

## **Text Processing in Python**

By [David Mertz](#)

Start Reading ►

Publisher : Addison Wesley

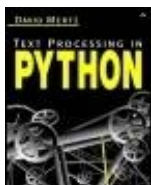
Pub Date : June 06, 2003

ISBN : 0-321-11254-7

Pages : 544

*Text Processing in Python* is an example-driven, hands-on tutorial that carefully teaches programmers how to accomplish numerous text processing tasks using the Python language. Filled with concrete examples, this book provides efficient and effective solutions to specific text processing problems and practical strategies for dealing with all types of text processing challenges.

*Text Processing in Python* begins with an introduction to text processing and contains a quick Python tutorial to get you up to speed. It then delves into essential text processing subject



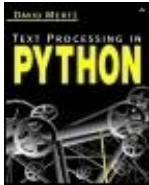
- [Table of Contents](#)

areas, including string operations, regular expressions, parsers and state machines, and Internet tools and techniques. Appendixes cover such important topics as data compression and Unicode. A comprehensive index and plentiful cross-referencing offer easy access to available information. In addition, exercises throughout the book provide readers with further opportunity to hone their skills either on their own or in the classroom. A companion Web site (<http://gnosis.cx/TPiP>) contains source code and examples from the book.

Here is some of what you will find in this book:

- When do I use formal parsers to process structured and semi-structured data? Page 257
- How do I work with full text indexing? Page 199
- What patterns in text can be expressed using regular expressions? Page 204

- How do I find a URL or an email address in text? Page 228
- How do I process a report with a concrete state machine? Page 274
- How do I parse, create, and manipulate internet formats? Page 345
- How do I handle lossless and lossy compression? Page 454
- How do I find codepoints in Unicode? Page 465



# Text Processing in Python

By [David Mertz](#)

[Start Reading ▶](#)

Publisher : Addison Wesley  
Pub Date : June 06, 2003  
ISBN : 0-321-11254-7  
Pages : 544

- [Table of Contents](#)

Copyright

Preface

- Section 0.1. What Is Text Processing?
- Section 0.2. The Philosophy of Text Processing
- Section 0.3. What You'll Need to Use This Book
- Section 0.4. Conventions Used in This Book
- Section 0.5. A Word on Source Code Examples
- Section 0.6. External Resources

Acknowledgments

Chapter 1. Python Basics

- Section 1.1. Techniques and Patterns
- Section 1.2. Standard Modules
- Section 1.3. Other Modules in the Standard Library

Chapter 2. Basic String Operations

- Section 2.1. Some Common Tasks
- Section 2.2. Standard Modules
- Section 2.3. Solving Problems

Chapter 3. Regular Expressions

- Section 3.1. A Regular Expression Tutorial
- Section 3.2. Some Common Tasks
- Section 3.3. Standard Modules

Chapter 4. Parsers and State Machines

- Section 4.1. An Introduction to Parsers
- Section 4.2. An Introduction to State Machines
- Section 4.3. Parser Libraries for Python

Chapter 5. Internet Tools and Techniques

- Section 5.1. Working with Email and Newsgroups
- Section 5.2. World Wide Web Applications
- Section 5.3. Synopses of Other Internet Modules
- Section 5.4. Understanding XML

## Appendix A. A Selective and Impressionistic Short Review of Python

Section A.1. What Kind of Language Is Python?

Section A.2. Namespaces and Bindings

Section A.3. Datatypes

Section A.4. Flow Control

Section A.5. Functional Programming

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Primer

Section B.1. Introduction

Section B.2. Lossless and Lossy Compression

Section B.3. A Data Set Example

Section B.4. Whitespace Compression

Section B.5. Run-Length Encoding

Section B.6. Huffman Encoding

Section B.7. Lempel Ziv-Compression

Section B.8. Solving the Right Problem

Section B.9. A Custom Text Compressor

Section B.10. References

## Appendix C. Understanding Unicode

Section C.1. Some Background on Characters

Section C.2. What Is Unicode?

Section C.3. Encodings

Section C.4. Declarations

Section C.5. Finding Codepoints

Section C.6. Resources

## Appendix D. A State Machine for Adding Markup to Text

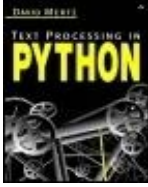
## Appendix E. Glossary

[Top](#)

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

# Copyright

Many of the designations used by manufacturers and sellers of products are claimed as trademarks. Where the publisher and Addison-Wesley was aware of the trademark, the name has been printed in initial capital letters or all capital letters.

The author and publisher have taken care in preparing this book to provide accurate and complete information. No expressed or implied warranty of any kind and no liability is assumed for incidents or omissions. No liability is assumed for incidents or omissions in connection with or arising out of the use of the information herein.

The publisher offers discounts on this book when ordered in bulk purchases and special sales. For more information, contact your local sales representative.

U.S. Corporate and Government Sales  
(800) 382-3419  
[corpsales@pearsontechgroup.com](mailto:corpsales@pearsontechgroup.com)

For sales outside of the U.S., please contact:

International Sales  
(317) 581-3793  
[international@pearsontechgroup.com](mailto:international@pearsontechgroup.com)

Visit Addison-Wesley on the Web: [www.awprofessional.com](http://www.awprofessional.com)

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication D

Mertz, David.

Text processing in Python / David Mertz.

p. cm.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 0-321-11254-7 (alk. Paper)

1. Text processing (Computer science) 2. Python  
Title.

QA76.9.T48M47 2003

005.13'-dc21

Copyright © 2003 by Pearson Education, Inc.

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form, or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the publisher. Printed in the United States of America and Canada.

For information on obtaining permission for use of this publication, please submit a written request to:

Pearson Education, Inc.  
Rights and Contracts Department  
75 Arlington Street, Suite 300



Boston, MA 02116  
Fax: (617) 848-7047

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10-CRS-0706050403

First printing, June 2003

---

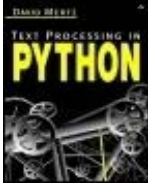
**Team-Fly**



Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

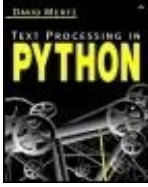
# Preface

Beautiful is better than ugly.  
Explicit is better than implicit.  
Simple is better than complex.  
Complex is better than complicated.  
Flat is better than nested.  
Sparse is better than dense.  
Readability counts.  
Special cases aren't special enough to break t  
Although practicality beats purity.  
Errors should never pass silently.  
Unless explicitly silenced.  
In the face of ambiguity, refuse the temptatio  
There should be oneand preferably only oneol  
Although that way may not be obvious at first  
Now is better than never.  
Although never is often better than **right** now  
If the implementation is hard to explain, it's a  
If the implementation is easy to explain, it ma  
Namespaces are one honking great idealet's c

Tim Peters, "The Zen of Python"

---

**Team-Fly**



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

**Preface**

## 0.1 What Is Text Processing?

At the broadest level text processing is simply taking textual information and *doing something* with it. This doing might be restructuring or reformatting it, extracting smaller bits of information from it, algorithmically modifying the content of the information, or performing calculations that depend on the textual information. The lines between "text" and the even more general term "data" are extremely fuzzy; at an approximation, "text" is just data that lives in forms that people can themselves read at least in principle, and maybe with a bit of effort. Most typically computer "text" is composed of sequences of bits that have a "natural" representation as letters, numerals, and symbols; most often such

text is delimited (if delimited at all) by symbols and formatting that can be easily pronounced as "next datum."

The lines are fuzzy, but the data that seems least like text and that, therefore, this particular book is least concerned with is the data that makes up "multimedia" (pictures, sounds, video, animation, etc.) and data that makes up UI "events" (draw a window, move the mouse, open an application, etc.). Like I said, the lines are fuzzy, and some representations of the most nontextual data are themselves pretty textual. But in general, the subject of this book is all the stuff on the near side of that fuzzy line.

Text processing is arguably what most programmers spend most of their time doing. The information that lives in business software systems mostly comes down to collections of words about the application domain maybe with a few special symbols mixed in. Internet communications protocols consist mostly of a few special words used as headers, a little bit of constrained formatting, and message

bodies consisting of additional wordish texts. Configuration files, log files, CSV and fixed-length data files, error files, documentation, and source code itself are all just sequences of words with bits of constraint and formatting applied.

Programmers and developers spend so much time with text processing that it is easy to forget that that is what we are doing. The most common text processing application is probably your favorite text editor. Beyond simple entry of new characters, text editors perform such text processing tasks as search/replace and copy/paste, which given guided interaction with the user accomplish sophisticated manipulation of textual sources. Many text editors go farther than these simple capabilities and include their own complete programming systems (usually called "macro processing"); in those cases where editors include "Turing-complete" macro languages, text editors suffice, in principle, to accomplish anything that the examples in this book can.

After text editors, a variety of text

processing tools are widely used by developers. Tools like "File Find" under Windows, or "grep" on Unix (and other platforms), perform the basic chore of *locating* text patterns. "Little languages" like sed and awk perform basic text manipulation (or even nonbasic). A large number of utilities especially in Unix-like environments perform small custom text processing tasks: wc, sort, tr, md5sum, uniq, split, strings, and many others.

At the top of the text processing food chain are general-purpose programming languages, such as Python. I wrote this book on Python in large part because Python is such a clear, expressive, and general-purpose language. But for all Python's virtues, text editors and "little" utilities will always have an important place for developers "getting the job done." As simple as Python is, it is still more complicated than you need to achieve many basic tasks. But once you get past the very simple, Python is a perfect language for making the difficult things possible (and it is also good at making the easy things simple).



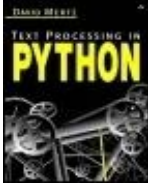
---

**Team-Fly**

◀ Previous

Next ▶

[Top](#)



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## **Preface**

# 0.2 The Philosophy of Text Processing

Hang around any Python discussion groups for a little while, and you will certainly be dazzled by the contributions of the Python developer, Tim Peters (and by a number of other Pythonistas). His "Zen of Python" captures much of the reason that I choose Python as the language in which to solve most programming tasks that are presented to me. But to understand what is most special about *text processing* as a programming task, it is worth turning to Perl creator Larry Wall's cardinal virtues of programming: laziness, impatience, hubris.

What sets text processing most clearly

apart from other tasks computer programmers accomplish is the frequency with which we perform text processing on an ad hoc or "one-shot" basis. One rarely bothers to create a one-shot GUI interface for a program. You even less frequently perform a one-shot normalization of a relational database. But every programmer with a little experience has had numerous occasions where she has received a trickle of textual information (or maybe a deluge of it) from another department, from a client, from a developer working on a different project, or from data dumped out of a DBMS; the problem in such cases is always to "process" the text so that it is usable for your own project, program, database, or work unit. Text processing to the rescue. This is where the virtue of impatience first appearswe just want the stuff processed, right now!

But text processing tasks that were obviously one-shot tasks that we knew we would never need again have a habit of coming back like restless ghosts. It turns out that that client needs to update the one-time data they sent last month. Or the

boss decides that she would really like a feature of that text summarized in a slightly different way. The virtue of laziness is our friend herewith our foresight not to actually delete those one-shot scripts, we have them available for easy reuse and/or modification when the need arises.

Enough is not enough, however. That script you reluctantly used a second time turns out to be quite similar to a more general task you will need to perform frequently, perhaps even automatically. You imagine that with only a slight amount of extra work you can generalize and expand the script, maybe add a little error checking and some runtime options while you are at it; and do it all in time and under budget (or even as a side project, off the budget). Obviously, this is the voice of that greatest of programmers' virtues: hubris.

The goal of this book is to make its readers a little lazier, a smidgeon more impatient, and a whole bunch more hubristic. Python just happens to be the language best suited to the study of virtue.

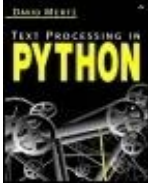
---

**Team-Fly**

◀ Previous

Next ▶

[Top](#)



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## **Preface**

# 0.3 What You'll Need to Use This Book

This book is ideally suited for programmers who are a little bit familiar with Python, and whose daily tasks involve a fair amount of text processing chores. Programmers who have some background in other programming languagesespecially with other "scripting" languagesshould be able to pick up enough Python to get going by reading [Appendix A](#).

While Python is a rather simple language at heart, this book is not intended as a tutorial on Python for nonprogrammers. Instead, this book is about two other things: getting the job done, pragmatically

and efficiently; and understanding why what works works and what doesn't work doesn't work, theoretically and conceptually. As such, we hope this book can be useful both to working programmers and to students of programming at a level just past the introductory.

Many sections of this book are accompanied by problems and exercises, and these in turn often pose questions for users. In most cases, the answers to the listed questions are somewhat open-ended there are no simple right answers. I believe that working through the provided questions will help both self-directed and instructor-guided learners; the questions can typically be answered at several levels and often have an underlying subtlety. Instructors who wish to use this text are encouraged to contact the author for assistance in structuring a curriculum involving it. All readers are encouraged to consult the book's Web site to see possible answers provided by both the author and other readers; additional related questions will be added to the Web site over time, along with other resources.

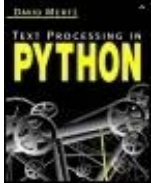
The Python language itself is conservative. Almost every Python script written ten years ago for Python 1.0 will run fine in Python 2.3+. However, as versions improve, a certain number of new features have been added. The most significant changes have matched the version number changes. Python 2.0 introduced list comprehensions, augmented assignments, Unicode support, and a standard XML package. Many scripts written in the most natural and efficient manner using Python 2.0+ will not run without changes in earlier versions of Python.

The general target of this book will be users of Python 2.1+, but some 2.2+ specific features will be utilized in examples. Maybe half the examples in this book will run fine on Python 1.5.1+ (and slightly fewer on older versions), but examples will not necessarily indicate their requirement for Python 2.0+ (where it exists). On the other hand, new features introduced with Python 2.1 and above will only be utilized where they make a task significantly easier, or where the feature itself is being illustrated. In any case, examples requiring versions



past Python 2.0 will usually indicate this explicitly.

In the case of modules and packages whether in the standard library or third-party we will explicitly indicate what Python version is required and, where relevant, which version added the module or package to the standard library. In some cases, it will be possible to use later standard library modules with earlier Python versions. In important cases, this possibility will be noted.



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

**Preface**

## 0.4 Conventions Used in This Book

Several typographic conventions are used in this book to guide the reader's eye. Both block and inline literals are presented in a fixed font, including names of utilities, URLs, variable names, and code samples. Names of objects in the standard library, however, are presented in italics. Names of modules and packages are printed in a sans serif typeface. Headings come in several different fonts depending on their level and purpose.

All constants, functions, and classes in discussion and cross-references will be explicitly prepended with their namespace (module). Methods will additionally be prepended with their class. In some cases, code examples will use the local namespace, but a preference for explicit namespace identification will be present in some

code also. For example, a reference might read

**SEE ALSO:**

`email.Generator.DecodedGenerator.flatten()`  
`351; raw_input()` 446; `tempfile.mktemp()` 71,

The first is a class method in the *email.Generator* module; the second, a built-in function; the last function in the *tempfile* module.

In the special case of built-in methods on types the expression for an empty type object will be used in the style of a namespace modifier. For example:

Methods of built-in types include  `[].sort()`,  `".islower()`,  `{}.keys()`, and  `(lambda:1).func_code`.

The file object type will be indicated by the name `FILE` in capitals. A reference to a file object method will appear as, for example:

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.flush()` 16;

Brief inline illustrations of Python concepts and usage will be taken from the Python interactive shell. This approach allows readers to see the immediate evaluation of constructs, much as they

might explore Python themselves. Moreover, examples presented in this manner will be self-sufficient (not requiring external data), and may be entered with variations by readers trying to get a grasp on a concept. For example:

```
>>> 13/7 # integer division
1
>>> 13/7. # float division
1.8571428571428572
```

In documentation of module functions, where named arguments are available, they are listed with their default value. Optional arguments are listed in square brackets. These conventions are also used in the *Python Library Reference*. For example:

```
foobar.spam(s, val=23 [,taste="spicy
```

The function *foobar.spam()* uses the argument *s* to ...

If a named argument does not have a specific default value, the argument is listed followed by an equal sign and ellipsis. For example:

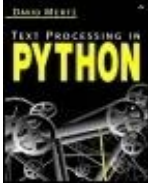
```
foobar.baz (string=..., maxlen=... )
```

The *foobar.baz()* function ...

With the introduction of Unicode support to Python an equivalence between a character and a byte no longer holds in all cases. Where an operation takes a numeric argument affecting a string-like object the documentation will specify whether characters or bytes are being counted. For example:

Operation A reads *num* bytes from the buffer.  
Operation B reads *num* characters from the buffer.

The first operation indicates a number of actual bytes affected. The second operation indicates an indefinite number of bytes are affected, but they compose a number of (maybe multibyte) characters.



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## **Preface**

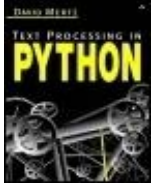
# 0.5 A Word on Source Code Examples

First things first. All the source code in this book is hereby released to the public domain. You can use it however you like, without restriction. You can include it in free software, or in commercial/proprietary projects. Change it to your heart's content, and in any manner you want. If you feel like giving credit to the author (or sending him large checks) for code you find useful, that is fine but no obligation to do so exists.

All the source code in this book, and various other public domain examples, can be found at the book's Web site. If such an electronic form is more convenient for you,

we hope this helps you. In fact, if you are able, you might benefit from visiting this location, where you might find updated versions of examples or other useful utilities not mentioned in the book.

First things out of the way, let us turn to second things. Little of the source code in this book is intended as a final say on how to perform a given task. Many of the examples are easy enough to copy directly into your own program, or to use as standalone utilities. But the real goal in presenting the examples is educational. We really hope you will *think* about what the examples do, and why they do it the way they do. In fact, we hope readers will think of better, faster, and more general ways of performing the same tasks. If the examples work their best, they should be better as inspirations than as instructions.



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

Table of Contents

**Preface**

## 0.6 External Resources

### 0.6.1 General Resources

A good clearinghouse for resources and links related to this book is the book's Web site. Over time, add errata and additional examples, questions, answers, utilities, and so on to the site, so check from time to time:

<<http://gnosis.cx/TPiP>>

The first place you should probably turn for *any* question on Python programming (after this book is:

<<http://www.python.org/>>

The Python newsgroup <comp.lang.python> is



amazingly useful resource, with discussion that generally both friendly and erudite. You may also post to and follow the newsgroup via a mirrored mailing list:

<<http://mail.python.org/mailman/listinfo/python-list>>

## 0.6.2 Books

This book generally aims at an intermediate reader. Other Python books are better introductory texts (especially for those fairly new to programming generally). Some good introductory texts are:

*Core Python Programming*, Wesley J. Chun, Prentice Hall, 2001. ISBN: 0-130-26036-3.

*Learning Python*, Mark Lutz & David Ascher, O'Reilly, 1999. ISBN: 1-56592-464-9.

*The Quick Python Book*, Daryl Harms & Kenneth McDonald, Manning, 2000. ISBN: 1-884777-70-0.

As introductions, I would generally recommend these books in the order listed, but learning styles vary between readers.

Two texts that overlap this book somewhat, but focus more narrowly on referencing the standard library, are:

*Python Essential Reference, Second Edition*, David M. Beazley, New Riders, 2001. ISBN: 0-7357-1091-0.

*Python Standard Library*, Fredrik Lundh, O'Reilly, 2001. ISBN: 0-596-00096-0.

For coverage of XML, at a far more detailed level than this book has room for, is the excellent text

*Python & XML*, Christopher A. Jones & Fred L. Drake, Jr., O'Reilly, 2002. ISBN: 0-596-00128-0.

### 0.6.3 Software Directories

Currently, the best Python-specific directory for software is the Vaults of Parnassus:

<<http://www.vex.net/parnassus/>>

SourceForge is a general open source software resource. Many projects Python and otherwise are hosted at that site, and the site provides search capabilities, keywords, category browsing, and

like:

<<http://sourceforge.net/>>

Freshmeat is another widely used directory of software projects (mostly open source). Like the Vaults of Parnassus, Freshmeat does not directly host project files, but simply acts as an information clearinghouse for finding relevant projects:

<<http://freshmeat.net/>>

### 0.6.4 Specific Software

A number of Python projects are discussed in this book. Most of those are listed in one or more of the software directories mentioned above. A general search engine like Google, <<http://google.com>>, is also useful in locating project home pages. Below are a number of project URLs that are current at the time of this writing. If any of these fall out of date by the time you read this book, try searching in a search engine or software directory for an updated URL.

The author's *Gnosis Utilities* contains a number of Python packages mentioned in this book, including *gnosis.indexer*, *gnosis.xml.indexer*,

*gnosis.xml.pickle*, and others. You can download most current version from:

<[http://gnosis.cx/download/Gnosis\\_Uutils-current.tar.gz](http://gnosis.cx/download/Gnosis_Uutils-current.tar.gz)>

[eGenix.com](http://egenix.com) provides a number of useful Python extensions, some of which are documented in this book. These include *mx.TextTools*, *mx.DateTime*, several new datatypes, and other facilities:

<<http://egenix.com/files/python/eGenix-mx-Extensions.html>>

*SimpleParse* is hosted by SourceForge, at:

<<http://simpleparse.sourceforge.net/>>

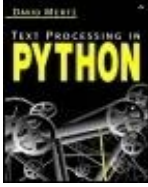
The *PLY* parsers has a home page at:

<<http://systems.cs.uchicago.edu/ply/ply.html>>

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

# Acknowledgments

Portions of this book are adapted from my column *Charming Python* and other writing first published by *IBM developerWorks*, <<http://ibm.com/developerWorks/>>. I wish to thank IBM for publishing me, for granting permission to use this material, and most especially for maintaining such a general and useful resource for programmers.

The Python community is a wonderfully friendly place. I made drafts of this book, while in progress, available on the Internet. I received numerous helpful and kind responses, many that helped make the book better than it would otherwise have been.

In particular, the following folks made suggestions and contributions to the book while in draft form. I apologize to any correspondents I may have omitted from the list; your advice was appreciated even if momentarily lost in the bulk of my saved

email.

Sam Penrose <[sam@ddmweb.com](mailto:sam@ddmweb.com)>

UserDict string substitution hacks.

Roman Suzi <[rnd@onego.ru](mailto:rnd@onego.ru)>

More on string substitution hacks.

Samuel S. Chessman  
<[chessman@tux.org](mailto:chessman@tux.org)>

Helpful observations of various typos.

John W. Krahn <[krahnj@acm.org](mailto:krahnj@acm.org)>

Helpful observations of various typos.

Terry J. Reedy <[tjreedy@udel.edu](mailto:tjreedy@udel.edu)>

Found lots of typos and made good  
organizational suggestions.

Amund Tveit <[amund.tveit@idi.ntnu.no](mailto:amund.tveit@idi.ntnu.no)>

Pointers to word-based Huffman  
compression for [Appendix B](#).

Pascal Oberndoerfer

<[oberndoerfer@mac.com](mailto:oberndoerfer@mac.com)>

Suggestions about focus of parser discussion.

Bob Weiner <[bob@deepware.com](mailto:bob@deepware.com)>

Suggestions about focus of parser discussion.

Max M <[maxm@mxm.dk](mailto:maxm@mxm.dk)>

Thought provocation about XML and Unicode entities.

John Machin <[sjmachin@lexicon.net](mailto:sjmachin@lexicon.net)>

Nudging to improve sample regular expression functions.

Magnus Lie Hetland  
<[magnus@hetland.org](mailto:magnus@hetland.org)>

Called use of default "static" arguments "spooky code" and failed to appreciate the clarity of the <> operator.

Tim Andrews  
<[Tim.Andrews@adpro.com.au](mailto:Tim.Andrews@adpro.com.au)>



Found lots of typos in [Chapters 3](#) and [2](#).

Marc-Andre Lemburg <[mal@lemburg.com](mailto:mal@lemburg.com)>

Wrote *mx.TextTools* in the first place and made helpful comments on my coverage of it.

Mike C. Fletcher  
<[mcfletch@users.sourceforge.net](mailto:mcfletch@users.sourceforge.net)>

Wrote *SimpleParse* in the first place and made helpful comments on my coverage of it.

Lorenzo M. Catucci  
<[lorenzo@sancho.ccd.uniroma2.it](mailto:lorenzo@sancho.ccd.uniroma2.it)>

Suggested glossary entries for CRC and hash.

David LeBlanc <[whisper@oz.net](mailto:whisper@oz.net)>

Various organizational ideas while in draft. Then he wound up acting as one of my technical reviewers and provided a huge amount of helpful advice on both content and organization.

Mike Dussault

<[dussault@valvesoftware.com](mailto:dussault@valvesoftware.com)>

Found an error in combinatorial HOFs  
and made good suggestions on [Appendix A](#).

Guillermo Fernandez

<[guillermo.fernandez@epfl.ch](mailto:guillermo.fernandez@epfl.ch)>

Advice on clarifying explanations of  
compression techniques.

Roland Gerlach <[roland@rkga.com.au](mailto:roland@rkga.com.au)>

Typos are boundless, but a bit less for  
his email.

Antonio Cuni <[cuni@programmazione.it](mailto:cuni@programmazione.it)>

Found error in original Schwartzian sort  
example and another in `map()/zip()`  
discussion.

Michele Simionato <[mis6+@pitt.edu](mailto:mis6+@pitt.edu)>

Acted as a nice sounding board for  
deciding on final organization of the  
appendices.

Jesper Hertel <[jh@magnus.dk](mailto:jh@magnus.dk)>

Was frustrated that I refused to take his well-reasoned advice for code conventions.

Andrew MacIntyre  
<[andymac@bullseye.apana.org.au](mailto:andymac@bullseye.apana.org.au)>

Did not comment on this book, but has maintained the OS/2 port of Python for several versions. This made my life easier by letting me test and write examples on my favorite machine.

Tim Churches <[tchur@optushome.com.au](mailto:tchur@optushome.com.au)>

A great deal of subversive entertainment, despite not actually fixing anything in this book.

Moshe Zadka  
<[moshez@twistedmatrix.com](mailto:moshez@twistedmatrix.com)>

Served as technical reviewer of this book in manuscript and brought both erudition and an eye for detail to the job.

Sergey Konozenko  
<[sergey\\_konozenko@ieee.org](mailto:sergey_konozenko@ieee.org)>

Boosted my confidence in final preparation with the enthusiasm he brought to his technical review and even more so with the acuity with which he "got" my attempts to impose mental challenge on my readers.

---

Team-Fly

[< Previous](#)

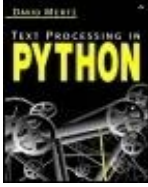
[Next >](#)

[Top](#)

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

# Chapter 1. Python Basics

This chapter discusses Python capabilities that are likely to be used in text processing applications. For an introduction to Python syntax and semantics per se, readers might want to skip ahead to [Appendix A](#) (A Selective and Impressionistic Short Review of Python); Guido van Rossum's *Python Tutorial* at [<http://python.org/doc/current/tut/tut.html>](http://python.org/doc/current/tut/tut.html) is also quite excellent. The focus here occupies a somewhat higher level: not the Python language narrowly, but also not yet specific to text processing.

In [Section 1.1](#), I look at some programming techniques that flow out of the Python language itself, but that are usually not obvious to Python beginners and are sometimes not obvious even to intermediate Python programmers. The programming techniques that are discussed are ones that tend to be applicable to text processing contexts; other programming tasks are likely to have their own tricks and idioms that are

not explicitly documented in this book.

In [Section 1.2](#), I document modules in the Python standard library that you will probably use in your text processing application, or at the very least want to keep in the back of your mind. A number of other Python standard library modules are far enough afield of text processing that you are unlikely to use them in this type of application. Such remaining modules are documented very briefly with one- or two-line descriptions. More details on each module can be found with Python's standard documentation.

## Chapter 1. Python Basics

### 1.1 Techniques and Patterns

#### 1.1.1 Utilizing Higher-Order Functions in Text

This first topic merits a warning. It jumps feet-fairly sophisticated level and may be unfamiliar. Do not be too frightened by this first topic; you can do it. If the functional programming (FP) concepts recommend you jump ahead to [Appendix A](#), es

In text processing, one frequently acts upon a homogeneous. Most often, these chunks are lines; sometimes other sorts of fields and blocks are used. The functions and syntax for reading in lines from a file. Obviously, these chunks are not entirely homogeneous at the level we worry about during processing, each line an instruction or information.



As an example, consider an imperative style code snippet that matches a criterion `isCond()`:

```
selected = []                # temporary list
fp = open(filename):
for line in fp.readlines():  # Py2.2
    if isCond(line):         # (2.2)
        selected.append(line)
del line                     # Clear
```

There is nothing *wrong* with these few lines (see if you take a few seconds to read through them). In many ways, it does not parse as a *single thought*, even though its intent is clear. It is slightly superfluous (and it retains a value as a new variable, a conceivably step on a previously defined value)

```
selected = filter(isCond, open(filename))
# Py2.2 -> filter(isCond, open(filename))
```

In the concrete, a textual source that one frequently encounters is a log file. All sorts of applications produce log files that record system changes that might need to be examined or acted upon intermittently. For example, the Python installer produces a file called `INSTALL.LOG` that contains a record of the installation process. Below is a highly abridged copy of this file from

## INSTALL.LOG sample data file

```
Title: Python 2.2
Source: C:\DOWNLOAD\PYTHON-2.2.EXE |
Made Dir: D:\Python22
File Copy: D:\Python22\UNWISE.EXE |
RegDB Key: Software\Microsoft\Window
RegDB Val: Python 2.2
File Copy: D:\Python22\w9xpopen.exe
Made Dir: D:\PYTHON22\DLLs
File Overwrite: C:\WINDOWS\SYSTEM\MS
RegDB Root: 2
RegDB Key: Software\Microsoft\Window
RegDB Val: D:\PYTHON22\Python.exe
Shell Link: C:\WINDOWS\Start Menu\Pr
Link Info: D:\Python22\UNWISE.EXE |
Shell Link: C:\WINDOWS\Start Menu\Pr
Link Info: D:\Python22\python.exe |
```

You can see that each action recorded belongs application would presumably handle each type action has different data fields associated with functions that identify line types, for example:

```
def isFileCopy(line):
```

```

    return line[:10]=='File Copy:' #
def isFileOverwrite(line):
    return line[:15]=='File Overwrit

```

The string method `"".startswith()` is less error prone in older versions, but these examples are compatible with newer versions. If you prefer a functional programming style, you can also write:

```

isRegDBRoot = lambda line: line[:11]
isRegDBKey = lambda line: line[:10]=='RegDB Key:'
isRegDBVal = lambda line: line[:10]=='RegDB Val:'

```

Selecting lines of a certain type is done exactly like this:

```

lines = open(r'd:\python22\install.log').readlines()
regroot_lines = filter(isRegDBRoot, lines)

```

But if you want to select upon multiple criteria, it can be quite cumbersome. For example, suppose you are interested in lines that start with "RegDB Root:", "RegDB Key:", or "RegDB Val:". You can write a new custom function for this filter:

```

def isAnyRegDB(line):
    if line[:11]=='RegDB Root:': return True
    elif line[:10]=='RegDB Key:': return True
    elif line[:10]=='RegDB Val:': return True
    else: return False

```

```
# For recent Pythons, line.startswit
```

Programming a custom function for each combination of functions. More importantly, each such custom function has a nonzero chance of introducing a bug. If you are not satisfied, you can either write custom functions or use the following example:

```
shortline = lambda line: len(line) < 80
short_regvals = filter(shortline, filter(isRegDBVal, regvals))
```

In this example, we rely on previously defined functions. `isRegDBVal()` will be in either `shortline()` or `isRegDBVal()`, but `isShortRegVal()`. Such nested filters, however, are not always involved.

Calls to *map()* are sometimes similarly nested in the same string. For a fairly trivial example, suppose we want to normalize whitespace in lines of text. Creating *map()* calls they could be nested in *map()* calls:

```
from string import upper, join, split
def flip(s):
    a = list(s)
    a.reverse()
    return join(a, '')
normalize = lambda s: join(split(s), ' ')
```

```
cap_flip_norms = map(upper, map(flip
```

This type of *map()* or *filter()* nest is difficult to can sometimes be drawn into nesting alternative still worse. For example, suppose you want to p lines that meet several criteria. To avoid this tra verbose imperative coding style that simply wra temporary variables for intermediate results.

Within a functional programming style, it is nor excessive call nesting. The key to doing this is *higher-order functions*. In general, a higher-ord returns as result a function object. First-order f and produce a datum as an answer (perhaps a contrast, the "inputs" and "outputs" of a HOF a intended to be eventually called somewhere lat

One example of a higher-order function is a *fur* returns a function, or collection of functions, th their creation. The "Hello World" of function fac World," an adder factory exists just to show wh useful by itself. Pretty much every explanation as:

```
>>> def adder_factory(n):  
...     return lambda m, n=n: m+n  
...
```

```
>>> add10 = adder_factory(10)
>>> add10
<function <lambda> at 0x00FB0020>
>>> add10(4)
14
>>> add10(20)
30
>>> add5 = adder_factory(5)
>>> add5(4)
9
```

For text processing tasks, simple function factories and *combinatorial* HOFs. The idea of a combinatorial (usually first-order) functions as arguments and synthesizes the operations of the argument functions into combinatorial higher-order functions that achieve the following lines:

## **combinatorial.py**

```
from operator import mul, add, truth
apply_each = lambda fns, args=[]: map(lambda f, arg: f(arg), fns, args)
bools = lambda lst: map(truth, lst)
bool_each = lambda fns, args=[]: map(lambda f, arg: f(arg), fns, args)
conjoin = lambda fns, args=[]: reduce(lambda acc, f, arg: f(arg) and acc, fns, args)
```

```

all = lambda fns: lambda arg, fns=fns:
both = lambda f,g: all((f,g))
all3 = lambda f,g,h: all((f,g,h))
and_ = lambda f,g: lambda x, f=f, g=g:
disjoin = lambda fns, args=[]: reduce
some = lambda fns: lambda arg, fns=fns:
either = lambda f,g: some((f,g))
anyof3 = lambda f,g,h: some((f,g,h))
compose = lambda f,g: lambda x, f=f, g=g:
compose3 = lambda f,g,h: lambda x, f=f, g=g, h=h:
ident = lambda x: x

```

Even with just over a dozen lines, many of these convenience functions that wrap other more general functions use these HOFs to simplify some of the earlier code and results, so look above for comparisons:

## Some examples using higher-order functions

```

# Don't nest filters, just produce f
short_regvals = filter(both(shortlir

# Don't multiply ad hoc functions, j
regroot_lines = \

```

```

    filter(some([isRegDBRoot, isRegI

# Don't nest transformations, make c
capFlipNorm = compose3(upper, flip,
cap_flip_norms = map(capFlipNorm, li

```

In the example, we bind the composed function corresponding *map()* line expresses just the *side effect* to all the lines. But the binding also illustrates *side effect* functions. By condensing the several operations can save the combined operation for reuse else

As a rule of thumb, I recommend not using more than one line of code. If these "list application" function readability is preserved by saving results to intermediate variables. functional programming style calls themselves a wonderful thing about Python is the degree to which it can accommodate different programming styles. For example:

```

intermed = filter(niceProperty, map(
final = map(otherTransform, intermed

```

Any nesting of successive *filter ()* or *map()* calls can be avoided by using the proper combinatorial HOFs. The number of lines needed is pretty much always quite small. How much is offset by the lines used for giving names to corner cases is usually about one-half the length of imperative



mean correspondingly fewer bugs).

A nice feature of combinatorial functions is that algebra for functions that have not been called *operator.mul* in `combinatorial.py` is more than a collection of simple values, you might express values as:

```
satisfied = (this or that) and (foo
```

In the case of text processing on chunks of text, predicative functions applied to a chunk:

```
satisfied = (thisP(s) or thatP(s)) a
```

In an expression like the above one, several parts of a string (or other object), and a set of logical relations. An expression is itself a logical predicate of the string. We wish to evaluate the same predicate more than once. A function expressing the predicate:

```
satisfiedP = both(either(thisP, thatP),
```

Using a predicative function created with `combinatorial` and other function:

```
selected = filter(satisfiedP, lines)
```

### 1.1.2 Exercise: More on combinatorial function

The module `combinatorial.py` presented above combinatorial higher-order functions. But there example. Creating a personal or organization list reusability of your current text processing library

## QUESTIONS

Some of the functions defined in combinator combinatorial. In a precise sense, a combin

**1:** functions as arguments and return one or m arguments. Identify which functions are not exactly what type of thing each one *does* ret

The functions `both()` and `and_()` do almost the same important, albeit subtle, way. `and_()`, like `both()`, is lazy in its evaluation. Consider these lines:

```
>>> f = lambda n: n**2 > 10
>>> g = lambda n: 100/n > 10
>>> and_(f,g)(5)
1
>>> both(f,g)(5)
```

```

1
>>> and_(f,g) (0)
0
2: >>> both(f,g) (0)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...

```

The shortcutting `and_()` can potentially allow second one. The second function never gets value on a given argument.

### **a. Create a similarly shortcutting combi**

- Create general shortcutting functions short similarly to the functions `all()` and `some()`, re
- Describe some situations where nonshortcu `all()`, or `anyof3()` are more desirable than sir

The function `ident()` would appear to be pair is passed to it. In truth, `ident()` is an almost collection. Explain the significance of `ident()`

**3:**

Hint: Suppose you have a list of lines of text strings. What filter can you apply to find all t

The function `not_()` might make a nice addition. Define this function as:

**4:**

```
>>> not_ = lambda f: lambda x, f=f:
```

Explore some situations where a `not_()` function

The function `apply_each()` is used in combination with the utility of `apply_each()` is more general than the trivial usage of `apply_each()` might look something like

**5:**

```
>>> apply_each(map(adder_factory,
[10, 11, 12, 13, 14]
```

Explore some situations where `apply_each()` is used on a chunk of text.

Unlike the functions `all()` and `some()`, the function

**6:** `fixed_number_of_input_functions` as an argument that takes a list of input functions, of any length

What other combinatorial higher-order functions

**7:** likely to prove useful in text processing? Convert these functions into useful operations, and add them to these enhanced HOFs?

### 1.1.3 Specializing Python Datatypes

Python comes with an excellent collection of standard built-in types. At the same time, an important principle, less important than programming languages coming from Python's "principle of pervasive polymorphism" is that an object *does* more than what it *is*. Another common saying is like a duck and quacks like a duck, treat it like

Broadly, the idea behind polymorphism is letting things of different types. In C++ or Java, for example, method overloading to let an operation apply to different types (as needed). For example:

#### C++ signature-based polymorphism

```
#include <stdio.h>
class Print {
public:
    void print(int i)      { printf("int "); }
    void print(double d)   { printf("double "); }
    void print(float f)    { printf("float "); }
};
main() {
```

```

Print *p = new Print();
p->print(37);           /* --> "int 37"
p->print(37.0);         /* --> "double
}

```

The most direct Python translation of signature performs type checks on its argument(s). It is :

## Python "signature-based" polymorphism

```

def Print(x):
    from types import *
    if type(x) is FloatType: print
    elif type(x) is IntType:  print
    elif type(x) is LongType: print

```

Writing signature-based functions, however, is performing these sorts of explicit type checks, a problem you want to solve correctly! What you type *x* is, but rather whether *x* can perform the what type of thing it is strictly).

## PYTHONIC POLYMORPHISM

Probably the single most common case where `hasattr` is useful is in identifying "file-like" objects. There are many of these, such as those created with *urllib*, *cStringIO*, *zipfile*, etc. These objects can perform only subsets of what actual files can do: they can't seek, and so on. But for many purposes, this "file-like" capability is good enough to make sense of the capabilities you actually need.

