

# Python Snippets

A Collection of Useful Python Snippets with  
Explanations

Florian Dahlitz

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# Chapter 1

## Standard Library

This chapter contains the Python snippets from the *standard\_lib* directory. Additionally, explanations are added and possible usages are described.

### 1.1 Abstract Base Class (ABC)

The **abc** module provides the infrastructure for defining abstract base classes (ABCs) in Python. In this section you will find a collection of snippets being useful when dealing with ABCs.

#### 1.1.1 General Usage

Listing 1.1 shows the general usage of ABCs by example.

---

```
from abc import ABCMeta, abstractmethod

class BaseClass(metaclass=ABCMeta):
    @abstractmethod
    def foo(self):
        pass

    @abstractmethod
    def bar(self):
        pass

class ConcreteClass(BaseClass):
    def foo(self):
        pass

    def bar(self):
        pass

instance = ConcreteClass()
```

---

Listing 1.1: abc\_class.py

The snippets contains two classes: **BaseClass** and **ConcreteClass**, whereas **BaseClass** is the ABC of



**ConcreteClass**. Both methods **foo** and **bar** are decorated with **@abstractmethod** and have to be implemented by the classes inheriting from **BaseClass**. Furthermore, as **BaseClass** is an ABC, it can't be instantiated.

## 1.2 AsyncIO

Since Python 3.5 the module **asyncio** provides the keywords **async** and **await**. This section provides some useful snippets when operating with them.

### 1.2.1 Time Saving

Using **async** and **await** will save you some time especially when requesting data from the internet. To keep things simple let's simulate requests against a certain API with **time.sleep()**. Listing 1.2 shows a sample program.

---

```
"""
Async snippet demonstrating the usage of
    ↪ time.sleep()
"""
import asyncio
import time
```

```
from datetime import datetime

async def custom_sleep():
    print("SLEEP", datetime.now())
    time.sleep(1)

async def factorial(name, number):
    f = 1
    for i in range(2, number + 1):
        print(f"Task {name}: Compute
              ↪ factorial({i})")
        await custom_sleep()
        f *= i
    print(f"Task {name}: factorial({
          ↪ number}) is {i}\n")

start = time.time()
loop = asyncio.get_event_loop()

tasks = [
    asyncio.ensure_future(factorial("A",
                                   ↪ 3)),
    asyncio.ensure_future(factorial("B",
                                   ↪ 4)),
]
```

```
loop.run_until_complete(asyncio.wait(
    ↪ tasks))
loop.close()

end = time.time()
print(f"Total time: {end - start}")
```

---

Listing 1.2: `async_sleep_sync.py`

Running this snippet takes around five seconds. Let's modify it a little bit to run the tasks asynchronously, which is shown in Listing 1.3.

---

```
"""
Async snippet demonstrating the usage of
    ↪ asyncio.sleep()
"""

import asyncio
import time
from datetime import datetime

async def custom_sleep():
    print(f"SLEEP {datetime.now()}\n")
    await asyncio.sleep(1)
```

```
async def factorial(name, number):
    f = 1
    for i in range(2, number + 1):
        print(f"Task {name}: Compute
              ↪ factorial({i})")
        await custom_sleep()
        f *= i
    print(f"Task {name}: factorial({
          ↪ number}) is {f}\n")

start = time.time()
loop = asyncio.get_event_loop()

tasks = [
    asyncio.ensure_future(factorial("A",
                                   ↪ 3)),
    asyncio.ensure_future(factorial("B",
                                   ↪ 4)),
]
loop.run_until_complete(asyncio.wait(
    ↪ tasks))
loop.close()

end = time.time()
print(f"Total time: {end - start}")
```

---

Listing 1.3: `async_sleep_async.py`

After the modifications it lasts around three seconds.

## 1.3 Playing with Bits

In this section you will find a collection of snippets corresponding to bit manipulation.

### 1.3.1 Bit Flipper

The **bit\_flipper** function gives you a poor man's encryption. Making use of a salt, it flips certain bits of each character. The resulting string hides the information from the original one, at least for humans. Applying the function a second time returns the original string.

---

```
# coding: utf-8

# https://forum.omz-software.com/topic
  ↪ /2943/trying-to-make-an-encrypted-
  ↪ message-system
# a poor man's encryption

def bit_flipper(s, salt=1):
    return "".join([chr(ord(x) ^ salt)
                     ↪ for x in s])
```

```
salt = 1  # try 1, 6, 7
# for instance, salt = 2 gives you an
    ↪ encrypted string with no printable
    ↪ chars
# (disappearing ink)!
s = "Pythonista rules!"
print(s)
s = bit_flipper(s, salt)
print(s)
s = bit_flipper(s, salt)
print(s)
```

---

Listing 1.4: bit\_flipper.py

The output will look like the following:

---

```
$ python bit_flipper.py
Pythonista rules!
Qxuinohru '!stmdr
Pythonista rules!
```

---

Listing 1.5: Output of the bit flipper

### 1.3.2 A Simple Bitmask

The `BitMask` class represents a simple bit mask. It has methods representing all the bitwise operations plus some additional features. The methods return a new `BitMask` object or a boolean result. See the `bits` module for more information about the operations provided.

---

```
#!/bin/env python3
```

```
class BitMask(int):  
    def AND(self, bm):  
        return BitMask(self & bm)  
  
    def OR(self, bm):  
        return BitMask(self | bm)  
  
    def XOR(self, bm):  
        return BitMask(self ^ bm)  
  
    def NOT(self):  
        return BitMask(~self)  
  
    def shiftleft(self, num):  
        return BitMask(self << num)
```

```
def shiftright(self, num):  
    return BitMask(self > num)  
  
def bit(self, num):  
    mask = 1 << num  
    return bool(self & mask)  
  
def setbit(self, num):  
    mask = 1 << num  
    return BitMask(self | mask)  
  
def zerobit(self, num):  
    mask = ~(1 << num)  
    return BitMask(self & mask)  
  
def listbits(self, start=0, end=-1):  
    end = end if end < 0 else end +  
        ↪ 2  
    return [int(c) for c in bin(self  
        ↪ )[start + 2 : end]]
```

---

Listing 1.6: bitmask.py



## 1.4 Search Algorithms

This section contains implementations of certain search algorithms.

### 1.4.1 Binary Search

The binary search algorithm is a search algorithm, that finds the position of a target value within a sorted array. It compares the target value to the middle element of the array. If they are not equal, the half in which the target cannot lie is eliminated and the search continues on the remaining half, again taking the middle element to compare to the target value, and repeating this until the target value is found.

---

```
import random
```

```
def binary_search(lst, integer):
```

```
    lower_bound = 0
    upper_bound = len(lst) - 1
    number_guesses = 0
```

```
    while True:
```

```
        index = (lower_bound +
                 ↪ upper_bound) // 2

        guess = lst[index]
        number_guesses += 1

        if guess == integer:
            break

        if guess > integer:
            upper_bound = index - 1
        else:
            lower_bound = index + 1

    return number_guesses

print("Number Guesses")

for _ in range(30):
    integers = random.sample(range
        ↪ (500000), 10000)

    integer_to_find = random.choice(
        ↪ integers)

    sorted_integers = sorted(integers)
```

```
guesses = binary_search(  
    ↪ sorted_integers,  
    ↪ integer_to_find)  
  
print("{:6} {:7}".format(  
    ↪ integer_to_find, guesses))
```

---

Listing 1.7: `binary_search.py`

## 1.5 Dealing with builtins

Sometimes it can be helpful to manipulate builtins or to find a better way to deal with them. This section will show you ways to interact with builtins you may not thought of.

### 1.5.1 Change Behaviour

In some situations it can be helpful to extend the functionality of a certain builtin. Keep in mind, that this can be dangerous if it's not documented and is done in a global scope!

---

```
_print = print
```

```
def print(*args, **kwargs):  
    nargs = (*args, "\nNumber of  
        ↪ arguments:", len(args))  
    _print(*nargs, **kwargs)  
  
print("One", "Two", "Three")
```

---

Listing 1.8: `builtins_manipulation.py`

The Listing first assigns the builtin `print` function to a variable called `_print`. After that, a custom `print` function is defined shadowing the builtin one. The functionality is extended by displaying the number of arguments before printing the actual output. You can find the output in the following Listing.

---

```
$ python builtins_manipulation.py  
One Two Three  
Number of arguments: 3
```

---

Listing 1.9: Output of `builtins_manipulation.py`

## 1.5.2 Capture Output

It may be helpful to capture and redirect the output of certain functions. For instance you don't want to send the output of the builtin **help** function to stdout but want to redirect it to a file. The following Listing shows you three ways how to capture and redirect the output of functions.

---

```
import contextlib
import io
import sys

# Option 1
output_stream = io.StringIO()
with contextlib.redirect_stdout(
    ↪ output_stream):
    help(pow)

output_stream = output_stream.getvalue()
print("value:", output_stream)

# Option 2
with open("help.txt", "w") as f:
    with contextlib.redirect_stdout(f):
```

```
help(pow)
```

```
# Option 3
with contextlib.redirect_stdout(sys.
    ↪ stderr):
    help(pow)
```

---

Listing 1.10: capture\_output.py

The first option saves the output to a **StringIO** object. The value can be accessed using **.getvalue()**.

