

30.1 Reading files

A common programming task is to get input from a file using the built-in **open()** function rather than from a user typing on a keyboard.

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30.1.1: Reading text from a file.

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Animation captions:

1. The open function creates a file object. The read function saves the content of the file as a string.

Assume a text file exists named "myfile.txt" with the contents shown (created, for example, using Notepad on a Windows computer or using TextEdit on a Mac computer).

Figure 30.1.1: Creating a file object and reading text.

```
print('Opening file myfile.txt.')
f = open('myfile.txt') # create file
    object

print('Reading file myfile.txt.')
contents = f.read() # read file text
    into a string

print('Closing file myfile.txt.')
f.close() # close the file

print('\nContents of myfile.txt:')
print(contents)
```

Contents of myfile.txt:

Because he's the hero Gotham
deserves,
but not the one it needs right
now.

Program output:

Opening file myfile.txt.
Reading file myfile.txt.
Closing file myfile.txt.

Contents of myfile.txt:
Because he's the hero Gotham
deserves,
but not the one it needs right
now.

The **open()** built-in function requires a single argument that specifies the path to the file. Ex: **open('myfile.txt')** opens myfile.txt located in the same directory as the executing script. Full path names can also be specified, as in **open('C:\\Users\\BWayne\\tax_return.txt')**. The **file.close()** method closes the file, after which no more reads or writes to the file are allowed.

The most common methods to read text from a file are **file.read()** and **file.readlines()**. The **file.read()** method returns the file contents as a string. The **file.readlines()** method returns a list of

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strings, where the first element is the contents of the first line, the second element is the contents of the second line, and so on. Both methods can be given an optional argument that specifies the number of bytes to read from the file. Each method stops reading when the end-of-file (**EOF**) is detected, which indicates no more data is available.

A third method, `file.readline()`, returns a single line at a time, which is useful when dealing with large files where the entire file contents may not fit into the available system memory.

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30.1.2: Opening files and reading text.



- 1) Complete the statement to open the file "readme.txt" for reading.



`my_file =`

Check

[Show answer](#)

- 2) Complete the statement to read up to 500 bytes from "readme.txt" into the contents variable.



`my_file =
open('readme.txt')`

`contents =`

`#`

Check

[Show answer](#)

- 3) Complete the program by echoing the second line of "readme.txt"



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```
my_file =  
open('readme.txt')  
  
lines =  
my_file.readlines()
```

One of the most common programming tasks is to read data from a file and then process that data to produce a useful result. Sometimes the data is a string, like in the example above, but often the data is a numeric value. Each unique data value is often placed on its own line. Thus, a program commonly 1) reads in the contents of a file, 2) iterates over each line to process data values, and 3) computes some value, such as the average value.

Figure 30.1.2: Calculating the average of data values stored in a file.

The file "mydata.txt" contains 100 integers, each on its own line:

<pre><i># Read file contents</i> print('Reading in data....') f = open('mydata.txt') lines = f.readlines() f.close() <i># Iterate over each line</i> print('\nCalculating average....') total = 0 for ln in lines: total += int(ln) <i># Compute result</i> avg = total/len(lines) print('Average value:', avg)</pre>	<p>Contents of mydata.txt:</p> <div>105 65 78</div> <p>Program output:</p> <div>Reading in data.... Calculating average.... Average value: 83</div>
---	---

Iterating over each line of a file is so common that file objects support iteration using the `for in` syntax. The below example echoes the contents of a file:

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Figure 30.1.3: Iterating over the lines of a file.

```
"""Echo the contents of a
file."""
f = open('myfile.txt')

for line in f:
    print(line, end="")

f.close()
```

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30.2 Writing files

Programs often write to a file to store data permanently. The **file.write()** method writes a string argument to a file.

Figure 30.2.1: Writing to a file.

```
f = open('myfile.txt', 'w') # Open file
f.write('Example string:\n test....') # Write
string
f.close() # Close the file
```

Final contents of
myfile.txt:

Example string:
test....

The write() method accepts a string argument only. Integers and floating-point values must first be converted using str(), as in **f.write(str(5.75))**.

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Figure 30.2.2: Numeric values must be converted to strings.

<pre>num1 = 5 num2 = 7.5 num3 = num1 + num2 f = open('myfile.txt', 'w') f.write(str(num1)) f.write(' + ') f.write(str(num2)) f.write(' = ') f.write(str(num3)) f.close()</pre>	<p>©zyBooks 12/15/22 00:54 1361995 John Farrell COLOSTATECS220SeaboltFall2022</p> <p>Final contents of myfile.txt:</p> <div>5 + 7.5 = 12.5</div>
---	--

When writing to a file, the mode of the file must be explicitly set in the `open()` function call. A **mode** indicates how a file is opened, e.g., whether or not writing to the file is allowed, if existing contents of the file are overwritten or appended, etc. The most used modes are 'r' (read) and 'w' (write). The mode is specified as the second argument in a call to `open()`, e.g., `open('myfile.txt', 'w')` opens `myfile.txt` for writing. If mode is not specified the default is 'r'.

The below table lists common file modes:

Table 30.2.1: Modes for opening files.

Mode	Description	Allow read?	Allow write?	Create missing file?	Overwrite file?
'r'	Open the file for reading.	Yes	No	No	No
'w'	Open the file for writing. If file does not exist then the file is created. Contents of an existing file are overwritten.	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
'a'	Open the file for appending. If file does not exist then the file is created. Writes are added to end of existing file contents.	No	Yes	Yes	No

- Read mode 'r' opens a file for reading. If the file is missing, then an error will occur.
- Write mode 'w' opens a file for writing. If the file is missing, then a new file is created. Contents of any existing file are overwritten.
- Append mode 'a' opens a file for writing. If the file is missing, then a new file is created. Writes to the file are appended to the end of an existing file's contents.

Additionally, a programmer can add a '+' character to the end of a mode, like 'r+' and 'w+' to specify an *update* mode. Update modes allow for both reading and writing of a file at the same time.

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30.2.1: File modes.



For each question, complete the statement to open myfile.txt with the appropriate mode.

- 1) Data will be appended to the end of existing contents.