Here is a typical example. I have a module that would like users to be able to specify an XML source of an XML file, passing a file-like object that could be used as a DOM object to work with (built with any of several parsers). My module may get their XML from novel places: from files, over sockets, etc.). By looking at what a candidate object has, whichever capabilities that object *has*:

## Python capability-based polymorphism

```
def toDOM(xml_src=None):
    from xml.dom import minidom
    if hasattr(xml_src, 'documentElement'):
        return xml_src  # it is already a DOM object
    elif hasattr(xml_src, 'read'):
        # it is something that knows how to read
        return minidom.parseString(xml_src.read())
    elif type(xml_src) in (StringType, unicode):
```

```

        # it is a filename of an XML
        xml = open(xml_src).read()
        return minidom.parseString(xml)
    else:
        raise ValueError, "Must be a
                               filename, file-like c

```

Even simple-seeming numeric types have varying capabilities. You should not usually care about the internal representation of a number; what it can do. Of course, as one way to assure compatibility, it is appropriate to coerce it to a type using the built-in functions *list()*, *long()*, *str()*, *tuple()*, and *unicode()*. All of these transform anything that looks a little bit like the target into an instance of it. It is usually not necessary, however, to check for prescribed types; again we can just check capabilities.

For example, suppose that you want to remove floating-point numbers perhaps because they represent measurements that might be rounded to a given precision. Rather than test for numeric capabilities. One common way to test for a capability is to try something, and catch any exceptions that occur. Here is a simple example:

## Checking what numbers can do



```

def approx(x):
    if hasattr(x, '__and__'):
        return x & ~0xOFL
    try:
        return (round(x.real, 2) + rour
    except AttributeError:
        return round(x, 2)

```

## ENHANCED OBJECTS

The reason that the principle of pervasive polymorphism makes it easy to create new objects that behave most like the objects were already mentioned as examples; you can specify a datatype precisely. But even basic datatypes like integers can be easily specialized and/or emulated.

There are two details to pay attention to when discussing this. An important matter to understand is that the capabilities of objects are generally implemented using leading and trailing double underscores. Any object can act like a basic datatype in those contexts that require it. A datatype is just an object with some well-optimized methods.

The second detail concerns exactly how you get and make use of existing implementations. There is

version of any basic datatype, except for the pi quite a few such details, and the easiest way to specialize an existing class. Under all non-ancie provides the pure-Python modules *UserDict*, *Us custom datatypes. You can inherit from an appl methods as needed. No sample parents are pro however.*

Under Python 2.2 and above, a better option is inherit from the underlying C implementations these parent classes have become the self-sam types and construct objects: *int()*, *list()*, *unicoc subtle profundities that accompany new-style c worry about these. All you need to know is that than one that inherits from *UserString*; likewise *UserDict* (assuming your scripts all run on a rec*

Custom datatypes, however, need not specialize to create classes that implement "just enough" used for a given purpose. Of course, in practice datatypes is either because you want them to c because you want them to implement the magi datatypes. For example, below is a custom data approx() function, and that also provides a (slig

```
>>> class I:    # "Fuzzy" integer data
...     def __init__(self, i):    self
...     def __and__(self, i):    retu
```

```

...     def err_range(self):
...         lbound = approx(self.i)
...         return "Value: [%d, %d)"
...
>>> i1, i2 = I(29), I(20)
>>> approx(i1), approx(i2)
(16L, 16L)
>>> i2.err_range()
'Value: [16, 31)'

```

Despite supporting an extra method and being a function, `I` is not a very versatile datatype. If you try to add "fuzzy integers," you will raise a `TypeError`. Since Python 2.2+, you would need to implement

Using new-style classes in Python 2.2+, you could implement a new underlying `int` datatype. A partial implementation

```

>>> class I2(int):      # New-style function
...     def __add__(self, j):
...         vals = map(int, [approx(self), approx(j)])
...         k = int.__add__(*vals)
...         return I2(int.__add__(k, 0))
...     def err_range(self):
...         lbound = approx(self)
...         return "Value: [%d, %d)"

```

```

...
>>> i1, i2 = I2(29), I2(20)
>>> print "i1 =", i1.err_range(), ":
i1 = Value: [16, 31) : i2 = Value: [
>>> i3 = i1 + i2
>>> print i3, type(i3)
47 <class '__main__.I2'>

```

Since the new-style class `int` already supports `__add__` again. With new-style classes, you refer to data attribute that holds the data (e.g., `self.i` in class syntactic operators within magic methods that the `.__add__()` method of the parent `int` rather method.

In practice, you are less likely to want to create emulate container types. But it is worth understanding integers are a fuzzy concept in Python (the fuzziness than the fuzziness of `I2` integers, though). Even need not operate on objects of `IntType` or `Long` desired protocols.

### 1.1.4 Base Classes for Datatypes

There are several magic methods that are often fact, these methods are useful even for classes

sense, every object is a datatype since it can co supports special syntax such as arithmetic oper method that you can define is documented in tl datatype each is most relevant to. Moreover, ea few additional magic methods; those covered e are particularly important.

In documenting class methods of base classes, for documenting module functions. The one spe is the use of self as the first argument to all me arbitrary, this convention is less special than it following uses of self are equally legal:

```
>>> import string
>>> self = 'spam'
>>> object.__repr__(self)
'<str object at 0x12c0a0>'
>>> string.upper(self)
'SPAM'
```

However, there is usually little reason to use cla in and module functions with the same purpose classes are used only in child classes that overr

```
>>> class UpperObject(object):
...     def __repr__(self):
...         return object.__repr__
```

```
...  
>>> uo = UpperObject()  
>>> print uo  
<__MAIN__.UPPEROBJECT OBJECT AT 0X1C
```

## **object • Ancestor class for new-style data**

Under Python 2.2+, object has become a base class that enables a custom class to use a few new capabilities usually if you are interested in creating a custom object, such as list, float, or dict.

## **METHODS**

### **object.\_\_eq\_\_(self, other)**

Return a Boolean comparison between self and other to the == operator. The parent class object does not implement object equality means the same thing as identity. Implement this in order to affect comparisons.

### **object.\_\_ne\_\_(self, other)**

Return a Boolean comparison between self and to the != and <> operators. The parent class of default object inequality means the same thing. Although it might seem that equality and inequality methods are not explicitly defined in terms of each other with:

```
>>> class EQ(object):
...     # Abstract parent class for
...     def __eq__(self, o): return
...     def __ne__(self, o): return
...
>>> class Comparable(EQ):
...     # By defining inequality, get equality
...     def __ne__(self, other):
...         return someComplexCompar
```

**object.\_\_nonzero\_\_(self)**

Return a Boolean value for an object. Determine comparisons or, and, and not, and to if and filter. The \_\_nonzero\_\_() method returns a true value is

**object.\_\_len\_\_(self)**

## `len(object)`

Return an integer representing the "length" of the object. In a straightforward case, this is the number of objects in the collection. In other cases, the behavior is more meaningful.

`object.__repr__(self)`

`repr(object)`

`object.__str__(self)`

`str(object)`

Return a string representation of the object. This is the same as the `repr()` and `str()` built-in functions, to the point of

Where feasible, it is desirable to have the `__repr__` method return a string containing sufficient information in it to reconstruct an identical object with `eval(repr(obj))`. In many cases, the `repr()` of an object is more detailed than the `str()` representation of the same object.

**SEE ALSO:** `repr` 96; `operator` 47;

---

---

**file • New-style base class for file objects**

---

---



Under Python 2.2+, it is possible to create a custom built-in class file. In older Python versions you have to implement the methods that define an object as "file-like." Inheriting from file buys you little if the data comes from a native filesystem, you will have to reimplement

Even more than for other object types, what methods you implement depends on your purpose. You may be happy with a class that can only write. You may need to seek with a random linear stream. In general, however, file-like objects should only be used in contexts where their capabilities are not limited. Custom classes only need implement those methods that are not provided by the base class. They should only be used in contexts where their capabilities are not limited.

In documenting the methods of file-like objects, you should refer to the methods of other built-in types. Since actually inheriting from file is not recommended, use the name FILE to indicate a general file-like object. Examples of custom classes (and implement all the methods named in the documentation) are equally good FILE instances.

## BUILT-IN FUNCTIONS

**open(fname [,mode [,buffering]])**  
**file(fname [,mode [,buffering]])**

Return a file object that attaches to the filename. The mode argument describes the capabilities and access style of the file object.

writing (truncating any existing content); a for these modes may also have the binary flag b for text and binary files. The flag + may be used to argument buffering may be 0 for none, 1 for line bytes.

```
>>> open('tmp','w').write('spam and  
>>> print open('tmp','r').read(),  
spam and eggs  
>>> open('tmp','w').write('this and  
>>> print open('tmp','r').read(),  
this and that  
>>> open('tmp','a').write('something  
>>> print open('tmp','r').read(),  
this and that  
something else
```

## **METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES**

### **FILE.close()**

Close a file object. Reading and writing are disa

### **FILE.closed**

Return a Boolean value indicating whether the

### **FILE.fileno()**

Return a file descriptor number for the file. File should not implement this method.

### **FILE.flush()**

Write any pending data to the underlying file. File still implement this method as pass.

### **FILE.isatty()**

Return a Boolean value indicating whether the documentation says that file-like objects that implement this method, but implementing it to approach.

### **FILE.mode**

Attribute containing the mode of the file, normal to the object's initializer.

## **FILE.name**

The name of the file. For file-like objects without the object should be put into this attribute.

## **FILE.read ([size=sys.maxint])**

Return a string containing up to size bytes of content is encountered or upon another condition that moves the file position forward immediately past the read as the default value.

## **FILE.readline([size=sys.maxint])**

Return a string containing one line from the file maximum of size bytes are read. The file position negative size argument is treated as the default

## **FILE.readlines([size=sys.maxint])**

Return a list of lines from the file, each line including size is given, limit the read to *approximately* size moved forward past the read in bytes. A negative

value.

## **FILE.seek(offset [,whence=0])**

Move the file position by offset bytes (positive or negative) where the initial file position is prior to the move. EOF.

## **FILE.tell()**

Return the current file position.

## **FILE.truncate([size=0])**

Truncate the file contents (it becomes size length).

## **FILE.write(s)**

Write the string s to the file, starting at the current position and moving forward past the written bytes.

## **FILE.writelines(lines)**

Write the lines in the sequence lines to the file.  
file position is moved forward past the written l

## **FILE.xreadlines()**

Memory-efficient iterator over lines in a file. In  
generator that returns one line per each yield.

**SEE ALSO:** xreadlines 72;

**int • New-style base class for integer objects**

**long • New-style base class for long integers**

In Python, there are two standard datatypes for  
IntType have a fixed range that depends on the  
and minus  $2^{31}$ . Objects of type LongType are  
operations on integers that exceed the range of  
to long objects. However, no operation on a long  
(even if the result is of small magnitude) with th

From a user point of view ints and longs provide  
between them is only in underlying implementa

faster to operate on (since they use raw CPU instructions that integers have are shared by floating point numbers below. For example, consult the discussion of *float* corresponding *int.\_\_mul\_\_()* method. The special point numbers is their ability to perform bitwise

Under Python 2.2+, you may create a custom class. In earlier versions, you would need to manually define methods to utilize (generally a lot of work, and probably not

Each binary bit operation has a left-associative and right-associative version, and both versions can perform an operation on two operands if one is chosen. However, if you perform an operation with a custom right-associative method will be chosen

```
>>> class I(int):
...     def __xor__(self, other):
...         return "XOR"
...     def __rxor__(self, other):
...         return "RXOR"
...
>>> 0xFF ^ 0xFF
0
>>> 0xFF ^ I(0xFF)
'RXOR'
>>> I(0xFF) ^ 0xFF
```

```
'XOR'  
>>> I(0xFF) ^ I(0xFF)  
'X0R'
```

## METHODS

**int.\_\_and\_\_(self, other)**  
**int.\_\_rand\_\_(self, other)**

Return a bitwise-and between self and other. D operator.

**int.\_\_hex\_\_(self)**

Return a hex string representing self. Determinin *hex()* function.

**int.\_\_invert\_\_(self)**

Return a bitwise inversion of self. Determines h

**int.\_\_lshift\_\_(self, other)**



**int.\_\_rlshift\_\_(self, other)**

Return the result of bit-shifting self to the left k shifts other by self bits. Determines how a data

**int.\_\_oct\_\_(self)**

Return an octal string representing self. Determined by the *oct()* function.

**int.\_\_or\_\_(self, other)**

**int.\_\_ror\_\_(self, other)**

Return a bitwise-or between self and other. Determined by the *|* operator.

**int.\_\_rshift\_\_(self, other)**

**int.\_\_rrshift\_\_(self, other)**

Return the result of bit-shifting self to the right k shifts other by self bits. Determines how a data

`int.__xor__(self, other)`  
`int.__rxor__(self, other)`

Return a bitwise-xor between self and other. De  
operator.

**SEE ALSO:** float 19; int 421; long 422; sys.max

---

---

**float • New-style base class for floating po**

---

---

Python floating point numbers are mostly imple  
library of your platform; that is, to a greater or  
standard. A complex number is just a Python o  
extra operations on these pairs.

## DIGRESSION

Although the details are far outside the scope c  
Floating point math is harder than you think! If  
IEEE 754 math is, you are not yet aware of all  
Python luminary and erstwhile professor of num  
2001 (on <comp.lang.python>):

Anybody who thinks he knows what he's doin

naive, or Tim Peters (well, it COULD be W. Kahan here).

Fellow Python guru Tim Peters observed:

I find it's possible to be both (wink). But **not** even Kahan works his butt off to come up with

Peters illustrated further by way of Donald Knuth's *Art of Computer Programming*, 2nd Edition, Addison-Wesley, 1997; ISBN: 0201896

Many serious mathematicians have attempted floating point operations rigorously, but found the task so fiddly that they gave up with plausibility arguments instead.

The trick about floating point numbers is that they are not representing real-life (fractional) quantities, operations don't follow the rules we learned in middle school: associativity doesn't hold. Very ordinary-seeming numbers can be represented as floating point numbers. For example:

```
>>> 1./3
0.3333333333333333
>>> .3
0.2999999999999999
>>> 7 == 7./25 * 25
0
>>> 7 == 7./24 * 24
```

## CAPABILITIES

In the hierarchy of Python numeric types, floats are higher than integers, and complex numbers higher than floats. Operations get promoted upwards. However, the magic methods are strictly a subset of those associated with integers. Floats apply equally to ints and longs (or integers). Integers support a few additional methods.

Under Python 2.2+, you may create a custom class. Under earlier versions, you would need to manually implement what you wished to utilize (generally a lot of work, and possibly error-prone).

Each binary operation has a left-associative and a right-associative version. Both versions perform an operation on two operands. Which version is chosen is determined by the type of the operands. However, if you perform an operation on two operands of the same type, the custom right-associative method will be chosen. For example, under *int*.

## METHODS

**`float.__abs__(self)`**

Return the absolute value of self. Determines how the `abs()` function behaves.

**`float.__add__(self, other)`**

**`float.__radd__(self, other)`**

Return the sum of self and other. Determines how the `+` operator behaves.

**`float.__cmp__(self, other)`**

Return a value indicating the order of self and other. This method is used by the numeric comparison operators `<`, `>`, `<=`, and `>=`. It should have the same behavior as the built-in `cmp()` function. Should return -1 for self<other, 0 for self==other, and 1 for self>other. If other comparison method is not implemented, it should raise `TypeError`.  
`float.__cmp__(): float.__ge__(), float.__gt__(), float.__le__(), float.__lt__()`

**`float.__div__(self, other)`**

**`float.__rdiv__(self, other)`**

Return the ratio of self and other. Determines how the `/` operator behaves. In Python 2.3+, this method will instead determine how the `//` operator behaves.

**float.\_\_divmod\_\_(self, other)**  
**float.\_\_rdivmod\_\_(self, other)**

Return the pair (div, remainder). Determines how *divmod()* function.

**float.\_\_floordiv\_\_(self, other)**  
**float.\_\_rfloordiv\_\_(self, other)**

Return the number of whole times self goes into other. This method responds to the Python 2.2+ floor division operator.

**float.\_\_mod\_\_(self, other)**  
**float.\_\_rmod\_\_(self, other)**

Return the modulo division of self into other. Determines how the % operator.

**float.\_\_mul\_\_(self, other)**  
**float.\_\_rmul\_\_(self, other)**

Return the product of self and other. Determines how the \* operator.

**float.\_\_neg\_\_(self)**

Return the negative of self. Determines how a c

**float.\_\_pow\_\_(self, other)**

**float.\_\_rpow\_\_(self, other)**

Return self raised to the other power. Determinin  
operator.

**float.\_\_sub\_\_(self, other)**

**float.\_\_rsub\_\_(self, other)**

Return the difference between self and other. D  
binary - operator.

**float.\_\_truediv\_\_(self, other)**

**float.\_\_rtruediv\_\_(self, other)**

Return the ratio of self and other. Determines h  
true division operator /.

**SEE ALSO:** complex 22; int 18; float 422; oper

## **complex • New-style base class for complex**

Complex numbers implement all the above doc and a few additional ones.

Inequality operations on complex numbers are even though they were previously. In Python 2, `complex.__gt__()`, `complex.__le__()`, and `complex.__lt__()` return Boolean values indicating the order. This is one of the few changes in Python 3 that I feel was a real mistake. The implementation of `sort()` for a list of various things, some of which might be complex numbers, is problematic.

```
>>> lst = ["string", 1.0, 1, 1L, ('t', 'u', 'p')]
>>> lst.sort()
>>> lst
[1.0, 1, 1L, 'string', ('t', 'u', 'p')]
>>> lst.append(1j)
>>> lst.sort()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
TypeError: cannot compare complex numbers
```

It is true that there is no obvious correct ordering for complex numbers.



number (complex or otherwise), but there is also a tuple, and a number. Nonetheless, it is frequently in order to create a canonical (even if meaningless) ordering to overcome this shortcoming of recent Python versions in the face of luck):

```
>>> class C(complex):
...     def __lt__(self, o):
...         if hasattr(o, 'imag'):
...             return (self.real, self.imag) < (o.real, o.imag)
...         else:
...             return self.real < o
...     def __le__(self, o): return self <= o
...     def __gt__(self, o): return not self <= o
...     def __ge__(self, o): return self < o
...
>>> lst = ["str", 1.0, 1, 1L, (1,2,3), (2-2j)]
>>> lst.sort()
>>> lst
[1.0, 1, 1L, (1+1j), (2-2j), 'str', (1,2,3)]
```

Of course, if you adopt this strategy, you have to define the custom datatype C. And unfortunately, unless you define a binary operation between a C object and another datatype. The reader can work out the details of this.

## METHODS

### `complex.conjugate(self)`

Return the complex conjugate of self. A quick n-mj.

### `complex.imag`

Imaginary component of a complex number.

### `complex.real`

Real component of a complex number.

**SEE ALSO:** `float 19`; `complex 422`;

---

---

**UserDict • Custom wrapper around dictionary**

---

---

---

---

**dict • New-style base class for dictionary**

---

---

Dictionaries in Python provide a well-optimized other Python objects (see Glossary entry on "in datatypes that respond to various dictionary operations associated with dictionaries, all involving numeric datatypes, there are several regular as part of the general interface for dictionary-like

If you create a dictionary-like datatype by subclass special methods defined by the parent are proxied object's .data member. If, under Python 2.2+, your class inherits dictionary behaviors. In either case, you wish. Below is an example of the two styles for

```
>>> from sys import stderr
>>> from UserDict import UserDict
>>> class LogDictOld(UserDict):
...     def __setitem__(self, key, value):
...         stderr.write("Set: "+str(key)+" to "+str(value)+"\n")
...         self.data[key] = value
...
>>> ldo = LogDictOld()
>>> ldo['this'] = 'that'
Set: this->that
>>> class LogDictNew(dict):
...     def __setitem__(self, key, value):
...         stderr.write("Set: "+str(key)+" to "+str(value)+"\n")
...         dict.__setitem__(self, key, value)
```

```

...         dict.__setitem__(self, key, value)
...
>>> ldn = LogDictOld()
>>> ldn['this'] = 'that'
Set: this->that

```

## METHODS

**dict.\_\_cmp\_\_(self, other)**

**UserDict.UserDict.\_\_cmp\_\_(self, other)**

Return a value indicating the order of self and other with respect to the numeric comparison operators <, >, <=, >=. The behavior of the built-in *cmp()* function. Should return -1, 0, and 1 for self<other, self==other, and self>other. If other comparison method is not defined, .\_\_cmp\_\_(): .\_\_ge\_\_(), .\_\_gt\_\_(), .\_\_le\_\_(), and .\_\_lt\_\_().

**dict.\_\_contains\_\_(self, x)**

**UserDict.UserDict.\_\_contains\_\_(self, x)**

Return a Boolean value indicating whether self contains x. In a dictionary, contained in a dictionary means matching one of the keys. In other datatypes, it can be overridden (e.g., check whether x is in a value). A datatype responds to the in operator.

**dict.\_\_delitem\_\_(self, x)**

**UserDict.UserDict.\_\_delitem\_\_(self, x)**

Remove an item from a dictionary-like datatype removing the pair whose key equals x. Deterministic statement, as in: `del self [x]`.

**dict.\_\_getitem\_\_(self, x)**

**UserDict.UserDict.\_\_getitem\_\_(self, x)**

By default, return the value associated with the key x to indexing with square braces. You may override this method to return special values. For example:

```
>>> class BagOfPairs(dict):
...     def __getitem__(self, x):
...         if self.has_key(x):
...             return (x, dict.__getitem__(self, x))
...         else:
...             tmp = dict([(v,k) for (k,v) in self.items()])
...             return (dict.__getitem__(tmp, x), x)
...
>>> bop = BagOfPairs({'this':'that', 'that':'this'})
>>> bop['this']
```

```
('this', 'that')
>>> bop['eggs']
('spam', 'eggs')
>>> bop['bacon'] = 'sausage'
>>> bop
{'this': 'that', 'bacon': 'sausage',
>>> bop ['nowhere']
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "<stdin>", line 7, in __getitem__
KeyError: nowhere
```

**dict.\_\_len\_\_(self)**

**UserDict.UserDict.\_\_len\_\_(self)**

Return the length of the dictionary. By default this is the number of items in the dictionary. You could perform a different calculation if you want, for example, the size of a record set returned from a database query. This is how a datatype responds to the built-in *len()* function.

**dict.\_\_setitem\_\_(self, key, val)**

**UserDict.UserDict.\_\_setitem\_\_(self, key, val)**

Set the dictionary key `key` to value `val`. Determine if the assignment should be made; that is, `self[key]=val`. A custom verification calculation based on `val` and/or `key` before adding the item.

**`dict.clear(self)`**

**`UserDict.UserDict.clear(self)`**

Remove all items from `self`.

**`dict.copy(self)`**

**`UserDict.UserDict.copy(self)`**

Return a copy of the dictionary `self` (i.e., a distinct dictionary).

**`dict.get(self, key [,default=None])`**

**`UserDict.UserDict.get(self, key [,default=None])`**

Return the value associated with the key `key`. If `key` is not in the dictionary, return `default` instead of raising a `KeyError`.

**`dict.has_key(self, key)`**

**`UserDict.UserDict.has_key(self, key)`**

Return a Boolean value indicating whether self

**dict.items(self)**

**UserDict.UserDict.items(self)**

**dict.iteritems(self)**

**UserDict.UserDict.iteritems(self)**

Return the items in a dictionary, in an unspecified list of (key,val) pairs, while the .iteritems() method returns an iterator object that successively yields items. The latter is a more memory efficient true in-memory structure, but rather some sort of lazy evaluation method responds externally similarly to a for loop.

```
>>> d = {1:2, 3:4}
>>> for k,v in d.iteritems(): print k,v
...
1 2 : 3 4 :
>>> for k,v in d.items(): print k,v,
...
1 2 : 3 4 :
```

**dict.keys(self)**

**UserDict.UserDict.keys(self)**

**dict.iterkeys(self)**



## **UserDict.UserDict.iterkeys(self)**

Return the keys in a dictionary, in an unspecified list of keys, while the .iterkeys() method (in Py

SEE ALSO: dict.items() 26;

## **dict.popitem(self)**

## **UserDict.UserDict.popitem(self)**

Return a (key,val) pair for the dictionary, or raise  
Removes the returned item from the dictionary  
in which items are popped is unspecified (and c

## **dict.setdefault(self, key [,default=None])**

## **UserDict.UserDict.setdefault(self, key [,default=None])**

If key is currently in the dictionary, return the c  
the dictionary, set self[key]=default, then retur

SEE ALSO: dict.get() 26;

## **dict.update(self, other)**

## **UserDict.UserDict.update(self, other)**

Update the dictionary self using the dictionary other; if the corresponding value from other is used in self, it is added.

**dict.values(self)**

**UserDict.UserDict.values(self)**

**dict.itervalues(self)**

**UserDict.UserDict.itervalues(self)**

Return the values in a dictionary, in an unspecified order. The .values() method returns a true list of keys, while the .itervalues() method

**SEE ALSO:** dict.items() 26;

**SEE ALSO:** dict 428; list 28; operator 47;

---

---

**UserList • Custom wrapper around list object**

---

---

---

---

**list • New-style base class for list objects**

---

---

---

---

**tuple • New-style base class for tuple objects**

---

---

A Python list is a (possibly) heterogeneous mutable sequence (see Glossary entry *sequence*). Lists and tuples have similar immutable sequence methods (see Glossary entry *sequence*). Lists and tuples have similar methods of lists and tuples are the same, but lists are associated with internal transformation.

If you create a list-like datatype by subclassing `list`, methods defined by the parent are proxies to the corresponding member. If, under Python 2.2+, you subclass from `tuple`, it inherits list (tuple) behaviors. In either case, you can wish. The discussion of *dict* and *UserDict* shows specialization.

The difference between a list-like object and a tuple might think. Mutability is only really important for dictionaries only check the mutability of an object's `__hash__()` method. If this method fails, the object is considered mutable (and ineligible to serve as a key). As useful as keys is because every tuple composed of lists (or dictionaries), by contrast, may also have a hash value (since either can be changed).

You can easily give a hash value to a list-like data object. The wrong way to do so:

```
>>> class L(list):
...     __hash__ = lambda self: hash(self)
...
>>> lst = L([1,2,3])
```

```

>>> dct = {lst:33, 7:8}
>>> print dct
{[1, 2, 3]: 33, 7: 8}
>>> dct[lst]
33
>>> lst.append(4)
>>> print dct
{[1, 2, 3, 4]: 33, 7: 8}
>>> dct[lst]
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
KeyError: [1, 2, 3, 4]

```

As soon as `lst` changes, its hash changes, and to it. What you need is something that does no

```

>>> class L(list):
...     __hash__ = lambda self: id(s
...
>>> lst = L([1,2,3])
>>> dct = {lst:33, 7:8}
>>> dct[lst]
33
>>> lst.append(4)
>>> dct

```

```
{[1, 2, 3, 4]: 33, 7: 8}  
>>> dct[1st]  
33
```

As with most everything about Python datatype protocol that you can choose to support or not

Sequence datatypes may choose to support or not. The methods `.__cmp__()`, `.__ge__()`, `.__gt__()` have the same meanings for sequences that they do for other datatypes.

## METHODS

```
list.__add__(self, other)  
UserList.UserList.__add__(self, other)  
tuple.__add__(self, other)  
list.__iadd__(self, other)  
UserList.UserList.__iadd__(self, other)
```

Determine how a datatype responds to the `+` and `+=` ("in-place add") are supported in Python 2.0+. The statements `1st+=other` and `1st=1st+other` have the same meaning. The first version might be more efficient.

Under standard meaning, addition of the two sequence object with all the items in both self & other mutates the left-hand object without creating a new object. We can choose to give a special meaning to addition, by defining `__iadd__` method on the object added in. For example:

```
>>> class XList(list):
...     def __iadd__(self, other):
...         if isinstance(other, list):
...             return list.__iadd__(self, other)
...         else:
...             from operator import add
...             return map(add, self, [other]*len(self))
...
>>> x1 = XList([1,2,3])
>>> x1 += [4,5,6]
>>> x1
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
>>> x1 += 10
>>> x1
[11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16]
```

**`list.__contains__(self, x)`**

**`UserList.UserList.__contains__(self, x)`**

**`tuple.__contains__(self, x)`**

Return a Boolean value indicating whether self datatype responds to the in operator.

**list.\_\_delitem\_\_(self, x)**

**UserList.UserList.\_\_delitem\_\_(self, x)**

Remove an item from a list-like datatype. Delete statement, as in del self[x].

**list.\_\_delslice\_\_(self, start, end)**

**UserList.UserList.\_\_delslice\_\_(self, start, end)**

Remove a range of items from a list-like datatype. The del statement applied to a slice, as in del self[start:end].

**list.\_\_getitem\_\_(self, pos)**

**UserList.UserList.\_\_getitem\_\_(self, pos)**

**tuple.\_\_getitem\_\_(self, pos)**

Return the value at offset pos in the list. Determined with square braces. The default behavior on list nonexistent offsets.

**list.\_\_getslice\_\_(self, start, end)**  
**UserList.UserList.\_\_getslice\_\_(self, start, end)**  
**tuple.\_\_getslice\_\_(self, start, end)**

Return a subsequence of the sequence self. Defined for indexing with a slice parameter, as in self[start

**list.\_\_hash\_\_(self)**  
**UserList.UserList.\_\_hash\_\_(self)**  
**tuple.\_\_hash\_\_(self)**

Return an integer that distinctly identifies an object. This is the same as the built-in *hash()* function and probably more useful for dictionaries. By default, tuples (and other immutable objects) will raise a `TypeError`. Dictionaries will handle hashes to make hashes unique per object.

```
>>> hash(219750523), hash((1,2))  
(219750523, 219750523)  
>>> dct = {219750523:1, (1,2):2}  
>>> dct[219750523]  
1
```

**list.\_\_len\_\_(self)**



**UserList.UserList.\_\_len\_\_(self)**  
**tuple.\_\_len\_\_(self)**

Return the length of a sequence. Determines how the len() function.

**list.\_\_mul\_\_(self, num)**  
**UserList.UserList.\_\_mul\_\_(self, num)**  
**tuple.\_\_mul\_\_(self, num)**  
**list.\_\_rmul\_\_(self, num)**  
**UserList.UserList.\_\_rmul\_\_(self, num)**  
**tuple.\_\_rmul\_\_(self, num)**  
**list.\_\_imul\_\_(self, num)**  
**UserList.UserList.\_\_imul\_\_(self, num)**

Determine how a datatype responds to the \* and += ("in-place add") are supported in Python 2.0+. The statements lst\*=other and lst=lst\*other have the same effect. The first might be more efficient.

The right-associative version .\_\_rmul\_\_() determines the value of the product of a sequence and a number produces a new sequence with items in self duplicated num times:

```
>>> [1, 2, 3] * 3  
[1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3]
```

**list.\_\_setitem\_\_(self, pos, val)**

**UserList.UserList.\_\_setitem\_\_(self, pos, val)**

Set the value at offset pos to value value. Determine the value of val after the assignment; that is, self[pos]=val. A custom value calculation based on val and/or key before adding it to the list.

**list.\_\_setslice\_\_(self, start, end, other)**

**UserList.UserList.\_\_setslice\_\_(self, start, end, other)**

Replace the subsequence self[start:end] with the other sequence. If the other sequences are not necessarily the same length, the list will be extended or shortened. Determines how a datatype is converted. self[start:end]=other.

**list.append(self, item)**

**UserList.UserList.append(self, item)**

Add the object item to the end of the sequence

**list.count(self, item)**

**UserList.UserList.count(self, item)**

Return the integer number of occurrences of item in the sequence.

**list.extend(self, seq)**

**UserList.UserList.extend (self, seq)**

Add each item in seq to the end of the sequence self.  
len(seq).

**list.index(self, item)**

**UserList.UserList.index(self, item)**

Return the offset index of the first occurrence of item in the sequence.

**list.insert(self, pos, item)**

**UserList.UserList.insert(self, pos, item)**

Add the object item to the sequence self before the element at position pos.  
by one.

**list.pop(self [,pos=-1])**  
**UserList.UserList.pop(self [,pos=-1])**

Return the item at offset pos of the sequence s sequence. By default, remove the last item, wh and .append() operations.

**list.remove(self, item)**  
**UserList.UserList.remove(self, item)**

Remove the first occurrence of item in self. Dec

**list.reverse(self)**  
**UserList.UserList.reverse(self)**

Reverse the list self in place.

**list.sort(self [cmpfunc])**  
**UserList.UserList.sort(self [,cmpfunc])**

Sort the list self in place. If a comparison funct using that function.

[SEE ALSO](#): [list 427](#); [tuple 427](#); [dict 24](#); [operator 24](#)

---

---

**UserString • Custom wrapper around string objects**

---

---

---

---

**str • New-style base class for string objects**

---

---

A string in Python is an immutable sequence of characters (technically, a sequence of "immutable" bytes). There is special syntax for creating and escaping, and so on but in terms of object behavior, a string does a tuple does, too. Both may be sliced and support arithmetic operators `+` and `*`.

For the *str* and *UserString* magic methods that correspond to the operations of strings, see the corresponding *tuple* documentation. *str* defines *str.\_\_getitem\_\_()*, *str.\_\_getslice\_\_()*, *str.\_\_hash\_\_()*, *str.\_\_rmul\_\_()*. Each of these methods is also documented in the *tuple* documentation. *UserString* also includes a few explicit definitions of magic methods: *UserString.\_\_iadd\_\_()*, *UserString.\_\_imul\_\_()*. You may define your own implementations of these methods (starting with Python 2.2+). In any case, internally, in-place operations

Strings have quite a number of nonmagic methods. The *string* module, a datatype that can be utilized in the same function as a string, can specialize some of these common string methods. The *string* module is documented in the discussion of the *string* module.

not also defined in the *string* module. However, provides very reasonable default behaviors for

**SEE ALSO:** `"".capitalize()` 132; `"".title()` 133; `""` 134; `"".expandtabs()` 134; `"".find()` 135; `"".ind` `"".isdigit()` 136; `"".islower()` 136; `"".isspace()` 1 `"".join()` 137; `"".ljust()` 138; `"".lower()` 138; `"".l` `"".rindex()` 141; `"".rjust()` 141; `"".rstrip()` 142; `"".startswith()` 144; `"".strip()` 144; `"".swapcase` `"".encode()` 188;

## METHODS

**`str.__contains__(self, x)`**

**`UserString.UserString.__contains__(self, x)`**

Return a Boolean value indicating whether self datatype responds to the in operator.

In Python versions through 2.2, the in operator tends to trip me up. Fortunately, Python 2.3+ h Python versions, in can only be used to determ stringthis makes sense if you think of a string a nonetheless intuitively want something like the

```
>>> s = "The cat in the hat"
```

```
>>> if "the" in s: print "Has defini
...
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
TypeError: 'in <string>' requires ch
```

It is easy to get the "expected" behavior in a class producing the same result whenever x is indeed

```
>>> class S(str):
...     def __contains__(self, x):
...         for i in range(len(self)):
...             if self.startswith(x, i):
...                 return True
...         return False
>>> s = S("The cat in the hat")
>>> "the" in s
1
>>> "an" in s
0
```

Python 2.3 strings behave the same way as my

**SEE ALSO:** [string 422](#); [string 129](#); [operator 47](#),

**1.1.5 Exercise: Filling out the forms (or decid**

## DISCUSSION

A particular little task that was quite frequent and has become absolutely ubiquitous for slightly different encounters is that one has a certain general form but miscellaneous little details differ from instance to instance. The common case where one comes across this pattern is in Web pages where the rule of templating technique

It turns out that everyone and her sister has done it. Creating a templating system is a very appealing idea. Just a little while after they have gotten a firm grasp of it, as discussed in [Chapter 5](#), but many others are not. Most templating systems will be HTML/CGI oriented and will often involve the calculation of fill-in values. The inspiration in this case comes from ColdFusion, Java Server Pages, Active Server Pages, and so on. Gets sprinkled around in documents that are pro-

At the very simplest, Python provides interpolation similar to the C `sprintf()` function. So a simple example

```
>>> form_letter="""Dear %s %s,
...
... You owe us $%s for account (#%s)
...
... The Company"""
>>> fname = 'David'
```



```
>>> lname = 'Mertz'
>>> due = 500
>>> acct = '123-T745'
>>> print form_letter % (fname, lname)
Dear David Mertz,
```

```
You owe us $500 for account (#123-T745)
```

```
The Company
```

This approach does the basic templating, but it requires manually composing the tuple of insertion values. And many templates such as the addition or subtraction of values.

A bit more robust approach is to use Python's `format` method, for example:

```
>>> form_letter="""Dear %(fname)s %(lname)s,

... You owe us $%(due)s for account #%(acct)s

... The Company"""
>>> fields = {'lname':'Mertz', 'fname':'David', 'acct':'123-T745',
>>> fields['acct'] = '123-T745'
>>> fields['due'] = 500
>>> fields['last_letter'] = '01/02/2012'
>>> form_letter % fields
Dear David Mertz,

You owe us $500 for account #123-T745

The Company
```

```
>>> print form_letter % fields
Dear David Mertz,
```

```
You owe us $500 for account (#123-T7
```

```
The Company
```

With this approach, the fields need not be listed. Furthermore, if the order of fields is rearranged or used for a different template, the fields dictionary will have unused dictionary keys, it doesn't hurt.

The dictionary interpolation approach is still suitable. Two improvements using the *UserDict* module (or incompatible) ways. In Python 2.2+ the built-in `class`; if available everywhere you need it to run *UserDict.UserDict*. One approach is to avoid all

```
>>> form_letter="""%(salutation)s %(
...
... You owe us $%(due)s for account
...
... %(closing)s The Company"""
>>> from UserDict import UserDict
>>> class AutoFillingDict(UserDict):
...     def __init__(self,dict={}):
```

```

...     def __getitem__(self, key):
...         return UserDict.get(self, key)
>>> fields = AutoFillingDict()
>>> fields['salutation'] = 'Dear'
>>> fields
{'salutation': 'Dear'}
>>> fields['fname'] = 'David'
>>> fields['due'] = 500
>>> fields['closing'] = 'Sincerely,'
>>> print form_letter % fields
Dear David ,

```

You owe us \$500 for account (#). Please

Sincerely, The Company

Even though the fields `lname` and `acct` are not specified, the program still produces a basically sensible letter (instead of a crash).

Another approach is to create a custom dictionary class that supports string interpolation." This approach is particularly useful for the final string over the course of the program.

```

>>> form_letter="""%(salutation)s %(lname)s,
...
... You owe us $%(due)s for account

```

```

...
... %(closing)s The Company"""
>>> from UserDict import UserDict
>>> class ClosureDict(UserDict):
...     def __init__(self, dict={}):
...     def __getitem__(self, key):
...         return UserDict.get(self, key)
>>> name_dict = ClosureDict({'fname': 'David'})
>>> print form_letter %(name)s %(salutation)s David Mertz,

```

```

You owe us $%(due)s for account #(acct)

```

```

%(closing)s The Company

```

Interpolating using a ClosureDict simply fills in the missing values, then returns a new string that is closer to the original.

**SEE ALSO:** dict 24; UserDict 24; UserList 28; UserString 28

## QUESTIONS

What are some other ways to provide "smart" string interpolation that the *UserList* or *UserString* modules might provide?

interpolation?

Consider other "magic" methods that you might find.

**2:** *UserDict.UserDict*. How might these additions make it more powerful?

How far do you think you can go in using Python's string

**3:** interpolation technique? At what point would you decide to use regular expression substitutions or a parser?

What sorts of error checking might you implement? How might simple list or dictionary interpolation could fail?

**4:** trappable errors (they let the application know when it fails). Create a system with both flexible interpolation and the completeness of the final result?

### 1.1.6 Problem: Working with lines from a large file

At its simplest, reading a file in a line-oriented fashion uses the `.readlines()`, and `.xreadlines()` methods of a file object. Python provides a syntax for this frequent operation by letting the user read a file (strictly in forward sequence). To read in an entire file, one can possibly split it into lines or other chunks using

```

>>> for line in open('chap1.txt'): #
...     # process each line in some
...     pass
...
>>> linelist = open('chap1.txt').readlines()
>>> print linelist[1849],
    EXERCISE: Working with lines from
>>> txt = open('chap1.txt').read()
>>> from os import linesep
>>> linelist2 = txt.split(linesep)

```

For moderately sized files, reading the entire contents into memory can make time and memory issues more important. In this example, the file might be multiple megabytes, or even gigabytes. Such files do not strictly exceed the size of available memory, but they are consuming a significant portion of it. A related technique to those discussed in the previous section is [Reading a file backwards by record, line, or paragraph](#).