The second option can be used to save the output to a specified file. In this case we save the output to **help.txt**.

Last but not least we are redirecting the output to **stderr**.

## 1.6 String Operations

In the following section you will find useful snippets when dealing with strings.

### 1.6.1 Check for String Pattern

Assuming you have a list of strings and you want to check them for multiple pattern. The following snippet solves

this issue by using a fairly simple list comprehension.

---

```
"""
Check for multiple string patterns.
"""
lst = ["hello", "fafaea", "hello world",
      ↪ "xxx world", "zzz"]
patterns = ["hello", "world"]

result = [item for item in lst if any(
    ↪ pattern in item for pattern in
    ↪ patterns)]

print(result)
```

---

Listing 1.11: check\_pattern.py

The output after running the snippet is something like that:

---

```
$ python check_pattern.py
['hello', 'hello world', 'xxx world']
```

---

Listing 1.12: Output of check\_pattern.py

## 1.6.2 Compare Strings

If you want to compare two strings and want to know „how equal they are“, you can make use of the `SequenceMatcher`.

---

```
from difflib import SequenceMatcher

s1 = "This is my string"
s2 = "This is my new string"

s = SequenceMatcher(None, s1, s2)

print(round(s.ratio(), 3))

for block in s.get_matching_blocks():
    a, b, size = block
    print(f"a[{a}] and b[{b}] match for
    ↪ {size} elements")
```

---

Listing 1.13: `compare_strings.py`

It will split the strings into matching blocks and return how many characters of the blocks are matching. Furthermore, you get a float value representing the overall matching. The output is shown in the following List-



ing.

---

```
$ python compare_strings.py
0.895
a[0] and b[0] match for 11 elements
a[11] and b[15] match for 6 elements
a[17] and b[21] match for 0 elements
```

---

Listing 1.14: Output of compare\_strings.py

### 1.6.3 Fill Strings

You can use the `zfill` string method to fill a string with zeros if the provided maximum length isn't already reached.

---

```
for i in [1, 11, 222, "aaa", 1234]:
    print(str(i).zfill(4))
```

---

Listing 1.15: fill\_zeros.py

The output is shown in the following Listing.

---

```
$ python fill_zeros.py
```

```
0001
0011
0222
0aaa
1234
```

---

Listing 1.16: Output of `fill_zeros.py`

### 1.6.4 Parse Query String

You can use the builtin `urllib` module to parse query strings.

---

```
from urllib.parse import parse_qs

input_string = "host=171.25.2.7&port
    ↪ =8080&port=8081"
result = parse_qs(input_string)
print(result)
```

---

Listing 1.17: `parse_query_string.py`

The provided snippets will output the following:

---

```
$ python parse_query_string.py
{'host': ['171.25.2.7'], 'port': ['8080'
  ↪ , '8081']}
```

---

Listing 1.18: Output of `parse_query_string.py`

### 1.6.5 Print Numbers Human-Friendly

You can print numbers in a human-friendly way using the builtin **`format`** function.

---

```
n = 123123123
print(format(n, ","))
```

---

Listing 1.19: `print_human_friendly_numbers.py`

---

```
$ python print_human_friendly_numbers.py
123,123,123
```

---

Listing	1.20:	Output	of
<code>print_human_friendly_numbers.py</code>			

### 1.6.6 Split Strings Preserving Substrings

In some cases you're splitting a string into the words it contains, but you want to keep substrings. Fortunately, Python has a module called `shlex` providing a `split` function keeping substrings as one.

---

```
import shlex

sample = 'This is "Berlin Cafe"'
split_str = sample.split()
shlex_str = shlex.split(sample)
some = shlex.quote(sample)

print(f"Split string output: {split_str}
      ↪ ")
print(f"Shlex string outpur: {shlex_str}
      ↪ ")
```

---

Listing 1.21: `split_preserving_sub-strings.py`

---

```
$ python split_preserving_sub-strings.py
Split string output: ['This', 'is', '"
```

```
↪ Berlin', 'Cafe"']  
Shlex string output: ['This', 'is', '  
↪ Berlin Cafe']
```

---

Listing 1.22: Output of `split_preserving_sub-strings.py`

### 1.6.7 `capitalize()` vs. `title()`

The following Listings shows the difference between `capitalize`  
↪ and `title`

---

```
string = "i love coffee"  
  
print(f"capitalize(): {string.capitalize}  
↪ ()}")  
print(f"title(): {string.title()}")
```

---

Listing 1.23: `string_capitalize.py`

---

```
$ python string_capitalize.py  
capitalize(): I love coffee  
title(): I Love Coffee
```

---

Listing 1.24: Output of `string_capitalize.py`

## 1.7 Dictionaries

When dealing with dictionaries the following snippets might be helpful - or just fascinating.

### 1.7.1 Crazy Dictionary Expression

The following snippet shows you a crazy dictionary expression. Maybe the most craziest dictionary expression you've seen so far.

---

```
from pprint import pprint

crazy_dict = {True: "yes", 1: "no", 1.0:
    ↪  "maybe"}
pprint(crazy_dict)
```

---

Listing 1.25: crazy\_dict\_expression.py

If you're not familiar with dictionary keys, the following output might confuse you.

---

```
$ python crazy_dict_expression.py
{True: 'maybe'}
```

---

Listing 1.26: Output of crazy\_dict\_expression.py

Dictionary keys are compared by their hash values. As **True**, **1** and **1.0** have the same hash values, the keys value gets overwritten. **True** is inserted as no key with the same hash value exists in the dictionary so far. Inserting **1** will lead to an overwriting of the value of **True** as both share the same hash value. This results in the following dictionary:

---

```
{True: "no"}
```

---

Last but not least **1.0** with its corresponding value is inserted. The behaviour is similar to the insertion of **1** resulting in the final output shown in Listing 1.26.

### 1.7.2 Emulate switch-case

A **switch-case** statement doesn't exist in Python, but you can easily emulate it using a dictionary. By using `.get()` you can provide a default return value if a **KeyError** is raised.

---

```
import operator
```

```
dispatch_dict = {
```

```
"add": operator.add,  
"sub": operator.sub,  
"mul": operator.mul,  
"div": operator.floordiv,  
}  
  
def dispatch_func(op, x, y):  
    return dispatch_dict.get(op, lambda:  
        ↪ None)(x, y)  
  
print(f"dispatch_func('mul', 4, 5) = {  
    ↪ dispatch_func('mul', 4, 5)}")
```

---

Listing 1.27: emulate\_switch\_case.py

### 1.7.3 Merge Arbitrary Number of Dicts

You can use the following snippet to merge an arbitrary number of dictionaries using the `**` operator.

---

```
dict1 = {"a": 1, "b": 2}  
dict2 = {"b": 3, "c": 4, 3: 9}  
dict3 = {"a": 2}  
dict4 = {"d": 8, "e": 1}
```



---

```
print("Result of merging dict 1-4:", {**
    ↪ dict1, **dict2, **dict3, **dict4})
```

---

Listing 1.28: merge\_arbitrary\_number\_of\_dicts.py

Note that later dictionaries are overwriting existing key-value-pairs.

---

```
$ python merge_arbitrary_number_of_dicts
    ↪ .py
Result of merging dict 1-4: {'a': 2, 'b'
    ↪ : 3, 'c': 4, 3: 9, 'd': 8, 'e': 1}
```

---

Listing	1.29:	Output	of
merge_arbitrary_number_of_dicts.py			

### 1.7.4 MultiDict with Default Values

Sometimes you simply want to store several values for a single key. **MultiDict** is the perfect data structure for that. However, a **MultiDict** implementation is not provided by the Python standard library. You can implement your own by using lists as dict values. However, when inserting a value to a key, which doesn't exist so

far, a **KeyError** is raised. Using a **defaultdict** solves the problem as a new empty list is added if the key not already exists.

---

```
from collections import defaultdict
```

```
rd = defaultdict(list)
```

```
for name, num in [("ichi", 1), ("one",  
    ↪ 1), ("uno", 1), ("un", 1)]:  
    rd[num].append(name)
```

```
print(rd)
```

---

Listing 1.30: multidict\_with\_default\_init.py

The output shows what we expect.

---

```
$ python multidict_with_default_init.py  
defaultdict(<class 'list'>, {1: ['ichi',  
    ↪ 'one', 'uno', 'un']})
```

---

Listing 1.31: Output of multidict\_with\_default\_init.py

### 1.7.5 Overwrite Dictionary Values

Loving Python 3.5 PEP 448 for overwriting a dictionary of default values, you can use the following snippet to do exactly that! It makes use of the very same operator used when merging dictionaries: `**`.