```
f = open('myfile.txt', '  
_____')
```

Check[Show answer](#)

- 2) Data will be written to a new file.



```
f = open('myfile.txt', 'a')
```

Check[Show answer](#)

- 3) Existing contents will be read, and new data will be appended.

```
f = open('myfile.txt', 'a')
```

Check[Show answer](#)

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Output to a file is buffered by the interpreter before being written to the computer's hard disk. By default, data is line-buffered, e.g., data is written to disk only when a newline character is output. Thus, there may be a delay between a call of `write()` and that data actually being written to the disk. The following illustrates:

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30.2.2: Output is buffered.

Animation captions:

1. Statement `myfile = open('myfile.txt', 'w')` executes, which opens a file named `myfile.txt` for writing.
2. Statement `myfile.write('Num')` executes. The interpreter stores 'N', 'u', and 'm' in a buffer.
3. Statement `myfile.write('5')` executes. The interpreter stores '5' in a buffer.
4. Statement `myfile.write('\n')` executes. The interpreter stores '\n' in a buffer. Writing a newline causes the buffer to be written to the file, so 'Num5' is placed in `myfile.txt`.

A programmer can toggle buffering on/off or specify a buffer size with the optional *buffering* argument to the `open()` function. Passing 0 disables buffering (valid only for binary files, discussed in another section), passing 1 enables the default line-buffering, and a value > 1 sets a specific buffer size in bytes. For example, `f = open('myfile.txt', 'w', buffering=100)` will write the output buffer to disk every 100 bytes.

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The **`flush()`** file method can be called to force the interpreter to flush the output buffer to disk. Additionally, the `os.fsync()` function may have to be called on some operating systems. Closing an open file also flushes the output buffer.

Figure 30.2.3: Using flush() to force an output buffer to write to disk.

```
import os

# Open a file with default line-buffering.
f = open('myfile.txt', 'w')

# No newline character, so not written to disk immediately
f.write('Write me to a file, please!')

# Force output buffer to be written to disk
f.flush()
os.fsync(f.fileno())

# ....
```

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30.2.3: Writing output.



- 1) The statement `f.write(10.0)` always produces an error.
☐ True
☐ False
- 2) The `write()` method immediately writes data to a file.
☐ True
☐ False
- 3) The `flush()` method (and perhaps `os.fsync()` as well) forces the output buffer to write to disk.
☐ True
☐ False



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30.3 Interacting with file systems

A program needs to interact with the computer's file system to get the size of a file or open a file in

a different directory. The computer's operating system, such as Windows or macOS, controls the file system, and a program must use functions supplied by the operating system to interact with files. The Python standard library's **OS module** provides an interface to operating system function calls and is thus a critical piece of a Python programmer's toolbox.

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30.3.1: Using the os module to interact with the file system.



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Animation content:

undefined

Animation captions:

1. The statement `import os` provides an interface to operating system function calls.
2. When `open('myfile.txt', 'r')` executes, the interpreter calls an operation system function to open the file to be read (`OpenFile()` on Windows).
3. The `os` module's `stat()` method can query file information. In Windows, the `GetFileInformationByHandle(...)` provides information about the file size, access time, etc.
4. When the `os remove()` method executes, the interpreter calls on the operating system function `DeleteFile('myfile.txt')`, which removes `myfile.txt` from the hard disk.

A programmer should consider the **portability** of a program across different operating systems to avoid scenarios where the program behaves correctly on the programmer's computer but crashes on another. Portability must be considered when reading and writing files outside the executing program's directory since file path representations often differ between operating systems. For example, on Windows the path to a file is represented as `"subdir\\bat_mobile.jpg"`, but on a Mac is `"subdir/bat_mobile.jpg"`. The character between directories, e.g., `"\\"` or `"/"`, is called the **path separator**, and using the incorrect path separator may result in that file not being found.¹

A common error is to reduce a program's portability by hardcoding file paths as string literals with operating system specific path separators. To help reduce such errors, good practice is to use the `os.path` module, which contains many portable functions for handling file paths. One of the most useful functions is `os.path.join()`, which concatenates the arguments using the correct path separator for the current operating system. Instead of writing the literal `path = "subdir\\bat_mobile.jpg"`, a programmer should write `path = os.path.join('subdir', 'bat_mobile.jpg')`, which will result in `"subdir\\bat_mobile.jpg"` on Windows and `"subdir/bat_mobile.jpg"` on Linux/Mac.

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Figure 30.3.1: Using `os.path.join()` to create a portable file path string.

The program below echoes the contents of logs stored in a hierarchical directory structure organized by date, using the `os.path` module to build a file path string that is portable across operating systems.