Obviously, if you *need* to process every line in a file, `xreadlines` does so in a memory-friendly way, accessing lines sequentially. But for applications that only need to process a subset of lines, there are other techniques to make improvements. The most important method is the **A CACHED LINE LIST**.

## A CACHED LINE LIST

It is straightforward to read a particular line from

```
>>> import linecache
>>> print linecache.getline('chap1.t
    PROBLEM: Working with lines from a
```

Notice that *linecache.getline()* uses one-based indexing in the prior example. While there is no way to have an object that combined the efficiency of lists and linecache, Existing code might exist to process lists of lines that is agnostic about the source of a list of lines and index, it would be useful to be able to slice a list of lines to do to real lists (including with extended slices,

## **cachedlinelist.py**

```
import linecache, types
class CachedLineList:
    # Note: in Python 2.2+, it is preferred to use
    # __slots__ = ('_fname')
    # ...and inheriting from 'object'
    def __init__(self, fname):
        self._fname = fname
    def __getitem__(self, x):
        if type(x) is types.SliceType:
```

```

        return [linecache.getline(f, n)
                for n in range(x, y)]
    else:
        return linecache.getline(f, n)
def __getslice__(self, beg, end):
    # pass to __getitem__ which
    return self[beg:end:1]

```

Using these new objects is almost identical to `l = open(fname).readlines()`, but more efficient (es

```

>>> from cachedlinelist import Cache
>>> cll = CachedLineList('../chap1.txt')
>>> cll[1849]
'    PROBLEM: Working with lines from a
>>> for line in cll[1849:1851]: print line
...
    PROBLEM: Working with lines from a
    -----
>>> for line in cll[1853:1857:2]: print line
...
    a matter of using the l.readline()
    simplified syntax for this frequer

```

## A RANDOM LINE



Occasionally especially for testing purposes you oriented file. It is easy to fall into the trap of m few lines of a file, and maybe for the last few, t Unfortunately, the first and last few lines of ma headers or footers are used; sometimes a log f development rather than usage; and so on. The might provide more data than you want to wor processing, complete testing could be time con

On most systems, seeking to a particular positi bytes up to that position. Even using *linecache*, the point of a cached line. A fast approach to fi seek to a random position within a file, then rea that position, identifying a line within that chun

## **randline.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/python
"""Iterate over random lines in a fi
From command-line use: % randline.py
"""

import sys
from os import stat, linesep
from stat import ST_SIZE
from random import randrange
```

```
MAX_LINE_LEN = 4096
```

```
#__ Iterable class
```

```
class randline(object):
```

```
    __slots__ = ('_fp', '_size', '_lin
```

```
    def __init__(self, fname, limit=
```

```
        self._size = stat(fname)[ST_
```

```
        self._fp = open(fname, 'rb')
```

```
        self._limit = limit
```

```
    def __iter__(self):
```

```
        return self
```

```
    def next(self):
```

```
        if self._limit <= 0:
```

```
            raise StopIteration
```

```
        self._limit -= 1
```

```
        pos = randrange(self._size)
```

```
        priorlen = min(pos, MAX_LINE
```

```
        self._fp.seek(pos-priorlen)
```

```
        # Add extra linesep at beg/e
```

```
        prior = linesep + self._fp.r
```

```
        post = self._fp.read(MAX_LIN
```

```
        begln = prior.rfind(linesep)
```

```
        endln = post.find(linesep)
```

```
        return prior[begln:]+post[:e
```

```
#-- Use as command-line tool
if __name__ == '__main__':
    fname, numlines = sys.argv[1], int(sys.argv[2])
    for line in randline(fname, numlines):
        print line
```

The presented *randline* module may be used either as a command-line tool. In the latter case, you could use it in another application, as in:

```
% randline.py reallybig.log 1000 | t
```

A couple details should be noted in my implementation. It is possible to choose a line more than once in a line iteration. If you choose a line this probably will not happen (but the so-called collision is more likely than you might expect; see [this](#) line that contains a random position in the file, 'random' to be chosen than long lines. That distribution could be adjusted if needed. In practical terms, for testing "enough" lines is all that important.

**SEE ALSO:** [xreadlines 72](#); [linecache 64](#); [random 72](#)

## Chapter 1. Python Basics

---

### 1.2 Standard Modules

There are a variety of tasks that many or most perform, but that are not themselves text processing. These tasks typically live inside files, so for a concrete application, you need to check whether files exist, whether you have access to their attributes; you might also want to read their contents. This does not happen until the text makes it into a file. Reading from local memory is a necessary step.

Another task is making Python objects persistent. If processing results can be saved in computer-readable files, applications often benefit from being able to call back and work with the results of those calls.

Yet another class of modules helps you deal with data beyond what the inherent syntax does. I have not yet seen to which such "Python internal" modules are suited. They are useful in text processing applications; a number of "in-

line descriptions under the "Other Modules" top

### 1.2.1 Working with the Python Interpreter

Some of the modules in the standard library are important to Python as the basic syntax. Such as `sys` in Python's design, but users of other languages may find it useful for reading command-line arguments, catching exceptions, and so on like in external modules.

---

---

#### **copy • Generic copying operations**

---

---

Names in Python programs are merely bindings to objects. Objects are mutable. This point is simple, but it is a common mistake for beginning Python programmers and even a few experienced ones. The problem is that binding another name (including a module entry, or attribute) to an object leaves you with the old object. If you change the underlying object using `id()`, it points to a changed object. Sometimes you want to make a copy of an object.

One variant of the binding trap is a particularly common one: a table of values, initialized as zeros. Later on, you access a row/column position as, for example, `table[2][3]` (in other languages). Here is what you would probably try to do:

```

>>> row = [0]*4
>>> print row
[0, 0, 0, 0]
>>> table = [row]*4    # or 'table =
>>> for row in table: print row
...
[0, 0, 0, 0]
[0, 0, 0, 0]
[0, 0, 0, 0]
[0, 0, 0, 0]
>>> table[2][3] = 7
>>> for row in table: print row
...
[0, 0, 0, 7]
[0, 0, 0, 7]
[0, 0, 0, 7]
[0, 0, 0, 7]
>>> id(table[2]), id(table[3])
(6207968, 6207968)

```

The problem with the example is that `table` is a *exact same* list object. You cannot change just one object. What you need instead is a *copy* of

Python provides a number of ways to create co

names). Such a copy is a "snapshot" of the state independently of changes to the original. A few are:

```
>>> table1 = map(list, [(0,)*4]*4)
>>> id(table1[2]), id(table1[3])
(6361712, 6361808)
>>> table2 = [lst[:] for lst in [[0]
>>> id(table2[2]), id(table2[3])
(6356720, 6356800)
>>> from copy import copy
>>> row = [0]*4
>>> table3 = map(copy, [row]*4)
>>> id(table3[2]), id(table3[3])
(6498640, 6498720)
```

In general, slices always create new lists. In Python, `dict()` likewise constructs new/copied lists/dicts (with association types as arguments).

But the most general way to make a new copy is with the `copy` module. If you use the `copy` module, it issues of whether a given sequence is a list, or coercion forces into a list.

## **FUNCTIONS**

## **copy.copy(obj)**

Return a shallow copy of a Python object. Most objects can be copied. A shallow copy binds its objects as bound in the original but the object it

```
>>> import copy
>>> class C: pass
...
>>> o1 = C()
>>> o1.lst = [1, 2, 3]
>>> o1.str = "spam"
>>> o2 = copy.copy(o1)
>>> o1.lst.append(17)
>>> o2.lst
[1, 2, 3, 17]
>>> o1.str = 'eggs'
>>> o2.str
'spam'
```

## **copy.deepcopy(obj)**

Return a deep copy of a Python object. Each element is recursively copied. For nested containers, it is u



deep copy otherwise you can run into problems

```
>>> o1 = C()
>>> o1.lst = [1,2,3]
>>> o3 = copy.deepcopy(o1)
>>> o1.lst.append(17)
>>> o3.lst
[1, 2, 3]
>>> o1.lst
[1, 2, 3, 17]
```

## **exceptions • Standard exception class hierarchy**

Various actions in Python raise exceptions, and an except clause. Although strings can serve as compatibility reasons, it is greatly preferable to

When you catch an exception in using an except descendent exceptions. By utilizing a hierarchy exception classes, you can tailor exception handling requirements.

```
>>> class MyException(StandardError)
...
>>> try:
```

```
...     raise MyException
... except StandardError:
...     print "Caught parent"
... except MyException:
...     print "Caught specific class"
... except:
...     print "Caught generic leftover"
...
Caught parent
```

In general, if you need to raise exceptions manually, you should choose an exception class as close to your situation as possible, or inherit from a base class. [Figure 1.1](#) shows the exception classes defined in the `exceptions` module.

**Figure 1.1. Standard**

<b>Exception</b>	Root class for all built-in exceptions
<b>StandardError</b>	Base for "normal" exceptions
<b>ArithmeticError</b>	Base for arithmetic exceptions
<b>OverflowError</b>	Number too large to represent
<b>ZeroDivisionError</b>	Dividing by zero
<b>FloatingPointError</b>	Problem in floating point operation
<b>LookupError</b>	Problem accessing a value in a collection
<b>IndexError</b>	Problem accessing a value in a sequence
<b>KeyError</b>	Problem accessing a value in a mapping
<b>NameError</b>	Problem accessing local or global name
<b>UnboundLocalError</b>	Reference to non-existent name
<b>AttributeError</b>	Problem accessing or setting an attribute
<b>TypeError</b>	Operation or function applied to wrong type
<b>ValueError</b>	Operation or function on unusable value
<b>UnicodeError</b>	Problem encoding or decoding
<b>EnvironmentError</b>	Problem outside of Python itself
<b>IOError</b>	Problem performing I/O
<b>OSError</b>	Error passed from the operating system
<b>WindowsError</b>	Windows-specific OS problem
<b>AssertionError</b>	Failure of an assert statement
<b>EOFError</b>	End-of-file without a read
<b>ImportError</b>	Problem importing a module
<b>ReferenceError</b>	Problem accessing collected weakref
<b>KeyboardInterrupt</b>	User pressed interrupt ( <code>ctrl-c</code> ) key
<b>MemoryError</b>	Operation runs out of memory (try <code>del</code> 'ing)
<b>SyntaxError</b>	Problem parsing Python code
<b>SystemError</b>	Internal (recoverable) error in Python
<b>RuntimeError</b>	Error not falling under any other category
<b>NotImplementedError</b>	Functionality not yet available
<b>StopIteration</b>	Iterator has no more items available
<b>SystemExit</b>	Raised by <code>sys.exit()</code>

## getopt • Parser for command line options

Utility applications whether for text processing or otherwise, often take a lot of command-line switches to configure their behavior. In practice, all that you need to do to process command-line options is to list `sys.argv[1:]` and handle each element of the list. I have my own small "sys.argv parser" more than once, so I decided to do too much.

The *getopt* module provides some automation and

It takes just a few lines of code to tell *getopt* which switch prefixes and parameter styles to use as the final word in parsing command lines. Python module <<http://optik.sourceforge.net/>> renamed to *optparse*. The Twisted Matrix library contains *twisted.python.usage* <<http://www.twistedmatrix.com/documents/current/howto/usage.html>> and other third-party tools, were written because of

For most purposes, *getopt* is a perfectly good tool. The *getopt* module is included in later Python versions, either as *optparse* backwards compatible or *getopt* will remain in the standard library.

SEE ALSO: `sys.argv` 49;

## FUNCTIONS

### **`getopt.getopt(args, options [,long_options])`**

The argument `args` is the actual list of options from `sys.argv[1:]`. The argument `options` and the optional argument `long_options` are lists of acceptable options and their acceptable formats for acceptable options. If any options are not in an acceptable format, a *getopt.GetoptError* exception is raised with either a single dash for single-letter options or a double dash for long options (DOS-style leading slashes are not usable, unless

The return value of *getopt.getopt()* is a pair consisting of a list of option letters and a list of additional arguments. The latter is typically a list of strings. The option list is a list of pairs of the form (option letter, value). In Python, you can convert an option list to a dictionary, which is likely to be useful.

The options format string is a sequence of letters and colons. Any option letter followed by a colon takes an argument.

The format for long\_options is a list of strings (the leading dashes). If an option name ends with a dash, it takes an argument.

It is easiest to see *getopt* in action:

```
>>> import getopt
>>> opts='-a1 -b -c 2 --foo=bar --baz'
>>> optlist, args = getopt.getopt(opts)
>>> optlist
[('-a', '1'), ('-b', ''), ('-c', '2'), ('--baz', '')]
>>> args
['file1', 'file2']
>>> nodash = lambda s: \
...     s.translate(''.join(map(chr, range(256))))
>>> todict = lambda l: \
```

```

...         dict([(nodash(opt), val)
>>> optdict = todict(optlist)
>>> optdict
{'a': '1', 'c': '2', 'b': '', 'baz':

```

You can examine options given either by looping  
`optdict.get(key, default)` type tests as needed in

---

## **operator • Standard operations as function**

---

All of the standard Python syntactic operators are in the *operator* module. In most cases, it is more convenient to use the functions in a few cases functions are useful. The most common use is in conjunction with functional programming constructs.

```

>>> import operator
>>> 1st = [1, 0, (), '', 'abc']
>>> map(operator.not_, 1st)      # fp-style
[0, 1, 1, 1, 0]
>>> tmplst = []                  # imperative
>>> for item in 1st:
...     tmplst.append(not item)
...
>>> tmplst

```

```
[0, 1, 1, 1, 0]  
>>> del tmp1st                                # must
```

As well as being shorter, I find the FP style more provides *sample* implementations of the functions. Implementations are faster and are written directly what each function does.

## operator2.py

```
### Comparison functions  
lt = __lt__ = lambda a,b: a < b  
le = __le__ = lambda a,b: a <= b  
eq = __eq__ = lambda a,b: a == b  
ne = __ne__ = lambda a,b: a != b  
ge = __ge__ = lambda a,b: a >= b  
gt = __gt__ = lambda a,b: a > b  
### Boolean functions  
not_ = __not__ = lambda o: not o  
truth = lambda o: not not o  
# Arithmetic functions  
abs = __abs__ = abs      # same as built-in  
add = __add__ = lambda a,b: a + b  
and_ = __and__ = lambda a,b: a & b
```

```

div = __div__ = \
    lambda a,b: a/b # depends on
floordiv = __floordiv__ = lambda a,b:
inv = invert = __inv__ = __invert__
lshift = __lshift__ = lambda a,b: a
rshift = __rshift__ = lambda a,b: a
mod = __mod__ = lambda a,b: a % b
mul = __mul__ = lambda a,b: a * b
neg = __neg__ = lambda o: -o
or_ = __or__ = lambda a,b: a | b
pos = __pos__ = lambda o: +o # ident
sub = __sub__ = lambda a,b: a - b
truediv = __truediv__ = lambda a,b:
xor = __xor__ = lambda a,b: a ^ b
### Sequence functions (note overlap)
concat = __concat__ = add
contains = __contains__ = lambda a,k
countOf = lambda seq,a: len([x for x
def delitem(seq,a): del seq[a]
__delitem__ = delitem
def delslice(seq,b,e): del seq[b:e]
__delslice__ = delslice
getitem = __getitem__ = lambda seq,i
getslice = __getslice__ = lambda seq

```



```

index0f = lambda seq,o: seq.index(o)
repeat = __repeat__ = mul
def setitem(seq,i,v): seq[i] = v
__setitem__ = setitem
def setslice(seq,b,e,v): seq[b:e] =
__setslice__ = setslice
### Functionality functions (not imp
# The precise interfaces required to
#     are ill-defined, and might var
#     Python versions and custom dat
import operator
isCallable = callable          # just use
isMappingType = operator.isMappingTy
isNumberType = operator.isNumberType
isSequenceType = operator.isSequence

```

---



---

## **sys • Information about current Python in**

---



---

As with the Python "userland" objects you create, the Python interpreter itself is very open to introspection. I will examine and modify many aspects of the Python interpreter with much of the functionality in the `os` module. I will also address in this book about text processing. *Reference* for information on those attributes a

The module attributes `sys.exc_type`, `sys.exc_value`, and `sys.exc_traceback` have been deprecated in favor of the function `sys.exc_info()`. `sys.last_type`, `sys.last_value`, and `sys.last_traceback` provide information about the last exception and stack frames to a finer degree than the statements do. `sys.exec_prefix` and `sys.executable` provide the paths for Python.

The functions `sys.displayhook()` and `sys.excepthook()` allow customizing the output of exceptions, and `sys.__displayhook__` and `sys.__excepthook__` are the default hooks (e.g., `STDOUT` and `STDERR`). `sys.exitfunc` affects the behavior of `sys.ps1` and `sys.ps2` control prompts in the Python interpreter.

Other attributes and methods simply provide information about the system. The attributes `sys.platform` and `sys.maxsize` are Windows specific; `sys.setdlopenflags()`, and `sys.setdlopenflags()` are Unix specific. Methods like `sys.builtin_module_names`, `sys._getframe()`, `sys.getrecursionlimit()`, `sys.setprofile()`, `sys.setrecursionlimit()`, `sys.modules`, and also `sys._getframe()` are internal. Unicode behavior is affected by the `sys.setdefaultencoding()` method, which is overridable with arguments anyway.

## ATTRIBUTES

### `sys.argv`

A list of command-line arguments passed to a Python script.

is the script name itself, so you are normally in arguments.

**SEE ALSO:** `getopt` 44; `sys.stdin` 51; `sys.stdout`

## **sys.byteorder**

The native byte order (endianness) of the current platform. Available in Python 2.0+.

## **sys.copyright**

A string with copyright information for the current version of Python.

## **sys.hexversion**

The version number of the current Python interpreter. It increases with every version, even nonproduct releases. It is human-readable; `sys.version` or `sys.version_info`.

**SEE ALSO:** `sys.version` 51; `sys.version_info` 52,

## **sys.maxint**

The largest positive integer supported by Python platforms,  $2^{31}-1$ . The largest negative integer

## **sys.maxunicode**

The integer of the largest supported code point in the current configuration. Unicode characters are strings of length 1.

## **sys.path**

A list of the pathnames searched for modules. The first entry is the directory containing the file that imports the module.

## **sys.platform**

A string identifying the OS platform.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.uname()` *81*;

## **sys.stderr**

## **sys.\_\_stderr\_\_**

File object for standard error stream (STDERR)

value in case *sys.stderr* is modified during program execution. Warnings from the Python interpreter are written to *sys.stderr* and application messages that in the following example:

```
% cat cap_file.py
#!/usr/bin/env python
import sys, string
if len(sys.argv) < 2:
    sys.stderr.write("No filename specified\n")
else:
    fname = sys.argv[1]
    try:
        input = open(fname).read()
        sys.stdout.write(string.upper(input))
    except:
        sys.stderr.write("Could not read file\n")
% ./cap_file.py this > CAPS
% ./cap_file.py nosuchfile > CAPS
Could not read 'nosuchfile'
% ./cap_file.py > CAPS
No filename specified
```

**SEE ALSO:** [sys.argv 49](#); [sys.stdin 51](#); [sys.stdout 51](#)

## **sys.stdin**

### **sys.\_\_stdin\_\_**

File object for standard input stream (STDIN). This is the default value in case *sys.stdin* is modified during program execution. Data that are read from *sys.stdin*, but the most typical use is for redirected streams on the command line. For example:

```
% cat cap_stdin.py
#!/usr/bin/env python
import sys, string
input = sys.stdin.read()
print string.upper(input)
% echo "this and that" | ./cap_stdin.py
THIS AND THAT
```

**SEE ALSO:** [sys.argv 49](#); [sys.stderr 50](#); [sys.stdin 50](#)

## **sys.stdout**

### **sys.\_\_stdout\_\_**

File object for standard output stream (STDOUT). This is the default value in case *sys.stdout* is modified during program execution. The output of the *print* statement goes to *sys.stdout*, and methods such as *sys.stdout.write()*.

**SEE ALSO:** `sys.argv` 49; `sys.stderr` 50; `sys.stdin`

## **`sys.version`**

A string containing version information on the CPython interpreter. The string is `version (#build_num, build_date, build_time, build_machine)`.

```
>>> print sys.version
1.5.2 (#0 Apr 13 1999, 10:51:12) [MS-DOS]
```

Or:

```
>>> print sys.version
2.2 (#1, Apr 17 2002, 16:11:12)
[GCC 2.95.2 19991024 (release)]
```

This version-independent way to find the major components should work for 1.5-2.3.x (at least)

```
>>> from string import split
>>> from sys import version
>>> ver_tup = map(int, split(split(version, '\n')[0], '.'))
>>> major, minor, point = ver_tup[:3]
>>> if (major, minor) >= (1, 6):
...     print "New Way"
```

```
... else:
...     print "Old Way"
...
New Way
```

## **sys.version\_info**

A 5-tuple containing five components of the version of the Python interpreter: (major, minor, micro, releaselevel, phrase; the other are integers.

```
>>> sys.version_info
(2, 2, 0, 'final', 0)
```

Unfortunately, this attribute was added to Python 2.2, which is not useful in requiring a minimal version for some code.

**SEE ALSO:** `sys.version` 51;

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **sys.exit ([code=0])**

Exit Python with exit code code. Cleanup action



statements are honored, and it is possible to in the `SystemExit` exception. You may specify a number that codify them; you may also specify a string (with the actual exit code set to 1).

## **`sys.getdefaultencoding()`**

Return the name of the default Unicode string encoding.

## **`sys.getrefcount(obj)`**

Return the number of references to the object (which may be more than you might expect, because it includes the reference to the argument).

```
>>> x = y = "hi there"
>>> import sys
>>> sys.getrefcount(x)
3
>>> lst = [x, x, x]
>>> sys.getrefcount(x)
6
```

**SEE ALSO:** [os 74](#);

## types • Standard Python object types

Every object in Python has a type; you can find `type()`. Often Python functions use a sort of *ad hoc* type checking implemented by checking features of objects passing them. Programmers coming from languages like C or Java are sometimes surprised that they are accustomed to seeing multiple "types" of objects that the function can accept. But that is not the way Python works.

Experienced Python programmers try not to rely on types, even in an inheritance sense. This attitude is alien to programmers of other languages (especially statically typed languages). What is important to a Python program is what an object does, not what it is. It becomes much more complicated to describe what an object is in Python (see "type/class unification" in Python 2.2 and above in this book).

For example, you might be inclined to write an overloaded function in this manner:

### Naive overloading of argument

```
import types, exceptions
def overloaded_get_text(o):
    if type(o) is types.FileType:
```

```

        text = o.read()
    elif type(o) is types.StringType:
        text = o
    elif type(o) in (types.IntType,
                     types.LongType,
                     ):
        text = repr(o)
    else:
        raise exceptions.TypeError
    return text

```

The problem with this rigidly typed code is that it is not flexible enough. Something need not be an actual File object to be sufficiently "file-like" (e.g., a *urllib.urlopen()* object is file-like enough for this purpose). Similarly, a new-style object implementing *types.StringType* or a *UserString.UserString()* object is string-like enough, and similarly for other numeric types.

A better implementation of the function above is:

## **"Quacks like a duck" overloading of argument**

```

def overloaded_get_text(o):
    if hasattr(o, 'read'):
        return o.read()
    try:

```

```
        return ""+o
    except TypeError:
        pass
    try:
        return repr(0+o)
    except TypeError:
        pass
    raise
```

At times, nonetheless, it is useful to have symbol object types. In many such cases, an empty or may be used in conjunction with the *type()* function stylistic:

```
>>> type('') == types.StringType
1
>>> type(0.0) == types.FloatType
1
>>> type(None) == types.NoneType
1
>>> type([]) == types.ListType
1
```

## BUILT-IN

## **type(o)**

Return the datatype of any object *o*. The return object of the type *types.TypeType*. *TypeType* of *.\_\_repr\_\_()* methods to create readable descrip

```
>>> print type(1)
<type 'int'>
>>> print type(type(1))
<type 'type'>
>>> type(1) is type(0)
1
```

## **CONSTANTS**

**types.BuiltinFunctionType**  
**types.BuiltinMethodType**

The type for built-in functions like *abs()*, *len()*, "standard" C extensions like *sys* and *os*. However actually Python wrappers for C extensions, so t *types.FuntionType*. A general Python programn details.

## **types.BufferType**

The type for objects created by the built-in `buffer` module.

## **types.ClassType**

The type for user-defined classes.

```
>>> from operator import eq
>>> from types import *
>>> map(eq, [type(C), type(C()), type(C())],
...        [ClassType, InstanceType, InstanceType])
[1, 1, 1]
```

**SEE ALSO:** `types.InstanceType` 56; `types.MethodType`

## **types.CodeType**

The type for code objects such as returned by `compile`.

## **types.ComplexType**

Same as `type(0+0j)`.

## **types.DictType**

## **types.DictionaryType**

Same as `type({})`.

## **types.EllipsisType**

The type for built-in Ellipsis object.

## **types.FileType**

The type for open file objects.

```
>>> from sys import stdout
>>> fp = open('tst', 'w')
>>> [type(stdout), type(fp)] == [type(
1
```

## **types.FloatType**

Same as `type(0.0)`.

## **types.FrameType**

The type for frame objects such as `tb.tb_frame` and `types.TracebackType`.

## **types.FunctionType**

## **types.LambdaType**

Same as `type(lambda:0)`.

## **types.GeneratorType**

The type for generator-iterator objects in Python 3.

```
>>> from __future__ import generator
>>> def foo(): yield 0
...
>>> type(foo) == types.FunctionType
1
>>> type(foo()) == types.GeneratorType
1
```

**SEE ALSO:** `types.FunctionType` 56;



## **types.InstanceType**

The type for instances of user-defined classes.

**SEE ALSO:** `types.ClassType` 55; `types.MethodType`

## **types.IntType**

Same as `type(0)`.

## **types.ListType**

Same as `type()`.

## **types.LongType**

Same as `type(OL)`.

## **types.MethodType**

## **types.Unbound MethodType**

The type for methods of user-defined class inst

SEE ALSO: `types.ClassType` 55; `types.Instance`

## **`types.ModuleType`**

The type for modules.

```
>>> import os, re, sys
>>> [type(os), type(re), type(sys)]
1
```

## **`types.NoneType`**

Same as `type(None)`.

## **`types.StringType`**

Same as `type("")`.

## **`types.TracebackType`**

The type for traceback objects found in `sys.exc`

## **types.TupleType**

Same as `type(()).`

## **types.UnicodeType**

Same as `type(u'').`

## **types.SliceType**

The type for objects returned by `slice()`.

## **types.StringTypes**

Same as `(types.StringType,types.UnicodeType)`

**SEE ALSO:** `types.StringType` 57; `types.Unicode`

## **types.TypeType**

Same as `type (type (obj))` (for any `obj`).

## types.XRangeType

Same as `type(xrange(1))`.

### 1.2.2 Working with the Local Filesystem

#### **dircache • Read and cache directory listings**

The *dircache* module is an enhanced version of `os.listdir()` function, *dircache* keeps prior directory listings and only makes a new call to the filesystem. Since *dircache* is smart, it only checks if a directory has been touched since last caching, and only then calls `os.listdir()` (with possible minor speed gains).

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **dircache.listdir(path)**

Return a directory listing of path `path`. Uses a list to cache the results.

### **dircache.opendir(path)**

Identical to *dircache.listdir()*. Legacy function to

## **dircache.annotate(path, lst)**

Modify the list *lst* in place to indicate which items are files. The string *path* should indicate the path to

```
>>> l = dircache.listdir('/tmp')
>>> l
['501', 'md10834.db']
>>> dircache.annotate('/tmp', l)
>>> l
['501/', 'md10834.db']
```

---

---

## **filecmp • Compare files and directories**

---

---

The *filecmp* module lets you check whether two directories contain some identical files. You have a thorough of a comparison is performed.

## **FUNCTIONS**

**filecmp.cmp(fname1, fname2 [,shallow=1 [,us**

Compare the file named by the string `fname1` v `fname2`. If the default true value of `shallow` is u the mode, size, and modification time of the tw files are compared byte by byte. Unless you are deliberately falsify timestamps on files (as in a comparison is quite reliable. However, tar and u

```
>>> import filecmp
>>> filecmp.cmp('dir1/file1', 'dir2/
0
>>> filecmp.cmp('dir1/file2', 'dir2/
1
```

The `use_statcache` argument is not relevant for versions, the *statcache* module provided (slight stats, but its use is no longer needed.

## **`filecmp.cmpfiles(dirname1, dirname2, fnamel`**

Compare those filenames listed in `fnamelist` if t `dirname1` and the directory `dirname2`. *filecmp.c* (some of the lists may be empty): (matches, r identical files in both directories, mismatches a directories. errors will contain names if a file ex two directories, or if either file cannot be read f problems, etc.).

```

>>> import filecmp, os
>>> filecmp.cmpfiles('dir1', 'dir2', [
(['this'], ['that'], ['other'])
>>> print os.popen('ls -l dir1').read()
-rwxr-xr-x      1 quilty      staff      1
-rwxr-xr-x      1 quilty      staff      6
-rwxr-xr-x      1 quilty      staff      7
-rwxr-xr-x      1 quilty      staff      5
>>> print os.popen('ls -l dir2').read()
-rwxr-xr-x      1 quilty      staff      1
-rwxr-xr-x      1 quilty      staff      6

```

The shallow and use\_statcache arguments are

## CLASSES

**filecmp.dircmp(dirname1, dirname2 [,ignore=**

Create a directory comparison object. dirname1: directory to compare. The optional argument ignore is a sequence of strings that will be ignored. The default is ["RCS","CVS","tags"]; hide is a sequence of strings that will be hidden. The default is [os.curdir,os.pardir] (i.e., [".",".."]).

## METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES

The attributes of *filecmp.dircmp* are read-only.

## **filecmp.dircmp.report()**

Print a comparison report on the two directories.

```
>>> mycmp = filecmp.dircmp('dir1', 'dir2')
>>> mycmp.report()
diff dir1 dir2
Only in dir1 : ['other', 'spam']
Identical files : ['this']
Differing files : ['that']
```

## **filecmp.dircmp.report\_partial\_closure()**

Print a comparison report on the two directories.  
The method name has nothing to do with the *functional programming*.

## **filecmp.dircmp.report\_partial\_closure()**

Print a comparison report on the two directories and subdirectories.



## **filecmp.dircmp.left\_list**

Pathnames in the dirname1 directory, filtering c

## **filecmp.dircmp.right\_list**

Pathnames in the dirname2 directory, filtering c

## **filecmp.dircmp.common**

Pathnames in both directories.

## **filecmp.dircmp.left\_only**

Pathnames in dirname 1 but not dirname2.

## **filecmp.dircmp.right\_only**

Pathnames in dirname2 but not dirname1.

## **filecmp.dircmp.common\_dirs**

Subdirectories in both directories.

**filecmp.dircmp.common\_files**

Filenames in both directories.

**filecmp.dircmp.common\_funny**

Pathnames in both directories, but of different t

**filecmp.dircmp.same\_files**

Filenames of identical files in both directories.

**filecmp.dircmp.diff\_files**

Filenames of nonidentical files whose name occ

**filecmp.dircmp.funny\_files**

Filenames in both directories where something

## filecmp.dircmp.subdirs

A dictionary mapping *filecmp.dircmp.common\_*  
*filecmp.dircmp* objects; for example:

```
>>> usercmp = filecmp.dircmp('/Users  
>>> usercmp.subdirs['Public'].common  
['Drop Box']
```

**SEE ALSO:** `os.stat()` 79; `os.listdir()` 76;

---

---

### **flleinput • Read multiple files or STDIN**

---

---

Many utilities, especially on Unix-like systems, files and/or on redirected input. A flexibility in a homogeneous fashion is part of the "Unix philosophy" to write a Python application that uses these with no special programming to adjust to input sources.

A common, minimal, but extremely useful Unix utility is input to STDOUT (allowing redirection of STDIN). Examples of `cat`:

```
% cat a  
AAAAA
```

```
% cat a b
AAAAA
BBBBB
% cat - b < a
AAAAA
BBBBB
% cat < b
BBBBB
% cat a < b
AAAAA
% echo "XXX" | cat a -
AAAAA
XXX
```

Notice that STDIN is read only if either "-" is given or no arguments are given at all. We can implement a Python version of cat as follows:

### **cat.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import fileinput
for line in fileinput.input():
    print line,
```

## FUNCTIONS

**`fileinput.input([files=sys.argv[1:] [,inplace=0 |`**

Most commonly, this function will be used with `cat.py` in the introductory example of `cat.py`. However, there are some special cases.

The argument `files` is a sequence of filenames to be read. The arguments given on the command line. Consider that some of these arguments as flags rather than filenames (e.g. `-` or `/`). Any list of filenames you like may be used, but it is built from `sys.argv`.

If you specify a true value for `inplace`, output will be written to `STDOUT`. Input taken from `STDIN`, however, will be written to `STDIN`. In place operation, a temporary backup file is created with the extension indicated by the `backupext` argument.

```
% cat a b
```

```
AAAAA
```

```
BBBBB
```

```
% cat modify.py
```

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
```

```
import fileinput, sys
```

```
for line in fileinput.input(sys.argv[1:], inplace=1):
```

```
        print "MODIFIED", line,  
% echo "XXX" | ./modify.py a b -  
MODIFIED XXX  
% cat a b  
MODIFIED AAAAA  
MODIFIED BBBBB
```

## **fileinput.close()**

Close the input sequence.

## **fileinput.nextfile()**

Close the current file, and proceed to the next file. The current file will not be counted towards the line total.

There are several functions in the *fileinput* module that can be used to change the current input state. These tests can be used to verify the state in a dependent way.

## **fileinput.filelineno()**

The number of lines read from the current file.

## **fileinput.filename()**

The name of the file from which the last line was read. If the function returns None.

## **fileinput.isfirstline()**

Same as `fileinput.filelineno() == 1`.

## **fileinput.isstdin()**

True if the last line read was from STDIN.

## **fileinput.lineno()**

The number of lines read during the input loop.

## **CLASSES**

**fileinput.FileInput([files [,inplace=0 [,backup=**

The methods of *fileinput.FileInput* are the same as *File*, plus an additional `.readline()` method that matches `File`. Objects also have a `.__getitem__()` method to s

The arguments to initialize a *fileinput.FileInput* are the same as to the *fileinput.input()* function. The class exists for subclassing. For normal usage, it is best to just

**SEE ALSO:** [multifile 285](#); [xreadlines 72](#);

---

---

## **glob • Filename globbing utility**

---

---

The *glob* module provides a list of pathnames matching a pattern. The *fnmatch* module is used internally to determine

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **glob.glob(pat)**

Both directories and plain files are returned, so to check if a path is a directory, use *os.path.isdir()* or *os.path.isfile()*; for other filters.

Pathnames returned by *glob.glob()* contain as much information as the pattern *pat* gives. For example,



```
>>> import glob, os.path
>>> glob.glob('/Users/quilty/Book/chap[3-6].txt')
>>> glob.glob('chap[3-6].txt')
['chap3.txt', 'chap4.txt', 'chap5.txt']
>>> filter(os.path.isdir, glob.glob('/Users/quilty/Book/SCRIPTS', '/Use
```

**SEE ALSO:** [fnmatch 232](#); [os.path 65](#);

---

## **linecache • Cache lines from files**

---

The module *linecache* can be used to simulate reading the lines in a file. Lines that are read are cache

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **linecache.getline(fname, linenum)**

Read line *linenum* from the file named *fname*. If the function will catch the error and return an empty string if the filename is not found in the current direc

```
>>> import linecache
>>> linecache.getline('/etc/hosts',
'192.168.1.108    hermes    hermes.gnos
```

## **linecache.clearcache()**

Clear the cache of read lines.

## **linecache.checkcache()**

Check whether files in the cache have been mo

## **os.path • Common pathname manipulation**

The *os.path* module provides a variety of functi  
filesystem paths in a cross-platform fashion.

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **os.path.abspath(pathname)**

Return an absolute path for a (relative) pathna

```
>>> os.path.abspath('SCRIPTS/mk_book  
' /Users/quilty/Book/SCRIPTS/mk_book')
```

## **os.path.basename(pathname)**

Same as `os.path.split(pathname)[1]`.

## **os.path.commonprefix(pathlist)**

Return the path to the most nested parent directory pathlist.

```
>>> os.path.commonprefix([' /usr/X11F  
...                        ' /usr/sbir  
...                        ' /usr/local  
' /usr/ '])
```

## **os.path.dirname(pathname)**

Same as `os.path.split(pathname)[0]`.

## **os.path.exists(pathname)**

Return true if the pathname pathname exists.

## **os.path.expanduser(pathname)**

Expand pathnames that include the tilde character. If no initial tilde is present, the tilde character is ignored. If the tilde is followed by a slash, the tilde refers to a user's home directory, and if the tilde is followed by a user name, the tilde refers to the named user's home directory. This function works on all platforms.

```
>>> os.path.expanduser('~dqm')
'/Users/dqm'
>>> os.path.expanduser('~Book')
'/Users/quilty/Book'
```

## **os.path.expandvars(pathname)**

Expand pathname by replacing environment variables. This function is in the *os.path* module, you could equivalently use *os.path.expandvars* in Python, generally (this is not necessarily a good idea).

```
>>> os.path.expandvars('$HOME/Book')
'/Users/quilty/Book'
```

```
>>> from os.path import expandvars a
>>> if ev('$HOSTTYPE')=='macintosh'
...     print ev("The vendor is $VEN
...
The vendor is apple, the CPU is powe
```

### **os.path.getatime(pathname)**

Return the last access time of pathname (or raise an exception if not possible).

### **os.path.getmtime(pathname)**

Return the modification time of pathname (or raise an exception if not possible).

### **os.path.getsize(pathname)**

Return the size of pathname in bytes (or raise an exception if not possible).

### **os.path.isabs(pathname)**

Return true if pathname is an absolute path.

**os.path.isdir(pathname)**

Return true if pathname is a directory.

**os.path.isfile(pathname)**

Return true if pathname is a regular file (includ

**os.path.islink(pathname)**

Return true if pathname is a symbolic link.

**os.path.ismount(pathname)**

Return true if pathname is a mount point (on P

**os.path.join(path1 [,path2 [...]])**

Join multiple path components intelligently.

```
>>> os.path.join('/Users/quilty/', 'E  
' /Users/quilty/Book/SCRIPTS/mk_book'
```

## **os.path.normcase(pathname)**

Convert pathname to canonical lowercase on ca  
convert slashes on Windows systems.

## **os.path.normpath(pathname)**

Remove redundant path information.

```
>>> os.path.normpath('/usr/local/bir  
' /usr/local/include/slang.h'
```

## **os.path.realpath(pathname)**

Return the "real" path to pathname after de-ali  
Python 2.2+.

```
>>> os.path.realpath('/usr/bin/newal  
' /usr/sbin/sendmail'
```

## **os.path.samefile(pathname1, pathname2)**

Return true if pathname1 and pathname2 are the same file.

SEE ALSO: filecmp 58;

## **os.path.sameopenfile(fp1, fp2)**

Return true if the file handles fp1 and fp2 refer to the same file on Windows.

## **os.path.split(pathname)**

Return a tuple containing the path leading up to the directory or filename in isolation.

```
>>> os.path.split('/Users/quilty/Boc  
( '/Users/quilty/Book', 'SCRIPTS' )
```

## **os.path.splitdrive(pathname)**

Return a tuple containing the drive letter and the path. If the path does not use a drive letter, the drive letter is empty.



Windows-like systems).

## **os.path.walk(pathname, visitfunc, arg)**

For every directory recursively contained in pathname (and all its subdirectories), call visitfunc(pathnames) for each path.