---

```
defaults = {"lenny": "white", "carl": "  
    ↪ black"}  
overwrite = {"lenny": "yellow"}  
new = {**defaults, **overwrite}  
  
print(new)
```

---

Listing 1.32: `overwrite_dictionary.py`

You may use it when you provide a dictionary containing default configuration settings and want to overwrite them with custom settings.

---

```
$ python overwrite_dictionary.py  
{'lenny': 'yellow', 'carl': 'black'}
```

---

Listing 1.33: Output of `overwrite_dictionary.py`

### 1.7.6 Pass Multiple Dicts as Argument

If you want to pass multiple dicts as argument for a certain function, you can make use of the `**` operator for auto-unpacking. However, there are two ways to achieve that depending on whether you want dictionary keys to be overwritten or not.

---

```
from collections import ChainMap

def f(a, b, c, d):
    print(a, b, c, d)

d1 = dict(a=5, b=6)
d2 = dict(b=7, c=8, d=9)

# The old may without overwriting
#   ↪ previous values
f(**ChainMap(d1, d2))

# Since Python 3.5 allowing value
#   ↪ overwriting
f(**{**d1, **d2})
```

---

Listing 1.34: `pass_multiple_dicts.py`

Using a **ChainMap** doesn't overwrite earlier specified key-value-pairs. The second option overwrites key-value-pairs.

---

```
$ python pass_multiple_dicts.py
5 6 8 9
5 7 8 9
```

---

Listing 1.35: Output of `pass_multiple_dicts.py`

### 1.7.7 Default Configuration

The following snippet shows you, how you can provide a default config, overwrite it with a config file and overwrite the result with command-line arguments. All this can be achieved by using **ChainMap**.

---

```
from collections import ChainMap

def main():
    command_line_args =
        ↪ get_command_line_args()
    config_file = get_config()
```

```
default_config = get_default_config
    ↪ ()

config_dict = ChainMap(
    ↪ command_line_args, config_file
    ↪ , default_config)

def get_command_line_args() -> dict:
    pass

def get_config() -> dict:
    pass

def get_default_config() -> dict:
    pass

if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()
```

---

Listing 1.36: provide\_default\_config\_values.py

### 1.7.8 Keep Original After Updates

You may want to update a dictionaries values without losing the original values. This can be achieved by using a **ChainMap**. Therefore, we chain an empty dictionary and the one containing the original values. Now we are only operating with the **ChainMap**.

---

```
from collections import ChainMap

population = {"italy": 60, "japan": 127,
    ↪      "uk": 65}

changes = dict()
editable = ChainMap(changes, population)

print(f"Before update: {editable['japan']
    ↪      ']}")

editable["japan"] += 1
print(f"Updated population: {editable['
    ↪      japan']}")
print(f"Original population: {population
    ↪      ['japan']}")

print(f"Changes: {changes.keys()}")
```

```
print(f"Did not changed: {population.  
    ↪ keys() - changes.keys()}")
```

---

Listing 1.37:  
save\_dict\_update\_without\_loosing\_original.py

If we insert new values, they are added to the **changes** ↪ dict. If we try to retrieve values, which aren't part of the **changes** dict, we fall back and use the once from the original dict.

---

```
$ python  
    ↪ save_dict_update_without_loosing_original  
    ↪ .py  
Before update: 127  
Updated population: 128  
Original population: 127  
Changes: dict_keys(['japan'])  
Did not changed: {'italy', 'uk'}
```

---

Listing 1.38: Output of  
save\_dict\_update\_without\_loosing\_original.py

### 1.7.9 Update Dict Using Tuples

You can update a dictionaries values by using tuples.



---

```
a = {1: "1"}
b = [(2, "2"), (3, "3")]

a.update(b)

print(a)
```

---

Listing 1.39: update\_dict\_using\_tuples.py

---

```
$ python update_dict_using_tuples.py
{1: '1', 2: '2', 3: '3'}
```

---

Listing 1.40: Output of update\_dict\_using\_tuples.py

### 1.7.10 Create A Dict Based On Lists

Let's assume you have two lists and you want to create a dictionary out of them. The first list might contain the letters 1-26 and the second list might contain the characters a-z. So you want to map a character to each numbers to finally end up with a dictionary representing the alphabet. This recipe shows you how to achieve that in a very simple manner.

---

```
import json

nums = [1, 2, 3]
chars = ["a", "b", "c"]

alph = dict(zip(nums, chars))
print(json.dumps(alph, indent=4,
    ↪ sort_keys=True))
```

---

Listing 1.41: dict\_based\_on\_lists.py

As we are using `json.dumps` with the argument `sortkeys` ↪ `=True`, the final dictionary is sorted and looks like this:

---

```
$ python dict_based_on_lists.py
{
    "1": "a",
    "2": "b",
    "3": "c"
}
```

---

Listing 1.42: Output of dict\_based\_on\_lists.py

## 1.8 Decorators

A collection of quite useful decorators you can use in your projects.

### 1.8.1 Deprecation Decorator

Let's assume you want to remove a certain function or method. Instead of just removing it, you want to signal your users that the function or method is deprecated, so they know, it will be removed in a future release. You can write your custom deprecation decorator printing a **DeprecationWarning** whenever the deprecated function or method is invoked. Listing 1.43 shows you a sample implementation of the decorator as well as possible usages.

---

```
import warnings
```

```
def deprecated(func):  
    """This is a decorator which can be  
        ↪ used to wmark functions as  
        ↪ deprecated.  
    It will result in a warning being  
        ↪ emitted when the function is  
        ↪ used."""
```

```
def new_func(*args, **kwargs):
    warnings.warn(
        f"Call to deprecated
        ↪ function {func.
        ↪ __name__}." , category=
        ↪ DeprecationWarning
    )

    return func(*args, **kwargs)

new_func.__name__ = func.__name__
new_func.__doc__ = func.__doc__
new_func.__dict__.update(func.
    ↪ __dict__)

return new_func
```

*# === Example usages ===*

```
@deprecated
def some_old_function(x, y):
    return x + y

class SomeClass:
```

```
@deprecated
def some_old_method(self, x, y):
    return x + y

some_old_function(1, 2)
example = SomeClass()
example.some_old_method(1, 2)
```

---

Listing 1.43: deprecated\_decorator.py

Everytime the deprecated function or method is called, a `DeprecationWarning` is printed.

---

```
$ python deprecated_decorator.py
<your_path>/deprecated_decorator.py:10:
  ↳ DeprecationWarning: Call to
  ↳ deprecated function
  ↳ some_old_function.
f"Call to deprecated function {func.
  ↳ __name__}." , category=
  ↳ DeprecationWarning
<your_path>/deprecated_decorator.py:10:
  ↳ DeprecationWarning: Call to
  ↳ deprecated function
  ↳ some_old_method.
f"Call to deprecated function {func.
```

```

↪ __name__}." , category=
↪ DeprecationWarning

```

---

Listing 1.44: Output of deprecated\_decorator.py

## 1.8.2 Keep Function Metadata

The original functions metadata are lost when using a decorator. You can keep them using the `@wraps` decorator provided by the `functools` module.

---

```

from functools import wraps

def tags(tag_name):
    """Wraps another function """

    def tags_decorator(func):
        @wraps(func)
        def func_wrapper(name):
            return f"<{tag_name}>{func(
                ↪ name)}</{tag_name}>"

        return func_wrapper

    return tags_decorator

```

```
@tags("p")
def get_text(name):
    """Returns some text"""
    return "Hello " + name

print(get_text("World"))

print(get_text.__name__)
print(get_text.__doc__)
```

---

Listing 1.45: keep\_metadata\_on\_decorator\_usage.py

The output shows the result we would expect from a decorated function.

---

```
$ python
  ↳ keep_metadata_on_decorator_usage.
  ↳ py
<p>Hello World</p>
get_text
Returns some text
```

---

Listing	1.46:	Output	of
keep_metadata_on_decorator_usage.py			

### 1.8.3 Trace Decorator

This snippet contains a custom trace decorator revealing a functions flow.

---

```
import functools

def trace(func):
    @functools.wraps(func)
    def wrapper(*args, **kwargs):
        print("-" * 20)
        print(f"TRACE: calling {func.__name__}() " f"with {args} "
              f", {kwargs}")

        original_result = func(*args, **kwargs)

        print(f"TRACE: {func.__name__}() " f"returned {original_result!r}")
        print("-" * 20)

        return original_result

    return wrapper
```



```
@trace
def greet(name, phrase):
    return f"{name}, {phrase}"

print(greet("Florian", "Nice to see you!
↪ "))
```

---

Listing 1.47: trace\_decorator.py

The output is shown in the following Listing.

---

```
$ python trace_decorator.py
```

---

```
TRACE: calling greet() with ('Florian',
↪ 'Nice to see you!'), {}
TRACE: greet() returned 'Florian, Nice
↪ to see you!'
```

---

```
Florian, Nice to see you!
```

---

Listing 1.48: Output of trace\_decorator.py

## 1.9 Bytecode

This section contains snippets for investigating Python's bytecode.