```
import os
import datetime

curr_day = datetime.date(1997, 8, 29)

num_days = 30
for i in range(num_days):
    year = str(curr_day.year)
    month = str(curr_day.month)
    day = str(curr_day.day)

    # Build path string using current OS path
    # separator
    file_path = os.path.join('logs', year,
                             month, day, 'log.txt')

    f = open(file_path, 'r')

    print(f'{file_path}: {f.read()}')
    f.close()

    curr_day = curr_day +
    datetime.timedelta(days=1)
```

Output on Windows:

```
logs\1997
\8\29\log.txt: # ....
logs\1997
\8\30\log.txt: # ....
# ....
logs\1997
\9\28\log.txt: # ....
```

Output on Linux:

```
logs/1997
/8/29/log.txt: # ....
logs/1997
/8/30/log.txt: # ....
# ....
logs/1997
/9/28/log.txt: # ....
```

On Windows systems, when using `os.path.join()` with a full path such that the first argument is a drive letter (e.g., 'C:' or 'D:'), the separator must be included with the drive letter. For example, `os.path.join('C:\\', 'subdir1', 'myfile.txt')` returns the string "C:\\subdir1\\myfile.txt".

The inverse operation, splitting a path into individual tokens, can be done using the `str.split()` method. Ex:

`tokens = 'C:\\Users\\BWayne\\tax_return.txt'.split(os.path.sep)` returns ['C:', 'Users', 'BWayne', 'tax_return.txt']. **`os.path.sep`** stores the path separator for the current operating system.

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30.3.2: Portable file paths.



- 1) Fill in the arguments to `os.path.join` to assign `file_path`



as "subdir\\output.txt" (on Windows).

```
file_path = os.path.join(  
  
)
```

Check[Show answer](#)

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- 2) What is returned by
os.path.join('sounds', 'cars',
'honk.mp3') on Windows? Use
quotes in the answer.

Check[Show answer](#)

- 3) What is returned by
os.path.join('sounds', 'cars',
'honk.mp3') on Mac OS X? Use
quotes in the answer.

Check[Show answer](#)

The os and os.path modules contain other helpful functions, such as checking if a given path is a directory or a file, getting the size of a file, obtaining a file's extension (e.g., .txt, .doc, .pdf), creating and deleting directories, etc. Some of the most commonly used functions are listed below:

- os.path.split(path) – Splits a path into a 2-tuple (head, tail), where tail is the last token in the path string and head is everything else.

```
import os  
p = os.path.join('C:\\', 'Users', 'BWayne',  
'batsuit.jpg')  
print(os.path.split(p))
```

```
('C:\\Users\\BWayne',  
batsuit.jpg')
```

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- os.path.exists(path) – Returns True if path exists, else returns False.

<pre>import os p = os.path.join('C:\\', 'Users', 'BWayne', 'batsuit.jpg') if os.path.exists(p): print('Suit up....') else: print('The Lamborghini then?')</pre>	<p>If file exists:</p> <div>Suit up....</div> <p>If file does not exist:</p> <div>The Lamborghini then?</div>
---	---

- `os.path.isfile(path)` – Returns *True* if *path* is an existing file, and *false* otherwise (e.g., *path* is a directory).

<pre>import os p = os.path.join('C:\\', 'Users', 'BWayne', 'bat_chopper') if os.path.isfile(p): print('Found a file....') else: print('Not a file....')</pre>	<p>If path is a file:</p> <div>Found a file....</div> <p>If path is not a file:</p> <div>Not a file....</div>
---	---

- `os.path.getsize(path)` – Returns the size in bytes of *path*.

<pre>import os p = os.path.join('C:\\', 'Users', 'BWayne', 'batsuit.jpg') print('Size of file:', os.path.getsize(p), 'bytes')</pre>	<div>Size of file: 65544 bytes</div>
---	--------------------------------------

Explore the links at the end of the section to see all of the available functions in the `os` and `os.path` modules.

PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

30.3.3: Path name manipulation functions from `os.path`.



- 1) What is the output of the following program?