```
>>> def big_files(minsize, dirname,
...               for file in files:
...                   fullname = os.path.join(dirname, file)
...                   if os.path.isfile(fullname) and os.path.getsize(fullname) > minsize:
...                       print fullname
...
>>> os.path.walk('/usr/', big_files, 1024)
/usr/lib/libSystem.B_debug.dylib
/usr/lib/libSystem.B_profile.dylib
```

---

## **shutil • Copy files and directory trees**

---

The functions in the *shutil* module make working with files and directories much easier. Nothing in this module that you could not do using the *os* module functions, but *shutil* often provides a more direct way to do things.

for you. The functions in *shutil* match fairly closely Unix filesystem utilities like `cp` and `rm`.

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **`shutil.copy(src, dst)`**

Copy the file named `src` to the pathname `dst`. If `dst` is given the name `os.path.join(dst+os.path.basename(src))`.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.path.join()` 66; `os.path.basename`

### **`shutil.copy2(src, dst)`**

Same as *shutil.copy()* except that the access and modification times are preserved in `src`.

### **`shutil.copyfile(src, dst)`**

Copy the file named `src` to the filename `dst` (overwriting if it exists). This has the same effect as `open(dst,"wb").write(open(src).read())`.

### **`shutil.copyfileobj(fpsrc, fpdst [,buffer=-1])`**

Copy the file-like object fsrc to the file-like object fdst. If a buffer is given, only the specified number of bytes are copied. This allows copying very large files.

### **shutil.copymode(src, dst)**

Copy the permission bits from the file named src to the file named dst.

### **shutil.copystat(src, dst)**

Copy the permission and timestamp data from the file named src to the file named dst.

### **shutil.copytree(src, dst [,symlinks=0])**

Copy the directory src to the destination dst recursively. If symlinks is a true value, copy symbolic links as symbolic links instead of copying the content of the link target. This function works on every platform and filesystem.

### **shutil.rmtree(dirname [ignore [,errorhandler]])**

Remove an entire directory tree rooted at dirname. If ignore is a true value, errors will be silently ignored. If errorhandler is a function, it will be called with the error as an argument.

handler is used to catch errors. This function m platform and filesystem.

**SEE ALSO:** `open()` 15; `os.path` 65;

---

## **stat • Constants/functions for `os.stat()`**

---

The *stat* module provides two types of support *os.lstat()*, and *os.fstat()* calls.

Several functions exist to allow you to perform check one predicate of a file, it is more direct to functions, but for performing several such tests and perform several *stat.S\_\**() tests.

As well as helper functions, *stat* defines symbol 10-tuple returned by *os.stat()* and friends. For

```
>>> from stat import *
>>> import os
>>> fileinfo = os.stat('chap1.txt')
>>> fileinfo[ST_SIZE]
68666L
>>> mode = fileinfo [ST_MODE]
>>> S_ISSOCK(mode)
0
```

```
>>> S_ISDIR(mode)
0
>>> S_ISREG(mode)
1
```

## FUNCTIONS

### **stat.S\_ISDIR(mode)**

Mode indicates a directory.

### **stat.S\_ISCHR(mode)**

Mode indicates a character special device file.

### **stat.S\_ISBLK(mode)**

Mode indicates a block special device file.

### **stat.S\_ISREG(mode)**

Mode indicates a regular file.

**stat.S\_ISFIFO(mode)**

Mode indicates a FIFO (named pipe).

**stat.S\_ISLNK(mode)**

Mode indicates a symbolic link.

**stat.S\_ISSOCK(mode)**

Mode indicates a socket.

## **CONSTANTS**

**stat.ST\_MODE**

I-node protection mode.

**stat.ST\_INO**

I-node number.

**stat.ST\_DEV**

Device.

**stat.ST\_NLINK**

Number of links to this i-node.

**stat.ST\_UID**

User id of file owner.

**stat.ST\_GID**

Group id of file owner.

**stat.ST\_SIZE**

Size of file.

## **stat.ST\_ATIME**

Last access time.

## **stat.ST\_MTIME**

Modification time.

## **stat.ST\_CTIME**

Time of last status change.

---

---

### **tempfile • Temporary files and filenames**

---

---

The *tempfile* module is useful when you need to interface. In contrast to the file-like interface of filesystem for storage rather than simulating the memory-constrained contexts, therefore, *tempfile*

The temporary files created by *tempfile* are as secure as is supported by the underlying platform. Your temporary data will not be read or changed either afterwards (temporary files are deleted when c



*tempfile* to provide you with cryptographic-level accidents and casual inspection.

## **FUNCTIONS**

**`tempfile.mktemp([suffix=""])`**

Return an absolute path to a unique temporary file. If a suffix is specified, the name will end with the suffix string.

**`tempfile.TemporaryFile([mode="w+b" [, bufsize]])`**

Return a temporary file object. In general, there is no mode argument of `w+b`; there is no existing file and it does little good to write temporary data. The optional suffix argument generally will not ever be used when closed. The default bufsize uses the platform's default.

```
>>> tmpfp = tempfile.TemporaryFile()
>>> tmpfp.write('this and that\n')
>>> tmpfp.write('something else\n')
>>> tmpfp.tell()
29L
```

```
>>> tmpfp.seek(0)
>>> tmpfp.read()
'this and that\nsomething else\n'
```

**SEE ALSO:** StringIO 153; cStringIO 153;

---

---

## **xreadlines • Efficient iteration over a file**

---

---

Reading over the lines of a file had some pitfall was a memory-friendly way, and there was a fa meet. These techniques were:

```
>>> fp = open('bigfile')
>>> line = fp.readline()
>>> while line:
...     # Memory-friendly but slow
...     # ...do stuff...
...     line = fp.readline()
```

```
>>> for line in open('bigfile').readlines():
...     # Fast but memory-hungry
...     # ...do stuff...
```

Fortunately, with Python 2.1 a more efficient te 2.2+, this efficient technique was also wrapped

keeping with the new iterator). With Python 2.3 in favor of the idiom "for line in file:".

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **xreadlines.xreadlines(fp)**

Iterate over the lines of file object fp in an efficient memory usage).

```
>>> for line in xreadlines.xreadline
...     # Efficient all around
...     # ...do stuff...
```

Corresponding to this *xreadlines* module function objects.

```
>>> for line in open('tmp').xreadline
...     # As a file object method
...     # ...do stuff...
```

If you use Python 2.2 or above, an even nicer \

```
>>> for line in open('tmp'):
...     # ...do stuff...
```

SEE ALSO: `linecache 64`; `FILE.xreadlines() 17`;

### 1.2.3 Running External Commands and Accessing

#### **commands • Quick access to external commands**

The *commands* module exists primarily as a collection of *os.popen\*()* functions on Unix-like systems. See the results.

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **commands.getoutput(cmd)**

Return the output from running `cmd`. This function

```
>>> def getoutput(cmd) :  
...     import os  
...     return os.popen('{ ' + cmd + ' ;
```

### **commands.getstatusoutput(cmd)**

Return a tuple containing the exit status and output. This could also be implemented as:

```
>>> def getstatusoutput(cmd) :  
...     import os  
...     fp = os.popen('{ '+cmd+'; }'  
...     output = fp.read()  
...     status = fp.close()  
...     if not status: status=0 # Was successful  
...     return (status, output)  
...  
>>> getstatusoutput('ls nosuchfile')  
(256, 'ls: nosuchfile: No such file or directory')  
>>> getstatusoutput('ls c*[1-3].txt')  
(0, 'chap1.txt\nchap2.txt\nchap3.txt')
```

## **commands.getstatus(filename)**

Same as `commands.getoutput('ls -ld '+filename)`

**SEE ALSO:** `os.popen()` 77; `os.popen2()` 77; `os.system()` 77

---

---

**os • Portable operating system services**

---

---

The `os` module contains a large number of functions for calling on or determining features of the operating system. In many cases, functions in `os` are internally implemented for *riscos*, or *mac*, but for portability it is better to

Not everything in the `os` module is documented. Those features that are unlikely to be used in the *Python Library Reference* that accompanies Python

Functions and constants not documented here: `os.confstr()`, `os.confstr()`, `os.sysconf_names` let you probe system configuration. `os.getuid()`, `os.getgid()`, `os.getgroups()`, `os.geteuid()`, `os.setuid()`, `os.setgid()`, `os.setpuid()`, `os.setpgid()`, `os.setreuid()`, `os.setregid()`, `os.set`

The functions `os.abort()`, `os.exec*()`, `os._exit()`, `os.spawn*()`, `os.times()`, `os.wait()`, `os.waitpid()`, `os.WSTOPSIG()`, and `os.WTERMSIG()` and the `os` module deal with process creation and management. This section deals with creating and managing multiple processes for processing tasks. However, I briefly document `os.nice()`, `os.startfile()`, and `os.system()` and in omitted functionality can also be found in the `os` module.

A number of functions in the `os` module allow you to work with file descriptors. In general, it is simpler to perform

built-in `open()` function or the `os.popen*()` family like `FILE.readline()`, `FILE.write()`, `FILE.seek()`, and files can be determined using the `os.stat()` function and `shutil` modules. Therefore, the functions `os.close()`, `os.fpathconf()`, `os.fstat()`, `os.fstatvfs()`, `os.ftruncate()`, `os.open()`, `os.openpty()`, `os.pathconf()`, `os.pipe()`, `os.tcgetpgrp()`, `os.tcsetpgrp()`, `os.ttyname()`, and `os.write()` are covered here. As well, the supporting constants are omitted.

**SEE ALSO:** `commands` 73; `os.path` 65; `shutil` 68

## FUNCTIONS

### **`os.access(pathname, operation)`**

Check the permission for the file or directory `pathname` specified is allowed, return a true value. The `operation` argument is between 0 and 7, inclusive, and encodes four features: execute, write, and readable. These features have symbolic names:

```
>>> import os
>>> os.F_OK, os.X_OK, os.W_OK, os.R_OK
(0, 1, 2, 4)
```

To query a specific combination of features, you

features.

```
>>> os.access('myfile', os.W_OK | os
1
>>> os.access('myfile', os.X_OK + os
0
>>> os.access('myfile', 6)
1
```

## **os.chdir(pathname)**

Change the current working directory to the pa

SEE ALSO: `os.getcwd()` 75;

## **os.chmod(pathname, mode)**

Change the mode of file or directory pathname  
page for the chmod utility for more information

## **os.chown(pathname, uid, gid)**

Change the owner and group of file or directory



See the man page for the chown utility for more

## **os.chroot(pathname)**

Change the root directory under Unix-like systems. See the man page for the chroot utility for more information

## **os.getcwd()**

Return the current working directory as a string

```
>>> os.getcwd()  
'/Users/quilty/Book'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `os.chdir()` 75;

## **os.getenv(var [,value=None])**

Return the value of environment variable `var`. If `var` is not defined, return `value`. An equivalent call is `os.environ.get(var, value)`.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.environ` 81; `os.putenv()` 78;

## **os.getpid()**

Return the current process id. Possibly useful for process id's.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.kill()` 76;

## **os.kill(pid, sig)**

Kill an external process on Unix-like systems. You find the pid argument by some means, such as a `cat` command. The signal sent to the process may be found in the *signal* module example:

```
>>> from signal import *
>>> SIGHUP, SIGINT, SIGQUIT, SIGIOT,
(1, 2, 3, 6, 9)
>>> def kill_by_name(progname):
...     pidstr = os.popen('ps|grep ' + progname + ' |')
...     pid = int(pidstr.split()[0])
...     os.kill(pid, 9)
...
>>> kill_by_name('myprog')
```

## **os.link(src, dst)**

Create a hard link from path `src` to path `dst` on the file system. See the `ln` utility for more information.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.symlink()` 80;

## **os.listdir(pathname)**

Return a list of the names of files and directories in the directory `pathname`. The list is in arbitrary order.

## **os.lstat(pathname)**

Return information on file or directory `pathname`. See the `lstat` system call. Do not follow symbolic links.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.stat()` 79; `stat` 69;

## **os.mkdir(pathname [,mode=0777])**

Create a directory named `pathname` with the permissions `mode`. On some operating systems, `mode` is ignored. See the `mkdir` system call.

information on modes.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.chmod()` 75; `os.mkdirs()` 77;

### **`os.mkdirs(pathname [,mode=0777])`**

Create a directory named `pathname` with the permissions `mode`. This function will create any intermediate directories that do not exist.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.mkdir()` 76;

### **`os.mkfifo(pathname [,mode=0666])`**

Create a named pipe on Unix-like systems.

### **`os.nice(increment)`**

Decrease the process priority of the current application. This function is useful if you do not wish for your application to be a high priority process.

The four functions in the `os.popen*()` family all capture their `STDOUT` and `STDERR` and/or set their `stdin`. The four functions in the family differ somewhat in how these three pipe

## **os.popen(cmd [,mode="r" [,bufsize]])**

Open a pipe to or from the external command `cmd`. `f` is an open file object connected to the pipe. The mode is `r` for read or `w` for write. The exit status of the command is available in `f.poll()`. The pipe is closed. An optional buffer size `bufsize` may be specified.

```
>>> import os
>>> def ls(pat):
...     stdout = os.popen('ls '+pat)
...     result = stdout.read()
...     status = stdout.close()
...     if status: print "Error status"
...     else: print result
...
>>> ls('nosuchfile')
ls: nosuchfile: No such file or directory
Error status 256
>>> ls('chap[7-9].txt')
chap7.txt
```

## **os.popen2(cmd [,mode [,bufsize]])**

Open both STDIN and STDOUT pipes to the external command `cmd`.

is a pair of file objects connecting to the two re  
as with *os.popen()*.

SEE ALSO: *os.popen3()* 78; *os.popen()* 77;

## ***os.popen3(cmd [,mode [,bufsize]])***

Open STDIN, STDOUT, and STDERR pipes to th  
value is a 3-tuple of file objects connecting to t  
bufsize work as with *os.popen()*.

```
>>> import os
>>> stdin, stdout, stderr = os.popen3('line one\nline two\nline three\n')
>>> print >>stdin, 'line one'
>>> print >>stdin, 'line two'
>>> stdin.write('line three\n')
>>> stdin.close()
>>> stdout.read()
'LINE one\nLINE two\nLINE three\n'
>>> stderr.read()
''
```

## ***os.popen4(cmd [,mode [,bufsize]])***

Open STDIN, STDOUT, and STDERR pipes to the command. The return value is a pipe of file objects connecting the subprocess to the parent. bufsize work as with *os.popen()*.

**SEE ALSO:** *os.popen3()* 78; *os.popen()* 77;

## **os.putenv(var, value)**

Set the environment variable *var* to the value *value*. This function only affects subprocesses of the current process created with *os.system()* or *os.popen()*, not the whole process.

Calls to *os.putenv()* will update the environment of the current process. Therefore, it is better to update *os.environ* directly (see *os.environ* directory).

**SEE ALSO:** *os.environ* 81; *os.getenv()* 75; *os.popen()*

## **os.readlink(linkname)**

Return a string containing the path of the symbolic link *linkname* if it exists on systems that support symbolic links.

**SEE ALSO:** *os.symlink()* 80;

## **os.remove(filename)**

Remove the file named filename. This function cannot be removed, an OSError is raised.

SEE ALSO: `os.unlink()` 81;

## **os.removedirs(pathname)**

Remove the directory named pathname and a function will not remove directories with files, a to do so.

SEE ALSO: `os.rmdir()` 79;

## **os.rename(src, dst)**

Rename the file or directory src as dst. Depend operation may raise an OSError if dst already e

SEE ALSO: `os.rename()` 79;

## **os.rename(src, dst)**



Rename the file or directory `src` as `dst`. Unlike `os.rename()`, it can create any intermediate directories needed for a nested structure.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.rename()` 79;

## **`os.rmdir(pathname)`**

Remove the directory named `pathname`. This function only removes empty directories and will raise an `OSError` if you attempt to remove a non-empty directory.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.removedirs()` 79;

## **`os.startfile(path)`**

Launch an application under Windows system. This function is equivalent to what happens when a file was double-clicked in a Drives window or as if you double-clicked a file in a command line. Using Windows associations, a data file can be launched as if it were an actual executable application.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.system()` 80;

## **`os.stat(pathname)`**

Create a `stat_result` object that contains information about the file or directory named `pathname`.

pathname. A `stat_result` object has a number of tuple of numeric values. Before Python 2.2, only attributes of a `stat_result` object are named the module, but in lowercase.

```
>>> import os, stat
>>> file_info = os.stat('chap1.txt')
>>> file_info.st_size
87735L
>>> file_info [stat.ST_SIZE]
87735L
```

On some platforms, additional attributes are available. Systems usually have `.st_blocks`, `.st_blksize`, and `.st_rsize`, `.st_creator`, and `.st_type`; RISCOS has

**SEE ALSO:** `stat` 69; `os.lstat()` 76;

## **`os.strerror(code)`**

Give a description for a numeric error code `code`.  
`os.popen(bad_cmd).close()`.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.popen()` 77;

## **os.symlink(src, dst)**

Create a soft link from path `src` to path `dst` on the local filesystem. See the `ln` utility for more information.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.link()` 76; `os.readlink()` 78;

## **os.system(cmd)**

Execute the command `cmd` in a subshell. Unlike `os.spawn*()`, the output of the executed process is not captured (it goes to the terminal as the current Python application). In Windows, this function is used to detach an application from the Python process. For example, under MacOSX, you could launch a process that runs in the background.

```
>>> import os
>>> cmd="/Applications/TextEdit.app/Contents/MacOS/TextEdit"
>>> os.system(cmd)
0
```

**SEE ALSO:** `os.popen()` 77; `os.startfile()` 79; `os.spawn*()` 79;

## **os.tempnam([dir [,prefix]])**

Return a unique filename for a temporary file. If prefix is not None, that directory will be used in the path; if prefix is None, the default indicated prefix. For most purposes, it is more efficient to obtain a file object rather than first generating a filename.

**SEE ALSO:** `tempfile` 71; `os.tmpfile()` 80;

## **os.tmpfile()**

Return an "invisible" file object in update mode ('a+'). It is a file object entry, but simply acts as a transient buffer for writing and reading.

**SEE ALSO:** `tempfile` 71; `StringIO` 153; `cStringIO` 153;

## **os.uname()**

Return detailed information about the current operating system. The returned 5-tuple contains system name, machine name, processor name, version, and release, each as descriptive strings.

## **os.unlink(filename)**

Remove the file named filename. This function cannot be removed, an `OSError` is raised.

**SEE ALSO:** `os.remove()` 78;

## **`os.utime(pathname, times)`**

Set the access and modification timestamps of `pathname` to the values (atime, mtime) specified in `times`. Alternately, if `times` is `None`, set the current time.

**SEE ALSO:** `time` 86; `os.chmod()` 75; `os.chown()`

## **CONSTANTS AND ATTRIBUTES**

### **`os.altsep`**

Usually `None`, but an alternative path delimiter

### **`os.curdir`**

The string the operating system uses to refer to the current directory: `."` on Unix or `":"` on Macintosh (before MacOSX).

### **`os.defpath`**

The search path used by `exec*p*()` and `spawn*` variable.

## **os.environ**

A dictionary-like object containing the current environment

```
>>> os.environ['TERM']  
'vt100'  
>>> os.environ['TERM'] = 'vt220'  
>>> os.getenv('TERM')  
'vt220'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `os.getenv()` 75; `os.putenv()` 78;

## **os.linesep**

The string that delimits lines in a file; for example `"\r\n"` on Windows.

## **os.name**

A string identifying the operating system the current

on. Possible strings include posix, nt, dos, mac,

## **os.pardir**

The string the operating system uses to refer to  
".." on Unix or "::" on Macintosh (before MacOS

## **os.pathsep**

The string that delimits search paths; for exam

## **os.sep**

The string the operating system uses to refer to  
Unix, "\" on Windows, ":" on Macintosh.

**SEE ALSO:** sys 49; os.path 65;

## **1.2.4 Special Data Values and Formats**

<b>random • Pseudo-random value generator</b>
---

Python provides better pseudo-random number with a `rand()` function, but not good enough for of Python's Wichmann-Hill generator is about 7 indicates how long it will take a particular seed will produce a different sequence of numbers. For Twister generator, which has a longer period and practical purposes, pseudorandom numbers get adequate for random-seeming behavior in appl

The underlying pseudo-random numbers generator mapped into a variety of nonuniform patterns and capture and tinker with the state of a pseudo-random subclass the *random.Random* class that operates latter sort of specialization is outside the scope *random.Random* and functions *random.getstate* *random.setstate()* are omitted from this discussion and *random.randint()* are deprecated.

## **FUNCTIONS**

**`random.betavariate(alpha, beta)`**

Return a floating point value in the range [0.0,

**`random.choice(seq)`**



Select a random element from the nonempty set

**random.cunifvariate(mean, arc)**

Return a floating point value in the range [mean, arc] from a uniform distribution. Arguments and result are

**random.expovariate(lambda\_)**

Return a floating point value in the range [0.0, infinity) from an exponential distribution. The argument lambda\_ gives the *inverse* of the

```
>>> import random
>>> t1,t2 = 0,0
>>> for x in range(100):
...     t1 += random.expovariate(1./10)
...     t2 += random.expovariate(20.)
...
>>> print t1/100, t2/100
18.4021962198 0.0558234063338
```

**random.gamma(alpha, beta)**

Return a floating point value with a gamma distribution.

**`random.gauss(mu, sigma)`**

Return a floating point value with a Gaussian distribution. *random.gauss()* is slightly faster than *random.normalvariate()* if sigma is sigma.

**`random.lognormvariate(mu, sigma)`**

Return a floating point value with a log normal distribution. This distribution is Gaussian with mean mu and standard deviation sigma.

**`random.normalvariate(mu, sigma)`**

Return a floating point value with a Gaussian distribution. *random.gauss()* is slightly faster than *random.normalvariate()* if sigma is sigma.

**`random.paretovariate(alpha)`**

Return a floating point value with a Pareto distribution. *random.pareto()* is slightly faster than *random.paretovariate()* if alpha is alpha.

## **random.random()**

Return a floating point value in the range [0.0,

## **random.randrange([start=0,] stop [,step=1])**

Return a random element from the specified range expression `random.choice(range(start,stop,step))` or a range object. Use *random.randrange()* in place

## **random.seed([x=time.time()])**

Initialize the Wichmann-Hill generator. You do not need to call *random.seed()*, since the current system time is used as the seed. But if you wish to provide more control, pass any hashable object as argument x. Your seed must be an integer less than 27814431486575L, whose value is independent means.

## **random.shuffle(seq [,random=random.random])**

Permute the mutable sequence seq in place. An optional argument random specified to use an alternate random generator,

one. Possible permutations get very big very quickly. Not every permutation will occur.

### `random.uniform(min, max)`

Return a random floating point value in the range [min, max).

### `random.vonmisesvariate(mu, kappa)`

Return a floating point value with a von Mises distribution.  $\mu$  is the mean, expressed in radians, and  $\kappa$  is the concentration parameter.

### `random.weibullvariate(alpha, beta)`

Return a floating point value with a Weibull distribution.  $\alpha$  is the scale parameter and  $\beta$  is the shape parameter.

## **struct • Create and read packed binary structures**

The *struct* module allows you to encode compact binary structures. The *struct* module may also be used to read C structs that use standard C formatting codes are only useful for reading C structs.

raised if a format does not match its string or v

A format string consists of a sequence of alpha  
represented by zero or more bytes in the encoc  
formatting code may be preceded by a number  
The entire format string may be preceded by a  
platform-native data sizes and endianness are  
sizes are used. The flag = explicitly indicates pl  
endian representations; > or ! indicates big-en

The available formatting codes are listed below  
your platform for its sizes if platform-native siz

## Formatting codes for struct module

x	pad byte	0 k
c	char	1 k
b	signed char	1 k
B	unsigned char	1 k
h	short int	2 k
H	unsigned short	2 k
i	int	4 k
I	unsigned int	4 k
l	long int	4 k
L	unsigned long	4 k

q	long long int	8 k
Q	unsigned long long	8 k
f	float	4 k
d	double	8 k
s	string	pac
p	Pascal string	pac
P	char pointer	4 k

**Some usage examples clarify the encoding:**

```
>>> import struct
>>> struct.pack('5s5p2c', 'sss', 'ppp',
'sss\x00\x00\x03ppp\x00cc')
>>> struct.pack('h', 1)
'\x00\x01'
>>> struct.pack('I', 1)
'\x00\x00\x00\x01'
>>> struct.pack('l', 1)
'\x00\x00\x00\x01'
>>> struct.pack('<l', 1)
'\x01\x00\x00\x00'
>>> struct.pack('f', 1)
'? \x80\x00\x00'
>>> struct.pack('hil', 1, 2, 3)
'\x00\x01\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x02\x00\x03'
```

## FUNCTIONS

### `struct.calcsize(fmt)`

Return the length of the string that corresponds to the format string `fmt`.

### `struct.pack(fmt, v1 [,v2 [...]])`

Return a string with values `v1`, et alia, packed according to the format string `fmt`.

### `struct.unpack(fmt, s)`

Return a tuple of values represented by string `s` according to the format string `fmt`.

## **time • Functions to manipulate date/time**

The *time* module is useful both for computing time increments, and for simple benchmarking of applications. For more purposes, eGenix.com's *mx.Date* module is more powerful than is *time*. You may obtain *mx.Date* from:

<<http://egenix.com/files/python/eGenix-mx-f>

Time tuples used by several functions consist of second, weekday, Julian day, and Daylight Savings Month, day, and Julian day (day of year) are or weekday are zero-based (Monday is 0). The Day for Standard Time, and -1 for "best guess."

## CONSTANTS AND ATTRIBUTES

### **time.accept2dyear**

Boolean to allow two-digit years in date tuples. the first matching date since time.gmtime(0) is

```
>>> import time
>>> time.accept2dyear
1
>>> time.localtime(time.mktime((99, 1
(1999, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 4, 1, 0)
>>> time.gmtime(0)
(1970, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 3, 1, 0)
```

### **time.altzone**

### **time.daylight**

### **time.timezone**



## **time.tzname**

These several constants show information on the locations use Daylight Savings adjustments during the year, usually but not always a one-hour adjustment. *time.altzone* is the number of seconds west of UTC the current zone is; *time.daylight* is 1 if Daylight Savings is in effect, 0 otherwise. *time.tzname* gives a tuple of the current and next zone names.

```
>>> time.daylight, time.tzname
(1, ('EST', 'EDT'))
>>> time.altzone, time.timezone
(14400, 18000)
```

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **time.asctime([tuple=time.localtime()])**

Return a string description of a time tuple.

```
>>> time.asctime((2002, 10, 25, 1, 51, 48))
'Fri Oct 25 01:51:48 2002'
```

**SEE ALSO:** [time.ctime\(\)](#) 87; [time.strftime\(\)](#) 88,

## **time.clock()**

Return the processor time for the current process. It has no inherent meaning, but the value is guaranteed to be non-negative and the amount of CPU time used by the process. Therefore, for comparative benchmarking of various operations, the results should not be compared between different CPUs on one machine. For example:

```
import time
start1 = time.clock()
approach_one()
time1 = time.clock() - start1
start2 = time.clock()
approach_two()
time2 = time.clock() - start2
if time1 > time2:
    print "The second approach seems faster"
else:
    print "The first approach seems faster"
```

Always use *time.clock()* for benchmarking rather than the low-resolution "wall clock" only.

## **time.ctime([seconds=time.time()])**

Return a string description of seconds since epoch

```
>>> time.ctime(1035526125)
'Fri Oct 25 02:08:45 2002'
```

SEE ALSO: `time.asctime()` 87;

### **`time.gmtime([seconds=time.time()])`**

Return a time tuple of seconds since epoch, given in UTC

```
>>> time.gmtime(1035526125)
(2002, 10, 25, 6, 8, 45, 4, 298, 0)
```

SEE ALSO: `time.localtime()` 88;

### **`time.localtime([seconds=time.time()])`**

Return a time tuple of seconds since epoch, given in local time

```
>>> time.localtime(1035526125)
(2002, 10, 25, 2, 8, 45, 4, 298, 1)
```

SEE ALSO: `time.gmtime()` 88; `time.mktime()` 89;

## **time.mktime(tuple)**

Return a number of seconds since epoch corres

```
>>> time.mktime((2002, 10, 25, 2, 8,  
1035526125.0
```

**SEE ALSO:** `time.localtime()` 88;

## **time.sleep(seconds)**

Suspend execution for approximately seconds r  
time). The argument seconds is a floating point  
timer) and is fully thread safe.

## **time.strftime(format [,tuple=time.localtime()])**

Return a custom string description of a time tup  
format may contain the following fields: %a/%.  
weekday name; %b/%B/%m for abbreviated/fi  
abbreviated/full year; %d for day-of-month; %  
day-of-year; %M for minute; %p for AM/PM; %  
year (Sunday/Monday start); %c/%x/%X for lc  
%Z for timezone name. Other characters may (

appear as literals (a literal % can be escaped).

```
>>> import time
>>> tuple = (2002, 10, 25, 2, 8, 45,
>>> time.strftime("%A, %B %d '%y (we
"Friday, October 25 '02 (week 42) "
```

**SEE ALSO:** `time.asctime()` 87; `time.ctime()` 87;

**`time.strptime(s [,format="%a %b %d %H:%M:`**

Return a time tuple based on a string descriptive string format follows the same rules as in *time*. platforms.

**SEE ALSO:** `time.strftime()` 88;

**`time.time()`**

Return the number of seconds since the epoch specifically determine the epoch using `time.ctime` functions in the *time* module to generate useful also generally nondecreasing in its return value benchmarking purposes.

```
>>> time.ctime(0)
'Wed Dec 31 19:00:00 1969'
>>> time.time()
1035585490.484154
>>> time.ctime(1035585437)
'Fri Oct 25 18:37:17 2002'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `time.clock()` 87; `time.ctime()` 87;

**SEE ALSO:** `calendar` 100;

## Chapter 1. Python Basics

---

### 1.3 Other Modules in the Standard Library

If your application performs other types of tasks, this module list can suggest where to look for resources. Those who find themselves maintaining code written by others often find unfamiliar modules are imported by the existing code, but not summarized in the list below, nor documented as a standard or third-party module. For standard library modules, this list gives you a sense of the general purpose of a given module.

#### **`__builtin__`**

Access to built-in functions, exceptions, and other objects. It also exposes its own internals, but "normal" development should not require access to these.

#### 1.3.1 Serializing and Storing Python Objects

In object-oriented programming (OOP) languages, structured data is frequently represented as run-time objects. Simple objects belong to basic datatypes: lists, tuples, and strings. As you reach a certain degree of complexity, hierarchical structures become more likely.

For simple objects, especially sequences, serialization is straightforward. For example, lists can easily be converted to length-prefixed strings. Lists-of-lists can be saved in line-delimited fields, or in rows of RDBMS tables. But as the complexity of sequences goes past two, and even more so for nested structures, traditional table-oriented storage is a less-obvious choice.

While it is *possible* to create "object-relational" mappings to flat tables, that usually requires custom programming. Several solutions exist, both in the Python standard library and in third-party modules. Actually, two separate issues are involved in storing objects: how to convert them into strings in the first place; and how to store them. A general persistence mechanism for such serialization is not in the Python standard library. Of course, it is simple enough to store (and retrieve) strings. You would do any other string to a file, a database, or a network. To create a "dictionary on disk," while the *shelve* module provides a simple serialization to write arbitrary objects as values.

Several third-party modules support object serialization. Some need an XML dialect for your object representation. The *xmlrpclib* module is useful. The YAML format is both human-readable and machine-readable. There are support libraries for Python, Perl, Ruby, and Java.



can exchange objects between these several pr  
[SEE ALSO](#): `gnosis.xml.pickle` 410; `yaml` 415; `xi`

---

---

## **DBM • Interfaces to dbm-style databases**

---

---

A dbm-style database is a "dictionary on disk." to store a set of key/val pairs to a file, or files, and set them as if they were an in-memory dictionary. A standard dictionary, always maps strings to string objects, you will need to convert them to string wrapper).

Depending on your platform, and on which external dbm modules might be available. The performance of modules vary significantly. As well, some DBM modules lack functionality. Most of the time, however, your best choice is to use a supported DBM module using the wrapper module. This module will select the best available DBM for the current environment, so you don't have to worry about the underlying support.

Functions and methods are documented using the real usage, you would use the name of a specific function to get or set DBM values using standard named methods. Methods characteristic of dictionaries are also special to DBM databases.

SEE ALSO: [shelve 98](#); [dict 24](#); [UserDict 24](#);

## FUNCTIONS

### **DBM.open(fname [,flag="r" [,mode=0666]])**

Open the filename `fname` for dbm access. The mode of the database is accessed. A value of `r` is for read-only; `w` opens an already existing file for read/write access; `a` opens an existing one, with read/write access; the optional `mode` argument specifies the Unix mode of the file(s).

## METHODS

### **DBM.close()**

Close the database and flush any pending write operations.

### **DBM.first()**

Return the first key/val pair in the DBM. The order is not guaranteed.

the *DBM.first()* method, combined with repeated calls to *DBM.next()* to get the next item in the dictionary.

In Python 2.2+, you can implement an *items()* method of dictionaries for DBMs:

```
>>> from __future__ import generator
>>> def items(db):
...     try:
...         yield db.first()
...         while 1:
...             yield db.next()
...     except KeyError:
...         raise StopIteration
...
>>> for k,v in items(d):    # typical
...     print k,v
```

## **DBM.has\_key(key)**

Return a true value if the DBM has the key *key*.

## **DBM.keys()**

Return a list of string keys in the DBM.

## **DBM.last()**

Return the last key/val pair in the DBM. The original order is maintained, so the methods *DBM.last()* method, combined with repeated calls, will return every item in the dictionary in reverse order.

## **DBM.next()**

Return the next key/val pair in the DBM. A pointer is maintained, so the methods *DBM.next()* and *DBM.previous()* return relative items.

## **DBM.previous()**

Return the previous key/val pair in the DBM. A pointer is maintained, so the methods *DBM.next()* and *DBM.previous()* return relative items.

## **DBM.sync()**

Force any pending data to be written to disk.

SEE ALSO: FILE.flush() 16;

## MODULES

### anydbm

Generic interface to underlying DBM support. Chooses one of the "best available" DBM module. If you open a file, you guessed and used assuming the current machine's

SEE ALSO: whichdb 93;

### bsddb

Interface to the Berkeley DB library.

### dbhash

Interface to the BSD DB library.

### dbm

Interface to the Unix (n)dbm library.

## **dumbdbm**

Interface to slow, but portable pure Python DBI

## **gdbm**

Interface to the GNU DBM (GDBM) library.

## **whichdb**

Guess which db package to use to open a db file  
function *whichdb.whichdb()*. If you open an existing  
function is called automatically behind the scenes

**SEE ALSO:** *shelve* 98;

---

---

**cPickle • Fast Python object serialization**

---

---

---

---

**pickle • Standard Python object serialization**

---

---

The module *cPickle* is a comparatively fast C interface module. The streams produced and read by *cPickle* are binary. The only time you should prefer *pickle* is in the subclass the pickling base class; *cPickle* is mainly for *pickle.Pickler* is not documented here.

The *cPickle* and *pickle* modules support a both designed for human readability, but it is not human. Nonetheless, if readability is a goal, *yaml* or *gn* Binary format produces smaller pickles that are

It is possible to fine-tune the pickling behavior. `__getstate__()`, `__setstate__()`, and `__getinitargs__()` (invocations involved in defining these methods, book and are rarely necessary for "normal" object structures).

Use of the *cPickle* or *pickle* module is quite simple.

```
>>> import cPickle
>>> from somewhere import my_complex_obj
>>> s = cPickle.dumps(my_complex_obj)
>>> new_obj = cPickle.loads(s)
```

## **FUNCTIONS**

**pickle.dump(o, file [,bin=0])**  
**cPickle.dump(o, file [,bin=0])**

Write a serialized form of the object o to the file object file. If the argument bin is given a true value, use binary format.

**pickle.dumps(o [,bin=0])**  
**cPickle.dumps(o [,bin=0])**

Return a serialized form of the object o as a string. If the argument bin is given a true value, use binary format.

**pickle.load(file)**  
**cPickle.load(file)**

Return an object that was serialized as the content of the file object file.

**pickle.loads(s)**  
**cPickle.load(s)**

Return an object that was serialized in the string s.

**SEE ALSO:** [gnosis.xml.pickle 410](#); [yaml 415](#);



## marshal

Internal Python object serialization. For more general purpose serialization, see *cPickle*, or *gnosis.xml.pickle*, or the YAML tools. For limited-purpose serialization to the pseudo-compiled *.pyc* files.

---

### **pprint • Pretty-print basic datatypes**

---

The module *pprint* is similar to the built-in function *repr()*. The purpose of *pprint* is to represent objects of basic datatypes in a way that is easy to read, especially in cases where collection types nest. The *pprint.pformat* and *repr()* produce the same result. *pprint* uses newlines and indentation to illustrate the structure of the data. If possible, the string representation produced by *pprint* can be used to create objects with the built-in *eval()*.

I find the module *pprint* somewhat limited in the helpful representation of objects of custom type or compound data. Instance attributes are very frequently represented as dictionary keys. For example:

```
>>> import pprint
>>> dct = {1.7:2.5, ('t','u','p'):['t','u','p']}
>>> dct2 = {'this':'that', 'num':38,
```

```

>>> class Container: pass
...
>>> inst = Container()
>>> inst.this, inst.num, inst.dct =
>>> pprint.pprint(dct2)
{'dct': {('t', 'u', 'p'): ['l', 'i',
    'num': 38,
    'this': 'that'}
>>> pprint.pprint(inst)
<__main__.Container instance at 0x41

```

In the example, `dct2` and `inst` have the same structure chosen in an application as a data container. But `pprint` tells us the barest information about *what* an object is. A mini-module below enhances pretty-printing:

## **pprint2.py**

```

from pprint import pformat
import string, sys
def pprint2(o):
    if hasattr(o, '__dict__'):
        lines = []
        klass = o.__class__.__name__

```

```

        module = o.__module__
        desc = '<%s.%s instance at %s' % (o, module, hex(id(o)))
        lines.append(desc)
        for k,v in o.__dict__.items():
            lines.append('instance.%s=%s' % (k, repr(v)))
        return string.join(lines, '\n')
    else:
        return pprint.pformat(o)

```

```

def pprint2(o, stream=sys.stdout):
    stream.write(pprint2(o)+'\n')

```

Continuing the session above, we get a more u

```

>>> import pprint2
>>> pprint2.pprint2(inst)
<__main__.Container instance at 0x41...
instance.this='that'
instance.dct={'t', 'u', 'p'}: ['l', ...
instance.num=38

```

## **FUNCTIONS**

**pprint.isreadable(o)**

Return a true value if the equality below holds:

```
o == eval(pprint.pformat(o))
```

### **pprint.isrecursive(o)**

Return a true value if the object o contains recursive references. If any nested level cannot be restored to its original state, return True.

### **pprint.pformat(o)**

Return a formatted string representation of the object o.

### **pprint.pprint(o [,stream=sys.stdout])**

Print the formatted representation of the object o to the stream.

## **CLASSES**

### **pprint.PrettyPrinter(width=80, depth=..., indent=1)**

Return a pretty-printing object that will format objects using the specified width, depth, and indent.

recursion to depth `depth`, and will indent each line. `pprint.PrettyPrinter.pprint()` will write to the file

```
>>> pp = pprint.PrettyPrinter(width=
>>> pp.pprint(dct2)
{'dct': {1.7: 2.5,
          ('t', 'u', 'p'): ['l',
                             'i',
                             's',
                             't']},
 'num': 38,
 'this': 'that'}
```

## METHODS

The class *pprint.PrettyPrinter* has the same methods as *repr.Repr*. The only difference is that the stream used for output is configured when an instance is initialized rather than when it is used.

**SEE ALSO:** `gnosis.xml.pickle 410`; `yaml 415`;

---

---

**repr • Alternative object representation**

---

---

The module *repr* contains code for customizing

its default behavior the function *repr.repr()* provides a more compact representation of objects in the case of large collections. This can be unwieldy, and unnecessary for merely displaying

```
>>> dct = dict([(n, str(n)) for n in range(5)])
>>> repr(dct)
'{"0": '0', 1: '1', 2: '2', 3: '3', 4: '4'}'
>>> from repr import repr
>>> repr(dct)
'{"0": '0', 1: '1', 2: '2', 3: '3', 4: '4'}'
>>> `dct`
'{"0": '0', 1: '1', 2: '2', 3: '3', 4: '4'}'
```

The back-tick operator does not change behavior. The *repr* object is replaced.