### 1.9.1 Disassemble Bytecode - String Conversion

Ever wanted to know what a string conversion using f-strings or `str()` looks like in bytecode? The following snippet shows you exactly that!

---

```
import dis

def f_string(number: int):
    return f"{number}"

def str_string(number: int):
    return str(number)

print("===== f-strings")
print("=====")
dis.dis(f_string)
```

```

print("=====
    ↪ str()
    ↪ =====")
dis.dis(str_string)

```

---

Listing 1.49: `disassemble_bytecode.py`

For displaying the bytecode of a function the builtin `dis` module is used.

---

```

$ python disassemble_bytecode.py
===== f-strings
    ↪ =====
5          0 LOAD_FAST
          ↪          0 (number)
          2 FORMAT_VALUE
          ↪          0
          4 RETURN_VALUE
===== str()
    ↪ =====
9          0 LOAD_GLOBAL
          ↪          0 (str)
          2 LOAD_FAST
          ↪          0 (
          ↪ number)
          4 CALL_FUNCTION
          ↪          1

```

---

## 6 RETURN\_VALUE

---

Listing 1.50: Output of `disassemble_bytecode.py`

### 1.9.2 Human Readable Bytecode

If you are using Python's `dis` module to get some insights into what's happening behind the scenes, you may like this recipe as it provides a way to print the output in a much more human readable way.

---

```
from struct import unpack
from dis import opmap

reverse_opmap = {v: k for k, v in opmap.
    ↪ items()}

def foo():
    pass

foo_code = foo.__code__.co_code
for pos in range(0, len(foo_code), 2):
    inst = unpack("BB", foo_code[pos :
    ↪ pos + 2])
```

```
print(f"{reverse_opmap[inst[0]]}: {  
    ↪ inst[1]}")
```

---

Listing 1.51: human\_readable\_bytecode.py

---

```
$ python human_readable_bytecode.py  
LOAD_CONST: 0  
RETURN_VALUE: 0
```

---

Listing 1.52: Output of human\_readable\_bytecode.py

**Note:** Even though we didn't put a return statement at the end of `foo`, Python added it. That's because every function in Python needs a return statement (specified by the underlying protocols).

## 1.10 Lists

Provide useful tips for dealing with lists.

### 1.10.1 Flatten a List

Sometimes you have a nested list and just want to flatten it. Here's a small snippet revealing how to achieve right that.

---

```
from collections.abc import Iterable

def flatten(input_arr, output_arr=None):
    if output_arr is None:
        output_arr = []
    for ele in input_arr:
        if isinstance(ele, Iterable):
            flatten(ele, output_arr) #
            ↪ tail-recursion
        else:
            output_arr.append(ele) #
            ↪ produce the result

    return output_arr

sample_list = [1, [2], [[3, 4], 5], 6]
print(flatten(sample_list))
```

---

Listing 1.53: flatten.py

---

```
$ python flatten.py
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

---

Listing 1.54: Output of `flatten.py`

### 1.10.2 Priority Queue

Imagine you have a sports tournament (e.g. table tennis or basketball). Now you want to get the player or team with the most points. You could store all the information in a list, but if new items are added, you need to resort it. This can take a significant time amount if the data set keeps growing. You can make use of a **Heap** data structure to implement your own priority queue to auto-sort the data for you.

---

```
import time
import heapq

class PriorityQueue:
    def __init__(self):
        self._q = []

    def add(self, value, priority=0):
        heapq.heappush(self._q, (
            priority, time.time(),
```

```
        ↪ value))

    def pop(self):
        return heapq.heappop(self._q)
        ↪ [-1]

f1 = lambda: print("hello")
f2 = lambda: print("world")

pq = PriorityQueue()
pq.add(f2, priority=1)
pq.add(f1, priority=0)

print(pq.pop())
print(pq.pop())
```

---

Listing 1.55: priority\_queue.py

As the snippet provides a sample usage, the following Listing shows you the output.

---

```
$ python priority_queue.py
hello
None
world
None
```



---

Listing 1.56: Output of `priority_queue.py`

### 1.10.3 Remove Duplicates

Remove duplicates from a list but keeping the order by using `OrderedDict`.

---

```
from collections import OrderedDict

a = ["foo", "Alice", "bar", "foo", "Bob"
    ↪ ]
print(f"List with duplicates: {a}")

a = list(OrderedDict.fromkeys(a).keys())
print(f"Without duplicates: {a}")
```

---

Listing 1.57: `remove_duplicates_list.py`

---

```
$ python remove_duplicates_list.py
List with duplicates: ['foo', 'Alice', '
    ↪ bar', 'foo', 'Bob']
```

---

```
Without duplicates: ['foo', 'Alice', '  
    ↪ bar', 'Bob']
```

---

Listing 1.58: Output of `remove_duplicates_list.py`

### 1.10.4 Unpacking Lists Using \* Operator

Assuming you have a list with more elements than you have variables to store the values in. You can use the `*` operator when unpacking a list to store a partial list in one variable.

---

```
a, *b, c = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]  
  
print(f"a = {a}")  
print(f"b = {b}")  
print(f"c = {c}")
```

---

Listing 1.59: `list_unpacking.py`

---


```
$ python list_unpacking.py  
a = 1  
b = [2, 3, 4]
```

```
c = 5
```

---

Listing 1.60: Output of `list_unpacking.py`


### 1.10.5 Remove Elements Not Matching Pattern

Let's assume you have a list of certain data and want to remove all elements in it, which are not matching a certain pattern. You could make use of the built-in **list**  **.remove()** method, which removes the first match of and then shifts all subsequent data one position to the left. So, if you want to remove all, you need to loop over it. However, this approach gives quadratic behaviour. The following Listing shows you a much better way to achieve this:

---

```
data = [1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 4]
target = 1

print(f"Original: {data}")

data[:] = [elem for elem in data if elem
 != target]

print(f"New: {data}")
```

---

Listing 1.61: `remove_elements_list.py`

This approach is not only faster, but creates a new, distinct list and then replaces the old contents all at once.

## 1.11 Files

In this section you will find a collection of snippets revealing tips for interacting with files.

### 1.11.1 Hash a File

To ensure a files integrity, you can hash the file and compare it with other hashes. The following Listing shows you how to hash a certain file using **MD5** and **SHA1**. Both hashes are printed to stdout as well as the name of the hashed file.

---

```
"""Reference: https://medium.com/ediblesec/building-a-hashing-tool-with-python-3afe34db74e5"""  
import os  
import hashlib
```

```
import argparse

parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
parser.add_argument("file")
args = parser.parse_args()

md5 = hashlib.md5()
sha1 = hashlib.sha1()

try:
    with open(args.file, "rb") as f:
        buf = f.read()
        md5.update(buf)
        sha1.update(buf)

    print(f"Filename: {os.path.basename(
        ↪ args.file)})")
    print(f"MD5-Hash: {md5.hexdigest()}")
    ↪ )
    print(f"SHA1-Hash: {sha1.hexdigest(
        ↪ })")
except FileNotFoundError as e:
    print(e)
```

---

Listing 1.62: hash\_file.py

### 1.11.2 Read Files using Iterator

Reveals the usage of iterators to read in a file. It's useful when dealing with large files. If not using iterators, the whole file is loaded into memory at once (think of several gigabyte huge files). If using iterators, only the next line is loaded.

---

```
print(next(open("huge_log_file.txt")))
```

---

Listing 1.63: read\_files\_using\_iterator.py

## 1.12 Context Manager

In this section you will find a collection of self-implemented context manager.

### 1.12.1 Open Multiple Files

Ever wanted to save a certain text to multiple files? Well, with this context manager you can open multiple files at once and write a specified text to them.

---

```
from contextlib import ExitStack,  
    ↪ contextmanager
```

---

```
@contextmanager
def multi_open(paths, mode="r"):
    with ExitStack() as stack:
        yield [stack.enter_context(open(
            ↪ path, mode)) for path in
            ↪ paths]

paths = (f"file_{n}.txt" for n in range
    ↪ (10))

with multi_open(paths, "w") as files:
    for file in files:
        file.write("Enter some text to
            ↪ several files.")
```

---

Listing 1.64: multi\_open\_files.py

If you run the snippet, it will create ten text files all containing the same text.

### 1.12.2 Temporal SQLite Table

If you are working with `sqlite`, you may find this context manager helpful. It creates a temporal table you can

interact with.

---

```
from sqlite3 import connect
from contextlib import contextmanager

@contextmanager
def temptable(cur):
    cur.execute("create table points(x
        ↪ int, y int)")
    try:
        yield
    finally:
        cur.execute("drop table points")

with connect("test.db") as conn:
    cur = conn.cursor()
    with temptable(cur):
        cur.execute("insert into points
            ↪ (x, y) values(1, 1)")
        cur.execute("insert into points
            ↪ (x, y) values(1, 2)")
        cur.execute("insert into points
            ↪ (x, y) values(2, 1)")
    for row in cur.execute("select x
        ↪ , y from points"):
```