```
import os
p = 'C:\\Programs\\Microsoft\\msword.exe'
print(os.path.split(p))
```

- ☐ ['C:\\', 'Programs', 'Microsoft', 'msword.exe']
- ☐ ('C:\\Programs\\Microsoft', 'msword.exe')
- ☐ ('C:', 'Programs', 'Microsoft', 'msword.exe')

- 2) What does the call
`os.path.isfile('C:\\Program`



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Files\\')
return?

- ☐ True
☐ False

3) What does `os.path.getsize(path_str)` return?

- ☐ The length of the `path_str` string.
☐ The combined size of all files in `path_str` directory.
☐ The size in bytes of the file at `path_str`.

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A programmer commonly wants to check every file and/or subdirectory of a specific part of the file system. Consider the following directory structure, organized by year, month, and day:

Figure 30.3.2: Directory structure organized by date.

```
logs/  
  2009/  
    April/  
      1/  
        log.txt  
        words.doc  
    January/  
      15/  
        log.txt  
      21/  
        log.txt  
        temp23.pdf  
      24/  
        presentation.ppt  
  2010/  
    March/  
      3/  
        log.txt  
      7/  
        music.mp3
```

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The **`os.walk()`** function 'walks' a directory tree like the one above, visiting each subdirectory in the specified path. The following example walks a user-specified year of the above directory tree.

Figure 30.3.3: Walking a directory tree.

```
import os

year = input('Enter year: ')
path = os.path.join('logs', year)
print()

for dirname, subdirs, files in os.walk(path):
    print(dirname, 'contains subdirectories:', subdirs, end=' ')
    print('and the files:', files)
```

Enter year:2009

```
logs\2009 contains subdirectories: ['April', 'January'] and the files: []
logs\2009\April contains subdirectories: ['1'] and the files: []
logs\2009\April\1 contains subdirectories: [] and the files: ['log.txt',
'words.doc']
logs\2009\January contains subdirectories: ['15', '21', '24'] and the files: []
logs\2009\January\15 contains subdirectories: [] and the files: ['log.txt']
logs\2009\January\21 contains subdirectories: [] and the files: ['log.txt',
'temp23.pdf']
logs\2009\January\24 contains subdirectories: [] and the files:
['presentation.ppt']
```

The `os.walk()` function is used as the iterable object in a for loop that yields a 3-tuple for each iteration.² The first item *dirname* contains the path to the current directory. The second item *subdirs* is a list of all the subdirectories of the current directory. The third item *files* is a list of all the files residing in the current directory.

A programmer might use `os.walk()` when searching for specific files within a directory tree, and the exact path is unknown. Another common task is to filter files based on their file extensions (.pdf, .txt, etc.), which are a convention used to indicate the type of data that a file holds.

Exploring further:

- [The os module: Miscellaneous operating system interfaces](#)
- [The os.path module: Common pathname manipulations](#)

(*1) Unix-based operating systems, like Linux and Mac OS X, will not recognize paths using the windows "\\" separator. Generally, Windows recognizes both "/" and "\\". The double backslash "\\" is the escape sequence to represent a single backslash within a String.

(*2) `os.walk()` actually returns a special object called a generator, which is discussed elsewhere.

30.4 Binary data

Some files consist of data stored as a sequence of bytes, known as **binary data**, that is not encoded into human-readable text using an encoding like ASCII or UTF-8. Images, videos, and PDF files are examples of the types of files commonly stored as binary data. Opening such a file with a text editor displays text that is incomprehensible to humans because the text editor attempts to encode raw byte values into readable characters.

A **bytes object** is used to represent a sequence of single byte values, such as binary data read from a file. Bytes objects are immutable, just like strings, meaning the value of a bytes object cannot change once created. A byte object can be created using the **bytes()** built-in function:

- `bytes('A text string', 'ascii')` – creates a sequence of bytes by encoding the string using ASCII.
- `bytes(100)` – creates a sequence of 100 bytes whose values are all 0.
- `bytes([12, 15, 20])` – creates a sequence of 3 bytes with values from the list.

Alternatively, a programmer can write a bytes literal, similar to a string literal, by prepending a 'b' prior to the opening quote:

Figure 30.4.1: Creating a bytes object using a bytes literal.

```
my_bytes = b'This is a bytes literal'

print(my_bytes)
print(type(my_bytes))
```

```
b'This is a bytes literal'
<class 'bytes'>
```

A programmer can specify raw byte values in a string or bytes literal using the `\x` escape character preceding the hexadecimal value that describes the value of the byte. In the example below, the raw byte values `0x31` through `0x39` are automatically converted to the corresponding ASCII encoded values 1 - 9 when printed.

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Figure 30.4.2: Byte string literals.