You can change the behavior of the *repr.repr()* function by changing the object *repr.aRepr*.

```
>>> dct = dict([(n, str(n)) for n in range(5)])
>>> repr(dct)
'{"0": '0', 1: '1', 2: '2', 3: '3', 4: '4'}'
>>> import repr
>>> repr.repr(dct)
'{"0": '0', 1: '1', 2: '2', 3: '3', 4: '4'}'
>>> repr.aRepr.maxdict = 5
```

```
>>> repr.repr(dct)
"{0: '0', 1: '1', 2: '2', 3: '3', 4:
```

In my opinion, the choice of the name for this `repr` is identical to that of the built-in function. You can use it the same as form of importing, as in:

```
>>> import repr as _repr
>>> from repr import repr as newrepr
```

For fine-tuned control of object representation, Potentially, you could use substitutable `repr()` for application output, but if you anticipate such a name that indicates this; for example, overriding

## CLASSES

### `repr.Repr()`

Base for customized object representations. This class exists in the module namespace, so this class is change an attribute, it is simplest just to set it

## ATTRIBUTES

## **repr.maxlevel**

Depth of recursive objects to follow.

## **repr.maxdict**

## **repr.maxlist**

## **repr.maxtuple**

Number of items in a collection of the indicated  
Sequences default to 6, dicts to 4.

## **repr.maxlong**

Number of digits of a long integer to stringify. [

## **repr.maxstring**

Length of string representation (e.g., s[:N]). D

## **repr.maxother**

"Catch-all" maximum length of other represent



# **FUNCTIONS**

## **repr.repr(o)**

Behaves like built-in *repr()*, but potentially with custom methods created.

## **repr.repr\_TYPE(o, level)**

Represent an object of the type TYPE, where TYPE is a string of names. The argument level indicates the level of recursion (you might want to decide what to print based on the level of the object is). The *Python Library Reference* gives more details.

```
class MyRepr(repr.Repr):
    def repr_file(self, obj, level):
        if obj.name in ['<stdin>', '<stdout>']:
            return obj.name
        else:
            return 'obj'

aRepr = MyRepr()
print aRepr.repr(sys.stdin)
```

---

## **shelve • General persistent dictionary**

---

The module *shelve* builds on the capabilities of step forward. Unlike with the DBM modules, you can store any Python object as values in a *shelve* database. The keys in *shelve* are strings.

The methods of *shelve* databases are generally the same as those of DBMs. However, shelves do not have the `.first()` method; nor do they have the `.items()` method. At the time you will simply use name-indexed assignment. At any time, the available *shelve.get()*, *shelve.keys()*, *shelve.close()* methods are useful.

Usage of a shelf consists of a few simple steps:

```
>>> import shelve
>>> sh = shelve.open('test_shelve')
>>> sh.keys()
['this']
>>> sh['new_key'] = {1:2, 3:4, ('t', 'u', 'p'):'1'}
>>> sh.keys()
['this', 'new_key']
>>> sh['new_key']
{1: 2, 3: 4, ('t', 'u', 'p'): '1'}
>>> del sh['this']
```

```
>>> sh.keys()
['new_key']
>>> sh.close()
```

In the example, I opened an existing shelf, and a new key was available. Deleting a key/value pair is the same as deleting a dictionary. Opening a new shelf automatically

Although *shelve* only allows strings to be used as keys, you can generate strings that characterize other types of objects for a number of reasons that you do not generally want to use mutable objects as *shelve* keys. It is also a bad idea to use mutable objects as *shelve* keys. The `hash()` method is a good way to generate strings but keys generated this way do not strictly guarantee uniqueness, so it is possible to have duplicate entries using this hack:

```
>>> '%x' % hash((1, 2, 3, 4, 5))
'866123f4'
>>> '%x' % hash(3.1415)
'6aad0902'
>>> '%x' % hash(38)
'26'
>>> '%x' % hash('38')
'92bb58e3'
```

Integers, notice, are their own hash, and string hashes are different. If you adopted this approach, you would want to

as keys. There is no real problem with doing so  
you need to remember to use consistently:

```
>>> sh['%x' % hash('another_key')] =
>>> sh.keys()
['new_key', '8f9ef0ca']
>>> sh['%x' % hash('another_key')]
'another value'
>>> sh['another_key']
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "/sw/lib/python2.2/shelve.py", line 100, in __getitem__
    f = StringIO(self.dict[key])
KeyError: another key
```

If you want to go beyond the capabilities of *shelve*, investigate the third-party library Zope Object Library. It allows you to make arbitrary objects to be persistent, not only dictionaries. You can also store data in ways other than in local files, and support for simultaneous access. Look for details at:

<<http://www.zope.org/Wikis/ZODB/Standalor>

SEE ALSO: DBM 90; dict 24;

[illegible]

The rest of the listed modules are comparative processing applications. Some modules are specific to a platform, as indicated parenthetically. Recent distributions of Python 2.0 included much more is included in a lot of other free programming languages (but other platforms have existing libraries that can be downloaded separately).

### 1.3.2 Platform-Specific Operations

#### **`_winreg`**

Access to the Windows registry (Windows).

#### **`AE`**

AppleEvents (Macintosh; replaced by *Carbon.AppleEvents*).

#### **`aepack`**

Conversion between Python variables and AppleEvents objects.

#### **`aetypes`**

AppleEvent objects (Macintosh).

## **applesingle**

Rudimentary decoder for AppleSingle format fil

## **buildtools**

Build MacOS applets (Macintosh).

## **calendar**

Print calendars, much like the Unix cal utility. A  
or stringify calendars for various time frames. f

```
>>> print calendar.month(2002,11)
```

```
November 2002
```

```
Mo Tu We Th Fr Sa Su
```

```
1 2 3
```

```
4 5 6 7 8 9 10
```

```
11 12 13 14 15 16 17
```

```
18 19 20 21 22 23 24
```

```
25 26 27 28 29 30
```

**Carbon.AE, Carbon.App, Carbon.CF, Carbon.  
Carbon.Evt, Carbon.Fm, Carbon.Help, Carbon.  
Carbon.Qd, Carbon.Qdoffs, Carbon.Qt, Carbon.  
Carbon.TE, Carbon.Win**

Interfaces to Carbon API (Macintosh).

**cd**

CD-ROM access on SGI systems (IRIX).

**cfmfile**

Code Fragment Resource module (Macintosh).

**ColorPicker**

Interface to the standard color selection dialog

**ctb**

Interface to the Communications Tool Box (Mac

## **dl**

Call C functions in shared objects (Unix).

## **EasyDialogs**

Basic Macintosh dialogs (Macintosh).

## **fcntl**

Access to Unix fcntl() and ioctl() system functions.

## **findertools**

AppleEvents interface to MacOS finder (Macintosh).

## **fl, FL, flp**

Functions and constants for working with the File Manager.

## **fm, FM**



Functions and constants for working with the Fc

## **fpectl**

Floating point exception control (Unix).

## **FrameWork, MiniAETFrame**

Structured development of MacOS applications

## **gettext**

The module *gettext* eases the development of r  
translations must be performed manually, this i  
translation and runtime substitutions of language

## **grp**

Information on Unix groups (Unix).

## **locale**

Control the language and regional settings for a  
the behavior of several functions, such as *time*.  
module is also useful for creating strings such as  
currency strings for specific nations.

## **mac, macerrors, macpath**

Macintosh implementation of os module functions  
directly and let it call *mac* where needed (Macintosh)

## **macfs, macfsn, macostools**

Filesystem services (Macintosh).

## **MacOS**

Access to MacOS Python interpreter (Macintosh)

## **macresource**

Locate script resources (Macintosh).

## **macspeech**

Interface to Speech Manager (Macintosh).

## **mactty**

Easy access serial to line connections (Macintosh).

## **mkcwproject**

Create CodeWarrior projects (Macintosh).

## **msvcrt**

Miscellaneous Windows-specific functions provided by the Windows DLLs (Windows).

## **Nac**

Interface to Navigation Services (Macintosh).

## **nis**

Access to Sun's NIS Yellow Pages (Unix).

## **pipes**

Manage pipes at a finer level than done by *os.pipes*.  
varies between platforms (Unix).

## **PixmapWrapper**

Wrap Pixmap objects (Macintosh).

## **posix, posixfile**

Access to operating system functionality under Macintosh.  
portable version of the same functionality and s

## **preferences**

Application preferences manager (Macintosh).

## **pty**

Pseudo terminal utilities (IRIX, Linux).

## **pwd**

Access to Unix password database (Unix).

## **pythonprefs**

Preferences manager for Python (Macintosh).

## **py\_resource**

Helper to create PYC resources for compiled ap

## **quietconsole**

Buffered, nonvisible STDOUT output (Macintosh)

## **resource**

Examine resource usage (Unix).

## **syslog**

Interface to Unix syslog library (Unix).

## **tty, termios, TERMIOS**

POSIX tty control (Unix).

## **W**

Widgets for the Mac (Macintosh).

## **waste**

Interface to the WorldScript-Aware Styled Text

## **winsound**

Interface to audio hardware under Windows (W

## **xdrlib**

Implements (a subset of) Sun eXternal Data Representation. It is similar to the *struct* module, but the format is

### **1.3.3 Working with Multimedia Formats**

## **aifc**

Read and write AIFC and AIFF audio files. The *sunau* and *wave* modules.

## **al, AL**

Audio functions for SGI (IRIX).

## **audioop**

Manipulate raw audio data.

## **chunk**

Read chunks of IFF audio data.

## **coloursys**

Convert between RGB color model and YIQ, HSL

## **gl, DEVICE, GL**

Functions and constants for working with Silico

## **imageop**

Manipulate image data stored as Python strings  
the third-party *Python Imaging Library* (usually  
<<http://www.pythonware.com/products/pil/>>)

## **imgfile**

Support for imglib files (IRIX).

## **jpeg**



Read and write JPEG files on SGI (IRIX). The *Pillow* (<http://www.pythonware.com/products/pil/>) working with a large number of image formats

## **rgbimg**

Read and write SGI RGB files (IRIX).

## **sunau**

Read and write Sun AU audio files. The *interface* and *wave* modules.

## **sunaudiodev, SUNAUDIODEV**

Interface to Sun audio hardware (SunOS/Solaris)

## **videoreader**

Read QuickTime movies frame by frame (Macintosh)

## **wave**

Read and write WAV audio files. The interface to *sunau* modules.

### 1.3.4 Miscellaneous Other Modules

#### **array**

Typed arrays of numeric values. More efficient than lists where applicable.

#### **atexit**

Exit handlers. Same functionality as *sys.exitfunc*.

#### **BaseHTTPServer, SimpleHTTPServer, Simple**

HTTP server classes. *BaseHTTPServer* should use *SimpleHTTPServer*. The other modules provide sufficient customization as indicated by their names. All may be customized.

#### **Bastion**

Restricted object access. Used in conjunction w

## **bisect**

List insertion maintaining sort order.

## **cmath**

Mathematical functions over complex numbers.

## **cmd**

Build line-oriented command interpreters.

## **code**

Utilities to emulate Python's interactive interpre

## **codeop**

Compile possibly incomplete Python source cod

## **compileall**

Module/script to compile .py files to cached byte

## **compile, compile.ast, compile.visitor**

Analyze Python source code and generate Python

## **copy\_reg**

Helper to provide extensibility for pickle/cPickle

## **curses, curses.ascii, curses.panel, curses.text**

Full-screen terminal handling with the (n) curses

## **dircache**

Cached directory listing. This module enhances

## **dis**

Disassembler of Python byte-code into mnemonics.

## **distutils**

Build and install Python modules and packages. Provides a standard mechanism for creating distribution packages and a standard mechanism for installing them on target machines. Although processing applications that are distributed to users, working with *distutils* is outside the scope of this document. See *Python Modules and Installing Python Modules*.

## **doctest**

Check the accuracy of `__doc__` strings.

## **errno**

Standard errno system symbols.

## **fpformat**

General floating point formatting functions. Duplicate of `math.fsum`.

functionality.

## **gc**

Control Python's (optional) cyclic garbage collector.

## **getpass**

Utilities to collect a password without echoing it.

## **imp**

Access the internals of the import statement.

## **inspect**

Get useful information from live Python objects.

## **keyword**

Check whether string is a Python keyword.

## math

Various trigonometric and algebraic functions that operate on floating point numbers use *cmath* for

## mutex

Work with mutual exclusion locks, typically for

## new

Create special Python objects in a customizable way or create a module object without using a file of templates while bypassing the normal `__init__()` call. "New" is used in text processing applications.

## pdb

A Python debugger.

## popen2

Functions to spawn commands with pipes to ST  
In Python 2.0+, this functionality is copied to tl  
Generally you should use the os module (unless  
earlier).

## **profile**

Profile the performance characteristics of Python  
your application, your first step in solving any p  
code. But details of using *profile* are outside the  
usually a bad idea to *assume* speed is a problem

## **pstats**

Print reports on profiled Python code.

## **pyclbr**

Python class browser; useful for implementing  
editing Python.

## **pydoc**



Extremely useful script and module for examining documentation included with Python 2.1+, but is compatible with older versions. *pydoc* can provide help similar to Unix man pages, and also a Web browser interface to documentation while developing Python applications, but its de

## **py\_compile**

"Compile" a .py file to a .pyc (or .pyo) file.

## **Queue**

A multiproducer, multiconsumer queue, especially useful for

## **readline, rlcompleter**

Interface to GNU readline (Unix).

## **rexec**

Restricted execution facilities.

## **sched**

General event scheduler.

## **signal**

Handlers for asynchronous events.

## **site, user**

Customizable startup module that can be modified for a Python installation.

## **statcache**

Maintain a cache of *os.stat()* information on file

## **statvfs**

Constants for interpreting the results of *os.stat*

## **thread, threading**

Create multithreaded applications with Python. applications like other applications might use a thread the scope of this book. Most, but not all, Python applications.

## **Tkinter, ScrolledText, Tix, turtle**

Python interface to TCL/TK and higher-level widget platforms, but not on all Python installations.

## **traceback**

Extract, format, and print information about Python applications.

## **unittest**

Unit testing framework. Like a number of other modules, *unittest* is a useful facility and its usage in applications in general. But this module is not suitable for applications to be addressed in this book.

## warnings

Python 2.1 added a set of warning messages for things that fall below the threshold for raising exceptions, but that are still printed to STDERR, but the *warnings* module can handle warning messages.

## weakref

Create references to objects that do not limit garbage collection. References seem strange, and the strangeness of them do not know why you would want to use these, but they are useful to.

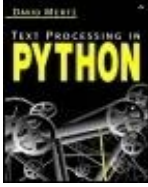
## whrandom

Wichmann-Hill random number generator. Deprecated. Use the *random* module. Necessary to use directly before that use the *random* module values.

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

## Chapter 2. Basic String Operations

The cheapest, fastest and most reliable components of a computer system are those that aren't there.

Gordon Bell, Encore Computer Corporation

If you are writing programs in Python to accomplish processing tasks, most of what you need to know is covered in this chapter. Sure, you will probably need to know how to do some basic things with pipes, files, and how to get your text to process (covered in [Chapter 3](#)), but for actually *processing* the text you have gotten, Python's `string` module and string methods and Python's data structures do most all of what you need to do almost all the time. To a lesser extent, the various custom modules to perform encodings, encryption, and compressions are handy to have around (and you certainly do not want the work of implementing them yourself). But at the heart of text processing are transformations of bits of text. That's what `string` functions and string methods do.

There are a lot of interesting techniques elsewhere in this book. I wouldn't have written about them if I didn't find them important. But be cautious before

interesting things. Specifically, given a fixed task in your mind, before cracking this book open to any of the chapters, consider very carefully whether your task can be solved using the techniques in this chapter. If you can answer this question affirmatively, you should usually eschew the complications of using the higher-level modules and techniques that other chapters discuss. By all means read all of this book for the pleasure and edification that I hope it provides; but still follow the "Zen of Python," and prefer simple to complex if simple is enough.

This chapter does several things. [Section 2.1](#) lists a number of common problems in text processing that (and should) be solved using (predominantly) the techniques documented in this chapter. Each of the "Problems" presents working solutions that can be adopted with little change to real-life jobs. But my goal is to provide readers with a starting point for their own adaptation of the examples. It is not my goal to provide mere collections of packaged utilities and modules, many of those exist on the Web, and resources like the [Parnassus](#) of Parnassus <<http://www.vex.net/parnassus/>> and the [Python Cookbook](#) <<http://aspn.activestate.com/ASPN/Python/Cookbook/>> are worth investigating as part of any project/technology. New and better utilities will be written between the time I write this and when you read it). It is better f

readers to receive a solid foundation and starting point from which to develop the functionality they need for their own projects and tasks. And even better than just spurring adaptation, these examples aim to encourage contemplation. In presenting examples, this book tries to embody a way of thinking about problems and an attitude towards solving them. More than any individual technique, such ideas are what I would most like to share with readers.

[Section 2.2](#) is a "reference with commentary" of Python standard library modules for doing basic data manipulations. The discussions interspersed with the module try to give some guidance on why you might want to use a given module or function, and the reference documentation tries to contain more information of actual typical usage than does a plain reference. In many cases, the examples and discussion of individual functions addresses common and productive design patterns in Python. The cross-references are included to contextualize a given function (or other thing) in relation to other related ones (and to help you decide which is the one you need). The actual listing of functions, constants, and the like is in alphabetical order within type.

[Section 2.3](#) in many ways continues [Section 2.2](#); it also provides some aids for using this book in a practical context. The problems and solutions presented



[Section 2.3](#) are somewhat more open-ended than in [Section 2.1](#). As well, each section labeled as "Discussion" is followed by one labeled "Questions". These questions are ones that could be assigned to a teacher to students; but they are also intended as issues that general readers will enjoy and benefit from contemplating. In many cases, the questions point out limitations of the approaches initially presented and encourage readers to think about ways to address or move beyond these limitations exactly what readers need to do when writing their own custom code to accomplish our tasks. However, each Discussion in [Section 2.3](#) stands on its own, even if the Questions are skipped by the reader.

## Chapter 2. Basic String Operations

---

### 2.1 Some Common Tasks

#### 2.1.1 Problem: Quickly sorting lines on custo

Sorting is one of the real meat-and-potatoes al most programming. Fortunately for Python dev extraordinarily fast. Moreover, Python lists with elements can be sortedPython cannot rely on tl unfortunate exception to this general power wa comparisons of complex numbers raise a TypeE reason; Unicode strings in lists can cause simila

**SEE ALSO:** [complex 22](#);

The list sort method is wonderful when you war the order that Python considers natural, in the a lot of times, you want to sort things in "unnat any order that is not simple alphabetization of t

contain meaningful bits of information in position 70 (a last name may occur as the second word of a line, but not the first word); an IP address may occur several times; a word may occur at position 70 of each line; and so on. It is a style of meaningful order that Python doesn't quite support.

The list sort method `list.sort()` supports an optional comparison function. The job this function has is to return -1 if the first thing is less than the second, return 0 if the two things are equal order-wise, and return 1 if the second thing is less than the first. The function `cmp()` does this in a manner identical to C. At the same speed, `list.sort()` is much faster than `list.sort(cmp=custom)`. A custom comparison function is probably the best way to do this with an in-line lambda function as the custom comparison function is a handy idiom.

When it comes to speed, however, use of custom comparison functions is the problem is Python's function call overhead, which is slow. Fortunately, a technique called "Schwartzian Transform" can speed up custom sorts. Schwartzian Transforms are named after Donald E. Schwartz (a technique for working with Perl; but the technique is also used in Python).

The pattern involved in the Schwartzian Transform can more precisely be called the Guttman-Rosler-Schwartzian Transform):

## **1. Transform the list in a reversible way in place**

- Call Python's native `list.sort()` method.

- Reverse the transformation in (1) to restore the

The reason this technique works is that, for a list of input lines, the transformation operations, which is easy to implement, are much faster than compare/flip operations for large lists. The sort that makes the sort more efficient is a win in the

Below is an example of a simple, but plausible, test. The test sorts the fourth and subsequent words of a list of input lines. Running the test against a 1 megabyte file performed the Schwartzian Transform in 12 seconds for the custom comparison function. The number of factors will change the exact relative performance, but it will generally be expected.

## **schwartzian\_sort.py**

```
# Timing test for "sort on fourth word"
# Specifically, two lines >= 4 words
#   lexographically on the 4th, 5th,
#   Any line with fewer than four words
#   the end, and will occur in "natural order"
```

```
import sys, string, time
wcerr = sys.stderr.write
```

```

# naive custom sort
def fourth_word(ln1,ln2):
    lst1 = string.split(ln1)
    lst2 = string.split(ln2)
    #-- Compare "long" lines
    if len(lst1) >= 4 and len(lst2)
        return cmp(lst1[3:],lst2[3:])
    #-- Long lines before short line
    elif len(lst1) >= 4 and len(lst2)
        return -1
    #-- Short lines after long lines
    elif len(lst1) < 4 and len(lst2)
        return 1
    else:
        # Natural
        return cmp(ln1,ln2)

# Don't count the read itself in the
lines = open(sys.argv[1]).readlines()

# Time the custom comparison sort
start = time.time()
lines.sort(fourth_word)

end = time.time()
wrrerr("Custom comparison func in %3.

```

```

# open('tmp.custom','w').writelines(

# Don't count the read itself in the
lines = open(sys.argv[1]).readlines(

# Time the Schwartzian sort
start = time.time()
for n in range(len(lines)):          #
    1st = string.split(lines[n])
    if len(1st) >= 4:                 #
        lines[n] = (1st[3:], lines[r
    else:                             #
        lines[n] = (['\377'], lines[

lines.sort()                          #

for n in range(len(lines)):          #
    lines[n] = lines[n] [1]

end = time.time()
wrrrr("Schwartzian transform sort ir
# open('tmp.schwartzian','w').writel

```

Only one particular example is presented, but r  
technique to any sort they need to perform frec

## 2.1.2 Problem: Reformatting paragraphs of text

While I mourn the decline of plaintext ASCII as unnecessarily complicated and large (and often left in text files full of prose. READMEs, HOWTOs are written in plaintext (or at least something close to plaintext). Moreover, processing techniques are valuable). Moreover, frequently enough hand-edited that their plaintext

One task that is extremely common when working with paragraphs is to reformat paragraphs to conform to desired margins. Python's `formatter` module performs more limited reformatting than the `cc` command, which is done within text editors, which are indeed quite good at this. Sometimes it would be nice to automate the formatting of paragraphs, but that it is slightly surprising that Python has no standard class `formatter.DumbWriter`, or the possible `formatter.AbstractWriter`. These classes are designed for a level of customization and sophistication needed to do a way out of proportion for the task at hand.

Below is a simple solution that can be used either by reading from STDIN and writing to STDOUT) or by import to

### `reformat_para.py`

```
# Simple paragraph reformatter. All
```

```
# of left and right margins, and of  
# (using constants defined in module
```

```
LEFT,RIGHT,CENTER = 'LEFT','RIGHT','
```

```
def reformat_para(para='',left=0,rig  
    words = para.split()  
    lines = []  
    line = ''  
    word = 0  
    end_words = 0  
    while not end_words:  
        if len(words[word]) > right-  
            line = words[word]  
            word +=1  
            if word >= len(words):  
                end_words = 1  
    else:  
        while len(line)+len(worc  
            line += words[word]+  
            word += 1  
            if word >= len(words  
                end_words = 1  
                break  
    lines.append(line)
```



```

        line = ''
    if just==CENTER:
        r, l = right, left
        return '\n'.join([' '*left+l
    elif just==RIGHT:
        return '\n'.join([line.rjust
    else: # left justify
        return '\n'.join([' '*left+l

if __name__=='__main__':
    import sys
    if len(sys.argv) <> 4:
        print "Please specify left_n
    else:
        left  = int(sys.argv[1])
        right = int(sys.argv[2])
        just  = sys.argv[3].upper()

        # Simplistic approach
        for p in sys.stdin.readlines():
            print reformat_paragraph(p, left, right, just)

```

A number of enhancements are left to readers, indents or indented first lines, for example. Or be appropriate for wrapping (e.g., headers). A

input paragraphs differently, either by a different set of paragraphs internally in some manner.

### **2.1.3 Problem: Column statistics for delimited text**

Data feeds, DBMS dumps, log files, and flat-files are all similar records one per line with a collection of fields separated either by a specified delimiter or by spaces. Spaces occur.

Parsing these structured text records is quite easy and equally straightforward. But in working with a variety of files it is easy to keep writing almost the same code over and over computation.

The example below provides a generic framework for computing column statistics on a structured text database.

#### **fields\_stats.py**

```
# Perform calculations on one or more
# fields in a structured text database

import operator
from types import *
```

```

from xreadlines import xreadlines #
                                     #

#-- Symbolic Constants
DELIMITED = 1
FLATFILE = 2

#-- Some sample "statistical" func (
nillFunc = lambda lst: None
toFloat = lambda lst: map(float, lst)
avg_lst = lambda lst: reduce(operator.add, lst)/len(lst)
sum_lst = lambda lst: reduce(operator.add, lst)
max_lst = lambda lst: reduce(max, lst)

class FieldStats:
    """Gather statistics about struct
    text_db may be either string (incl.
    style may be in (DELIMITED, FLATFILE)
    delimiter specifies the field separator
    column_positions lists all field positions
    using one-based indexing
    E.g.: (1, 7, 40) would take data from columns 1, 7,
    field_funcs is a dictionary with column numbers
    and functions on lists as values
    E.g.: {1:avg_lst, 4:sum_lst, 5:

```

average of column one, t  
max of column 5. All ot  
are ignored.

```
"""
```

```
def __init__(self,  
             text_db='',  
             style=DELIMITED,  
             delimiter=',',  
             column_positions=(1,),  
             field_funcs={} ):  
    self.text_db = text_db  
    self.style = style  
    self.delimiter = delimiter  
    self.column_positions = column_p  
    self.field_funcs = field_funcs  
  
def calc(self):  
    """Calculate the column statisti  
    """  
    #-- 1st, create a list of lists  
    used_cols = self.field_funcs.key  
    used_cols.sort()  
    # one-based column naming: column  
    columns = []
```

```

for n in range(1+used_cols[-1]):
    # hint: '[][]*num' creates n
    columns.append([])

    #-- 2nd, fill lists used f
        # might use a stri
    if type(self.text_db) in (
        for line in self.text_
            fields = self.spli
            for col in used_cc
                field = fields
                columns[col]
    else:    # Something file
        for line in xreadlir
            fields = self.sp
            for col in used_
                field = fiel
                columns[col]

    #-- 3rd, apply the fielc
    results = [None] * (1+us
    for col in used_cols:
        results[col] = \
            apply(self.fiel

```

```

        #-- Finally, return the
        return results

def splitter(self, line):
    """Split a line into fields
    if self.style == DELIMITED:
        return line.split(self.c
    elif self.style == FLATFILE:
        fields = []
        # Adjust offsets to Pyth
        # and also add final pos
        num_positions = len(self
        offsets = [(pos-1) for p
        offsets.append(len(line)
        for pos in range(num_pos
            start = offsets[pos]
            end = offsets[pos+1]
            fields.append(line[s
        return fields
    else:
        raise ValueError, \
            "Text database mus

#-- Test data
# First Name, Last Name, Salary, Year

```

```

delim = '''
Kevin,Smith,50000,5,Media Relations
Tom,Woo,30000,7,Accounting
Sally,Jones,62000,10,Management
'''
.strip()      # no leading/trailir

```

```

# Comment      First      Last      Sa
flat = '''
tech note      Kevin      Smith      50
more filler    Tom        Woo        30
yet more...    Sally      Jones      62
'''
.strip()      # no leading/trailir

```

```

#-- Run self-test code
if __name__ == '__main__':
    getdelim = FieldStats(delim, fieldnames=delim.split(','))
    print 'Delimited Calculations:'
    results = getdelim.calc()
    print '  Average salary -', results['Salary']
    print '  Max years worked -', results['Years']

    getflat = FieldStats(flat, fieldnames=flat.split(','))
    print 'Flat Calculations:'

```

```
results = getflat.calc()  
print '    Average salary -', results  
print '    Max years worked -', results
```

The example above includes some efficiency considerations when working with large data sets. In the first place, `getflat` is a file-like object, rather than keeping the whole data set in memory. The generator `xreadlines.xreadlines()` is an extremely efficient way to read lines from a file (Python 2.1+; otherwise use `FILE.readline()` or `FILE.readlines()` for efficiency, respectively). Moreover, only the data is read into lists, in order to save memory. However, rather than computing statistics on multiple fields, as many field columns as needed are used in one pass.

One possible improvement would be to allow multiple fields to be read during a pass. But that is left as an exercise for the reader.

### **2.1.4 Problem: Counting characters, words, lines**

There is a wonderful utility under Unix-like systems for counting characters, words, and lines of files (or STDIN). A few commands are displayed, but I rarely use them.

In writing this chapter, I found myself on a system where the `wc` command was not in order. The example below is actually an "enhanced" version of `wc` (it lacks the command-line switches). Unlike the original `wc`, it



directly within Python and is available anywhere. This is one is a compact use of the `"".join()` and `"".split()` could also be used, for example, to be compatible

## wc.py

```
# Report the chars, words, lines, pages
# on STDIN or in wildcard filename pattern
import sys, glob
if len(sys.argv) > 1:
    c, w, l, p = 0, 0, 0, 0
    for pat in sys.argv[1:]:
        for file in glob.glob(pat):
            s = open(file).read()
            wc = len(s), len(s.split()),
                len(s.split('\n')),
            print '\t'.join(map(str, wc))
            c, w, l, p = c+wc[0], w+wc[1], l+wc[2], p+wc[3]
        wc = (c,w,l,p)
        print '\t'.join(map(str, wc)), ' '
else:
    s = sys.stdin.read()
    wc = len(s), len(s.split()), len(s.split('\n\n'))
```

```
print '\t'.join(map(str, wc)), '
```

This little functionality could be wrapped up in a function, but I don't bother with doing so. Most of the work is in the `map` function, and the counting basically taking only two lines.

The solution above is quite likely the "one obvious solution" on the other hand a slightly more adventurous reader might find a more fun):

```
>>> wc = map(len, [s]+map(s.split, (None,)))
```

A real daredevil might be able to reduce the entire solution to a single line.

## 2.1.5 Problem: Transmitting binary data as ASCII

Many channels require that the information transmitted be in ASCII, with a high-order first bit of one will be handled by the channel. Protocols like Simple Mail Transport Protocol (SMTP), NNTP, or HTTP (depending on content encoding) require this. In order to encode binary data in ASCII, many standard tools like editors. In order to encode binary data, many techniques have been invented over time.

An obvious, but obese, encoding technique is to convert each byte to two hexadecimal digits. UUencoding is an older standard to transmit binary files over the Usenet and on Berkeley Unix. In the MacOS world. In recent years, base64 which is a more compact encoding technique is used.

styles of encoding. All of the techniques are based on how data are used to represent three binary bytes but the conventions (as well as in the encoding as such) are of variable encoding length. In quoted printable encoding, unchanged, but a few special characters and all

Python provides modules for all the encoding styles. *binhex*, *base64*, and *quopri* all operate on input data therein. They also each have slightly different interfaces; for example, *binhex* closes its output file after encoding a *cStringIO* file-like object. All of the high-level modules are in the module *binascii*. *binascii*, in turn, implements the interface and assumes that it will be passed the right size block

The standard library, therefore, does not contain any functionality for when the goal is just encoding to wrap that up, though:

## **encode\_binary.py**

```
# Provide encoders for arbitrary binary data
# in Python strings.  Handles block
# transparently, and returns a string
# Precompression of the input string
# or eliminate any size penalty for
```

```
import sys
import zlib
import binascii
```

```
UU = 45
BASE64 = 57
BINHEX = sys.maxint
```

```
def ASCIIEncode(s='', type=BASE64, compress=False):
    """ASCII encode a binary string"""
    # First, decide the encoding style
    if type == BASE64: encode = binascii.b2a_base64
    elif type == UU: encode = binascii.b2a_uu
    elif type == BINHEX: encode = binascii.b2a_hex
    else: raise ValueError, "Encoding type not supported"
    # Second, compress the source if requested
    if compress: s = zlib.compress(s)
    # Third, encode the string, block by block
    offset = 0
    blocks = []
    while 1:
        blocks.append(encode(s[offset:offset+type]))
        offset += type
        if offset > len(s):
            break
```

```

# Fourth, return the concatenate
return ''.join(blocks)

def ASCIIIdcode(s='', type=BASE64, c
    """Decode ASCII to a binary stri
# First, decide the encoding sty
if type == BASE64:    s = binasci
elif type == BINHEX: s = binasci
elif type == UU:
    s = ''.join([binascii.a2b_uu
# Second, decompress the source
if compress: s = zlib.decompress
# Third, return the decoded bina
return s

# Encode/decode STDIN for self-test
if __name__ == '__main__':
    decode, TYPE = 0, BASE64
    for arg in sys.argv:
        if arg.lower()=='-d': decc
        elif arg.upper()=='UU': TYPE
        elif arg.upper()=='BINHEX':
        elif arg.upper()=='BASE64':
    if decode:
        print ASCIIIdcode(sys.stdin.

```

```
else:
    print ASCIIEncode(sys.stdin.
```

The example above does not attach any header for that, a wrapper like *uu*, *mimify*, or *MimeWr* around `encode_binary.py`.

## 2.1.6 Problem: Creating word or letter histogram

A histogram is an analysis of the relative occurrence of possible values. In terms of text processing, this can be either words or byte values. Creating a histogram is not always immediately obvious but the technique is not always immediately obvious. The technique below has a good generality, provides several utilities, and can be used in a command-line operation.

### histogram.py

```
# Create occurrence counts of words
# A few utility functions for preserving
# Avoids requirement of recent Python

from string import split, maketrans,
import sys
from types import *
```

```
import types
```

```
def word_histogram(source):  
    """Create histogram of normalized words  
    hist = {}  
    trans = maketrans('', '')  
    if type(source) in (StringType, UnicodeType):  
        for word in split(source):  
            word = translate(word, trans)  
            if len(word) > 0:  
                hist[word] = hist.get(word, 0) + 1  
    elif hasattr(source, 'read'):  
        try:  
            from xreadlines import xreadlines  
            for line in xreadlines(source):  
                for word in split(line):  
                    word = translate(word, trans)  
                    if len(word) > 0:  
                        hist[word] = hist.get(word, 0) + 1  
        except ImportError:  
            line = source.readline()  
            while line:  
                for word in split(line):  
                    word = translate(word, trans)  
                    if len(word) > 0:  
                        hist[word] = hist.get(word, 0) + 1  
            line = source.readline()
```

```

        hist[word] =
        line = source.readli
else:
    raise TypeError, \
        "source must be a stri
return hist

def char_histogram(source, sizehint=
hist = {}
if type(source) in (StringType, U
    for char in source:
        hist[char] = hist.get(ch
elif hasattr(source, 'read'):
    chunk = source.read(sizehint
    while chunk:
        for char in chunk:
            hist[char] = hist.ge
        chunk = source.read(size
else:
    raise TypeError, \
        "source must be a stri
return hist

def most_common(hist, num=1):
    pairs = []

```



```

    for pair in hist.items():
        pairs.append((pair[1], pair[0]))
    pairs.sort()
    pairs.reverse()
    return pairs[:num]

def first_things(hist, num=1):
    pairs = []
    things = hist.keys()
    things.sort()
    for thing in things:
        pairs.append((thing, hist[thing]))
    pairs.sort()
    return pairs[:num]

if __name__ == '__main__':
    if len(sys.argv) > 1:
        hist = word_histogram(open(sys.argv[1]).read())
    else:
        hist = word_histogram(sys.stdin.read())

    print "Ten most common words:"
    for pair in most_common(hist, 10):
        print '\t', pair[1], pair[0]

```

```

print "First ten words alphabeti
for pair in first_things(hist, 1
    print '\t', pair[0], pair[1]

# a more practical command-line
# for pair in most_common(hist, 1
#     print pair[1], '\t', pair[0]

```

Several of the design choices are somewhat arbitrary, stripped to identify "real" words. But on the other hand, it may not be what is desired. The sorting function returns an initial sublist. Perhaps it would be better to slice the result. It is simple to customize around.

## 2.1.7 Problem: Reading a file backwards by record

Reading a file line by line is a common task in many applications, such as server logs, configuration files, structured text files, etc. The information is organized into logical records, one per line. We want to perform some calculation on each record in turn.

Python provides a number of convenient methods for reading files. *FILE.readlines()* reads a whole file at once, which is very fast, but requires the whole contents of the file to be in memory. For large files, this can be a problem. *FILE.readline()* is more efficient and can be called repeatedly until the EOF is reached.

solution for recent Python versions is *xreadlines* 2.1+. These techniques are memory-friendly, with a "list" of lines (by way of Python's new generator

The above techniques work nicely for reading a file to start at the end of a file and work backwards through lines encountered when you want to read log files that are growing when you want to look at the most recent records. There is a very easy technique if memory usage is a concern.

```
>>> open('lines','w').write('\n'.join('line %d' % i for i in range(100)))
>>> fp = open('lines')
>>> lines = fp.readlines()
>>> lines.reverse()
>>> for line in lines[1:5]:
...     # Processing suite here
...     print line,
...
98
97
96
95
```

For large input files, however, this technique is something analogous to *xreadlines* here. The example works equally well for file-like objects.

## **read\_backwards.py**

```
# Read blocks of a file from end to
# Blocks may be defined by any delin
# constants LINE and PARA are usefu
# Works much like the file object me
# repeated calls continue to get "r
# function returns empty string onc
```

```
# Define constants
from os import linesep
LINE = linesep
PARA = linesep*2
READSIZE = 1000
```

```
# Global variables
buffer = ''
```

```
def read_backwards(fp, mode=LINE, si
    """Read blocks of file backwards
    # Trick of mutable default argun
    if not _init[0]:
        fp.seek(0,2)
        _init[0] = 1
```

```

# Find a block (using global buf
global buffer
while 1:
    # first check for block in k
    delim = buffer.rfind(mode)
    if delim <> -1:      # block
        block = buffer[delim+1:]
        buffer = buffer[:delim]
        return block+mode
    #-- BOF reached, return remaini
    elif fp.tell()==0:
        block = buffer
        buffer = ''
        return block
    else:                # Read some
        readsize = min(fp.tell(),
            fp.seek(-readsize,1)
            buffer = fp.read(readsize)
            fp.seek(-readsize,1)
#-- Self test of read_backwards()
if __name__ == '__main__':
    # Let's create a test file to re
    fp = open('lines','wb')
    fp.write(LINE.join(['--- %d ---'
    # Now open for reading backwards

```

```

fp = open('lines', 'rb')
# Read the blocks in, one per call
block = read_backwards(fp)
while block:
    print block,
    block = read_backwards(fp)

```

Notice that *anything* could serve as a block delimiter to work for lines and block paragraphs (and blocks of line breaks). But other delimiters could be used to read backwards word-by-word or a space delimiter would be right for other whitespace. However, reading a block is generally good enough.

Another enhancement is possible with Python 2. `read_backwards()` could be programmed as an iterator. The performance will not differ significantly, but it will be (and a "list-like" interface like *FILE.readlines()*).

## QUESTIONS

- 1: Write a generator-based version of `read_backwards()` and the self-test code to utilize the generator instead.

**2:** Explore and explain some pitfalls with the use of the `__str__` argument. Explain also how the `__repr__` style allows for better encapsulation of class instances.

---

Team-Fly



## Chapter 2. Basic String Operations

---

## 2.2 Standard Modules

### 2.2.1 Basic String Transformations

The module *string* forms the core of Python's text processing capabilities. It is certainly the place to look before other modules. The methods of *string* objects you should note, have been copied to methods of string objects. The methods of string objects are a little bit faster than the functions. A few new methods of string objects have been added, but are still documented here.

**SEE ALSO:** [str 33](#); [UserString 33](#);

---

**string • A collection of string operations**

---

There are a number of general things to notice about the *string* module (which is composed entirely of functions and constants).