```
        print(row)
    for row in cur.execute("select
        ↪ sum(x * y) from points"):
        print(row)
```

---

Listing 1.65: temptable\_contextmanager.py

When leaving the **with**-statement, the table is deleted. That said, you can run the snippet as often as you like, the output remains the same.

---

```
$ python temptable_contextmanager.py
(1, 1)
(1, 2)
(2, 1)
(5,)
```

---

Listing 1.66: Output of temptable\_contextmanager.py

### 1.12.3 Timing Context Manager

Sometimes you simply want to find out, how long a certain code block needs to be executed. To do that you have different options: Use a third-party package like **boxx** or create your own timing context manager based

on the standard library. The following Listing shows you, how you can create your own timing context manager. In specific, this approach makes use of a generator function (you can implement this context manager based on a class as well).

---

```
import time

from contextlib import contextmanager

@contextmanager
def timing(description: str):
    start = time.time()
    yield
    print(f"{description}: {time.time()
        ↪ - start}")

with timing("Time List Comprehension"):
    s = [x for x in range(10_000_000)]
```

---

Listing 1.67: timing\_context\_manager.py

As you can see, the code is pretty straightforward. An example output is shown below.

---

```
$ python timing_context_manager.py
Time List Comprehension:
  ↪ 0.5184009075164795
```

---

Listing 1.68: Output of `timing_context_manager.py`

## 1.13 Non-Categorized

This section includes all those snippets not belonging to any of the underlying categories.

### 1.13.1 Turtle

The `turtle` module provides turtle graphics primitives, in both object-oriented and procedure-oriented ways. Because it uses `tkinter` for the underlying graphics, it needs a version of Python installed with Tk support. The following Listing shows you a sample implementation of the `turtle` module drawing a dragon.

---

```
import turtle
```

```
turtle.tracer(False)
```

```
turtle.penup()
turtle.goto(-50, -50)
turtle.pendown()

for i in range(1, 2 ** 16):
    turtle.forward(3)
    if ((i & -i) << 1) & i:
        turtle.lt(90)
    else:
        turtle.rt(90)

turtle.done()
```

---

Listing 1.69: drawing\_turtle.py

### 1.13.2 Function Parameters

There's not much to say about the following snippet. It shows the different usages of positional and keyword arguments. The last call shows you how *not* to call a function with positional and keyword arguments. So don't be confused if a **TypeError** is raised.

---

```
def main():
    positional("Cheese", 21, "Meat")
```

```
    optional_keyword("Cheese", 21, "Meat"
        ↪ ")
    optional_keyword("Cheese", 21, arg3=
        ↪ "Meat")
    force_keyword("Cheese", 21, arg3="
        ↪ Meat")
    force_keyword("Cheese", 21, "Meat")

def positional(arg1: str, arg2: int,
    ↪ arg3: str):
    print(arg1, arg2, arg3)

def optional_keyword(arg1: str, arg2:
    ↪ int, arg3: str = None):
    print(arg1, arg2, arg3)

def force_keyword(arg1: str, arg2: int,
    ↪ *, arg3: str = None):
    print(arg1, arg2, arg3)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    main()
```

---

Listing 1.70: function\_arguments.py

### 1.13.3 Password Input

Python has a module called **getpass**, which lets you take user input without printing the typed characters.

---

```
import getpass
```

```
pwd = getpass.getpass()  
print(pwd)
```

---

Listing 1.71: `get_password_input.py`

### 1.13.4 Hex Decode

You can decode hex-code in Python as follows.

---

```
print(bytes.fromhex("4d 65 72 72 79 20  
    ↪ 43 68 72 69 73 74 6d 61 73 21"))
```

---

Listing 1.72: `hex_decode.py`

---

```
$ python hex_decode.py  
b'Merry Christmas!'
```

---

Listing 1.73: Output of hex\_decode.py

### 1.13.5 MicroWebServer

The implementation of a micro web server is stored in the `MicroWebServer.py` file. As this file is much longer than usual snippets and it's not meant to be discussed here, I'm referring the source code repo to see and test the program on your own.

### 1.13.6 Open Browser Tab

You can control a browser through the `webbrowser` module. If you want to open a new browser tab, you can simply run the code of the following Listing.

**Note:** Only browsers, which are part of the `PATH` variable, can be found

---

```
import webbrowser
```

```
controller = webbrowser.get("firefox")
controller.open_new_tab("https://
    ↪ stackoverflow.com")
```

---

Listing 1.74: `open_browser_tab.py`

### 1.13.7 Port Scanner

In the `port_scanner.py` file you find an implementation of a very basic port scanner. As the file is too large, it's not displayed here. Feel free to use the port scanner.

### 1.13.8 Reduce Memory Consumption - Customizing `__slots__`

Every class has a `__slots__` attribute. This attribute is quite big by default. By specifying a custom `__slots__` attribute, you can reduce the memory consumption. As the snippet is quite large, I just refer to file in the repo: `reduce_memory_consumption.py`. However, I want to show you the output of the snippet:

---

```
$ python reduce_memory_consumption.py
[With __slots__] Total allocated size:
  ↳ 6.9 MB
[Without __slots__] Total allocated size
  ↳ : 16.8 MB
```



---

Listing	1.75:	Output	of
reduce_memory_consumption.py			

---

### 1.13.9 Reduce Memory Consumption - Using Iterator

You can reduce the memory consumption by using iterators whenever possible.

---

```
import sys

from itertools import repeat

lots_of_fours = repeat(4, times=100
    ↪ _000_000)
print(f"Using itertools.repeat: {sys.
    ↪ getsizeof(lots_of_fours)} bytes")

lots_of_fours = [4] * 100_000_000
print(
    ↪ f"Using list with 100.000.000
    ↪ elements: {sys.getsizeof(
```



```
re.compile("([\w\.-]+)([\w\.-]+)", re.  
    ↪ DEBUG)
```

---

Listing 1.78: `regular_expression_debug.py`

### 1.13.11 Scopes

The snippet `scopes_namespaces.py` contains an example to demonstrate the different scopes and namespaces available in Python. As it's only for demonstrating purposes and as the file is quite huge, it's not displayed here.

### 1.13.12 Set Union and Intersection

Python provides set union and intersection using the `&` and `|` operators.

---

```
set_a = {1, 2}  
set_b = {2, 3}  
  
print("Use | and & for set union and  
    ↪ intersection.")  
print(f"{set_a} & {set_b} = {set_a &  
    ↪ set_b}")
```

```
print(f"{set_a} | {set_b} = {set_a |  
    ↪ set_b}")
```

---

Listing 1.79: set\_union\_intersection.py

---

```
$ python set_union_intersection.py  
{1, 2} & {2, 3} = {2}  
{1, 2} | {2, 3} = {1, 2, 3}
```

---

Listing 1.80: set\_union\_intersection.py

### 1.13.13 Sort Complex Tuples

If you have a list of more complex tuples, you may want to sort them by a certain key. You can provide a key function for the builtin **sorted** function.

---

```
student_tuples = [("John", "A", 15), ("  
    ↪ Jane", "B", 12), ("Dave", "B", 10)  
    ↪ ]  
  
sorted_list = sorted(student_tuples, key  
    ↪ =lambda student: student[2])
```

```
print(sorted_list)
```

---

Listing 1.81: sort\_complex\_tuples.py

---

```
$ python sort_complex_tuples.py  
[('Dave', 'B', 10), ('Jane', 'B', 12), (  
  ↪ 'John', 'A', 15)]
```

---

Listing 1.82: Output of sort\_complex\_tuples.py

### 1.13.14 Unicode in Source Code

Python allows you to use unicode in your source, what you shouldn't do. Nevertheless, this snippet shows you a sample unicode usage in source code.

---

*# Only works in Python REPL*

```
def ^2(' '):  
    f"result" = ' * '  
    return f"result"
```

```
^2(4)
```

---

Listing 1.83: `unicode_source_code.py`

However, this only works in the REPL or in iPython, but not in files.

### 1.13.15 UUID

The `uuid` module provides methods to generate UUIDs. In this snippet you can find a sample implementation of `UUID1`.

---

```
from uuid import uuid1

for i in range(5):
    print(uuid1())
```

---

Listing 1.84: `uuid1_example.py`

The output may look like this:

---

```
$ python uuid1_example.py
3120c650-4e5e-11e9-be8f-dca904927157
3120ca1a-4e5e-11e9-be8f-dca904927157
3120cb0a-4e5e-11e9-be8f-dca904927157
```

```
3120cbbe-4e5e-11e9-be8f-dca904927157
3120cc72-4e5e-11e9-be8f-dca904927157
```

---

Listing 1.85: Output of `uuid1_example.py`

### 1.13.16 Zip Safe

This snippet illustrates how `zip` is stopping if one iterable is exhausted without a warning and how to prevent it.

---