```
print(b'123456789 is the same as \x31\x32  
\x33\x34\x35\x36\x37\x38\x39')
```

```
b'123456789 is the same  
as 123456789'
```

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Programs can also access files using a **binary file mode** by adding a "b" character to the end of the mode string in a call to `open()`, as in `open('myfile.txt', 'rb')`. When using binary file mode "b" on a Windows computer, newline characters "\n" in the file are *not* automatically mapped to the Windows format "\r\n". In normal text mode, i.e., when not using the "b" binary mode, Python performs this translation of line-endings as a helpful feature, easing compatibility issues between Windows and other operating systems. In binary mode, the translation is not done because inserting additional characters would corrupt the binary data. On non-Windows systems, newline characters are not translated when using binary mode.

When a file is opened using a binary mode, the `file.read()` method returns a bytes object instead of a string. Also, the `file.write()` method expects a bytes argument.

**PARTICIPATION
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30.4.1: Binary Data.



- 1) Open "data.txt" as read-only in binary mode.



```
f = open('data.txt',  
         )
```

Check[Show answer](#)

- 2) Open "myfile.txt" as read-only in binary mode.



```
f = 
```

Check[Show answer](#)

- 3) Assign x with a bytes object with a single byte whose hexadecimal value is 0x1a. Use a bytes literal.



```
x = 
```

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- 4) Assign x with a bytes object containing three bytes with hexadecimal values 0x05, 0x15, and 0xf2. Use a bytes literal.

x =

Check[Show answer](#)

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Consider a file `ball.bmp` that contains the following image:



The `ball.bmp` file contains binary data in a format commonly called a `bitmap` (hence the `.bmp` extension at the end of the file name). Opening and reading the file with a binary mode creates a new bytes object consisting of the exact sequence of bytes found in the file's contents.

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Figure 30.4.3: Inspecting the binary contents of an image file.

```
f = open('ball.bmp', 'rb') # Open in binary mode using
                             'b'

# Read image binary data
contents = f.read()

print('Contents of ball.bmp:\n')
print(contents)

f.close()
```

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Abbreviated output:

Contents of ball.bmp:

```
b'BMb\xe6\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x006\x04\x00\x00(\x00\x00\x00,\x01\x00
\x00
\xc1\x00\x00\x00\x01\x00\x08\x00\x00\x00\x00,\xe2\x00\x00\xc4'
```

The `print(contents)` statement displays the value of contents, converting each byte to human-readable character if that byte's value is a readable ASCII character (less than 128). The first portion of the file's contents is shown in the output, though the file portion is abbreviated because the image contains about 27,000 bytes. Note how the first 14 bytes of the bitmap file is "BMb\xe6\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x006\x04\x00\x00". This sequence constitutes the **header** of the binary file, which describes the bitmap's contents. The first 2 bytes "BM" indicates the type of bitmap. The following 4 bytes "b\xe6\x00\x00" indicates the size of the bitmap. The sequence "6\x04\x00\x00" indicates where in the file the RGB (red-green-blue) values for each pixel in the image are stored.

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Example 30.4.1: Altering a BMP image file.

The following program reads in ball.bmp, overwrites a portion of the image with new pixel colors, and creates a new image file. Download the above image (click the link, "ball.bmp", above the image), and then run the program on your own computer, creating a new, altered version of ball.bmp. Try changing the alterations made by the program to get different colors.

```
import struct

ball_file = open('ball.bmp', 'rb')
ball_data = ball_file.read()
ball_file.close()

# BMP image file format stores location
# of pixel RGB values in bytes 10-14
pixel_data_loc = ball_data[10:14]

# Converts byte sequence into integer object
pixel_data_loc = struct.unpack('<L', pixel_data_loc)[0]

# Create sequence of 3000 red, green, and yellow pixels each
new_pixels = b'\x01'*3000 + b'\x02'*3000 + b'\x03'*3000

# Overwrite pixels in image with new pixels
new_ball_data = ball_data[:pixel_data_loc] + \
    new_pixels + \
    ball_data[pixel_data_loc + len(new_pixels):]

# Write new image
new_ball_file = open('new_ball.bmp', 'wb')
new_ball_file.write(new_ball_data)
new_ball_file.close()
```



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The **struct** module is a commonly used Python standard library module for *packing* values into sequences of bytes and *unpacking* sequences of bytes into values (like integers and strings). The

struct.pack() function packs values such as strings and integers into sequences of bytes:

Figure 30.4.4: Packing values into byte sequences.

```
import struct

print('Result of packing 5:', end='
')
print(struct.pack('>h', 5))

print('Result of packing 256:', end='
')
print(struct.pack('>h', 256))

print('Result of packing 5 and 256:',
end=' ')
print(struct.pack('>hh', 5, 256))
```

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```
Result of packing 5: b'\x00\x05'
Result of packing 256: b'\x01\x00'
Result of packing 5 and 256: b'\x00
\x05\x01\x00'
```

The first argument to `struct.pack()` is a format string that describes how the following arguments should be converted into bytes. The "<" character indicates the **byte-order**, or endianness, of the conversion, which determines whether the most-significant or least-significant byte is placed first in the byte sequence. ">" places the most-significant byte first (big-endian), and "<" sets the least-significant byte first. The "h" character in the format strings above describe the type of object being converted, which most importantly determines how many bytes are used when packing the value. "h" describes the value being converted as a 2-byte integer; other common format characters are "b" for a 1-byte integer, "l" for a 4-byte integer, and "s" for a string. Explore the links at the end of the section for more information on the struct module.

