can also read the entire file as string.

```
text = fin.read() # read as much as possible (up to EOF)
```

Or read at most N characters.

```
str = fin.read(10) # read upto 10 chars (empty means EOF)
```

Write a file (1)

To write to a file, open it with mode 'w' (or 'a').

```
fout = open('output.txt', 'w', encoding='utf-8')
```

- Opening it in 'w' mode creates a <u>new file</u> or *truncates* an existing one, *i.e.* it <u>deletes</u> the old data and starts from scratch. The 'a' mode does not truncate, it appends to the end of the file.
- The write method puts data into the file.

```
line1 = "To be or not to be, \n"
fout.write(line1)
```

Again, the file object keeps track of where it is, so if you call write again, it adds the new data to the end.

```
line2 = "that is the question.\n"
fout.write(line2)
```

Write a file (2)

• The argument of write has to be a string, so we have to convert other types of values.

```
x = 0.75
fout.write('X: ' + str(x))
```

Or use the string format method.

```
fout.write('{} costs {:.2f}€.'.format('tea', x))
```

You may also use print with the file= argument.

```
print('X:', x, file=fout)
print('{} costs {:.2f}€.'.format('tea', x), file=fout)
```

When you are done writing, remember to <u>close</u> the file!

```
fout.close() # OR use the with statement
```

Moving the file object's position

- We generally read and write sequentially, from start to end.
- But sometimes we need to "jump" around.
- The tell() method tells you the current position within the file.
- The seek (offset) method changes the current file position to offset bytes from the start. (An optional argument can specify a different reference point).

```
a0 = f.readline()  # read a line
pos = f.tell()  # store position
a1 = f.readline()  # read second line
f.seek(pos)  # return to stored position
a2 = f.readline()  # read second line again (a2==a1)
```

Filenames and paths

• Module os provides functions for working with files and directories (os stands for "operating system").

```
os.getcwd() returns the name of the current directory.
```

A string that identifies a file is called a path.

```
os.getcwd() #-> '/home/jmr/FP'
```

- An absolute path starts with / (the topmost directory).
- A relative path starts from the current directory.

```
'aula06/aula06.pdf'
```

You may find the absolute path to a file:

```
os.path.abspath('aula06/aula06.pdf')
#-> '/home/jmr/FP/aula06/aula06.pdf'
```

File properties and listing directories

- There are functions to check existence and type of files.
 - os.path.exists(path) checks whether a file exists.
 - os.path.isdir(path) checks whether a filename is a directory.
 - os.path.isfile(path) checks whether it's a regular file.
- And a function to get the contents of a directory.
 - os.listdir() returns a list of the files (and other directories) in the given directory.

Example

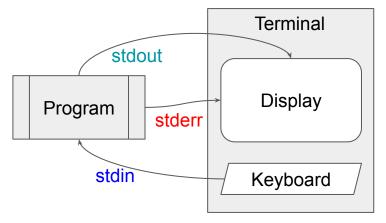
• The method walk() generates the file names in a directory tree by walking the tree either top-down or bottom-up.

```
import os
for root, dirs, files in os.walk(".", topdown=False):
    for name in files:
        print(os.path.join(root, name))
    for name in dirs:
        print(os.path.join(root, name))
```

Standard streams

- Every program has 3 streams (communication channels) connected to I/O devices in the computer:
 - A stream to get input text from the keyboard (stdin).
 - A stream to output text to the display (stdout).
 - A stream to output error messages (stderr).
- This is standard in modern OS (since Unix).
- In Python:

```
import sys
sys.stdin
sys.stdout
sys.stderr
```



I/O redirection

A user can redirect stdout to a file:

```
$ program > out.txt
```

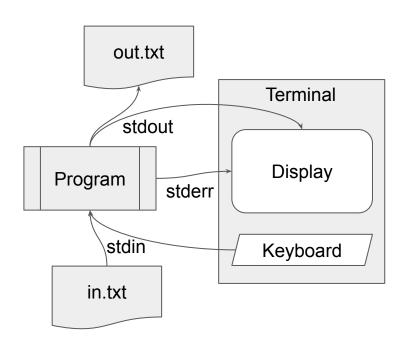
A user can redirect stdin from a file:

```
$ program < in.txt</pre>
```

Or redirect both streams:

```
$ program < in.txt > out.txt
```

- This is done by the **shell**.
- Transparent to the program.



Command Line Arguments

- The sys module provides access to any command-line arguments via the sys.argv variable.
 - sys.argv is the list of command-line arguments;
 - len(sys.argv) is the number of command-line arguments;
 - sys.argv[0] is the program (script) name.

```
import sys
print('Number of args:', len(sys.argv))
print('Argument List:', sys.argv)
```

Run above script as follows:

```
python3 test.py arg1 arg2 arg3
```

Produces:

```
Number of arguments: 4 arguments.
Argument List: ['test.py', 'arg1', 'arg2', 'arg3']
```

• Explore getopt module

Exceptions

- Python provides an important feature to handle any unexpected events in your program: exceptions.
- You've seen exceptions before.

```
int("one") #-> ValueError: invalid literal for int()
open("foo") #-> FileNotFoundError: No such file...
```

- When Python encounters a situation that it cannot cope with, it raises an exception.
- That <u>interrupts</u> the normal flow of execution: the current function is interrupted, then the one that called it, etc., until the main program itself is interrupted.
- Information about the event is transmitted all the way through in an exception object.

Handling exceptions

- You can intercept selected exceptions and resume normal execution with the try statement.
- Example: handle errors accessing files:

```
try:
    fh = open("testfile", "r")
    content = fh.read()

except IOError:
    print("Error: could not open file or read data")

else:
    print("This executes iff no exception occurred")
    fh.close()
```

- The except clause may name multiple exceptions.
- An except clause naming no exception, catches all types.

Exception information

 An exception can have an argument, which is a value that gives additional information about the problem.

```
def convert(var):
    try:
        return int(var)
    except ValueError as e:
        print("Not numeric:", e)
        return None

m = convert("123")
n = convert("xyz")
Play
```

Raising exceptions

 We can raise exceptions (of any type) by using the raise statement.

```
def checkLevel( level ):
    if level < 1:
        raise Exception(f"level={level} is too low!")
    # code here is not executed if we raise the exception
    return level

try:
    v = checkLevel(-1)
    print("level = ", v)

except Exception as e:
    print("Error:", e)</pre>
```

Assertions

- An **assertion** is a condition that the programmer *knows* (or *believes*) to be true at some point in a program.
- To check an assertion, use assert condition.
- This evaluates the condition and, if false, raises an exception of type AssertionError.
- If that happens, the programmer learns that there is a bug. He/she must find out why that assertion failed, and fix the problem.
- If users are confident that the program is correct, they can turn off assertion checking when running the program:

 python3 -0 prog.py.

Assertions: when to use?

• Assertions at the <u>start of a function</u>, to check if arguments are within the *domain* of the function. (Check <u>preconditions</u>.)

```
def nextDay(y, m, d):
    assert dateIsValid(y, m, d)
    d += 1
        ...  # rest of solution here
    ...
    assert dateIsValid(y, m, d)
    return (y, m, d)
```

- Assertion at the end of a function, to check postconditions.
- Assertions <u>after calling</u> functions for <u>testing</u> results.

```
def testNextDay():
    assert nextDay(1920, 2, 28) == (1920, 2, 29)
    assert nextDay(1920, 2, 29) == (1920, 3, 1)
    assert nextDay(1920, 12, 31) == (1921, 1, 1)
    print("ALL OK!")
```