1. **Strings are immutable** (as discussed in such thing as changing a string "in place" languages, such as C, by changing the buffer). Whenever a *string* module function takes a string as an argument, it returns a brand-new string object and leaves the old one alone. This is a very common pattern of binding the same name to a new object as was passed on the right side within the function call, which conceals this fact. For example:

```
>>> import string
>>> str = "Mary had a little lamb"
>>> str = string.replace(str, 'had', 'ate')
>>> str
'Mary ate a little lamb'
```

**The first string object never gets modified. It is no longer bound to any name after the function call, so it is subject to garbage collection and will disappear from memory. The second string object is bound to the name `str` and will not change any existing references to `str`. This makes it look like they changed.**

- Many *string* module functions are now also available as string object methods, there is no need to import the *string* module. This is usually slightly more concise. Moreover, using a method is usually faster than the corresponding *string* module function. For each function/method that exists as both a *string* module function and a string object method, the reference to the *string* module is contained in this reference to the *str* object.

- The form `string.join(string.split (...))` is a frequent discussion is contained in the reference items for `string`. In general, combining these two functions is very useful for processing the parts, then putting together the string.
- Think about clever *string.replace()* patterns. For example, with use of "place holder" string patterns, a substring can be replaced (especially when also manipulating the intermediate string reference item for *string.replace()* for some discussion).
- A mutable string of sorts can be obtained by using the `array` module. It can contain a collection of substrings, each one individually. The *array* module can define array objects that are modifiable, including with slice notation. The `array` module can be used to re-create true strings; for example:

```
>>> lst = ['spam', 'and', 'eggs']
>>> lst[2] = 'toast'
>>> print ''.join(lst)
spamandtoast
>>> print ' '.join(lst)
spam and toast
```

Or:

```
>>> import array
>>> a = array.array('c', 'spam and eggs')
```

```
>>> print ''.join(a)
spam and eggs
>>> a[0] = 'S'
>>> print ''.join(a)
Spam and eggs
>>> a[-4:] = array.array('c', 'toast')
>>> print ''.join(a)
Spam and toast
```

## CONSTANTS

The *string* module contains constants for a number of characters. Each of these constants is itself a string (a collection). As such, it is easy to define constants in your own module, should you need them. For example:

```
>>> import string
>>> string.brackets = "[]{}()<>"
>>> print string.brackets
[]{}()<>
```

### **string.digits**

The decimal numerals ("0123456789").

## **string.hexdigits**

The hexadecimal numerals ("0123456789abcdef").

## **string.octdigits**

The octal numerals ("01234567").

## **string.lowercase**

The lowercase letters; can vary by language. In

```
>>> import string
>>> string.lowercase
'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz'
```

You should not modify *string.lowercase* for a so-called attribute, such as `string.spanish_lowercase` which will depend on this constant).

## **string.uppercase**

The uppercase letters; can vary by language. In

```
>>> import string
>>> string.uppercase
'ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ '
```

You should not modify *string.uppercase* for a special attribute, such as `string.spanish_uppercase` which will depend on this constant).

## **string.letters**

All the letters (`string.lowercase+string.uppercase`)

## **string.punctuation**

The characters normally considered as punctuation in most versions of Python (most systems):

```
>>> import string
>>> string.punctuation
'!"#$%&\'()*+,-./:;<=>?@[\\]^_`{|}~'
```

## **string.whitespace**

The "empty" characters. Normally these consist of tab, carriage return, and space (in that order):

```
>>> import string
>>> string.whitespace
'\t\n\r'
>>> string.printable
'0123456789abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ_.'
>>> string.digits
'0123456789'
```

You should not modify *string.whitespace* (some

## **string.printable**

All the characters that can be printed to any device. (string.digits+string.letters+string.punctuation+string.whitespace)

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **string.atof(s=...)**

Deprecated. Use *float()*.

Converts a string to a floating point value.

**SEE ALSO:** *eval()* 445; *float()* 422;

## **string.atoi(s=...[,base=10])**

Deprecated with Python 2.0. Use *int()* if no cus

Converts a string to an integer value (if the stri  
than 10, the base may be specified as the seco

SEE ALSO: *eval()* 445; *int()* 421; *long()* 422;

## **string.atol(s=...[,base=10])**

Deprecated with Python 2.0. Use *long()* if no cu

Converts a string to an unlimited length integer  
in a base other than 10, the base may be speci

SEE ALSO: *eval()* 445; *long()* 422; *int()* 421;

## **string.capitalize(s=...)**

**"".capitalize()**

Return a string consisting of the initial characte  
all other characters converted to lowercase (if a

```
>>> import string
```

```
>>> string.capitalize("mary had a li  
'Mary had a little lamb!'  
>>> string.capitalize("Mary had a Li  
'Mary had a little lamb!'  
>>> string.capitalize("2 Lambs had M  
'2 lambs had mary!'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method preferred in most cases:

```
>>> "mary had a little lamb".capital  
'Mary had a little lamb'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.capwords()` 133; `string.lower`

**`string.capwords(s=...)`**  
**`"".title()`**

Return a string consisting of the capitalized words

```
string.join(map(string.capitalize, st
```

But *string.capwords()* is a clearer way of writing  
whitespace is "normalized" by the process:



```
>>> import string
>>> string.capwords("mary HAD a litt
'Mary Had A Little Lamb!'
>>> string.capwords("Mary      had a
'Mary Had A Little Lamb!'
```

With the creation of string methods in Python 1 renamed as a string method to `"".title()`.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.capitalize()` 132; `string.lower`

**`string.center(s=... , width=...)`**  
**`"".center(width)`**

Return a string with `s` padded with symmetrical truncated) to occupy length `width` (or more).

```
>>> import string
>>> string.center(width=30,s="Mary h
'    Mary had a little lamb '
>>> string.center("Mary had a little
'Mary had a little lamb'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> "Mary had a little lamb".center(
'   Mary had a little lamb   '
```

SEE ALSO: `string.ljust()` 138; `string.rjust()` 141

**`string.count(s, sub [,start [,end]])`**  
**`"".count(sub [,start [,end]])`**

Return the number of nonoverlapping occurrences of substring `sub` in string `s`. If no arguments are specified, only the corresponding `string` module methods are available.

```
>>> import string
>>> string.count("mary had a little
4
>>> string.count("mary had a little
2
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> 'mary had a little lamb'.count('
4
```

**`"".endswith(suffix [,start [,end]])`**

This string method does not have an equivalent indicating whether the string ends with the suffix. If start is specified, only consider the terminal suffix. If end is given, only consider the slice [start, end).

**SEE ALSO:** `"".startswith()` 144; `string.find()` 13

**`string.expandtabs(s=...[,tabsize=8])`**

**`"".expandtabs([,tabsize=8])`**

Return a string with tabs replaced by a variable number of spaces. If no tabsize is specified, the default is 8. If tabsize is specified, it must be a positive integer. If tabsize is 0, tabs are not replaced. If tabsize is a negative number, it is treated as the absolute value of tabsize. A newline implies a tabsize of 8.

```
>>> import string
>>> s = 'mary\011had a little lamb'
>>> print s
mary      had a little lamb
>>> string.expandtabs(s, 16)
'mary                had a little lamb'
>>> string.expandtabs(tabsize=1, s=s)
'mary had a little lamb'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> 'mary\011had a little lamb'.expandtabs()
'mary          had a little lamb'
```

**string.find(s, sub [,start [,end]])**  
**"".find(sub [,start [,end]])**

Return the index position of the first occurrence of sub within s. Both arguments are specified, only the corresponding slice in s is checked (i.e., only s[start:end] if start and end are specified). Return -1 if no occurrence is found. Note that string indexing starts at 0.

```
>>> import string
>>> string.find("mary had a little lamb", "a")
1
>>> string.find("mary had a little lamb", "a", 10)
6
>>> string.find("mary had a little lamb", "a", 0, 10)
21
>>> string.find("mary had a little lamb", "a", 10, 20)
-1
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> 'mary had a little lamb'.find("a")
6
```

SEE ALSO: `string.index()` 135; `string.rfind()` 14

**`string.index(s, sub [,start [,end]])`**  
**`"".index(sub [,start [,end]])`**

Return the same value as does *string.find()* with *start* and *end* instead of returning -1 when sub does not occur in s.

```
>>> import string
>>> string.index("mary had a little lamb", "a")
21
>>> string.index("mary had a little lamb", "x")
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "d:/py20sl/lib/string.py", line 33, in index
    return s.index(*args)
ValueError: substring not found in s
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> 'mary had a little lamb'.index("lamb")
6
```

SEE ALSO: `string.find()` 135; `string.rindex()` 14

Several string methods that return Boolean value property. None of the `.is*()` methods, however,

**`"".isalpha()`**

Return a true value if all the characters are alphabetic.

**`"".isalnum()`**

Return a true value if all the characters are alphanumeric.

**`"".isdigit()`**

Return a true value if all the characters are digits.

**`"".islower()`**

Return a true value if all the characters are lowercase.

```
>>> "ab123".islower(), '123'.islower()  
(1, 0, 0)
```

SEE ALSO: `"".lower()` 138;

**`"".isspace()`**

Return a true value if all the characters are whi

**`"".istitle()`**

Return a true value if all the string has title cas

SEE ALSO: `"".title()` 133;

**`"".isupper()`**

Return a true value if all the characters are upp  
character.

SEE ALSO: `"".upper()` 146;

**`string.join(words=...[,sep=" "])`**

**`"".join (words)`**

Return a string that results from concatenating

sep between each. The function *string.join()* did that it takes a list (of strings) as a primary argu

It is worth noting *string.join()* and *string.split()* both; in other words, `string.join(string.split(s,s`

Typically, *string.join()* is used in contexts where example, here is a small program to output the STDOUT, one per line:

### **list\_capwords.py**

```
import string, sys
capwords = []

for line in sys.stdin.readlines():
    for word in line.split():
        if word == word.upper() and
            capwords.append(word)
print string.join(capwords, '\n')
```

The technique in the sample `list_capwords.py` s building up a string by direct concatenation. Hc reduces the performance difference:

```
>>> import string
```



```

>>> s = "Mary had a little lamb"
>>> t = "its fleece was white as snow"
>>> s = s + " " + t      # relatively "expensive"
>>> s += " " + t         # "cheaper" than s = s + " " + t
>>> lst = [s]
>>> lst.append(t)        # "cheapest" way to concatenate
>>> s = string.join(lst)

```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method `string.join()` is special in taking a list of strings as argument. The `"".join()` method is unusual in being an operator (required) words list (this surprises many new

**SEE ALSO:** `string.split()` 142;

## **`string.joinfields(...)`**

Identical to `string.join()`.

## **`string.ljust(s=..., width=...)`**

### **`"".ljust(width)`**

Return a string with `s` padded with trailing spaces (or more).

```
>>> import string
>>> string.ljust(width=30,s="Mary had a little lamb")
'Mary had a little lamb          '
>>> string.ljust("Mary had a little lamb",30)
'Mary had a little lamb          '
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> "Mary had a little lamb".ljust(30)
'Mary had a little lamb          '
```

SEE ALSO: `string.rjust()` 141; `string.center()` 1.

**`string.lower(s=...)`**

**`"".lower()`**

Return a string with any uppercase letters converted to lowercase.

```
>>> import string
>>> string.lower("mary HAD a little lamb!")
'mary had a little lamb!'
>>> string.lower("Mary had a Little lamb!")
'mary had a little lamb!'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> "Mary had a Little Lamb!".lower()  
'mary had a little lamb!'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.upper()` 146;

**`string.lstrip(s=...)`**

**`"".lstrip([chars=string.whitespace])`**

Return a string with leading whitespace character removed. The `string.lstrip()` object method is stylistically preferred in many

```
>>> import string  
>>> s = "  
...     Mary had a little lamb  
>>> string.lstrip(s)  
'Mary had a little lamb          \011'  
>>> s.lstrip()  
'Mary had a little lamb          \011'
```

Python 2.3+ accepts the optional argument `chars`. If `chars` is given, only the characters in the string `chars` will be removed.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.rstrip()` 142; `string.strip()` 144

**`string.maketrans(from, to)`**

Return a translation table string for use with *str.translate()*. The translation table must be the same length. A translation table is a string where each character position defines a translation from the *chr()* value at that index position.

```
>>> import string
>>> ord('A')
65
>>> ord('z')
122
>>> string.maketrans('ABC', 'abc') [65:122]
'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz[\_]^_`ak'
>>> string.maketrans('ABCxyz', 'abcXYZ') [65:122]
'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz[\_]^_`ak'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.translate()` 145;

**`string.replace(s=..., old=..., new=...[,maxsplit=1])`**  
**`"".replace(old, new [,maxsplit])`**

Return a string based on *s* with occurrences of *old* replaced by *new*. If *maxsplit* is specified, only replace *maxsplit* occurrences.

```
>>> import string
>>> string.replace("Mary had a little lamb", "had", "kissed")
'Mary kissed a little lamb'
```

```
'Mary had some lamb'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> "Mary had a little lamb".replace  
'Mary had some lamb'
```

A common "trick" involving *string.replace()* is to  
Obviously, simply to replace several different strings  
operations are almost inevitable. But there is a way  
can be used to create an intermediate string with the  
particular context. The same goal can always be achieved by  
sometimes staged *string.replace()* operations as

```
>>> import string  
>>> line = 'variable = val          # see comment  
>>> # we'd like '#3' and '#4' spelled out  
>>> string.replace(line, '#', 'number')  
'variable = val          number    see comment  
>>> place_holder=string.replace(line, '#', 'number')  
>>> place_holder  
'variable = val          !!! see comment  
>>> place_holder=place_holder.replace('#', 'number')  
>>> place_holder  
'variable = val          !!! see comment  
>>> line = string.replace(place_holder, '#', 'number')
```

```
>>> line
'variable = val          # see comments
```

Obviously, for jobs like this, a placeholder must strings undergoing "staged transformation"; but placeholders may be as long as needed.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.translate()` 145; `mx.TextTools`

**`string.rfind(s, sub [,start [,end]])`**  
**`"".rfind(sub [,start [,end]])`**

Return the index position of the last occurrence arguments are specified, only the corresponding in `s` as a whole). Return -1 if no occurrence is found. List indexing:

```
>>> import string
>>> string.rfind("mary had a little
19
>>> string.rfind("mary had a little
9
>>> string.rfind("mary had a little
21
>>> string.rfind("mary had a little
```

-1

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> 'mary had a little lamb'.rfind('
6
```

SEE ALSO: `string.rindex()` 141; `string.find()` 13

**`string.rindex(s, sub [,start [,end]])`**  
**`"".rindex(sub [,start [,end]])`**

Return the same value as does *string.rfind()* wi  
instead of returning -1 when sub does not occu

```
>>> import string
>>> string.rindex("mary had a little
21
>>> string.rindex("mary had a little
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "d:/py20sl/lib/string.py", li
    return s.rindex(*args)
ValueError: substring not found in s
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> 'mary had a little lamb'.index('
6
```

SEE ALSO: `string.rfind()` 140; `string.index()` 13

**`string.rjust(s=..., width=...)`**  
**`"".rjust(width)`**

Return a string with `s` padded with leading spaces (or more).

```
>>> import string
>>> string.rjust(width=30,s="Mary had a little lamb")
'          Mary had a little lamb'
>>> string.rjust("Mary had a little lamb",30)
'Mary had a little lamb'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> "Mary had a little lamb".rjust(20)
'    Mary had a little lamb'
```

SEE ALSO: `string.ljust()` 138; `string.center()` 13



**string.rstrip(s=...)**  
**"".rstrip([chars=string.whitespace])**

Return a string with trailing whitespace characters removed. The object method is stylistically preferred in many cases.

```
>>> import string
>>> s = """
...     Mary had a little lamb
>>> string.rstrip(s)
'\012     Mary had a little lamb'
>>> s.rstrip()
'\012     Mary had a little lamb'
```

Python 2.3+ accepts the optional argument `chars`. If `chars` is a string, the characters in the string `chars` will be removed.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.lstrip()` 139; `string.strip()` 144

**string.split(s=...[,sep=...[,maxsplit=...]])**  
**"".split([,sep [,maxsplit]])**

Return a list of nonoverlapping substrings of `s`. If `sep` is specified, the substrings are divided around the occurrences of `sep`. If `sep` is not specified, the substrings are divided around *any* whitespace characters.

resultant list. If the third argument `maxsplit` is `maxsplit` parts is appended to the list, giving th

```
>>> import string
>>> s = 'mary had a little lamb      .
>>> string.split(s, ' a ')
['mary had', 'little lamb      ...wit
>>> string.split(s)
['mary', 'had', 'a', 'little', 'lamb
'of', 'sherry']
>>> string.split(s,maxsplit=5)
['mary', 'had', 'a', 'little', 'lamb
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> "Mary had a Little Lamb!".split()
['Mary', 'had', 'a', 'Little', 'Lamb
```

The *`string.split()`* function (and corresponding `s` for working with texts, especially ones that res all whitespace as a single divider allows *`string.s`*

```
>>> wc = lambda s: len(s.split())
>>> wc("Mary had a Little Lamb")
5
>>> s = """Mary had a Little Lamb
```

```

... its fleece as white as snow.
... And everywhere that Mary went
>>> print s
Mary had a Little Lamb
its fleece as white as snow.
And everywhere that Mary went
>>> wc(s)
23

```

The function *string.split()* is very often used in involved is "pull the string apart, modify the parts to be words, but this also works with lines (dividing

```

>>> import string
>>> s = """Mary had a Little Lamb
... its fleece as white as snow.
... And everywhere that Mary went
>>> string.join(string.split(s))
'Mary had a Little Lamb its fleece as
... that Mary went the lamb was sure

```

A Python 1.6+ idiom for string object methods

```

>>> "-".join(s.split())
'Mary-had-a-Little-Lamb-its-fleece-as
...-that-Mary-went--the-lamb-was-sure

```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.join()` 137; `mx.TextTools.sets`  
`mx.TextTools.splitat()` 315; `mx.TextTools.splitlir`

## **`string.splitfields(...)`**

Identical to *string.split()*.

## **`"".splitlines([keepends=0])`**

This string method does not have an equivalent in the string. The optional argument `keepends` defaults to 0. If it is included in the line strings.

## **`"".startswith(prefix [,start [,end]])`**

This string method does not have an equivalent in the string. If `start` is specified, only consider the terminal substring from `start` to `end`. If `end` is given, only consider the substring from `start` to `end`.

**SEE ALSO:** `"".endswith()` 134; `string.find()` 135

## **`string.strip(s=...)`**

**`"".strip([chars=string.whitespace])`**

Return a string with leading and trailing whitespaces removed. The use of a string object method is stylistically preferred over using `strip()`.

```
>>> import string
>>> s = """
...     Mary had a little lamb
>>> string.strip(s)
'Mary had a little lamb'
>>> s.strip()
'Mary had a little lamb'
```

Python 2.3+ accepts the optional argument `chars` in the string `chars` will be removed.

```
>>> s = "MARY had a LITTLE lamb STEW"
>>> s.strip("ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ")
'Mary had a LITTLE lamb '
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.rstrip()` 142; `string.lstrip()` 13

**`string.swapcase(s=...)`**

**`"".swapcase()`**

Return a string with any uppercase letters converted to uppercase.

```
>>> import string
>>> string.swapcase("mary HAD a litt
'MARY had A LITTLE LAMB!'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> "Mary had a Little Lamb!".swapcase
'MARY had A LITTLE LAMB!'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.upper()` 146; `string.lower()` 1

**`string.translate(s=..., table=...[,deletemchars=""`  
`"".translate(table [,deletemchars=""])`**

Return a string, based on `s`, with `deletemchars` deleted and with any remaining characters translated according to `table`.

```
>>> import string
>>> tab = string.maketrans('ABC', 'ak')
>>> string.translate('MARY HAD a litt
'MRY HD a ie LMb'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method  
However, if *string.maketrans()* is used to create  
the *string* module anyway:

```
>>> 'MARY HAD a little LAMB'.translate  
'MRY HD a ie LMb'
```

The *string.translate()* function is a *very* fast way  
table takes some getting used to, but the result  
procedural technique such as:

```
>>> (new, frm, to, dlt) = ("", 'ABC', 'ak  
>>> for c in 'MARY HAD a little LAMB  
...     if c not in dlt:  
...         pos = frm.find(c)  
...         if pos == -1: new += c  
...         else:         new += to[  
...  
>>> new  
'MRY HD a ie LMb'
```

SEE ALSO: *string.maketrans()* 139;

**string.upper(s=...)**  
"".upper()

Return a string with any lowercase letters conv

```
>>> import string
>>> string.upper("mary HAD a little
'MARY HAD A LITTLE LAMB!'
>>> string.upper("Mary had a Little
'MARY HAD A LITTLE LAMB!'
```

For Python 1.6+, use of a string object method

```
>>> "Mary had a Little Lamb!".upper(
'MARY HAD A LITTLE LAMB!'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.lower()` 138;

### **`string.zfill(s=..., width=...)`**

Return a string with `s` padded with leading zero (or more). If a leading sign is present, it "floats general, *string.zfill()* is designed for alignment see if a string looks number-like.

```
>>> import string
>>> string.zfill("this", 20)
'000000000000000000this'
```



```
>>> string.zfill("-37", 20)
'-000000000000000000037'
>>> string.zfill("+3.7", 20)
'+00000000000000000003.7'
```

Based on the example of *string.rjust()*, one might expect a *string.ljust()* method; however, no such method exists.

**SEE ALSO:** *string.rjust()* 141;

## 2.2.2 Strings as Files, and Files as Strings

In many ways, strings and files do a similar job: holding an unlimited amount of (textual) information that can be accessed by the bytes. A first inclination is to suppose that the distinction between strings and files hang around when the current distinction is not really tenable. On the one hand, modules like *pickle*, and *marshal* and third-party modules like *shelve* make strings persist (but not thereby correspond to files). On the other hand, many files are not particularly persistent; under Unix-like systems exist only for program use; similar "device files" are really just streams; and files that are deleted with program cleanup, are

The real difference between files and strings is in the techniques available to operate on them. File objects have methods on themselves. Notably, file objects have a *close()* method

imaginary "read-head" passing over the physical disk. This can be sliced and indexed for example, `str[4:10]` string object methods and by functions of modules. Special-purpose Python objects act "file-like" with `gzip.open()` and `urllib.urlopen()`. Of course, Python for just how "file-like" something has to be to work. To figure that out for each type of object she will write things "just work" right).

Happily, Python provides some standard modules that are interoperable.

## **mmap • Memory-mapped file support**

The *mmap* module allows a programmer to create special *mmap* objects enable most of the techniques and simultaneously most of the techniques you have seen. The hinted caveat about "most," however: Many *mmap* objects using the corresponding string object methods. "string-like," it basically only implements the `.flush()` associated with slicing and indexing. This is enough to make it

When a string-like change is made to a *mmap* object, it updates the underlying file, and the change is persistent (as long as the object called `.flush()` before destruction). This is to "persistent strings."

## Some examples of working with memory-mapp

```
>>> # Create a file with some test c
>>> open('test','w').write(' #'.join
>>> fp = open('test','r+')
>>> import mmap
>>> mm = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(),1000)
>>> len(mm)
1000
>>> mm[-20:]
'218 #219 #220 #221 #'
>>> import string      # apply a string
>>> mm.seek(string.find(mm, '21'))
>>> mm.read(10)
'21 #22 #23'
>>> mm.read(10)        # next ten bytes
' #24 #25 #'
>>> mm.find('21')      # object method
402
>>> try: string.rfind(mm, '21')
... except AttributeError: print "Ur
...
Unsupported string function
>>> '/' .join(re.findall('..21..',mm))
' #21 #/121 #/ #210 / #212 / #214 /
```

It is worth emphasizing that the bytes in a file object can be written to using the `mmap.mmap.resize()` method to write into different parts of the file from the middle, only by adding to the end of the file.

## CLASSES

**`mmap.mmap(fileno, length [,tagname])` (Windows)**  
**`mmap.mmap(fileno, length [,flags=MAP_SHARED])` (Unix)**

Create a new memory-mapped file object. `fileno` is the file number of the file to map on. Generally this number should be created by the `os.open()` function. `length` specifies the length of the mapping. If `length` is 0, for `length` to specify the current length of the file. If `length` is specified, only the initial portion of the file will be mapped. If `length` is 0 and `file` is specified, the file can be extended with additional data.

The underlying file for a memory-mapped file object must be opened in `"+"` mode modifier.

According to the official Python documentation, a tagname may be specified. If it is, multiple memory-mapped files can be created. In practice, however, each instance of `mmap.mmap` must have a tagname. If not a tagname is specified. In any case, this all refers to the underlying file, generally at different positions in the file.

```
>>> open('test','w').write(' #'.join('0' * 1000000))
```

```
>>> fp = open('test', 'r+')
>>> import mmap
>>> mm1 = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(), 1000)
>>> mm2 = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(), 1000)
>>> mm1.seek(500)
>>> mm1.read(10)
'122 #123 #'
>>> mm2.read(10)
'0 #1 #2 #3'
```

Under Unix, the third argument `flags` may be `MMAP_SHARED` is specified for `flags`, all processes to a *mmap* object. Otherwise, the changes are argument, `prot`, may be used to disallow certain mapped file regions.

## METHODS

### **mmap.mmap.close()**

Close the memory-mapped file object. Subsequent object will raise an exception. Under Windows, is somewhat erratic, however. Note that closing same as closing the underlying file object. Closing inaccessible, but closing the memory-mapped f

object.

SEE ALSO: `FILE.close()` 16;

## **`mmap.mmap.find(sub [,pos])`**

Similar to *string.find()* . Return the index position of the first occurrence of sub in the mmap object. If the optional second argument pos is present, then the search begins at pos. If pos is relative to pos. Return -1 if no occurrence is found.

```
>>> open('test','w').write(' #'.join('0' * 1000))
>>> fp = open('test','r+')
>>> import mmap
>>> mm = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(), 0)
>>> mm.find('21')
74
>>> mm.find('21',100)
-26
>>> mm.tell()
0
```

SEE ALSO: `mmap.mmap.seek()` 152; `string.find()`

## **`mmap.mmap.flush([offset, size])`**

Writes changes made in memory to *mmap* object. The second argument size must either both be specified, only the position starting at offset or

*mmap.mmap.flush()* is necessary to guarantee that changes *will not* be written to the file. The interpreter housekeeping. *mmap* should not be used for I/O (since changes may not be cancelable).

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.flush()` 16;

### **`mmap.mmap.move(target, source, length)`**

Copy a substring within a memory-mapped file. The first argument is the target location. The second argument is the first location from the position source. It is allowable to have the target range, but it must not go past the last page of the file.

```
>>> open('test','w').write(''.join([
>>> fp = open('test','r+')
>>> import mmap
>>> mm = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(), 0)
>>> mm[:]
'AAAAAAAAAABBBBBBBBBBBBCCCCCCCCCDDDDDDI
>>> mm.move(40, 0, 5)
>>> mm[:]
```

```
'AAAAAAAAAABBBBBBBBBBBBCCCCCCCCCCCCDDDDDI
```

## **mmap.mmap.read(num)**

Return a string containing num bytes, starting from the current position and moving to the end of the read string. In contrast to *file.read()*, *mmap.mmap.read()* always requires that a byte map file object not fully substitutable for a file object. The following is safe for both true file objects and mmap objects.

```
>>> open('test','w').write(' #'.join('A' * 1000000))
>>> fp = open('test','r+')
>>> import mmap
>>> mm = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(), 0)
>>> def safe_readall(file):
...     try:
...         length = len(file)
...         return file.read(length)
...     except TypeError:
...         return file.read()
...
>>> s1 = safe_readall(fp)
>>> s2 = safe_readall(mm)
>>> s1 == s2
```



1

**SEE ALSO:** `mmap.mmap.read_byte()` 151; `mmap.mmap.write()` 153; `FILE.read()` 17;

## **`mmap.mmap.read_byte()`**

Return a one-byte string from the current file pointer. Same as `mmap.mmap.read(1)`.

**SEE ALSO:** `mmap.mmap.read()` 150; `mmap.mmap.read_byte()` 151;

## **`mmap.mmap.readline()`**

Return a string from the memory-mapped file object and going to the next newline character. Advanced read.

**SEE ALSO:** `mmap.mmap.read()` 150; `mmap.mmap.read_byte()` 151;

## **`mmap.mmap.resize(newsize)`**

Change the size of a memory-mapped file object underlying file or merely to expand the area of

file is padded with null bytes (`\000`) unless other operations on *mmap* objects, changes to the user's `.flush()` is performed.

SEE ALSO: `mmap.mmap.flush()` 150;

## mmap.mmap.seek(offset [,mode])

Change the current file position. If a second argument can be selected. The default is 0, absolute file position. Mode 2 is relative to the current file position. Mode 3 is relative to the end of the file. The distance to move the current file position in mode 2 and 3 must be smaller than the whole size of the underlying file. The distance to move the current file position in mode 1 must be negative, in mode 1 the current position can be selected.

SEE ALSO: `FILE.seek()` 17;

## mmap.mmap.size()

Return the length of the underlying file. The size less than the whole file is mapped:

```
>>> open('test','w').write('X'*100)
>>> fp = open('test','r+')
>>> import mmap
```

```
>>> mm = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(), 50)
>>> mm.size()
100
>>> len(mm)
50
```

**SEE ALSO:** *len()* 14; *mmap.mmap.seek()* 152;

## **mmap.mmap.tell()**

Return the current file position.

```
>>> open('test', 'w').write('X'*100)
>>> fp = open('test', 'r+')
>>> import mmap
>>> mm = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(), 0)
>>> mm.tell()
0
>>> mm.seek(20)
>>> mm.tell()
20
>>> mm.read(20)
'XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX'
>>> mm.tell()
```

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.tell()` 17; `mmap.mmap.seek()`

## **`mmap.mmap.write(s)`**

Write `s` into the memory-mapped file object at position is updated to the position following the useful for functions that expect to be passed a However, for new code, it is generally more nat operations to write contents. For example:

```
>>> open('test','w').write('X'*50)
>>> fp = open('test','r+')
>>> import mmap
>>> mm = mmap.mmap(fp.fileno(), 0)
>>> mm.write('AAAAA')
>>> mm.seek(10)
>>> mm.write('BBBBB')
>>> mm[30:35] = 'SSSSS'
>>> mm[:]
'AAAAAXXXXXBBBBBXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXSSSSS'
>>> mm.tell()
15
```

SEE ALSO: `FILE.write()` 17; `mmap.mmap.read()`

## `mmap.mmap.write_byte(c)`

Write a one-byte string to the current file position.  
Same as `mmap.mmap.write(c)` where `c` is a one-byte string.

SEE ALSO: `mmap.mmap.write()` 153;

---

---

**StringIO • File-like objects that read from and write to strings**

---

---

---

---

**cStringIO • Fast, but incomplete, StringIO**

---

---

The *StringIO* and *cStringIO* modules allow a programmer to create "string buffers." These special *StringIO* objects apply to "true" file objects, but without any connection to the underlying file.

The most common use of string buffer objects is with byte-streams in files are to be applied to string buffer object behaves in a file-like manner and objects.

*cStringIO* is much faster than *StringIO* and should provide a *StringIO* class whose instances are the

cannot be subclassed (and therefore cannot properly handle Unicode strings. One rarely needs to support in *cStringIO* could be a problem for many support write operations, which makes its string handling against an in-memory file can be accomplished

A string buffer object may be initialized with a string, so, that is the initial content of the buffer. Below is an example (handling):

```
>>> from cStringIO import StringIO as StringIO
>>> from StringIO import StringIO as StringIO
>>> alef, omega = unichr(1488), unichr(1489)
>>> sentence = "In set theory, the  $\aleph_0$  is the
...             ordinal limit of the sequence of
...              $\aleph_n$  represents the cardinality of the set of
>>> sio = StringIO(sentence)
>>> try:
...     csio = CSIO(sentence)
...     print "New string buffer from UNCODED string"
... except TypeError:
...     csio = CSIO(sentence.encode('utf-8'))
...     print "New string buffer from ENCODED string"
...
New string buffer from ENCODED string
>>> sio.getvalue() == unicode(csio.getvalue(), 'utf-8')
```

```

1
>>> try:
...     sio.getvalue() == csio.getvalue()
... except UnicodeError:
...     print "Cannot even compare Unicode with str"
...
Cannot even compare Unicode with str
>>> lines = csio.readlines()
>>> len(lines)
3
>>> sio.seek(0)
>>> print sio.readline().encode('utf8')
In set theory, the Greek letter sigma represents the set of
>>> sio.tell(), csio.tell()
(51, 124)

```

## CONSTANTS

### **cStringIO.InputType**

The type of a *cStringIO.StringIO* instance that is used to create *cStringIO.StringIO* instances are simply Instances.

**SEE ALSO:** *cStringIO.StringIO* 155;

## cStringIO.OutputType

The type of `cStringIO.StringIO` instance that has read/write). All `StringIO.StringIO` instances are

SEE ALSO: `cStringIO.StringIO` 155;

## CLASSES

## StringIO.StringIO ([buf=...])

## cStringIO.StringIO([buf])

Create a new string buffer. If the first argument is non-NULL, it contains the initial string content. If the *cStringIO* module is used, the *write* flag indicates whether write access to the buffer is enabled. *mode* must be initialized with no argument, otherwise it must be *r*, *w*, or *r+*. The buffer, however, is always read/write.

## METHODS

## StringIO.StringIO.close()

## cStringIO.StringIO.close()



Close the string buffer. No access is permitted a

**SEE ALSO:** FILE.close() 16;

**StringIO.StringIO.flush()**  
**cStringIO.StringIO.flush()**

Compatibility method for file-like behavior. Data  
there is no need to finalize a write to disk.

**SEE ALSO:** FILE.close() 16;

**StringIO.StringIO.getvalue()**  
**cStringIO.StringIO.getvalue()**

Return the entire string held by the string buffer.  
Basically, this is the way you convert back from

**StringIO.StringIO.isatty()**  
**cStringIO.StringIO.isatty()**

Return 0. Compatibility method for file-like beh

**SEE ALSO:** FILE.isatty() 16;

**StringIO.StringIO.read ([num])**  
**cStringIO.StringIO.read ([num])**

If the first argument num is specified, return a num characters are not available, return as many all the characters from current file position to end position by the amount read.

**SEE ALSO:** FILE.read() 17; mmap.mmap.read()

**StringIO.StringIO.readline([length=...])**  
**cStringIO.StringIO.readline([length])**

Return a string from the string buffer, starting from the next newline character. Advance the current file

**SEE ALSO:** mmap.mmap.readline() 151; StringIO.StringIO.readlines() 156; FILE.readline

**StringIO.StringIO.readlines([sizehint=...])**  
**cStringIO.StringIO.readlines([sizehint])**

Return a list of strings from the string buffer. Each including the trailing newline character(s). If an

approximately sizehint characters worth of lines

**SEE ALSO:** `StringIO.StringIO.readline()` 156; `File`

## **`cStringIO.StringIO.reset()`**

Sets the current file position to the beginning of the file.  
`cStringIO.StringIO.seek(0)`.

**SEE ALSO:** `StringIO.StringIO.seek()` 156;

## **`StringIO.StringIO.seek(offset [,mode=0])` `cStringIO.StringIO.seek(offset [,mode])`**

Change the current file position. If the second argument is not 0, a mode can be selected. The default is 0, absolute file position. Mode 1 is relative to the current file position. Mode 2 is relative to the end of the file. The offset specifies the distance to move the current file position. In mode 2 it should be negative, in mode 1 the offset should be positive or backward.

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.seek()` 17; `mmap.mmap.seek()`

## **`StringIO.StringIO.tell()` `cStringIO.StringIO.tell()`**

Return the current file position in the string buffer

**SEE ALSO:** `StringIO.StringIO.seek()` 156;

**`StringIO.StringIO.truncate([len=0])`**  
**`cStringIO.StringIO.truncate ([len])`**

Reduce the length of the string buffer to the first character only reduce characters later than the current file position  
`cStringIO.StringIO.reset()` can be used to assure the file position is at the beginning

**SEE ALSO:** `StringIO.StringIO.seek()` 156; `cStringIO.StringIO.close()` 155;

**`StringIO.StringIO.write(s=...)`**  
**`cStringIO.StringIO.write(s)`**

Write the first argument s into the string buffer  
The file position is updated to the position following the last character written

**SEE ALSO:** `StringIO.StringIO.writelines()` 157;  
`StringIO.StringIO.read()` 156; `FILE.write()` 17;

**`StringIO.StringIO.writelines(list=...)`**  
**`cStringIO.StringIO.writelines(list)`**

Write each element of list into the string buffer position is updated to the position following the an actual list. For the *StringIO* method, other s best to coerce an argument into an actual list f strings, or a `TypeError` will occur.

Contrary to what might be expected from the n never inserts newline characters. For the list el string buffer, each element string must already following variants on writing a list to a string bu

```
>>> from StringIO import StringIO
>>> sio = StringIO()
>>> lst = [c*5 for c in 'ABC']
>>> sio.writelines(lst)
>>> sio.write(''.join(lst))
>>> sio.write('\n'.join(lst))
>>> print sio.getvalue()
AAAAABBBBBBBBBCCCCCAAAAABBBBBBBBBCCCCCAAAA
BBBBB
CCCCC
```

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.writelines()` 17; `StringIO.StringIO`

## 2.2.3 Converting Between Binary and ASCII

The Python standard library provides several modules for 7-bit ASCII. At the low level, *binascii* is a C extension. At the high level, *base64*, *binhex*, *quopri*, and *uu* provide wrappers around *binascii*.

## **base64 • Convert to/from base64 encoding**

The *base64* module is a wrapper around the functions in *binascii.b2a-base64()*. As well as providing a file-like interface for string conversions, *base64* handles the chunking and line wrapping provides for the direct encoding of arbitrary input and output headers to encoded data; MIME standards for headers and other modules that utilize *base64*. Base64 encoding and decoding.

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **base64.encode(input=..., output=...)**

Encode the contents of the first argument input and output should be file-like objects; input and output should be writable.

### **base64.encodestring(s=...)**

Return the base64 encoding of the string `pass`

**`base64.decode(input=..., output=...)`**

Decode the contents of the first argument `input`; `input` and `output` should be file-like objects; `input` is readable, `output` is writable.

**`base64.decodestring(s=...)`**

Return the decoding of the base64-encoded string `s`

**SEE ALSO:** [email 345](#); [rfc822 397](#); [mimetools 396](#); [binascii 159](#); [quopri 162](#);

---

**binascii • Convert between binary data and ASCII**

---

The *binascii* module is a C implementation of a set of functions for converting binary data to and from ASCII. Each function in the *binascii* module takes a string as an argument, and returns the string result of the conversion. The functions apply to the length of strings passed to some functions (e.g., `binascii.a2b_base64`), and operate on specific block sizes (e.g., `binascii.crc32`).

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **binascii.a2b\_base64(s)**

Return the decoded version of a base64-encoded string. Encoding blocks should be passed as the argument.

### **binascii.a2b\_hex(s)**

Return the decoded version of a hexadecimal-encoded string. Number of hexadecimal digits should be passed as the argument.

### **binascii.a2b\_hqx(s)**

Return the decoded version of a binhex-encoded string. Number of encoded binary bytes should be passed as the argument.

### **binascii.a2b\_qp(s [,header=0])**

Return the decoded version of a quoted printable string. Number of encoded binary bytes should be passed as the argument. If the argument header is specified, underscores will be decoded as spaces.



## **binascii.a2b\_uu(s)**

Return the decoded version of a UUencoded string. The encoding block should be passed as the argument s (the number of bytes returned).

## **binascii.b2a\_base64(s)**

Return the base64 encoding of a binary string. A string no longer than 57 bytes should be passed as the argument s.

## **binascii.b2a\_hex(s)**

Return the hexadecimal encoding of a binary string. A string should be passed as the argument s.

## **binascii.b2a\_hqx(s)**

Return the binhex4 encoding of a binary string. A string should be passed as the argument s. Run-length compression is optional (use *binascii.rlecode\_hqx()* first, if needed).

## **binascii.b2a\_qp(s [,quotetabs=0 [,istext=1 [hexchars=0]])**

Return the quoted printable encoding of a binary string *s* that can be passed as the argument *s*. The optional argument *quotetabs* specifies spaces and tabs; *istext* specifies *not* to newline as underscores (and escape underscores). Newline characters are escaped as `\n`.

## **binascii.b2a\_uu(s)**

Return the UUencoding of a binary string (including newlines). A binary string *s* is the argument *s*.

## **binascii.crc32(s [,crc])**

Return the CRC32 checksum of the first argument *s*. If *crc* is not None, it will be used as an initial checksum. This allows for continuation. For example:

```
>>> import binascii
>>> crc = binascii.crc32('spam')
>>> binascii.crc32(' and eggs', crc)
739139840
>>> binascii.crc32('spam and eggs')
```

739139840

## **binascii.crc\_hqx(s, crc)**

Return the binhex4 checksum of the first argument. This allows partial computation of a

```
>>> import binascii
>>> binascii.crc_hqx('spam and eggs'
17918
>>> crc = binascii.crc_hqx('spam', 0)
>>> binascii.crc_hqx(' and eggs', cr
17918
```

**SEE ALSO:** `binascii.crc32` 160;

## **binascii.hexlify(s)**

Identical to `binascii.b2a_hex()`.

## **binascii.rlecode\_hqx(s)**

Return the binhex4 run-length encoding (RLE) of the first argument.

0x90 is used as an indicator byte. Independent of precompression for encoded strings.

SEE ALSO: `zlib.compress()` 182;

## **`binascii.rledecode_hqx(s)`**

Return the expansion of a binhex4 run-length encoded string `s`.

## **`binascii.unhexlify(s)`**

Identical to `binascii.a2b_hex()`

## **EXCEPTIONS**

### **`binascii.Error`**

Generic exception that should only result from

### **`binascii.Incomplete`**

Exception raised when a data block is incomplete

errors in reading blocks, but it could indicate data

**SEE ALSO:** [base64 158](#); [binhex 161](#); [uu 163](#);

---

---

## **binhex • Encode and decode binhex4 files**

---

---

The *binhex* module is a wrapper around the functions *binascii.rlecode\_hqx()*, *binascii.rledecode\_hqx()*, providing a file-based interface on top of the underlying *binascii* module. It handles the encoding of encoded files and attaches the needed resource fork on MacOS, the resource fork of a file is encoded on all other platforms).

## **FUNCTIONS**

### **binhex.binhex(inp=..., out=...)**

Encode the contents of the first argument *inp* to a file *filename*; *out* may be either a filename or a file object. If *out* is not "file-like" enough since it will be closed and its value lost. You could override the *close()* method to work around this limitation.

## **binhex.hexbin(inp=...[,out=...])**

Decode the contents of the first argument to a file if specified, it will be used as the output filename the binhex header. The argument `inp` may be e

## **CLASSES**

A number of internal classes are used by *binhex*. examined in `$PYTHONHOME/lib/binhex.py` if de this).

**SEE ALSO:** *binascii 159;*

---

---

### **quopri • Convert to/from quoted printable**

---

---

The *quopri* module is a wrapper around the function *binascii.b2a\_qp()*. The module *quopri* has the same interface as *binascii*. It adds no content headers to encoded data; MIME wrapping are handled by other modules that use it as specified in RFC 1521.

## **FUNCTIONS**

## **quopri.encode(input, output, quotetabs)**

Encode the contents of the first argument input. input and output should be file-like objects; input should be readable and output should be writable. If quotetabs is a true value, escape tabs

## **quopri.encodestring(s [,quotetabs=0])**

Return the quoted printable encoding of the string s. If quotetabs is a true value, escape tabs and spaces

## **quopri.decode(input=..., output=...[,header=0])**

Decode the contents of the first argument input. input and output should be file-like objects; input should be readable and output should be writable. If header is a true value, decode spaces

## **quopri.decodestring(s [,header=0])**

Return the decoding of the quoted printable string s. If header is a true value, decode underscores as spaces.

**SEE ALSO:** email 345; rfc822 397; mimetools 3

396; binascii 159; base64 158;

---

## **uu • UUencode and UUdecode files**

---

The *uu* module is a wrapper around the function `uu.encode` as well as providing a file-based interface on top of it. It handles the chunking of binary files into UUencode header and footer.

## **FUNCTIONS**

**`uu.encode(in, out, [name=...[,mode=0666]])`**

Encode the contents of the first argument `in` to `out` should be file objects, but filenames are also allowed. A special filename `"-"` can be used to specify STDIN/STDOUT. If objects are passed as arguments, `in` must be readable and `out` must be writable. If an argument name can be used to specify the filename for `out` by default it is the name of `in`. The fourth argument `mode` is the file mode for UUencoding header.

**`uu.decode(in, [,out_file=...[, mode=...]])`**



Decode the contents of the first argument in to out\_file is specified, it will be used as the output from the UUencoding header. Arguments in and are also accepted (the latter is deprecated). If out\_file is either unspecified or is a filename), c

SEE ALSO: binascii 159;

## 2.2.4 Cryptography

Python does not come with any standard and g included capabilities are fairly narrow in purpos standard library consist of several cryptographi encryption algorithm. A quick survey of cryptog absent from the standard library:

**Symmetrical Encryption:** Any technique by v with a key K to produce a cyphertext C. Applicat C is called "decryption" and produces as output form of symmetrical encryption.

**Cryptographic Hash:** Any technique by which message M that has several additional properti any M' such that the cryptographic hash of M' is M', there is a very low probability that the cryp Sometimes a third property is included: (3) Giv hash H', examining the relationship between H

whose hash is  $H'$ . The standard modules *crypt*,  
hashes.

**Asymmetrical Encryption:** Also called "public pair of keys  $K_{pub}$  and  $K_{priv}$  can be generated to an asymmetrical encryption technique will be a plaintext message  $M$ ,  $M$  equals  $P(K_{priv}, P(M, K_{pub}))$  difficult to obtain a private-key  $K_{priv}$  that assures  $P(M, K_{pub})$ , it is difficult to obtain  $M$ . In general user generates  $K_{pub}$  and  $K_{priv}$ , then releases  $K_{pub}$  as secret. There is no support for asymmetrical encryption.

**Digital Signatures:** Digital signatures are real cases, the same underlying algorithm is used for which a pair of keys  $K_{Ver}$  and  $K_{Sig}$  can be generated. The algorithm for a digital signature will be called  $S$ .  $M$  equals  $P(K_{Ver}, P(M, K_{Sig}))$ . (2) Given only a verification signature key  $K_{Sig}$  that assures the equality in finding any  $C'$  such that  $P(K_{Ver}, C)$  is a plausible message (is not a forgery). In general, in a digital signature system, the sender then releases  $K_{Ver}$  to other users but retains  $K_{Sig}$  for their own signatures in the standard library.

[illegible]

Those outlined are the most important cryptographic introductions to cryptology and cryptography can

tutorial is *Introduction to Cryptology Concepts* .

<<http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/crypt>

Further material is in *Introduction to Cryptology*

<<http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/crypt>

And more advanced material is in *Intermediate*

<<http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/crypt>

A number of third-party modules have been created. A guide to these third-party tools is the Vaults of

<<http://www.vex.net/parnassus/apyllo.py?i=94>  
library will be covered here specifically, since all of the topic of text processing as such. Moreover, non-Python libraries, which will not be present, necessarily be maintained as new Python versions

The most important third-party modules are listed. I believe they are likely to be maintained and that practical algorithms.

**mxCrypto**  
**amkCrypto**

Marc-Andre Lemburg and Andrew Kuchling both modules have played a game of leapfrog with each other, *amkCrypto*, respectively. Each release of either providing compatible interfaces and overlapping features. If you read this is the best bet. Current information

<<http://www.amk.ca/python/code/crypto.htm>>

## Python Cryptography

Andrew Kuchling, who has provided a great deal of documentation for these cryptography modules at:

<<http://www.amk.ca/python/writing/pycrypt/>>

## M2Crypto

The *mxCrypto* and *amkCrypto* modules are more similar in range of cryptographic capabilities for a long time than Sion's *M2Crypto*. Information and documentation

<<http://www.post1.com/home/ngps/m2/>>

## fcrypt

Carey Evans has created *fcrypt*, which is a pure standard library's *crypt* module. While probably implementation, *fcrypt* will run anywhere that has this functionality). *fcrypt* may be obtained at:

<<http://home.clear.net.nz/pages/c.evans/sw/>

---

---

## **crypt • Create and verify Unix-style passwords**

---

---

The `crypt()` function is a frequently used, but somewhat obscure creation/verification tool. Under Unix-like systems, it is used to create and verify passwords and may be called from wrapper functions in libraries. The `crypt()` function is a cryptographic hash based on the Data Encryption Standard (DES). `crypt()` is based on an 8-byte key and a 2-byte salt. It performs a repeated encryption of a constant string, using the salt to perturb the encryption in one of 4,096 ways. The result is a string of alphanumeric characters plus dot and slash.

By using a cryptographic hash, passwords may be stored in a way that an imposter cannot easily produce a false password. Even if an imposter has access to the password file, "dictionary attacks" are more difficult. If an imposter tries applying `crypt()` to a candidate password against the password file, the chances of a match are much higher. Without a salt, the chances of a match are much higher. The salt (a random value) should be used to make each guess by 4,096 times.

The *crypt* module is only installed on some Python versions. Moreover, the module, if installed, relies on an approach to password creation, the third-party Python reimplementation.

## FUNCTIONS

### **crypt.crypt(pwd, salt)**

Return an ASCII 13-byte encrypted password. The first eight characters are truncated to eight characters in length (extra characters are truncated). The second argument salt must be a string up to eight characters in length (extra characters are truncated). The value of salt forms the first

```
>>> from crypt import crypt
>>> crypt('mypassword', 'XY')
'XY5XuULXk4pcs'
>>> crypt('mypasswo', 'XY')
'XY5XuULXk4pcs'
>>> crypt('mypassword...more.characters', 'XY')
'XY5XuULXk4pcs'
>>> crypt('mypasswo', 'AB')
'AB061nfYxWIKg'
>>> crypt('diffpass', 'AB')
```

'AB105BopaFYNs '

SEE ALSO: *fcrypt* 165; *md5* 167; *sha* 170;

---

## **md5 • Create MD5 message digests**

---

RSA Data Security, Inc.'s MD5 cryptographic hash algorithm is defined in RFC1321. Like *sha*, and unlike *crypt*, *md5* allow arbitrary strings (Unicode strings may not be handled with the same consideration) such as compatibility with other algorithms. *md5* is currently considered a better algorithm than MD4 for most applications. The operation of *md5* obviates the need for that the final hash value may be built progressively. The MD5 algorithm produces a 128-bit hash.

## **CONSTANTS**

### **md5.MD5Type**

The type of an *md5.new* instance.

## **CLASSES**

## **md5.new([s])**

Create an *md5* object. If the first argument *s* is the initial string *s*. An MD5 hash can be computed

```
>>> import md5
>>> md5.new('Mary had a little lamb')
'e946adb45d4299def2071880d30136d4'
```

## **md5.md5([s])**

Identical to *md5.new*.

## **METHODS**

### **md5.copy()**

Return a new *md5* object that is identical to the original. This is useful for computing the MD5 of a long string of data in chunks. Terminal strings can be concatenated to the clo

```
>>> import md5
>>> m = md5.new('spam and eggs')
>>> m.digest()
```



```

'\xb5\x81f\x0c\xff\x17\xe7\x8c\x84\x
>>> m2 = m.copy()
>>> m2.digest()
'\xb5\x81f\x0c\xff\x17\xe7\x8c\x84\x
>>> m.update(' are tasty')
>>> m2.update(' are wretched')
>>> m.digest()
'*\x94\xa2\xc5\xceq\x96\xef&\x1a\xc9
>>> m2.digest()
'h\x8c\xfa\xe3\xb0\x90\xe8\x0e\xcb\

```

## **md5.digest()**

Return the 128-bit digest of the current state o  
 byte will contain a full 8-bit range of possible v

```

>>> import md5 # Python 2.1
>>> m = md5.new('spam and eggs')
>>> m.digest()
'\xb5\x81f\x0c\xff\x17\xe7\x8c\x84\x

```

```

>>> import md5 # Python <=
>>> m = md5.new('spam and eggs')
>>> m.digest()

```

```
'\265\201f\014\377\027\347\214\204\3
```

## **md5.hexdigest()**

Return the 128-bit digest of the current state of the *md5* object. Each byte will contain only values that represent 8-bits of hash, and this format may vary by email.

```
>>> import md5
>>> m = md5.new('spam and eggs')
>>> m.hexdigest()
'b581660cff17e78c84c3a84ad02e6785'
```

## **md5.update(s)**

Concatenate additional strings to the *md5* object. The number of concatenation steps that go into the actual string that would result from concatenating all the strings is determined by the number of calls to *md5.update()*. However, for large strings that are determined by the number of calls to *md5.update()* numerous times. For example:

```
>>> import md5
>>> m1 = md5.new('spam and eggs')
```

```
>>> m2 = md5.new('spam')
>>> m2.update(' and eggs')
>>> m3 = md5.new('spam')
>>> m3.update(' and ')
>>> m3.update('eggs')
>>> m1.hexdigest()
'b581660cff17e78c84c3a84ad02e6785'
>>> m2.hexdigest()
'b581660cff17e78c84c3a84ad02e6785'
>>> m3.hexdigest()
'b581660cff17e78c84c3a84ad02e6785'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `sha 170`; `crypt 166`; `binascii.crc32()`

---

---

## **rotor • Perform Enigma-like encryption and decryption**

---

---

The *rotor* module is a bit of a curiosity in the PyCrypto library. The encryption performed by *rotor* is similar to that of the interesting and important Enigma algorithm. Given the fact that Turing invented the theory of computability, but also that the inclusion of *rotor* in the library has a nice literary quality to it, it is not surprising that it is often mistaken for a robust modern encryption algorithm. In reality, there are two types of encryption algorithms: those that will stop a person from reading your messages, and those that will stop an organization from reading your messages. *rotor* is the latter.

rather bright little sisters. But *rotor* will not help. On the other hand, there is nothing else in the military-grade encryption, either.

## CLASSES

### **rotor.newrotor(key [,numrotors])**

Return a *rotor* object with rotor permutations a key. If the second argument numrotors is specified, it can be used (more is stronger). A rotor encrypts

```
>>> rotor.newrotor('mypassword').encrypt(' \x10\xef\xfl\xle\xeaor\xe9\xfa\xee5\')
```

Object style encryption and decryption is performed as follows:

```
>>> import rotor
>>> C = rotor.newrotor('pass2').encrypt('Mary had a little lamb')
>>> r1 = rotor.newrotor('mypassword')
>>> C2 = r1.encrypt('Mary had a little lamb')
>>> r1.decrypt(C2)
'Mary had a little lamb'
>>> r1.decrypt(C)      # Let's try it
'\217R$\217/sE\311\330~#\310\342\200'
```

```
>>> r1.setkey('pass2')
>>> r1.decrypt(C)      # Let's try it
'Mary had a little lamb'
```

## **METHODS**

### **rotor.decrypt(s)**

Return a decrypted version of cyphertext string initial positions.

### **rotor.decryptmore(s)**

Return a decrypted version of cyphertext string current positions.

### **rotor.encrypt(s)**

Return an encrypted version of plaintext string initial positions.

### **rotor.encryptmore(s)**

Return an encrypted version of plaintext string current positions.

### **rotor.setkey (key)**

Set a new key for a *rotor* object.

---

---

## **sha • Create SHA message digests**

---

---

The National Institute of Standards and Technology has defined the SHA-1 hash function, the best well-known cryptographic hash for most purposes. The SHA-1 algorithm allows one to find the cryptographic hash of arbitrary data (i.e., any data that can be hashed, however). Absent any other considerations, SHA-1 is currently considered a better algorithm than MD5. SHA-1 should be used for cryptographic hashes. The `crc32` module provides a `binascii.crc32()` hashes in that the final hash value is returned as a concatenated string. The SHA algorithm produces a 160-bit hash value.

## **CLASSES**

### **sha.new([s])**

Create an *sha* object. If the first argument *s* is

the initial string *s*. An SHA hash can be comput

```
>>> import sha
>>> sha.new('Mary had a little lamb'
'bac9388d0498fb378e528d35abd05792291
```

## **sha.sha ([s])**

Identical to *sha.new*.

## **METHODS**

### **sha.copy()**

Return a new *sha* object that is identical to the  
terminal strings can be concatenated to the clo

```
>>> import sha
>>> s = sha.new('spam and eggs')
>>> s.digest()
'\276\207\224\213\255\375x\024\245b\
>>> s2 = s.copy()
>>> s2.digest()
```

```
'\276\207\224\213\255\375x\024\245b\
>>> s.update(' are tasty')
>>> s2.update(' are wretched')
>>> s.digest()
'\013^C\366\253?I\323\206nt\2443\251
>>> s2.digest()
'\013\210\237\216\014\3337X\333\221r
```

## **sha.digest()**

Return the 160-bit digest of the current state o  
will contain a full 8-bit range of possible values

```
>>> import sha # Python 2.1
>>> s = sha.new('spam and eggs')
>>> s.digest()
'\xbe\x87\x94\x8b\xad\xfd\x14\xa5b\
```

```
>>> import sha # Python <=
>>> s = sha.new('spam and eggs')
>>> s.digest()
'\276\207\224\213\255\375x\024\245b\
```

## **sha.hexdigest()**



Return the 160-bit digest of the current state of the encoded string. Each byte will contain only values that represents 8-bits of hash, and this format may vary from email.

```
>>> import sha
>>> s = sha.new('spam and eggs')
>>> s.hexdigest()
'be87948badfd7814a5621e43d20faa38204'
```

## **sha.update(s)**

Concatenate additional strings to the *sha* object. The number of concatenation steps that go into the actual string that would result from concatenating all the strings is only the actual string that would result from concatenating all the strings. However, for large strings that are determined to be too large to concatenate all at once, *sha.update()* can be called numerous times. For example:

```
>>> import sha
>>> s1 = sha.sha('spam and eggs')
>>> s2 = sha.sha('spam')
>>> s2.update(' and eggs')
>>> s3 = sha.sha('spam')
>>> s3.update(' and ')
>>> s3.update('eggs')
```

```
>>> s1.hexdigest()  
'be87948badfd7814a5621e43d20faa38204'  
>>> s2.hexdigest()  
'be87948badfd7814a5621e43d20faa38204'  
>>> s3.hexdigest()  
'be87948badfd7814a5621e43d20faa38204'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `md5` 167; `crypt` 166; `binascii.crc32`

## 2.2.5 Compression

Over the history of computers, a large number of compression algorithms have been invented, mostly as variants on Lempel-Ziv and Huffman coding, but also for all sorts of data streams, but file-level archiving and known application. Under MS-DOS and Windows, the most common are ARJ, CAB, RAR, and other formats but the ZIP format is the most popular variant. Under Unix-like systems, `compress` (.Z) and `gzip` (.gz) are the most popular format on these systems, but `gzip` has better compression rates. Under MacOS, the most popular format is `zip`. There are additional variants on archive formats, but ZIP is the most common on a number of platforms.

The Python standard library includes support for compression. The `zlib` module performs low-level compression of raw data, and is itself called by the high-level modules below for file-level compression.

The modules *gzip* and *zipfile* provide file-level interfaces to the `gzip` and `zip` formats, respectively.

notable difference in the operation of *gzip* and the underlying GZ and ZIP formats. *gzip* (GZ) operates by concatenating collections of files to tools like Unix-like systems) files like `foo.tar.gz` or `foo.tgz` (a collection of files, then applying *gzip* to the result to provide compression and archiving aspects in a single tool to create file-like objects based directly on the result to provide more specialized methods for navigating individual compressed file images therein.

Also see [Appendix B](#) (A Data Compression Primer)

## **gzip • Functions that read and write gzipped files**

The *gzip* module allows the treatment of the compressed data directly in a file-like manner. Uncompressed data can be written back in, all without a caller knowing or doing. A simple example illustrates this:

### **gzip\_file.py**

```
# Treat a GZ as "just another file"
import gzip, glob
print "Size of data in files:"
```

```

for fname in glob.glob('*'):
    try:
        if fname[-3:] == '.gz':
            s = gzip.open(fname).read()
        else:
            s = open(fname).read()
        print ' ', fname, '-', len(s), '
    except IOError:
        print 'Skipping', file

```

The module *gzip* is a wrapper around *zlib*, with and decompression tasks. In many respects, *gz* emulating and/or wrapping a file object.

**SEE ALSO:** *mmap* 147; *StringIO* 153; *cStringIO*

## CLASSES

**gzip.GzipFile([filename=...,mode="rb" [,compress=9]])**

Create a *gzip* file-like object. Such an object supports the exception of *.seek()* and *.tell()*. Either the first fileobj should be specified (likely by argument *fileobj*)

The second argument *mode* takes the mode of

(r, rb, a, ab, w, or wb may be specified with the  
The third argument compresslevel specifies the  
highest level, 9; an integer down to 1 may be s  
operation (compression level of a read file com

**gzip.open(filename=...[mode='rb [,compressle**

Same as *gzip.GzipFile* but with extra argument:  
*gzip.open* is always opened by name, not by ur

## **METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES**

**gzip.close()**

Close the *gzip* object. No access is permitted af  
object, the underlying file object is not closed,

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.close()` 16;

**gzip.flush()**

Write outstanding data from memory to disk.

SEE ALSO: `FILE.close()` 16;

## **gzip.isatty()**

Return 0. Compatibility method for file-like beh

SEE ALSO: `FILE.isatty()` 16;

## **gzip.myfileobj**

Attribute holding the underlying file object.

## **gzip.read([num])**

If the first argument num is specified, return a num characters are not available, return as ma all the characters from current file position to e position by the amount read.

SEE ALSO: `FILE.read()` 17;

## **gzip.readline([length])**

Return a string from the *gzip* object, starting from the next newline character. The argument `length` limits the file position by the amount read.

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.readline()` 17;

### **`gzip.readlines([sizehint=...])`**

Return a list of strings from the *gzip* object. Each string includes the trailing newline character(s). If an argument `sizehint` is provided, it is approximately `sizehint` characters worth of lines.

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.readlines()` 17;

### **`gzip.write(s)`**

Write the first argument `s` into the *gzip* object and the file position is updated to the position following the data.

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.write()` 17;

### **`gzip.writelines(list)`**

Write each element of `list` into the *gzip* object and the file position is updated to the position following the data.

position is updated to the position following the list must contain only strings, or a `TypeError` will

Contrary to what might be expected from the name, `StringIO` does not write newline characters. For the list elements actual each element string must already have a newline character. See `StringIO.StringIO.writelines()` for an example.

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.writelines()` 17; `StringIO.StringIO`

**SEE ALSO:** `zlib` 181; `zipfile` 176;

---

---

## **zipfile • Read and write ZIP files**

---

---

The *zipfile* module enables a variety of operations on ZIP files created by applications such as PKZip, Info-Zip, etc. It allows inclusion of multiple file images within a single ZIP file in a directly file-like manner as *gzip* does. Nonetheless, it can read an archive, add new file images to one, create a new archive, and directory information of a ZIP file.

An initial example of working with the *zipfile* module:

```
>>> for name in 'ABC':  
...     open(name, 'w').write(name*100)  
... 
```



```
>>> import zipfile
>>> z = zipfile.ZipFile('new.zip', 'w')
>>> z.write('A')
>>> z.write('B', 'B.newname', zipfile.
>>> z.write('C', 'C.newname')
>>> z.close()
>>> z = zipfile.ZipFile('new.zip')
>>> z.testzip()
>>> z.namelist()
['A', 'B.newname', 'C.newname']
>>> z.printdir()
File Name
A
B.newname
C.newname
>>> A = z.getinfo('A')
>>> B = z.getinfo('B.newname')
>>> A.compress_size
11
>>> B.compress_size
1000
>>> z.read(A.filename)[:40]
'AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA'
>>> z.read(B.filename)[:40]
'BBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBB'
```

```
>>> # For comparison, see what Info-
>>> import os
>>> print os.popen('unzip -v new.zip
Archive: new.zip
Length  Method      Size  Ratio    Date
-----  -
1000    Defl:N      11    99%     07-18-
1000    Stored     1000   0%      07-18-
1000    Defl:N      11    99%     07-18-
-----  -
3000                    1022   66%
```

The module *gzip* is a wrapper around *zlib*, with and decompression tasks.

## CONSTANTS

Several string constants (*struct* formats) are used in the ZIP format. These constants are not normally used in Python.

```
zipfile.stringCentralDir = 'PK\x01\x02'
zipfile.stringEndArchive = 'PK\x05\x06'
zipfile.stringFileHeader = 'PK\x03\x04'
zipfile.structCentralDir = '<4s4B4H3'
```

```
zipfile.structEndArchive = '<4s4H21F  
zipfile.structFileHeader = '<4s2B4H3
```

Symbolic names for the two supported compress

```
zipfile.ZIP_STORED = 0  
zipfile.ZIP_DEFLATED = 8
```

## FUNCTIONS

### **zipfile.is\_zipfile(filename=...)**

Check if the argument filename is a valid ZIP a not recognized as valid archives. Return 1 if val guarantee archive is fully intact, but it does prc

## CLASSES

### **zipfile.PyZipFile(pathname)**

Create a *zipfile.ZipFile* object that has the extra method allows you to recursively add all \*.py[c purpose, but a special feature to aid *distutils*.

## **zipfile.ZipFile(file=...[,mode='r' [,compression**

Create a new *zipfile.ZipFile* object. This object's first argument file must be specified and is simply manipulated. The second argument mode may be 'r' to open an existing archive in read-only mode; 'w' to truncate the file and create a new archive; 'a' to append to an existing archive and add to it. The third argument compression method ZIP\_DEFLATED requires that *zlib* and the

## **zipfile.ZipInfo()**

Create a new *zipfile.ZipInfo* object. This object represents an archived filename and its file image. Normally, only look at the *zipfile.ZipInfo* objects that are returned by *zipfile.ZipFile.infolist()*, *zipfile.ZipFile.getinfo()*, and *zipfile.ZipFile.writestr()*, it is not

## **METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES**

## **zipfile.ZipFile.close()**

Close the *zipfile.ZipFile* object, and flush any changes to the file. This method is only used to perform updates.

## **zipfile.ZipFile.getinfo(name=...)**

Return the *zipfile.ZipInfo* object corresponding ZIP archive, a `KeyError` is raised.

## **zipfile.ZipFile.infolist()**

Return a list of *zipfile.ZipInfo* objects contained is simply a list of instances of the same type. If *zipfile.ZipFile.getinfo()* is a better method to us however, *zipfile.ZipFile.infolist()* provides a nice

## **zipfile.ZipFile.namelist()**

Return a list of the filenames of all the archive

## **zipfile.ZipFile.printdir()**

Print to STDOUT a pretty summary of archived are similar to running Info-Zip's `unzip` with the

## **zipfile.ZipFile.read(name=...)**

Return the contents of the archived file with file

### **zipfile.ZipFile.testzip()**

Test the integrity of the current archive. Return with corruption. If everything is valid, return No

### **zipfile.ZipFile.write(filename=..., arcname=...,**

Add the file filename to the *zipfile.ZipFile* object specified, use arcname as the stored filename (argument compress\_type is specified, use the i archive must be opened in w or a mode.

### **zipfile.ZipFile.writestr(zinfo=..., bytes=...)**

Write the data contained in the second argument meta-information must be contained in attribute data, and time should be included; other information be opened in w or a mode.

### **zipfile.ZipFile.NameToInfo**

Dictionary that maps filenames in archive to co  
method *zipfile.ZipFile.getinfo()* is simply a wrap

# zipfile.ZipFile.compression

Compression type currently in effect for new zip files is `deflate`.  
 Use caution (most likely not at all after initialization).

# zipfile.ZipFile.debug = 0

Attribute for level of debugging information ser  
(no output) to 3 (verbose). May be modified.

## zipfile.ZipFile.filelist

List of `zipfile.ZipInfo` objects contained in the `zipfile.ZipFile`. `zipfile.ZipFile.infolist()` is simply a wrapper to `zipfile.ZipFile.filelist` (most likely not at all).

## zipfile.ZipFile.filename

Filename of the *zipfile.ZipFile* object. DO NOT n

## **zipfile.ZipFile.fp**

Underlying file object for the *zipfile.ZipFile* object.

## **zipfile.ZipFile.mode**

Access mode of current *zipfile.ZipFile* object. Do not modify.

## **zipfile.ZipFile.start\_dir**

Position of start of central directory. DO NOT modify.

## **zipfile.ZipInfo.CRC**

Hash value of this archived file. DO NOT modify.

## **zipfile.ZipInfo.comment**

Comment attached to this archived file. Modify *zipfile.ZipFile.writestr()*.



## **zipfile.ZipInfo.compress\_size**

Size of the compressed data of this archived file.

## **zipfile.ZipInfo.compress\_type**

Compression type used with this archived file. Modify with `zipfile.ZipFile.writestr()`.

## **zipfile.ZipInfo.create\_system**

System that created this archived file. Modify with `zipfile.ZipFile.writestr()`.

## **zipfile.ZipInfo.create\_version**

PKZip version that created the archive. Modify with `zipfile.ZipFile.writestr()`.

## **zipfile.ZipInfo.date\_time**

Timestamp of this archived file. Modify with `zipfile.ZipFile.writestr()`.

*zipfile.ZipFile.writestr()*).

### **zipfile.ZipInfo.external\_attr**

File attribute of archived file when extracted.

### **zipfile.ZipInfo.extract\_version**

PKZip version needed to extract the archive. May be used in *zipfile.ZipFile.writestr()*.

### **zipfile.ZipInfo.file\_offset**

Byte offset to start of file data. DO NOT modify

### **zipfile.ZipInfo.file\_size**

Size of the uncompressed data in the archived

### **zipfile.ZipInfo.filename**

Filename of archived file. Modify with due caution.

### **zipfile.ZipInfo.header\_offset**

Byte offset to file header of the archived file. Do not modify.

### **zipfile.ZipInfo.volume**

Volume number of the archived file. DO NOT modify.

## **EXCEPTIONS**

### **zipfile.error**

Exception that is raised when corrupt ZIP file is encountered.

### **zipfile.BadZipFile**

Alias for *zipfile.error*.

**SEE ALSO:** *zlib 181*; *gzip 173*;

## **zlib • Compress and decompress with zlib**

---

*zlib* is the underlying compression engine for all modules. Moreover, *zlib* is extremely useful in its own right for data that does not necessarily live in files (or even if it winds up in them indirectly). The Python *zlib* module is a system library.

There are two basic modes of operation for *zlib*: compressing an uncompressed string to *zlib.compress()* and decompressing *zlib.decompress()* is symmetrical. In a more complex mode, *zlib* can compress or decompress objects that are able to receive and return streams, and return partial results based on what is requested. This operation is similar to the way one uses *sha.sha1.update()*, *rotor.encryptmore()*, or *binascii.crc32()* (albeit *zlib* is more complex). For large byte-streams that are determined, it is recommended to use compression/decompression objects rather than the *zlib.compress()* and *zlib.decompress()* functions. For strings, it works on a string at once (for example, if the input or result is a string).

## **CONSTANTS**

### **zlib.ZLIB\_VERSION**

The installed *zlib* system library version.

**zlib.Z\_BEST\_COMPRESSION = 9**

Highest compression level.

**zlib.Z\_BEST\_SPEED = 1**

Fastest compression level.

**zlib.Z\_HUFFMAN\_ONLY = 2**

Intermediate compression level that uses Huffman

## **FUNCTIONS**

**zlib.adler32(s [,crc])**

Return the Adler-32 checksum of the first argument specified, it will be used as an initial checksum. checksum and continuation. An Adler-32 checksum is a CRC32 checksum. Unlike *md5* or *sha*, an Adler-32 is not a cryptographic hash, but merely for detection

**SEE ALSO:** [zlib.crc32\(\)](#) 182; [md5](#) 167; [sha](#) 170

## **zlib.compress(s [,level])**

Return the zlib compressed version of the string `s`. If the argument `level` is specified, the compression level ranges from 1 to 9 and may also be specified as `Z_BEST_COMPRESSION` and `Z_BEST_SPEED`. The default is `Z_DEFAULT_COMPRESSION`. The function returns the desired compression level (usually within a factor of 2 and within a few percent of the size of `Z_BEST_COMPRESSION`).

**SEE ALSO:** `zlib.decompress()` 182; `zlib.compress2()`

## **zlib.crc32(s [,crc])**

Return the CRC32 checksum of the first argument `s`. If the argument `crc` is specified, it will be used as an initial checksum. This allows for continuation. Unlike *md5* or *sha*, a CRC32 checksum is not a cryptographic hash, but merely for detection of accidental collisions.

Identical to `binascii.crc32()` (example appears to be identical).

**SEE ALSO:** `binascii.crc32()` 160; `zlib.adler32()`

## **zlib.decompress(s [,winsize [,buffsize]])**

Return the decompressed version of the zlib compressed string `s`.

second argument `winsize` is specified, it determines the window size. The default `winsize` is 15. If the third argument `bufsize` is specified, it determines the size of the decompression buffer. The default `bufsize` is 16384. If `bufsize` is 0, a buffer is allocated if needed. One rarely needs to use `winsize` or `bufsize` defaults.

**SEE ALSO:** `zlib.compress()` 182; `zlib.decompress()` 182

## CLASS FACTORIES

*zlib* does not define true classes that can be subclassed. Instead, `zlib.compressobj()` and `zlib.decompressobj()` are actually factory-functions that return instance objects, just as classes do, but they do not have a `__base__` attribute. For most users, the difference is not important: To create a new object, you just call that factory-function in the module namespace.

### **`zlib.compressobj([level])`**

Create a compression object. A compression object is used to compress strings that are fed to it while maintaining the state of the compressed byte-streams. If argument `level` is specified, it is used to fine-tune the compression. The compression level ranges from 0 to 9, where 0 is no compression and 9 is the highest level of compression. The default is 6. The compression level is usually the desired compression level.

**SEE ALSO:** `zlib.compress()` 182; `zlib.decompress()` 182

## **zlib.decompressobj([winsize])**

Create a decompression object. A decompression object takes new strings that are fed to it while maintaining decompressed byte-streams. If the argument `winsize` is given, it is the logarithm of the history buffer size. The default is 15.

**SEE ALSO:** `zlib.decompress()` 182; `zlib.compressobj()` 182

## **METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES**

### **zlib.compressobj.compress(s)**

Add more data to the compression object. If `s` is a string, it is returned, otherwise an empty string. All returns from `zlib.compressobj.compress()` should be concatenated to form a string or a decompression object). The example below lets one examine the buffering behavior of compression.

### **zlib\_objs.py**

```
# Demonstrate compression object streaming
import zlib, glob
decom = zlib.decompressobj()
```



```

com = zlib.compressobj()
for file in glob.glob('*'):
    s = open(file).read()
    c = com.compress(s)
    print 'COMPRESSED:', len(c), 'bytes'
    d = decom.decompress(c)
    print 'DECOMPRESS:', len(d), 'bytes'
    print 'UNUSED DATA:', len(decom.
        raw_input('-- %s (%s bytes) --')
f = com.flush()
m = decom.decompress(f)
print 'DECOMPRESS:', len(m), 'bytes'
print 'UNUSED DATA:', len(decom.unus

```

**SEE ALSO:** `zlib.compressobj.flush()` 184; `zlib.decompress()` 182;

## **`zlib.compressobj.flush([mode])`**

Flush any buffered data from the compression object. The output of `zlib.compressobj.compress()`, the output of a `zlib.decompress()` concatenated to the same decompression byte-stream. If the first argument `mode` is left empty, or `Z_SYNC_FLUSH` or `Z_FULL_FLUSH` are specified.

but some uncompressed data may not be recovered.

**SEE ALSO:** `zlib.compress()` 182; `zlib.compressobj()`

## **`zlib.decompressobj.unused_data`**

As indicated, *zlib.decompressobj.unused\_data* is a string attribute of the decompression object. If any partial compressed stream cannot be decompressed, the remainder is buffered in the *unused\_data* attribute. If a new stream is received, the remainder is buffered in the *unused\_data* attribute. However, if data is received that completes a previous stream, the remainder is buffered in the *unused\_data* attribute. However, if data is received that completes a previous stream, the remainder is buffered in the *unused\_data* attribute.

**SEE ALSO:** `zlib.decompress()` 182; `zlib.decompressobj()`

## **`zlib.decompressobj.decompress (s)`**

Return the decompressed data that may be derived from the argument *s* data passed in. If all the data is decompressed, the remainder is left in *zlib.decompressobj.unused\_data*.

## **`zlib.decompressobj.flush()`**

Return the decompressed data from any bytes that have been buffered in the *unused\_data* attribute.

this call, the decompression object cannot be u

## EXCEPTIONS

### **zlib.error**

Exception that is raised by compression or decc

**SEE ALSO:** [gzip 173](#); [zipfile 176](#);

### 2.2.6 Unicode

Note that [Appendix C](#) (Understanding Unicode)

Unicode is an enhanced set of character entities defined in ASCII encoding and the codepage-sp characters each. The full Unicode character set of codepoints already fixed can contain literally representation of a large number of national ch even the large character sets of Chinese-Japan

Although Unicode defines a unique codepoint for are numerous *encodings* that correspond to each defines ASCII characters as single bytes with st characters, a variable number of bytes (up to 6 "escape" to Unicode being indicated by high-bit

UTF-16 is similar, but uses either 2 or 4 bytes to represent a character. UTF-32 is a format that uses a fixed 4-byte value to represent a character, however, is not currently supported by Python.

Native Unicode support was added to Python 2.5, which means that Python supports Unicode in all its standard library modules. That Python supports Unicode brings the world of computer applications. But in practice, you have to be careful because it is all too easy to encounter glitches.

```
>>> alef, omega = unichr(1488), unichr(1489)
>>> unicodedata.name(alef)
>>> print alef
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
UnicodeError: ASCII encoding error:
>>> print chr(170)
```

```
>>> if alef == chr(170): print "Hebrew letter Aleph"
...
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
UnicodeError: ASCII decoding error:
```

A Unicode string that is composed of only ASCII characters is not identical to a Python string of the same content.