The **struct.unpack()** module performs the reverse operation of `struct.pack()`, unpacking a sequence of bytes into a new object. Unpacking always returns a tuple with the results, even if only unpacking a single value:

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Figure 30.4.5: Unpacking values from byte sequences.

The following code uses the `repr()` function, which returns a string version of an object.

```
import struct

print('Result of unpacking', repr('\x00\x05') + ":", end=' ')
print(struct.unpack('>h', b'\x00\x05'))

print('Result of unpacking', repr('\x01\x00') + ":", end=' ')
print(struct.unpack('>h', b'\x01\x00'))

print('Result of unpacking', repr('\x00\x05\x01\x00') + ":", end=' ')
print(struct.unpack('>hh', b'\x00\x05\x01\x00'))
```

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```
Result of unpacking
'\x00\x05': (5,)
Result of unpacking
'\x01\x00': (256,)
Result of unpacking
'\x00\x05\x01\x00': (5,
256)
```

PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

30.4.2: The struct module.



- 1) Complete the statement to pack an integer variable "my_num" into a 2-byte sequence. Assign my_bytes with the sequence. Use the byte ordering given by ">".

```
my_bytes = struct.pack(
    
)
```

Check

[Show answer](#)

- 2) Assume that variable my_bytes is b"\x00\x04\xff\x00". Complete the statement to assign my_num with the 4-byte integer obtained by unpacking my_bytes. Use the byte ordering given by ">".

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```
my_num = struct.unpack(  
  
)
```

Check[Show answer](#)

Exploring further:

- [The bytes object](#)
- [The bytearray type: mutable sequence of bytes](#)
- [The struct module: converting strings into packed binary data](#)

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30.5 Command-line arguments and files

The location of an input file or output file may not be known before writing a program. Instead, a program can use command-line arguments to allow the user to specify the location of an input file as shown in the following program. Assume two text files exist named "myfile1.txt" and "myfile2.txt" with the contents shown. The sample output shows the results when executing the program for either input file and for an input file that does not exist.

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Figure 30.5.1: Using command-line arguments to specify the name of an input file.

```
import sys
import os

if len(sys.argv) != 2:

    print(f'Usage: {sys.argv[0]} input_file')
    sys.exit(1)  # 1 indicates error

print(f'Opening file {sys.argv[1]}.')

if not os.path.exists(sys.argv[1]):  # Make
    sure file exists
    print('File does not exist.')
    sys.exit(1)  # 1 indicates error

f = open(sys.argv[1], 'r')

# Input files should contain two integers on
# separate lines

print('Reading two integers.')
num1 = int(f.readline())
num2 = int(f.readline())

print(f'Closing file {sys.argv[1]}')
f.close()  # Done with the file, so close it

print(f'\nnum1: {num1}')

print(f'num2: {num2}')

print(f'num1 + num2: {num1 + num2}')
```

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myfile1.txt: 5
10
myfile2.txt: -34
7

```
>python my_script.py
myfile1.txt
Opening file
myfile1.txt.
Reading two integers.
Closing file myfile1.txt

num1: 5
num2: 10
num1 + num2: 15
```

```
>python my_script.py
myfile2.txt
Opening file
myfile2.txt.
Reading two integers.
Closing file myfile2.txt

num1: -34
num2: 7
num1 + num2: -27
```

```
>python my_script.py
myfile3.txt
Opening file
myfile3.txt.
File does not exist.
```

PARTICIPATION ACTIVITY

30.5.1: Filename command line arguments.

- 1) A script "myscript.py" has two command line arguments, one for an input file and a second for an output file. Type a command to run the program with input

file "infile.txt" and output file
"out".

> python

Check

Show answer

- 2) For a program run as "python
scriptname data.txt", what is
sys.argv[1]? Do not use quotes
in the answer.

Check

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30.6 The 'with' statement

A **with statement** can be used to open a file, execute a block of statements, and automatically close the file when complete.

Construct 30.6.1: The with statement.

```
with open('myfile.txt', 'r') as  
myfile:  
    # Statement-1  
    # Statement-2  
    # ....  
    # Statement-N
```

Above, the file object returned by open() is bound to myfile. When the statements in the block complete, then myfile is closed. The with statement creates a **context manager**, which manages the usage of a resource, like a file, by performing setup and teardown operations. For files, the teardown operation is automatic closure. Other context managers exist for other resources, and new context managers can be written by a programmer, but is out of scope for this material.

Forgetting to close a file can sometimes cause problems. For example, a file opened in write mode cannot be written to by other programs. Good practice is to use a with statement when opening files, to guarantee that the file is closed when no longer needed.

Figure 30.6.1: Using the with statement to open a file.

```
print('Opening myfile.txt')

# Open a file for reading and appending
with open('myfile.txt', 'r+') as f:
    # Read in two integers
    num1 = int(f.readline())
    num2 = int(f.readline())

    product = num1 * num2

    # Write back result on own line
    f.write('\n')
    f.write(str(product))

# No need to call f.close() - f closed
# automatically
print('Closed myfile.txt')
```

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**PARTICIPATION
ACTIVITY**

30.6.1: The with statement.