```
import itertools

a = [1, 2, 3]
b = ["One", "Two"]

result1 = list(zip(a, b))
result2 = list(itertools.zip_longest(a,
    ↪ b))

print(result1)
print(result2)
```

---

Listing 1.86: `zip_safe.py`

---

```
$ python zip_safe.py
[(1, 'One'), (2, 'Two')]
[(1, 'One'), (2, 'Two'), (3, None)]
```

---

Listing 1.87: Output of zip\_safe.py

### 1.13.17 Tree Clone

If you have ever worked with unix systems, you might know the **tree** command. The following Listing shows you a pure Python implementation of this command.

---

```
from pathlib import Path

def tree(directory):
    print(f"{directory}")
    for path in sorted(directory.rglob("
        ↪ *")):
        depth = len(path.relative_to(
            ↪ directory).parts)
        spacer = "    " * (depth - 1)
        print(f"{spacer}\u2514—— {path
            ↪ .name}")
```



```
tree(Path().cwd())
```

---

Listing 1.88: tree\_clone.py

A sample output might look like this:

---

```
$ python tree_clone.py
/Users/florian/workspace/python/test-
  ↳ directory
  ├── app
  │   ├── __init__.py
  │   └── __main__.py
  ├── main.py
  ├── test.py
  └── utils.py
```

---

Listing 1.89: Output of tree\_clone.py

### 1.13.18 pathlib implementation of os.relpatah

The following Listing is a **pathlib.Path** implementation of **os.relpatah**, which should *never* be used in production. It's only meant to show a nice hacky implemen-

tation of `os.relp` as its not provided by default by `pathlib.Path`.

---

```
from itertools import takewhile
from pathlib import Path

foo = Path("foo")
baz = Path("baz")

common_rel_path = Path(
    *[
        set(i).pop()
        for i in (takewhile(lambda x: x
            ↪ [0] == x[1], zip(foo.parts
            ↪ , baz.parts)))
    ]
)
print(common_rel_path)
```

---

Listing 1.90: `pathlib_relp.py`

The snippet assumes that you have at least two directories in your current working directory: `foo` and `baz`. The output is shown in the following Listing:

---

```
$ python pathlib_relp.py  
.
```

---

Listing 1.91: Output of `pathlib_relp.py`

### 1.13.19 Slicing Generators

Generators are a pretty nice thing. For instance you can write a function returning the fibonacci numbers using **yield** turning it into a generator, which is way more efficient than creating a function calculating a finite number of results and returning the resulting list. The problem: You're not able to slice the returned generator. Or at least you can't using the `[]`-operator. Making use of the awesome **itertools** module, you can!

---

```
import itertools  
  
def fibonacci():  
    current, nxt = 0, 1  
    while True:  
        current, nxt = nxt, nxt +  
            ↪ current  
        yield current
```

```
first_fove = list(itertools.islice(  
    ↪ fibonacci(), 5))  
print(f"First five: {first_fove}")
```

---

Listing 1.92: slice\_generators.py

### 1.13.20 Count Elements Between Thresholds

If you want to get the number of elements between certain thresholds, you can make use of the following Listing.

---

```
data = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]  
low, high = 3, 6  
result = sum(low <= x < high for x in  
    ↪ data)  
  
print(result)
```

---

Listing 1.93: count\_thresholds.py

The essential point is, that you can sum booleans as they are a subclass of integers.

---

```
$ python count_thresholds.py
3
```

---

Listing 1.94: Output of `count_thresholds.py`

# Chapter 2

## Third Party

What distinguishes the recipes in this chapter from the ones in the *Standard Library* chapter? The ones in this chapter make use of third party packages you need to install first. You can find the used code snippets in the *third\_party* directory of the repository.

### 2.1 Image and Animation

The section *Image and Animation* contains recipes for image and video manipulation as well as animation creation.

### 2.1.1 Create A GIF

You can create a GIF by using the following three third party packages:

- `animatplot`
- `matplotlib`
- `numpy`

---

```
import animatplot as amp
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

x = np.linspace(0, 1, 50)
t = np.linspace(0, 1, 20)

X, T = np.meshgrid(x, t)
Y = np.sin(2 * np.pi * (X + T))

block = amp.blocks.Line(X, Y)
anim = amp.Animation([block])

anim.controls() # creates a
    ↪ timeline_slider and a play/pause
    ↪ toggle
```

```
anim.save_gif("images/line2") # save  
    ↪ animation for docs  
plt.show()
```

---

Listing 2.1: animated\_graphics.py

**Note:** Make sure, that an **images** directory exists as it's not created automatically.

### 2.1.2 Change Image Background

To be able to use this recipe you not only need to have **numpy** installed but also have **OpenCV** installed on your system. There is an unofficial pre-built OpenCV packages for Python available on PyPI. You can install it via **pip**.

---

```
$ python -m pip install opencv-python
```

---

Listing 2.2: Install the unofficial pre-build OpenCV Python package from PyPI

---

```
import cv2  
import numpy as np
```



```
img = cv2.imread(open(""))

for i in range(img.shape[0]):
    for j in range(img.shape[1]):
        if all(img[i][j] == np.array
            ↪ ([114, 89, 47])):
            img[i][j] = np.array([200,
            ↪ 0, 0])

cv2.imwrite("new.jpg", img)
```

---

Listing 2.3: change\_bg.py

**Note:** `np.array([114, 89, 47])` represents the background image you want to replace by the one on the next line.

### 2.1.3 Manipulate Images Using Imageio

`imageio` is a Python library that provides an easy interface to read and write a wide range of image data, including animated images, volumetric data, and scientific formats. The following Listing shows you how to read an image from an url, turn it into a grey one and finally save it after blurring.

---

```
import imageio
import numpy as np
import scipy.ndimage

start_img = imageio.imread(
    "http://static.cricinfo.com/db/
    ↪ PICTURES/CMS/263600/263697.20.
    ↪ jpg"
)
gray_inv_img = 255 - np.dot(start_img
    ↪ [..., :3], [0.299, 0.587, 0.114])
blur_img = scipy.ndimage.filters.
    ↪ gaussian_filter(gray_inv_img,
    ↪ sigma=5)

def dodge(front, back):
    result = front * 255 / (255 - back)
    result[np.logical_or(result > 255,
        ↪ back == 255)] = 255
    return result.astype("uint8")

final_img = dodge(blur_img, gray_inv_img
    ↪ )
imageio.imwrite("final.jpg", final_img)
```

---

Listing 2.4: `manipulate_images.py`

### 2.1.4 Resize Images

With **OpenCV** it's possible to manipulate images. This includes resizing images as well. This recipe shows you how all **.jpg** images in the current working directory can be resized.

---

```
import cv2
import glob

images = glob.glob("*.jpg")

for image in images:
    img = cv2.imread(image, 0)
    re = cv2.resize(img, (100, 100))
    cv2.imshow("Hey", re)
    cv2.waitKey(500)
    cv2.destroyAllWindows()
    cv2.imwrite("resized_" + image, re)
```

---

Listing 2.5: `resize_images.py`

### 2.1.5 Hide Image Inside Another

Making use of the steganography technique (hiding information), you can hide a whole image in another one. This can be achieved by using the Python Imaging Library (PIL) or the active developed fork *Pillow*. The recipe contained by the `steganography.py` file provides you a CLI, which you can use to hide an image inside another.

### 2.1.6 Create Own Images

Using four different packages, you can create your own (random generated) image. The following Listing reveals you the necessary source code.

---

```
import tensorflow as tf
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np
from PIL import Image

randomInt = np.random.randint(256, size
    ↪ =(1000, 1000))
randomFloat = tf.to_float(randomInt)

with tf.Session() as session:
```

```
result = session.run(randomFloat)
im = Image.fromarray(result, "RGB")

plt.imshow(im)
plt.show()
```

---

Listing 2.6: tensorflow\_image.py

## 2.2 Command-Line

In this section you will find useful snippets when dealing with command-lines.

### 2.2.1 Attention Please!

Sometimes you need to create an eye catcher on the command-line. Therefore, you can use **termcolor** to create one. In the following code snippet you will find the code necessary to create a blinking white message on a red background.

---

```
import termcolor
```

```
termcolor.cprint("Hey, this is important  
→ !!!", "white", "on_red", attrs=["  
→ blink"])
```

---

Listing 2.7: attention\_message.py

### 2.2.2 Colored Python

As indicated in the previous recipe, you can use **termcolor**  
→ to print colored strings on the command-line.

---

```
from termcolor import colored, cprint  
  
# Normal print  
print("Hello World!")  
  
# Normal print with colored text  
text = colored("Hello Red World!", "red"  
→ )  
print(text)  
  
# Termcolor colored print  
cprint("Hello Blue World!", "blue")
```

---

Listing 2.8: colored\_python.py

### 2.2.3 Generate CLI Help Strings

Making use of **docopt** you can generate cli help strings based on Python docstrings.

---

```
"""CLI HELP STRINGS
```

```
Usage:
```

```
    cli_help_strings.py
    cli_help_strings.py <name>
    cli_help_strings.py -h/--help
    cli_help_strings.py -v/--version
```

```
Options:
```

```
    <name>    Optional name argument.
    -h --help  Show this screen.
    -v --version Show version.
```