- 1) When using a with statement to open a file, the file is automatically closed when the statements in the block finish executing.
☐ True
☐ False
- 2) Use of a with statement is not recommended most of the time when opening files.
☐ True
☐ False



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30.7 Comma separated values files

Text data is commonly organized in a spreadsheet format using columns and rows. A **comma separated values** (csv) file is a simple text-based file format that uses commas to separate data

items, called **fields**. Below is an example of a typical csv file that contains information about student scores:

Figure 30.7.1: Contents of a csv file.

```
name,hw1,hw2,midterm,final
Petr Little,9,8,85,78
Sam Tarley,10,10,99,100
Joff King,4,2,55,61
```

Each line in the file above represents a row, and fields between commas on each row are in the same column as fields in the same position in each line. For example, the first row contains the items "name", "hw1", "hw2", "midterm", and "final"; the second row contains "Petr Little", "9", "8", "85" and "78". The first column contains "name", "Petr Little", "Sam Tarley", and "Joff King"; the second column contains "hw1", "9", "10", and "4".

The Python standard library **csv module** can be used to help read and write files in the csv format. To read a file using the csv module, a program must first create a *reader* object, passing a file object created via *open*. The reader object is an iterable – iterating over the reader using a for loop returns each row of the csv file as a list of strings, where each item in the list is a field from the row.

Figure 30.7.2: Reading each row of a csv file.

```
import csv

with open('grades.csv', 'r') as
csvfile:
    grades_reader = csv.reader(csvfile,
delimiter=',')

    row_num = 1
    for row in grades_reader:
        print(f'Row #{row_num}:', row)
        row_num += 1
```

Echoed file contents:

```
Row #1: ['name', 'hw1', 'hw2',
'midterm', 'final']
Row #2: ['Petr Little', '9', '8',
'85', '78']
Row #3: ['Sam Tarley', '10',
'10', '99', '100']
Row #4: ['Joff King', '4', '2',
'55', '61']
```

The optional delimiter argument in the `csv.reader()` function specifies the character used in the csv file to separate fields; by default a comma is used. In some cases, the field itself may contain a comma – for example if the name of a student was specified as "lastname,firstname". In such a case, the csv file might instead use semicolons or some other rare character, e.g., Little, Petr;9;8;85;78. An alternative to changing the delimiter is to use quotes around the item containing

the comma, e.g., "Little, Petr",9,8,85,78.

If the contents of the fields are numeric, then a programmer may want to convert the strings to integer or floating-point values to perform calculations with the data. The example below reads each row using a reader object and calculates a student's final score in the class:

Figure 30.7.3: Using csv file contents to perform calculations.

```
import csv

# Dictionary that maps student names to a list of
# scores
grades = {}

# Use with statement to guarantee file closure
with open('grades.csv', 'r') as csvfile:
    grades_reader = csv.reader(csvfile,
                               delimiter=',')

    first_row = True
    for row in grades_reader:
        # Skip the first row with column names
        if first_row:
            first_row = False
            continue

        ## Calculate final student grade ##

        name = row[0]

        # Convert score strings into floats
        scores = [float(cell) for cell in row[1:]]

        hw1_weighted = scores[0]/10 * 0.05
        hw2_weighted = scores[1]/10 * 0.05
        mid_weighted = scores[2]/100 * 0.40
        fin_weighted = scores[3]/100 * 0.50

        grades[name] = (hw1_weighted +
                        hw2_weighted +
                        mid_weighted +
                        fin_weighted) * 100

    for student, score in grades.items():
        print(f'{student} earned {score:.1f}%')
```

Petr Little earned
81.5%
Sam Tarley earned
99.6%
Joff King earned
55.5%

A programmer can also use the csv module to write text into a csv file, using a *writer* object. The writer object's *writerow()* and *writerows* methods can be used to write a list of strings into the file as one or more rows.

Figure 30.7.4: Writing rows to a csv module.

```
import csv

row1 = ['100', '50', '29']
row2 = ['76', '32', '330']

with open('gradeswr.csv', 'w') as
csvfile:
    grades_writer = csv.writer(csvfile)

    grades_writer.writerow(row1)
    grades_writer.writerow(row2)

    grades_writer.writerows([row1,
row2])
```

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final gradeswr.csv
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contents:

```
100,50,29
76,32,330
100,50,29
76,32,330
```

**PARTICIPATION
ACTIVITY**

30.7.1: Comma separated values files.