```
"""
```

```
from docopt import docopt
```

```
def say_hello(name):
    return f"Hello {name}!"
```

```
if __name__ == "__main__":
    arguments = docopt(__doc__, version=
        ↪ "DEMO 1.0")
    if arguments["<name>"]:
```

```
        print(say_hello(arguments["<name  
        ↪ >"]))  
    else:  
        print(arguments)
```

---

Listing 2.9: cli\_help\_strings.py

---

```
$ python cli_help_strings.py --help  
CLI HELP STRINGS  
Usage:  
    cli_help_strings.py  
    cli_help_strings.py <name>  
    cli_help_strings.py -h|--help  
    cli_help_strings.py -v|--version  
Options:  
    <name>  Optional name argument.  
    -h --help  Show this screen.  
    -v --version  Show version.
```

---

Listing 2.10: Output of cli\_help\_string.py



## 2.2.4 Parse And Print Colored Arguments

`clint` provides you the functionalities to parse command-line arguments and to print them in a colored way.

---

```
import os
import sys

from clint.arguments import Args
from clint.textui import puts, colored,
    ↪ indent

sys.path.insert(0, os.path.abspath("..")
    ↪ )

args = Args()

with indent(4, quote=">>>"):
    puts(colored.blue("Arguments passed
        ↪ in: ") + str(args.all))
    puts(colored.blue("Flags detected: "
        ↪ ) + str(args.flags))
    puts(colored.blue("Files detected: "
        ↪ ) + str(args.files))
    puts(colored.blue("NOT Files
        ↪ detected: ") + str(args.
```

```
    ↪ not_files))  
    puts(colored.blue("Grouped Arguments  
    ↪ : ") + str(dict(args.grouped))  
    ↪ )
```

```
print()
```

---

Listing 2.11: clint\_cli\_tool.py

---

```
$ python clint_cli_tool.py  
>>> Arguments passed in: []  
>>> Flags detected: <args []>  
>>> Files detected: []  
>>> NOT Files detected: <args []>  
>>> Grouped Arguments: {'_': <args []>}
```

---

Listing 2.12: Output of clint\_cli\_tool.py

**Note:** The keywords between >>> and the colon are blue.

### 2.2.5 Print Tables

You can use **prettytable** to print a table on the command-line.

---

```
from prettytable import PrettyTable

table = PrettyTable(["food", "price"])
table.add_row(["ham", "$2"])
table.add_row(["eggs", "$1"])
table.add_row(["spam", "$4"])

print(table)
```

---

Listing 2.13: display\_tables.py

---

```
$ python display_tables.py
```

food	price
ham	\$2
eggs	\$1
spam	\$4

---

Listing 2.14: Output of display\_tables.py

## 2.2.6 Fancy CLI Header

Ever wondered how other projects create those fancy cli headers? You can use `pyfiglet` to achieve exactly that!

---

```
from pyfiglet import Figlet
```

```
f = Figlet(font="slant")
print(f.renderText("text to render"))
```

---

Listing 2.15: fancy\_cli\_header.py

The following output is not included as image. It's copied and pasted directly from the command-line. So if you recognize a non-fancy header, make sure to try it yourself to get a better impression of what you can achieve with this recipe.

---

```
--      --      --
 / /____ _  __/ /_  / /____
 / __/ _ \| /_  __/ / __/ _ \
 / /_ / __/ > < / _ / /_ / /_ /
 \__/\____/_/|_|\__/\____/\
```

---

Listing 2.16: Output of fancy\_cli\_header.py

### 2.2.7 Interactive CLI

By using **PyInquirer** you can create interactive command-line interfaces. As the file is too long to be displayed here, I refer to the **interactive\_cli.py** file contained by the *third\_party* directory of the repository. I recommend to run the snippet and get a feeling for what's possible with this amazing package.

### 2.2.8 Creating A Progress Bar

As the name already suggests, **progressbar** can be used to create a progress bar on the command-line.

---

```
from time import sleep
from progressbar import ProgressBar

bar = ProgressBar()
for i in bar(range(50)):
    sleep(0.5)
```

---

Listing 2.17: shows\_progress.py

### 2.2.9 Creating A Simple Progress Bar

This code snippet is similar to the last one except the fact, that this one uses the `tqdm` package.

---

```
from time import sleep
from tqdm import tqdm

for i in tqdm(range(100)):
    sleep(0.2)
```

---

Listing 2.18: `simple_progressbar.py`

### 2.2.10 Cooked Input

„`cooked_input` is a Python package for getting, cleaning, converting, and validating command line input. If you think of input (`raw_input` in legacy Python) as raw input, then this is cooked input.“

---

```
import cooked_input as ci

cap_cleaner = ci.CapitalizationCleaner(
    ➔ style=ci.ALL_WORDS_CAP_STYLE)
```

```
name = ci.get_string(prompt="What is  
    ↪ your name?", cleaners=[cap_cleaner  
    ↪ ])
```

```
print(name)
```

---

Listing 2.19: cooked\_input\_example.py

---

```
$ python cooked_input_example.py  
What is your name?: FlOriAn dAhliTz  
Florian Dahlitz
```

---

Listing 2.20: Output of cooked\_input\_example.py

### 2.2.11 Image To ASCII Art

Once in a while you may want to enhance the look and feel of your command-line application by adding some ascii art to it. Luckily, the following two recipes allow you to create ascii arts based on images. As both recipes are quite long, they are not displayed here, but you can find them in the corresponding repository.

The first one saves the ascii art to a file called **out** ↪ **.txt** in your current working directory. The second

one prints the resulting ascii art directly to stdout. Make sure to checkout the code of the first recipe as it shows you, which arguments you can pass to the file.

---

```
$ python img_to_ascii.py --file src/  
    ↪ python.png --cols 120  
$ python img_to_ascii_2.py src/python.  
    ↪ png
```

---

Listing 2.21: Usage of both recipes

## 2.3 Timing

The *Timing* section contains snippets related to timing. This means, that you'll find ways to time the execution time of certain code parts and much more. To achieve that, **boxx** is mainly used.

### 2.3.1 Timing Tool: boxx

The third party **boxx** module provides you a pretty neat way to time your code executions via **with**-blocks.

---

```
from boxx import timeit
```



```
from time import sleep

with timeit():
    sleep(0.01)

with timeit(name="sleep"):
    sleep(0.1)
```

---

Listing 2.22: timing\_tool.py

---

```
$ python timing_tool.py
"timeit" spend time: 0.01047492
"sleep" spend time: 0.10027
```

---

Listing 2.23: Output of timing\_tool.py

### 2.3.2 f-strings VS str

Let's say you want to convert an integer to a string. There exist different ways to do that. Working on an open source project I came across an option I've never thought of: using f-strings. But which method is faster? Using the builtin **str** function or f-strings? You can use **boxx** to time it easily.

---

```
from boxx import timeit

with timeit(name="f-strings"):
    for i in range(500_000):
        x = 6
        f"{x}"

with timeit(name="str"):
    for i in range(500_000):
        x = 6
        str(x)
```

---

Listing 2.24: f-strings\_vs\_str.py

---

```
$ python f-strings_vs_str.py
"f-strings" spend time: 0.09714508
"str" spend time: 0.1627851
```

---

Listing 2.25: Output of f-strings\_vs\_str.py

**Note:** Even though f-strings are faster in this situation, keep in mind, that the builtin **str** function is preferred to be used. Clean code is usually more important than efficiency.

## 2.4 Non-Categorized

All recipes, which do not fall into one of the underlying categories, are listed here.

### 2.4.1 Auto Login On Website

Using **selenium** allows you to automatically open a new browser window and login into a certain website, e.g. GitHub.

---

```
from selenium import webdriver

website_link = "https://github.com/login"
    ↪ "
username = ""
password = ""

element_for_username = "login"
element_for_password = "password"
element_for_submit = "commit"

browser = webdriver.Firefox()
browser.get(website_link)

try:
```

```
username_field = browser.  
    ↪ find_element_by_name(  
    ↪ element_for_username)  
username_field.send_keys(username)  
password_field = browser.  
    ↪ find_element_by_name(  
    ↪ element_for_password)  
password_field.send_keys(password)  
signInButton = browser.  
    ↪ find_element_by_name(  
    ↪ element_for_submit)  
signInButton.click()  
except Exception as e:  
    print(e)
```

---

Listing 2.26: auto\_login\_website.py

### 2.4.2 Count Python Bytes In A Directory

**PyFilesystem2** is Python's file system abstraction layer. You can use a file system object to analyse your files. The following recipe shows you how you can get the number of Python source code bytes in your directory.

---

```
import sys

from fs import open_fs
from fs.filesize import traditional

fs_url = sys.argv[1]
count = 0

with open_fs(fs_url) as fs:
    for _path, info in fs.walk.info(
        ↪ filter=["*.py"], namespaces=["
        ↪ details"]):
        count += info.size

print(f'There is {traditional(count)} of
    ↪ Python in "{fs_url}"')
```

---

Listing 2.27: count\_python\_bytes.py

### 2.4.3 Create World Maps

**folium** builds on the data wrangling strengths of the Python ecosystem and the mapping strengths of the Leaflet.js library. Manipulate your data in Python, then visualize it in a Leaflet map via **folium**. This recipe creates a

world map with the USA in the centre of the map.

---

```
import folium

mapOBJ = folium.Map(location=[39.5,
    ↪ -98.35], zoom_start=4, tiles="
    ↪ Stamen Terrain")
mapOBJ.save(outfile="map.html")
```

---

Listing 2.28: folium\_snippet.py

## 2.4.4 Print Formatted JSON

Printing JSON object formatted is as easy as:

---

```
import json
import requests

def sample_request(url: str):
    resp = requests.get(url)

    return resp.json()
```

```
response = sample_request("https://  
    ↪ jsonplaceholder.typicode.com/todos  
    ↪ /1")  
print(json.dumps(response, indent=4))
```

---

Listing 2.29: formatted\_json.py

---

```
$ python formatted_json.py  
{  
    "userId": 1,  
    "id": 1,  
    "title": "delectus aut autem",  
    "completed": false  
}
```

---

Listing 2.30: Output of formatted\_json.py

**Note:** The snippet is part of the third party part as it makes use of the **requests** library. The **json** module is part of Python's standard library.

### 2.4.5 Inspect Docker

You can inspect running Docker containers and existing images using the **docker** module.

---

```
import docker

client = docker.from_env()

print(client.containers.run("ubuntu
    ↪ :16.04", "echo hello world"))
print(client.containers.list())
print(client.images.list())
```

---

Listing 2.31: inspect\_docker.py

### 2.4.6 Is Holiday

The **holidays** module provides you an elegant and easy way to check, whether a given date is a holiday in the specified region.

---

```
from datetime import date

import holidays

today = date.today()
is_holiday = today in holidays.Germany()
```



```
print(is_holiday)
```

---

Listing 2.32: is\_holiday.py

### 2.4.7 Web Scraping

The recipe in the `mathematicians.py` file shows you how you can scrape information from the internet. It makes use of the following third party packages:

- BeautifulSoup
- requests

The recipe returns you the most popular mathematicians. As it's too long, please have a look at it in the repository.

### 2.4.8 Interacting With The Medium API

Another recipe, which is too long but worth to mention, is the one contained by the `medium.py` file. Running the file gives you the ability to interact with the Medium API via the command-line.

### 2.4.9 Mocking Requests

When writing tests for your application, you may come across the situation, where you have to mock requests. The following Listing shows you how you can do this by using the standard libraries `unittest.mock` module.

---

```
from unittest.mock import Mock

import requests

requests = Mock()

def get_holidays():
    r = requests.get("http://localhost/
    ↪ api/holidays")
    if r.status_code == 200:
        return r.json()
    return None

class TestCalendar:
    def log_request(self, url):
        # Log a fake request for test
        ↪ output purposes
```

```
print(f"Making a request to {url  
    ↪ }.")  
print("Request received!")  
  
# Create a new Mock to imitate a  
    ↪ Response  
response_mock = Mock()  
response_mock.status_code = 200  
response_mock.json.return_value  
    ↪ = {  
    "12/25": "Christmas",  
    "7/4": "Independence Day",  
}  
  
return response_mock  
  
def test_get_holidays_logging(self):  
    requests.get.side_effect = self.  
        ↪ log_request  
    print(requests)  
    assert get_holidays()["12/25"]  
        ↪ == "Christmas"
```

---

Listing 2.33: `mocking_requests.py`

### 2.4.10 Mypy Example

The following Listing reveals the usage of **mypy** as a static type checker. Running the snippet will throw a **TypeError** as expected.

---

```
import mypy

def add(a: int, b: int) -> int:
    return a + b

print(add(1, 5))
print(add("a", 3))
```

---

Listing 2.34: mypy\_example.py

### 2.4.11 NumPy Array Operations

Running the following code snippet reveals you some of the existing **numpy** array operations.

---

```
import numpy as np
```

```
x = np.array([1, 2, 3, 4, 5])

print(f"{x * 2}")
print(f"{x * x}")
```

---

Listing 2.35: numpy\_array\_operations.py


---

```
$ python numpy_array_operations.py
[ 2  4  6  8 10]
[ 1  4  9 16 25]
```

---

Listing 2.36: Output of numpy\_array\_operations.py

### 2.4.12 Parse Complex Excel Sheets

You can parse more complex Excel Sheets by using **pandas**  and installed a **pandas** extension called **xlrd**.

---

```
from pathlib import Path

import pandas as pd

path = Path("src/samples.xlsx")
```

```
xls = pd.ExcelFile(path)
print(xls.sheet_names)

df = xls.parse(xls.sheet_names[0])
print(df.head())
```

---

Listing 2.37: parse\_complex\_excel\_sheets.py

### 2.4.13 Nmap For Python

Creating your own port scanner becomes easy when using **nmap**. Luckily, a Python package exists providing access to nmap: **python-nmap**. **Hint:** Make sure you have Nmap installed on your operating system as **python-nmap** only provides access to the Nmap API.

---

```
import nmap

nm = nmap.PortScanner()
nm.scan("127.0.0.1", "22-443")

for host in nm.all_hosts():
    print("
    ↪ _____
    ↪ ")
```

```
print(f"Host : {host} ({nm[host].  
    ↪ hostname()})")  
print(f"State : {nm[host].state()}")  
  
for protocol in nm[host].  
    ↪ all_protocols():  
    print("_____")  
    print(f"Protocol : {protocol}")  
    port_list = sorted(nm[host][  
        ↪ protocol].keys())  
  
    for port in port_list:  
        print(f"port : {port}\tstate  
            ↪ : {nm[host][protocol  
            ↪ ][port]['state']}")
```

---

Listing 2.38: port\_scanner\_nmap.py

### 2.4.14 Test Renamed Class

Renaming a class can happen over time. If you want to test, whether your code is backwards compatible, you can make use of the following snippet.

---

```
import pytest
```

```
class Mario:
    pass
```

```
class Luigi:
    pass
```

```
@pytest.fixture(params=[Mario, Luigi])
def plumber(request):
    plumber_cls = request.param

    return plumber_cls()
```

```
def test_backwards_compatibility(plumber
    ↪ ):
    assert 1 == 1
```

---

Listing 2.39:  
pytest\_rename\_class\_backwards\_compatibility.py



### 2.4.15 Reduce Pandas Dataframe Memory

When dealing with large data sets, it can be an advantage to change column types from **object** to **category** as shown in the next Listing.

---

```

"""The used data set can be found here:
    ↪ https://www.kaggle.com/worldbank/
    ↪ world-development-indicators#
    ↪ Indicators.csv """
import pandas as pd

df = pd.read_csv("data/indicators.csv")
print("==== Before (with object)
    ↪ =====")
print(df.info())

for column in df.select_dtypes("object")
    ↪ :
        df[column] = df[column].astype("
            ↪ category")

print("==== After (with category)
    ↪ =====")
print(df.info())

```

---

Listing 2.40: `reduce_pandas_df_memory.py`

### 2.4.16 Async Libraries

Before **async/await** became so popular and part of the standard library, you had several options to use asynchronous techniques in your project. The three main ones were **asyncio**, **gevent** and **tornado**. You can find an example for each in the *third\_party* directory of the repository. The file names are as follows:

- `test_asyncio.py`
- `test_gevent.py`
- `test_tornado.py`

### 2.4.17 Unzip World Bank Data

The following recipe shows you how you can download a **.zip** file from an online source, extract and work with the data. Therefore, except the **requests** library only standard library modules are used.

---

```
import csv
```

```
import io
import zipfile

import requests

url = "http://databank.worldbank.org/
    ↪ data/download/WDI_csv.zip"
filename = "WDIData.csv"

# Warning: this can take two minutes to
    ↪ download!!
with zipfile.ZipFile(io.BytesIO(requests
    ↪ .get(url).content)) as zip_file:
    print("\n".join(name for name in
        ↪ zip_file.namelist()))
    zip_file.extractall()

# On Python 2, remove: ", newline=''"
with open(filename, newline="") as
    ↪ in_file:
    for row in csv.reader(in_file):
        print(", ".join(row))
```

---

Listing 2.41: world\_bank\_data.py

### 2.4.18 Simple Debugger

When writing Python code you may come across situations, where you want to find out, what's going on. Sometimes you may make use of an actual debugger, but most of the times inserting some **print**-statements seems just fine. The **PySnooper** package is probably the best reason, why you should never use **print**-statements to debug your code again. The following Listing shows you the simple usage of its **snoop** decorator.

---

```
import pysnooper

@pysnooper.snoop()
def foo():
    a = [x for x in range(100)]
    return [x for x in a if x % 2 == 0]

foo()
```

---

Listing 2.42: simple\_debugger.py

The output is too long to be covered here. Feel free to run the snippet from your terminal and get a sense of how amazing and helpful this little package can be.