The file "myfile.csv" contains the following contents:

```
Airline, Destination, Departure time, Plane
Southwest, Phoenix, 615, B747
Alitalia, Milan, 1545, B757
British Airways, London, 1230, A380
```



- 1) Complete the statement to create a csv module reader object to read myfile.csv.

```
import csv
with open('myfile.csv',
'r') as myfile:
    csv_reader =
```

Check[Show answer](#)

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- 2) Complete the statement such that the program prints the destination of each flight in myfile.csv.

```
import csv
with open('myfile.csv',
'r') as myfile:
    csv_reader =
csv.reader(myfile)
    for row in csv_reader:
        print(
```

Check[Show answer](#)

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30.8 LAB: Words in a range (lists)

Write a program that first reads in the name of an input file, followed by two strings representing the lower and upper bounds of a search range. The file should be read using the `file.readlines()` method. The input file contains a list of alphabetical, ten-letter strings, each on a separate line. Your program should output all strings from the list that are within that range (inclusive of the bounds).

Ex: If the input is:

```
input1.txt
ammoniated
millennium
```

and the contents of input1.txt are:

```
aspiration
classified
federation
graduation
millennium
philosophy
quadratics
transcript
wilderness
zoologists
```

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the output is:

```
aspiration
classified
federation
graduation
```

millennium

Notes:

- There is a newline at the end of the output.
- All input files are hosted in the zyLab and file names can be directly referred to. **input1.txt** is available to download so that the contents of the file can be seen.
- In the tests, the first word input always comes alphabetically before the second word input.

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LAB
ACTIVITY

30.8.1: LAB: Words in a range (lists)

0 / 10



Downloadable files

input1.txt

Download

main.py

Load default template...

1 # Type your code here. |

Develop mode

Submit mode

Run your program as often as you'd like, before submitting for grading. Below, type any needed input values in the first box, then click **Run program** and observe the program's output in the second box.

Enter program input (optional)

If your code requires input values, provide them here.

Run program

Input (from above)

**main.py**
(Your program)

Output

Program output displayed here

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Coding trail of your work [What is this?](#)

History of your effort will appear here once you begin working on this zyLab.

30.9 LAB: Word frequencies (lists)

Write a program that first reads in the name of an input file and then reads the file using the `csv.reader()` method. The file contains a list of words separated by commas. Your program should output the words and their frequencies (the number of times each word appears in the file) without any duplicates.

Ex: If the input is:

`input1.csv`

and the contents of `input1.csv` are:

`hello, cat, man, hey, dog, boy, Hello, man, cat, woman, dog, Cat, hey, boy`

the output is:

```
hello 1
cat 2
man 2
hey 2
dog 2
boy 2
Hello 1
woman 1
Cat 1
```

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Note: There is a newline at the end of the output, and **input1.csv** is available to download.

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LAB
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30.9.1: LAB: Word frequencies (lists)

0 / 10



Downloadable files

input1.csv

Download

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main.py

Load default template...

```
1 import csv
2
3 # Type your code here. |
```

Develop mode

Submit mode

Run your program as often as you'd like, before submitting for grading. Below, type any needed input values in the first box, then click **Run program** and observe the program's output in the second box.

Enter program input (optional)

If your code requires input values, provide them here.

Run program

Input (from above)



main.py
(Your program)



Output

Program output displayed here

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30.10 LAB: Sorting TV Shows (dictionaries and lists)

Write a program that first reads in the name of an input file and then reads the input file using the `file.readlines()` method. The input file contains an unsorted list of number of seasons followed by the corresponding TV show. Your program should put the contents of the input file into a dictionary where the number of seasons are the keys, and a list of TV shows are the values (since multiple shows could have the same number of seasons).

Sort the dictionary by key (least to greatest) and output the results to a file named **output_keys.txt**. Separate multiple TV shows associated with the same key with a semicolon (;), ordering by appearance in the input file. Next, sort the dictionary by values (alphabetical order), and output the results to a file named **output_titles.txt**.

Ex: If the input is:

```
file1.txt
```

and the contents of file1.txt are:

```
20
Gunsmoke
30
The Simpsons
10
Will & Grace
14
Dallas
20
Law & Order
12
Murder, She Wrote
```

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the file `output_keys.txt` should contain:

```
10: Will & Grace
12: Murder, She Wrote
14: Dallas
20: Gunsmoke; Law & Order
30: The Simpsons
```

and the file output_titles.txt should contain:

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```
Dallas
Gunsmoke
Law & Order
Murder, She Wrote
The Simpsons
Will & Grace
```

Note: There is a newline at the end of each output file, and **file1.txt** is available to download.

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LAB
ACTIVITY

30.10.1: LAB: Sorting TV Shows (dictionaries and lists)

0 / 10



Downloadable files

file1.txt

Download

main.py

Load default template...

```
1 # Type your code here
```

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Develop mode

Submit mode

Run your program as often as you'd like, before

submitting for grading. Below, type any needed input values in the first box, then click **Run program** and observe the program's output in the second box.

Enter program input (optional)

If your code requires input values, provide them here.

Run program

Input (from above)

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main.py
(Your program) → 0

Program output displayed here

Coding trail of your work [What is this?](#)

History of your effort will appear here once you begin working on this zyLab.

30.11 LAB: Course Grade



This section's content is not available for print.

30.12 LAB: File name change



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30.13 LAB: Thesaurus



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