```

>>> u"spam" == "spam"
1
>>> u"spam" is "spam"
0
>>> "spam" is "spam"      # string interop
1
>>> u"spam" is u"spam"   # unicode interop
1

```

Still, the care you take should not discourage you as Unicode enables. It is really amazingly powerful. Talking dog: It is not that he speaks so *well*, but

## **Built-In Unicode Functions/Methods**

The Unicode string method `u"".encode()` and the `encode()` operations. The Unicode string method returns a bytes object that represents it (using the specified or default encoding). These encoded strings and produce the Unicode string. Specifically, suppose we define the function:

```

>>> chk_eq = lambda u, enc: u == u.encode(enc)

```

The call `chk_eq(u, enc)` should return 1 for every encoding name and `u` is capable of being represented in that encoding.

The set of encodings supported for both built-in and user-defined encodings can be registered using the *codecs* module. Each encoding is identified by a name, and the case of the string is normalized before use (e.g., 'ASCII' and 'ascii' encodings):

### **ascii, us-ascii**

Encode using 7-bit ASCII.

### **base64**

Encode Unicode strings using the base64 4-to-3 byte encoding.

### **latin-1, iso-8859-1**

Encode using common European accent characters. For characters whose *ord()* values are identical to their Unicode counterparts, the encoding is identical to the Unicode string.

### **quopri**

Encode in quoted printable format.

## **rot13**

Not really a Unicode encoding, but "rotate 13 c  
example and convenience.

## **utf-7**

Encode using variable byte-length encoding tha  
utf-8, ASCII characters encode themselves.

## **utf-8**

Encode using variable byte-length encoding tha

## **utf-16**

Encoding using 2/4 byte encoding. Include "enc

## **utf-16-le**

Encoding using 2/4 byte encoding. Assume "litt  
indicator bytes.

## **utf-16-be**

Encoding using 2/4 byte encoding. Assume "big indicator bytes.

## **unicode-escape**

Encode using Python-style Unicode string const

## **raw-unicode-escape**

Encode using Python-style Unicode raw string c

The error modes for both built-ins are listed below. These error modes can be handled in any of several ways:

## **strict**

Raise UnicodeError for all decoding errors. Default

## **ignore**



Skip all invalid characters.

## **replace**

Replace invalid characters with ? (string target)

```
u"".encode([enc [,errmode]])  
"".encode([enc [,errmode]])
```

Return an encoded string representation of a U representation is in the style of encoding enc (c writing to a file or stream that other application several encodings:

```
>>> alef = unichr(1488)  
>>> s = 'A'+alef  
>>> s  
u'A\u05d0'  
>>> s.encode('unicode-escape')  
'A\\u05d0'  
>>> s.encode('utf-8')  
'A\xd7\x90'  
>>> s.encode('utf-16')  
'\xff\xfeA\x00\xd0\x05'
```

```
>>> s.encode('utf-16-le')
'A\x00\xd0\x05'
>>> s.encode('ascii')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
UnicodeError: ASCII encoding error:
>>> s.encode('ascii','ignore')
'A'
```

## **unicode(s [,enc [,errmode]])**

Return a Unicode string object corresponding to the argument s. The string s might be a string that has been encoded in a particular application. The representation is treated as code points. If the second argument is specified, or system default is used, the string is handled in the default strict style or in a style s

## **unichr(cp)**

Return a Unicode string object containing the character whose codepoint is passed in the argument cp.

---

**codecs • Python Codec Registry, API, and**

---

The *codecs* module contains a lot of sophisticated Python's Unicode handling. Most of those capabilities who are just interested in text processing need module, therefore, will break slightly with the standard only two very useful wrapper functions within the

**`codecs.open(filename=...[,mode='rb'[,encoding`**

This wrapper function provides a simple and direct treating its contents directly as Unicode. In contrast to the built-in *open()* function are written and read as file involves multiple passes through *u"".encode()*

The first argument *filename* specifies the name of the file. If *mode* is specified, the read/write mode can be one of those used by *open()*. If the third argument *encoding* is given to interpret the file (an incorrect encoding will probably cause handling may be modified by specifying the fourth argument *errors* as with the built-in *unicode()* function). A fifth argument *buffering* specifies a specific buffer size (on platforms that support it).

An example of usage clarifies the difference between

```
>>> import codecs
>>> alef = unichr(1488)
```

```
>>> open('unicode_test', 'wb').write(
>>> open('unicode_test').read()      #
'A\xd7\x90'
>>> # Now read directly as Unicode
>>> codecs.open('unicode_test', encod
u'A\u05d0'
```

Data written back to a file opened with *codecs*.

**SEE ALSO:** `open()` 15;

**`codecs.EncodedFile(file=..., data_encoding=.`**

This function allows an already opened file to be wrapped in a *codecs.EncodedFile* object. The mode and buffering are taken from the file object. The argument *data\_encoding* is a string specifying the encoding to use for the data. The argument *errors* is a string specifying the error handling to use. As with *codecs.open()* and *unicod*, the argument *errors* can be one of the standard Python error handling strings.

The most likely purpose for *codecs.EncodedFile* is to wrap a file object (or file-like object) in an object that can be transparently written to in one encoding. An example clarifies:

```

>>> import codecs
>>> alef = unichr(1488)
>>> open('unicode_test', 'wb').write(
>>> fp = open('unicode_test', 'rb+')
>>> fp.read()          # Plain string w/
'A\xd7\x90'
>>> utf16_writer = codecs.EncodedFil
>>> ascii_writer = codecs.EncodedFil
>>> utf16_writer.tell() # Wrapper
3
>>> s = alef.encode('utf-16')
>>> s          # Plain string as
'\xff\xfe\xd0\x05'
>>> utf16_writer.write(s)
>>> ascii_writer.write('XYZ')
>>> fp.close()          # File sh
>>> open('unicode_test').read()
'A\xd7\x90\xd7\x90XYZ'

```

**SEE ALSO:** `codecs.open()` 189;

---

**unicodedata • Database of Unicode charac**

---

The module *unicodedata* is a database of Unico

*unicodedata* take as an argument one Unicode character contained in a plain (non-Unicode) string, essentially informational, rather than transformation decisions about the transformations performed on *unicodedata*. The short utility below provides a `codepoint`:

### **unichr\_info.py**

```
# Return all the information [unicodedata]
# about the single unicode character
# is specified as a command-line argument
# Arg may be any expression evaluating to a unicode character
from unicodedata import *
import sys
char = unichr(eval(sys.argv[1]))
print 'bidirectional', bidirectional(char)
print 'category', category(char)
print 'combining', combining(char)
print 'decimal', decimal(char)
print 'decomposition', decomposition(char)
print 'digit', digit(char, 0)
print 'mirrored', mirrored(char)
print 'name', name(char, 'N/A')
```

```
print 'numeric      ', numeric(char,  
try: print 'lookup      ', 'lookup(  
except: print "Cannot lookup"
```

**The usage of unichr\_info.py is illustrated below**

```
% python unichr_info.py 1488  
bidirectional R  
category      Lo  
combining     0  
decimal       0  
decomposition  
digit         0  
mirrored      0  
name          HEBREW LETTER ALEF  
numeric       0  
lookup        u'\u05d0'
```

```
% python unichr_info.py ord('1')  
bidirectional EN  
category      Nd  
combining     0  
decimal       1  
decomposition  
digit         1
```

<code>mirrored</code>	<code>0</code>
<code>name</code>	<code>DIGIT ONE</code>
<code>numeric</code>	<code>1.0</code>
<code>lookup</code>	<code>u'1'</code>

For additional information on current Unicode c

<<http://www.unicode.org/Public/UNIDATA/Un>

## FUNCTIONS

### **unicodedata.bidirectional(unichr)**

Return the bidirectional characteristic of the character specified by `unichr`. Possible values are AL, AN, B, BN, CS, EN, ES, S, and WS. Consult the URL above for details on to-right), R (right-to-left), and WS (whitespace

### **unicodedata.category(unichr)**

Return the category of the character specified by `unichr`. Possible values are Cf, Cn, Ll, Lm, Lo, Lt, Lu, Mc, Me, Mn, Nd, Nl, No, Zl, Zp, and Zs. The first (capital) letter indicates the category (punctuation), S (symbol), Z (separator), or C



mnemonic within the major category of the first

### **unicodedata.combining(unichr)**

Return the numeric combining class of the character. The class is a number in the range 0-255, include values such as 218 (below left) or 210 (below right) for details.

### **unicodedata.decimal(unichr [,default])**

Return the numeric decimal value assigned to the character. If the second argument default is specified, return default if the character is not found, otherwise raise ValueError).

### **unicodedata.decomposition(unichr)**

Return the decomposition mapping of the character. If no decomposition exists, return an empty string. Consult the URL <http://www.unicode.org/reports/tr15/> for details. Characters that may be broken into component characters are called decomposable characters.

```
>>> from unicodedata import *
>>> name(unichr(190))
'VULGAR FRACTION THREE QUARTERS'
```

```
>>> decomposition(unichr(190))
'<fraction> 0033 2044 0034'
>>> name(unichr(0x33)), name(unichr(
('DIGIT THREE', 'FRACTION SLASH', 'I
```

## **unicodedata.digit(unichr [,default])**

Return the numeric digit value assigned to the the second argument default is specified, return ValueError).

## **unicodedata.lookup(name)**

Return the Unicode character with the name sp must be exact, and ValueError is raised if no m

```
>>> from unicodedata import *
>>> lookup('GREEK SMALL LETTER ETA')
u'\u03b7'
>>> lookup('ETA')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
KeyError: undefined character name
```

**SEE ALSO:** `unicodedata.name()` 193;

## **`unicodedata.mirrored(unichr)`**

Return 1 if the character specified in the argument `unichr` is mirrored in the bidirectional text. Return 0 otherwise.

## **`unicodedata.name(unichr)`**

Return the name of the character specified in the argument `unichr`. The name is returned in the form of a string. The name is returned in the form of a string. The name is returned in the form of a string.

**SEE ALSO:** `unicodedata.lookup()` 193;

## **`unicodedata.numeric(unichr [,default])`**

Return the floating point numeric value assigned to the character specified in the argument `unichr`. If the second argument `default` is specified, it is used as the default value. Otherwise, a `ValueError` is raised.

## Chapter 2. Basic String Operations

---

### 2.3 Solving Problems

#### 2.3.1 Exercise: Many ways to take out the garbage

##### DISCUSSION

Recall, if you will, the dictum in "The Zen of Python": "There is only one obvious way to do it." As with most dictums, this is not necessarily true. Also as with most dictums, this is not necessarily

A discussion on the newsgroup <comp.lang.python> discussed a simple problem. The immediate problem was that of parsing a string with a variety of dividers and delimiters inside it. For example, 1234567890, or 123/456-7890 might all represent the same number. This might be encountered in textual data sources (such as a log file). For purposes of this problem, the canonic

The problem mentioned here can be generalized. We are interested in only some of the characters within the string, and the rest is simply filler. So the general problem is to extract the characters of interest from the string.

The first and "obvious" approach might be a brute force approach. A naive version of this approach might look like:

```
>>> s = '(123)/456-7890'
>>> result = ''
>>> for c in s:
...     if c in '0123456789':
...         result = result + c
...
>>> result
'1234567890'
```

This first approach works fine, but it might seem a bit tedious for a single action. And it might also seem odd that we are iterating over the string rather than just transforming the whole string.

One possibly simpler approach is to use a regular expression. We will cover regular expressions in the next chapter, or who knows regular expressions.

```
>>> import re
>>> s = '(123)/456-7890'
>>> re.sub(r'\D', '', s)
```

```
'1234567890'
```

The actual work done (excluding defining the `is_digit` function) is one short expression. Good enough, but one can be frequently far slower than basic string operations in the example presented, but for processing megabytes of data.

Using a functional style of programming is one way to be terse, and perhaps more efficiently. For example:

```
>>> s = '(123)/456-7890'
>>> filter(lambda c:c.isdigit(), s)
'1234567890'
```

We also get something short, without needing the `is_digit` function, a technique that utilizes string object methods and relies on the great efficiency of Python dictionaries:

```
>>> isdigit = {'0':1, '1':1, '2':1, '3':1, '4':1, '5':1, '6':1, '7':1, '8':1, '9':1}
...
>>> ''.join([x for x in s if isdigit[x]])
'1234567890'
```

## QUESTIONS

**1:** Which content extraction technique seems most useful? Explain why.

**2:** What intuitions do you have about the performance of these techniques on large data sets? Are there differences in performance between operating on one single large string input and many small inputs?

**3:** Construct a program to verify or refute your intuitions.

**4:** Can you think of ways of combining these techniques with other techniques available that might be even faster than `string.translate()` does)? Construct a faster translator.

**5:** Are there reasons other than raw processing speed for preferring one technique over others? Explain these reasons, if they exist.

### 2.3.2 Exercise: Making sure things are what they seem

## DISCUSSION

The concept of a "digital signature" was introduced in the late 1970s. It is a way of ensuring that a document has not been tampered with since it was created. The concept is based on the idea of a hash function, which takes an input and produces a fixed-size output. A digital signature is a hash of the document, encrypted with the sender's private key. The receiver can verify the signature by decrypting it with the sender's public key and comparing the result to a hash of the document.

Python standard library does not include (direct to characterize a digital signature is as some in other information really is what it purports to be a broader set of things than just digital signature talk about the "threat model" a crypto-system)

Data may be altered by malicious tampering, by storage-media errors, or by program errors. The easiest threat to defend against. The standard and send that also. The receiver of the data can herself using the same algorithm and compare it the one below does this:

## **crc32.py**

```
# Calculate CRC32 hash of input file
# Incremental read for large input s
# Usage:      python crc32.py [file1
#           or:      python crc32.py < STDIN

import binascii
import fileinput
filelist = []
crc = binascii.crc32('')
for line in fileinput.input():
```



```

if fileinput.isfirstline():
    if fileinput.isstdin():
        filelist.append('STDIN')
    else:
        filelist.append(fileinput.filename())
    crc = binascii.crc32(line, crc)
print 'Files:', ' '.join(filelist)
print 'CRC32:', crc

```

A slightly faster version could use *zlib.adler32()*, but a randomly corrupted file would have the right CRC32 enough not to worry about most times.

A CRC32 hash, however, is far too weak to be useful. It will almost surely not create a chance hash collision, but an attacker can find one relatively easily. Specifically, given a message *M*, it is easy to find an *M'* such that  $\text{CRC32}(M) = \text{CRC32}(M')$ . This makes *M'* appear plausible as a message to the receiver, but it is difficult to find.

To thwart fraudulent messages, it is necessary to use a stronger hash function like *SHA* or *MD5*. Doing so is almost the same utility as using CRC32.

## sha.py

```

# Calculate SHA hash of input files

```

```

# Usage:      python sha.py [file1 [f
#            or: python sha.py < STDIN

import sha, fileinput, os, sys
filelist = []
sha = sha.sha()
for line in fileinput.input():
    if fileinput.isfirstline():
        if fileinput.isstdin():
            filelist.append('STDIN')
        else:
            filelist.append(fileinput
            sha.update(line[:-1]+os.linesep)
sys.stderr.write('Files: '+' '.join(
print sha.hexdigest()

```

An SHA or MD5 hash cannot be forged practically. As a tamperer, we need to worry about whether the attacker can produce a false SHA hash that matches the original. A common procedure is to attach the hash to the end of the data file, or within some wrapper channel transmission. One alternative is "out of band" cryptographic hashes. For example, a set of cryptographic hashes placed on a Web page. Merely transmitting the hashes but it does require Mallory to attack both channels.

By using encryption, it is possible to transmit a hash and attach that encrypted version identifying information before the encryption, though. Otherwise, one could simply include both the hash and the encryption of the hash, an asymmetrical encryption. Using the Python standard library, the best we can do is to use the *rotor* module. For example, we could use the utility below.

## hash\_rotor.py

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
# Encrypt hash on STDIN using sys.argv[1]
import rotor, sys, binascii
cipher = rotor.newrotor(sys.argv[1])
hexhash = sys.stdin.read()[:-1] # remove trailing newline
print hexhash
hash = binascii.unhexlify(hexhash)
sys.stderr.write('Encryption: ')
print binascii.hexlify(cipher.encrypt(hash))
```

The utilities could then be used like:

```
% cat mary.txt
Mary had a little lamb
% python sha.py mary.txt I hash_rotor.py
```

```
Files: mary.txt
SHA: Encryption:
% cat mary.txt
Mary had a little lamb
c49bf9a7840f6c07ab00b164413d7958e094
63a9d3a2f4493d957397178354f21915cb36
```

The penultimate line of the file now has its SHA the hash. The password used will somehow need to validate the appended document (obviously, there are many more proprietary documents than in the example).

## QUESTIONS

How would you wrap up the suggestions in the previous section?

**1:** complete "digital\_signatures.py" utility or modify the existing utility?

Why is CRC32 not suitable for cryptographic purposes?

**2:** should not need to know the details of the algorithm used for coverage of hash results important for any hash function?

Explain in your own words why hashes serve as a good way to verify data integrity.

**3:** malicious attacker in the scenarios above, how do you protect the crypto-systems outlined here? What lines of code are sketched out or programmed in (1)?

If messages are subject to corruptions, including a short length of hashes may make problems in verification. **4:** might you enhance the document verification by including the hash itself? How might you allow more accurate verification of a large document (it may be desirable to include the entire document)?

Advanced: The RSA public-key algorithm is a complex algorithm involving modulo exponentiation operations and some other operations. **5:** among other places, at the author's *Introduction to Cryptography* <<http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/cryptography/>>

Try implementing an RSA public-key algorithm signature system you developed above.

### **2.3.3 Exercise: Finding needles in haystacks**

## **DISCUSSION**

Many texts you deal with are loosely structured

ordered records. For documents of that sort, a "What is (or isn't) in the documents?" at a more might obtain by actually *reading* the documents: collection of documents to determine the (comp relevant to a given area of interest.

A certain category of questions about document processing. For example, to locate all the files r having a certain file size, some basic use of the utility to do such a search, which includes some The search itself is only a few lines of code:

### **findfile1.py**

```
# Find files matching date and size
_usage = """
Usage:
    python findfile1.py [-start=days_
                        [-small=min_s

Example:
    python findfile1.py -start=10 -enc
"""

import os.path
import time
import glob
```

```
import sys
```

```
def parseargs(args):
```

```
    """Somewhat flexible argument pa
```

```
    Switches can start with - or /,  
    No error checking for bad argume  
    """
```

```
    now = time.time()
```

```
    secs_in_day = 60*60*24
```

```
    start = 0                # start of e
```

```
    end = time.time()        # right now
```

```
    small = 0                # empty file
```

```
    large = sys.maxint       # max file s
```

```
    pat = '*'                # match all
```

```
    for arg in args:
```

```
        if arg[0] in '-/':
```

```
            if arg[1:6]=='start': st
```

```
            elif arg[1:4]=='end': er
```

```
            elif arg[1:6]=='small': sn
```

```
            elif arg[1:6]=='large': la
```

```
            elif arg[1] in 'h?': print
```

```
        else:
```

```
            pat = arg
```

```
    return (start,end,small,large,pa
```

```

if __name__ == '__main__':
    if len(sys.argv) > 1:
        (start,end,small,large,pat)
        for fname in glob.glob(pat):
            if not os.path.isfile(fr
                continue          #
            modtime = os.path.getmti
            size = os.path.getsize(f
            if small <= size <= larg
                print time.ctime(moc
        else: print _usage

```

What about searching for text inside files? The contents quickly and could be used to search file collections, hits may be common. To make sense number of hits can help. The utility below performs without the argument parsing of findfile1.py):

## **findfile2.py**

```

# Find files that contain a word
_usage = "Usage: python findfile.py
import os.path

```



```

import glob
import sys

if len(sys.argv) == 2:
    search_word = sys.argv[1]
    results = []
    for fname in glob.glob('*'):
        if os.path.isfile(fname): #
            text = open(fname).read()
            fsize = len(text)
            hits = text.count(search_
            density = (fsize > 0) and
            if density > 0: #
                results.append((densi
    results.sort()
    results.reverse()
    print 'RANKING  FILENAME'
    print '-----  -----'
    for match in results:
        print '%6d  '%int(match[0] *
else:
    print _usage

```

Variations on these are, of course, possible. But  
 searches and rankings by adding new search op

example, adding some regular expression option to the grep utility.

The place where a word search program like this is located documents in *very* large document collections is optimized, as grep simply takes a while to search to *shortcut* this search time, as well as add some

A technique for rapid searching is to perform a search on a pre-created index. i.e., database of those generic search terms. It does not *really* search contents, but only check the index for matches. The utility `indexer.py` is a functional example. The most current version may be downloaded from [http://www.python.com](#)

The utility `indexer.py` allows very rapid searching for words within a file. For example, one might want to search for words (such as VARCHAR database fields) that appear in a large collection of files. Supposing there are many thousands of candidate files, a naive search basis could be slow. But `indexer.py` creates a collection of dictionaries that provide answers to such inquiries.

The full source code to `indexer.py` is worth reading for its persistence mechanisms and with an object-oriented design. The underlying idea is simple, however. It builds a collection of documents:

```
*Indexer.fileids:      fileid --> filename
*Indexer.files:        filename --> (fileid, content)
```

`*Indexer.words:`                      `word --> {file`

The essential mapping is `*Indexer.words`. For example, how often? The mappings `*Indexer.fileids` and `*Indexer.doccount` are shorter numeric aliases to be used instead of `Indexer.doccount` (for performance boost and storage saver). The second mapping is `*Indexer.wordcount` for each file. This allows a ranking of files. One thought is that a megabyte file with ten occurrences is better than a kilobyte file with the same ten occurrences.

Both generating and utilizing the mappings above are simple. One basically simply needs the intersection of the `*Indexer.words` dictionary, one value for each word, and incrementing counts in the nested dictionary of `*Indexer.doccount`.

## QUESTIONS

One of the most significant and surprisingly simple question in indexing is figuring out just what a "word" is.

- 1:** determine word identities? How might you handle punctuation? How might you disallow binary strings that are not valid UTF-8? How might you do identification tests against real-world documents?

Could other data structures be used to store the mappings above? If other data structures are used, what are the trade-offs?

**2:** disadvantages do you expect to encounter? , allow for additional search capabilities than other indexed search capabilities would have

Consider adding integrity guarantees to index synchronization with the underlying document integrity? Hint: consider *binascii.crc32*, *sha*, would be needed for integrity checks? Implement

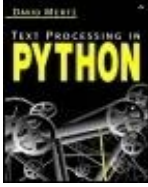
The utility `indexer.py` has some ad hoc exclusion index, based simply on some file extensions.  
**4:** nontextual data? What does it mean for a document to be textual? Implement `istextual.py` that will identify text and nontextual documents. How can you ensure user satisfaction?

Advanced: `indexer.py` implements several different indexing mechanisms. Which might you use from those implemented? How might you do better than `SlicedZPickleIndexer` (the best

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

Table of Contents

---

## Chapter 3. Regular Expressions

Regular expressions allow extremely valuable text processing techniques, but ones that warrant careful explanation. Python's *re* module, in particular, adds numerous enhancements to basic regular expressions (such as named backreferences, lookahead assertions, backreference skipping, non-greedy quantifiers, and others). A solid introduction to the subtleties of regular expressions is valuable to programmers engaged in text processing tasks.

The prequel of this chapter contains a tutorial covering regular expressions that allows a reader unfamiliar with regular expressions to move quickly from simple to complex elements of regular expression syntax. This tutorial is aimed primarily at beginners, but programmers with experience with regular expressions in other programming languages benefit from a quick read of the tutorial, which covers the particular regular expression dialect in Python.

It is important to note up-front that regular expressions, while very powerful, also have limitations. In particular, regular expressions cannot match patterns that require arbitrary depths. If that statement does not make sense, read [Chapter 4](#), which discusses parsing with a large

extent, parsing exists to address the limitations of regular expressions. In general, if you have doubt about whether a regular expression is sufficient for your needs, try to understand the examples in [Chapter 4](#), particularly the discussion of how you might spell a floating-point number.

[Section 3.1](#) examines a number of text processing problems that are solved most naturally using regular expressions. As in other chapters, the solutions presented to problems can generally be adopted as little utilities for performing tasks. However, elsewhere, the larger goal in presenting problem solutions is to address a style of thinking about a class of problems than those whose solutions are presented directly in this book. Readers who are interested in a range of ready utilities and modules probably want to check additional resources on the web, such as the Vaults of Parnassus

<<http://www.vex.net/parnassus/>> and the Python Cookbook

<<http://aspn.activestate.com/ASPN/Python/Cookbook>>

[Section 3.2](#) is a "reference with commentary" on the Python standard library modules for doing regular expression tasks. Several utility modules and third-party compatibility regular expression engines are available, but for most readers, the only important module

re itself. The discussions interspersed with each try to give some guidance on why you would want a given module or function, and the reference documentation tries to contain more examples of typical usage than does a plain reference. In many cases, the examples and discussion of individual functions address common and productive design patterns in Python. The cross-references are in place to contextualize a given function (or other thing) in terms of related ones (and to help a reader decide what is right for her). The actual listing of functions, classes, and the like are in alphabetical order within each category.





## **Chapter 3. Regular Expressions**

---

### **3.1 A Regular Expression Tutorial**

Some people, when confronted with a problem, say, "There are no regular expressions." Now they have two problems.

Jamie Zawinski, <alt.religion.emacs> (08/12/

#### **3.1.1 Just What Is a Regular Expression, Any**

Many readers will have some background with regular expressions. Those with experience using regular expressions probably skip this tutorial section. But readers new to regular expressions (called regexes by users) should read this section from a refresher.

A regular expression is a compact way of describing a pattern to search for patterns and, once found, to perform actions. It can also be used to launch programmatic actions.

Jamie Zawinski's tongue-in-cheek comment in the introduction that regular expressions are amazingly powerful and deeply complex is just as error-prone as writing a regular expression. It is always better to solve a genuinely simple problem a simple way. If you think about regular expressions.

A large number of tools other than Python incorporate regular expression functionality. Unix-oriented command-line tools like `grep` and `sed` for regular expression processing. Many text editors like `vim` and `emacs` support regular expressions. Many programming languages such as Perl and TCL, build regular expressions into their syntax. Command-line shells, such as Bash or the Windows command prompt, support regular expressions as part of their command syntax.

There are some variations in regular expression syntax between different tools, but for the most part regular expressions are consistent. The examples in this chapter (and the documentation in the rest of the chapter) will focus on the Python `re` module. This chapter transfers easily to working with other programming languages.

As with most of this book, examples will be illustrated with code sessions that readers can type themselves, so that they can see the results of the examples. However, the `re` module has little real-world examples. Therefore, the examples below are implied in the examples:

**`re_show.py`**

```
import re
def re_show(pat, s):
    print re.compile(pat, re.M).sub(

s = '''Mary had a little lamb
And everywhere that Mary
went, the lamb was sure
to go'''
```

Place the code in an external module and import it. The first argument to `re_show()` will be a regular expression pattern for purposes of matching beginnings and the second argument will be a string to be matched against. The matches will be whatever is contained between curly braces.

### 3.1.2 Matching Patterns in Text: The Basics

The very simplest pattern matched by a regular expression is a sequence of literal characters. Anything in the target string that contains the characters in exactly the order listed will match. Case is important: uppercase version, and vice versa. A space in a pattern matches a literal space in the target (this is unlike most programming languages where a variable number of spaces separate keywords).

```
>>> from re_show import re_show, s
```

```
>>> re_show('a', s)
M{a}ry h{a}d {a} little l{a}mb.
And everywhere th{a}t M{a}ry
went, the l{a}mb w{a}s sure
to go.
```

```
>>> re_show('Mary', s)
{Mary} had a little lamb.
And everywhere that {Mary}
went, the lamb was sure
to go.
```

[illegible]

A number of characters have special meanings. A special meaning can be matched, but to do so in a regular expression (this includes the backslash character) the regular expression should include `\\`. In Python, a raw string is available that will not perform string interpolation. It uses the same backslash-prefixed codes as do Python strings. Raw strings are available by quoting them as "raw strings".

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s = '''Special characters must k
>>> re_show(r'.*', s)
{Special characters must be escaped.
```

```
>>> re_show(r'\.*', s)
Special characters must be escaped{.
```

```
>>> re_show('\\\\\\', r'Python \ escape Python {\\} escaped {\\} pattern')
Python {\\} escaped {\\} pattern
```

```
>>> re_show(r'\\', r'Regex \ escaped  
Regex {\} escaped {\} pattern
```

[illegible]

Two special characters are used to mark the beginning and end of a regular expression: the dollar sign ("\$"). To match a caret or dollar sign (i.e., precede it by a backslash "\").

An interesting thing about the caret and dollar  
That is, the length of the string matched by a c  
rest of the regular expression can still depend c  
expression tools provide another zero-width pa  
be divided by whitespace like spaces, tabs, new  
boundary pattern matches the actual point whe  
whitespace characters.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show, s
>>> re_show(r'^Mary', s)
{Mary} had a little lamb
```

And everywhere that Mary  
went, the lamb was sure  
to go

```
>>> re_show(r'Mary$', s)
Mary had a little lamb
And everywhere that {Mary}
went, the lamb was sure
to go
```

```
>>> re_show(r'$', 'Mary had a little  
Mary had a little lamb{}
```

[illegible]

In regular expressions, a period can stand for `.` is not included, but optional switches can force *re* module functions). Using a period in a pattern occurs here, without having to decide what.

Readers who are familiar with DOS command-line syntax will find the use of the question mark as a wildcard character filling the role of "some character" in command-line syntax. The question mark has a different meaning, and the

```
>>> from re_show import re_show, s
>>> re_show(r'.a', s)
{Ma}ry {ha}d{ a} little {la}mb
```

And everywhere t{ha}t {Ma}ry  
went, the {la}mb {wa}s sure  
to go

[illegible]

A regular expression can have literal characters. Each literal character or positional pattern is an atom. Several atoms together form a small regular expression. One might be inclined to call such a small regular expression an atom.

In older Unix-oriented tools like `grep`, subexpressions are enclosed in parentheses; for example, `\ (Mary\)`. In Python, this is done with bare parentheses, but matching a literal parenthesis is done with `\(` and `\)`.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show, s
>>> re_show(r'(Mary) ( ) (had)', s)
{Mary had} a little lamb
And everywhere that Mary
went, the lamb was sure
to go
```

```
>>> re_show(r'\(.*\) ', 'spam (and eggs)')
spam {(and eggs)}
```

[illegible]

Rather than name only a single character, a pattern can match a set of characters.

A set of characters can be given as a simple list of characters. This will match any single lowercase vowel. For letters, a range and last letter of a range, with a dash in the middle. For a lowercase or uppercase letter in the first half of the alphabet, use a caret at the beginning.

Python (as with many tools) provides escape sequences for special character classes, such as `\s` for a whitespace character. You can define these character classes with square brackets. This makes expressions more compact and more readable.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show, s
>>> re_show(r'[a-zA-Z]', s)
Mary {ha}d a little {la}mb
And everywhere t{ha}t Mary
went, the {la}mb {wa}s sure
to go
```

.....

The caret symbol can actually have two different meanings. At the beginning of a character class, it reverses the meaning: characters not included in the listed character set are matched.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show, s
```



```
>>> re_show(r'^a-zA', s)
{Ma}ry had{ a} little lamb
And everywhere that {Ma}ry
went, the lamb was sure
to go
```

○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ● ○ ●

Using character classes is a way of indicating that a character must occur in a particular spot. But what if you want to specify that a character must occur in a position in the regular expression? For this, you use the vertical bar ("|"). This is the symbol that is also known as the OR operator and is sometimes called the pipe character.

The pipe character in a regular expression indicates a group enclosing it. What this means is that even right of a pipe character, the alternation greedily extends to the scope of the alternation, you must define a boundary where the alternation may match. The example illustrates this:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s2 = 'The pet store sold cats, dogs, and birds'
>>> re_show(r'cat|dog|bird', s2)
The pet store sold {cat}s, {dog}s, and {bird}s

>>> s3 = '=first first= # =second second='
>>> re_show(r'=first|second=', s3)
=first first= # =second second=
```

```
>>> re_show(r'=(first|second)=', s3)
=first first= # =second second= # {=
```

One of the most powerful and common things you can do is to specify how many times an atom occurs in a chemical formula. You want to specify something about the occurrence of an atom. You're interested in specifying the occurrence of a chemical element.

Without quantifiers, grouping expressions does not make sense. To add a quantifier to a subexpression we can group the subexpression as a whole. Take a look at the examples below:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s = '''Match with zero in the mi
... Subexpression occurs, but...: @=
... Lots of occurrences: @=!==!==!==
```

```

... Must repeat entire pattern: @=!=
>>> re_show(r'@ (=!=) *@', s)
Match with zero in the middle: {@@}
Subexpression occurs, but...: @=!=AF
Lots of occurrences: {@=!=!=!=!=!=!=}
Must repeat entire pattern: @=!=!=!=!

```

### 3.1.3 Matching Patterns in Text: Intermediate

In a certain way, the lack of any quantifier sym It says the atom occurs exactly once. Extended numbers to "once exactly" and "zero or more ti more times" and the question mark ("?") mean far the most common enumerations you wind u

If you think about it, you can see that the exte you "say" anything the basic ones do not. They readable way. For example, (ABC)+ is equivale equivalent to XABCY|XY. If the atoms being qua subexpressions, the question mark and plus sig

```

>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s = '''AAAD
...  ABBBBBCD
...  BBBCD
...  ABCCD

```

```
... AAABBBC ' ' '
>>> re_show(r'A+B*C?D', s)
{AAAD}
{ABBBBCD}
BBBCD
ABCCD
AAABBBC
```

[illegible]

Using extended regular expressions, you can specify a more verbose syntax than the question mark. Curly braces ("{" and "}") can surround a precise number of characters you are looking for.

The most general form of the curly-brace quantifier must be no larger than the second, and both must count is specified this way to fall between the regular expressions. As shorthand, either argument may be left empty as zero/infinity, respectively. If only one argument is specified, that number of occurrences are matched.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s2 = '''aaaaa bbbbbb ccccc
... aaa bbb ccc
... aaaaaa bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb ccccc'''
>>> re_show(r'a{5} b{,6} c{4,8}', s2)
```

```
{aaaaa bbbbbb ccccc}
aaa bbb ccc
aaaaa bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb ccccc
```

```
>>> re_show(r'a+ b{3,} c?', s2)
{aaaaa bbbb c}cccc
{aaa bbb c}cc
{aaaaa bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb c}cccc
```

```
>>> re_show(r'a{5} b{6,} c{4,8}', s2)
aaaaa bbbbbb ccccc
aaa bbb ccc
{aaaaa bbbbbbbbbbbbbbbb ccccc}
```

[illegible]

One powerful option in creating search patterns matched earlier in a regular expression is matching using backreferences. Backreferences are named using the backslash/escape character when used in the pattern. In the pattern `(\d+)\s+(\d+)\s+(\d+)`, each successive group in the match pattern, as `\1`, `\2`, and `\3`, is a backreference that refers to the group that, in this case, is numbered 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

It is important to note something the example backreference is the same literal string matched the string could have matched other s

subexpression later in the regular expression and a backreference (but you have to decide what it is).

Backreferences refer back to whatever occurred earlier in the string in the order those grouped expressions occurred. Unfortunately, Python does not allow nesting backreferences. However, Python also allows naming backreferences. The names the backreferences are pointing to. The initial part of the string the corresponding backreference must contain.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s2 = '''jkl abc xyz
... jkl xyz abc
... jkl abc abc
... jkl xyz xyz
... '''
>>> re_show(r'(abc|xyz) \1', s2)
jkl abc xyz
jkl xyz abc
jkl {abc abc}
jkl {xyz xyz}

>>> re_show(r'(abc|xyz) (abc|xyz)', s2)
jkl {abc xyz}
jkl {xyz abc}
jkl {abc abc}
jkl {xyz xyz}
```

[illegible]

Probably the easiest mistake to make in composition is to stop too much. When you use a quantifier, you want it to go all the way to the point where you want to finish your match. With greedy quantifiers, it is easy to forget that the last bit of the match is the one you are interested in.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s2 = '''-- I want to match the w
... -- with 'th' and end with 's'.
... this
... thus
... thistle
... this line matches too much
... '''
>>> re_show(r'th.*s', s2)
```

```
-- I want to match {the words that s
-- wi{th 'th' and end with 's}'.
{this}
{thus}
{this}tle
{this line matches} too much
```

[illegible]

Often if you find that regular expressions are not working, you should reformulate the problem in your mind. Rather than asking, "Does this match later in the expression?" ask yourself, "What part?" This often leads to more parsimonious patterns. Another pattern is to use the complement operator and think about how it works.

The trick here is that there are two different ways to write this. Either you can think you want to keep matching *unless* you get to XYZ. Or you can think you want to keep matching *until* you get to XYZ.

For people who have thought about basic probability, rolling a 6 on a die in one roll is  $\frac{1}{6}$ . What is the calculation puts the odds at  $\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6}$ , or, all, the chance after twelve rolls isn't 200 percent to avoid rolling a 6 for six rolls?" (i.e.,  $\frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6}$ ). The probability of getting a 6 is the same chance as not avoiding a 6. If you imagine transcribing a series of die rolls, you could record, and similar thinking applies.



```

>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s2 = '''-- I want to match the w
... -- with 'th' and end with 's'.
... this
... thus
... thistle
... this line matches too much
... '''
>>> re_show(r'th[^s]*.', s2)
-- I want to match {the words} {that
-- wi{th 'th' and end with 's}''.
{this}
{thus}
{this}tle
{this} line matches too much

... ..

```

Not all tools that use regular expressions allow locate the matched pattern; the mostly widely which is a tool for searching only. Text editors, replacement in their regular expression search

Python, being a general programming language accompany matches. Since Python strings are i objects in place, but instead return the modified module, one can always rebind a particular vari

*re* modification.

Replacement examples in this tutorial will call a module function *re.sub* (). Original strings will be shown, and results will appear below the call and with the same line areas as *re\_show()* used. Be careful to notice that results will not be returned by standard *re* functions, but you can import the following function in the examples below.

## re\_new.py

```
import re
def re_new(pat, rep, s):
    print re.sub(pat, '{'+rep+'}', s)
```

.....

Let us take a look at a couple of modification examples covered. This one simply substitutes some literal *string.replace()* can achieve the same result and

```
>>> from re_new import re_new
>>> s = 'The zoo had wild dogs, bobcat and lions'
>>> re_new('cat', 'dog', s)
The zoo had wild dogs, bob{dog}s, lions
```

.....

Most of the time, if you are using regular expressions to match more general patterns than just literal strings, you will want to replace the matched strings with something else (even if it is several different strings in a row).

```
>>> from re_new import re_new
>>> s = 'The zoo had wild dogs, bobcats, and snakes'
>>> re_new('cat|dog', 'snake', s)
The zoo had wild {snake}s, bob{snake}s, and {snake}s
>>> re_new(r'[a-z]+i[a-z]*', 'nice', s)
The zoo had {nice} dogs, bobcats, {nice} cats, and {nice} snakes
... ..
```

It is nice to be able to insert a fixed string everywhere a pattern matches, but frankly, doing that is not very context sensitive. It is better to insert something that is context sensitive, but rather to insert something that is context sensitive than to insert something that is context sensitive. Fortunately, backreferences come to the rescue. In the pattern matches themselves, but it is even better to use replacement patterns. By using replacement backreferences, you can use just the parts of the matched patterns to use just the parts of it.

As well as backreferencing, the examples below show how to use regular expressions. In most programming code, the examples differ solely in an extra space within the replacement string. The return value is importantly different.

```
>>> from re_new import re_new
>>> s = 'A37 B4 C107 D54112 E1103 XY'
```

[illegible]

It is always a good idea to try out regular expressions that are representative of production usage. Make sure you test with real matching. A stray quantifier or wildcard can make a pattern match what you thought was a specific pattern. And sometimes you need to use a pattern for a while, or find another set of eyes, or ask for help, after you see what matches. Familiarity might be a good thing, but competence is a must.

Some very useful enhancements to basic regular expressions (in addition to the support for regular expressions with many other tools). Many of these do not support regular expressions, but they *do* manage to make expressions

Earlier in the tutorial, the problems of matching

workarounds were suggested. Python is nice and has optional "non-greedy" quantifiers. These quantifiers match whatever comes next in the pattern (

Non-greedy quantifiers have the same syntax as a greedy quantifier followed by a question mark. For example, `A[A-Z]*?B`. In English, this means "match an A and as few characters as are needed to find a B."

One little thing to look out for is the fact that the greedy quantifier matches as much as it can. No longer matches are ever needed to find a match for the pattern. If you use non-greedy quantifiers, watch out for the symmetric danger.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s = '''-- I want to match the words that s
... -- with 'th' and end with 's'.
... this line matches just right
... this # thus # thistle'''
>>> re_show(r'th.*s',s)
-- I want to match {the words that s
-- wi{th 'th' and end with 's'}.
{this line matches jus}t right
{this # thus # this}tle

>>> re_show(r'th.*?s',s)
```

```
-- I want to match {the words} {that
-- wi{th 'th' and end with 's}'.
{this} line matches just right
{this} # {thus} # {this}tle
```

```
>>> re_show(r'th.*?s ',s)
-- I want to match {the words }that
-- with 'th' and end with 's'.
{this }line matches just right
{this }# {thus }# thistle
```

[illegible]

Modifiers can be used in regular expressions or  
A modifier affects, in one way or another, the ir  
A modifier, unlike an atom, is global to the part  
anything, it instead constrains or directs what t

When used directly within a regular expression whole pattern, as in `(?Limsux)`. For example, to match the case of the letters, one could use `(?i)cat`. The `s` argument as bitmasks (i.e., with a `|` between each argument), as in `(?si)cat`. This is not supported by the `re` module, not to all. For example, the two

```
>>> import re
>>> re.search(r'(?Li)cat','The Cat i
4
```

```
>>> re.search(r'cat','The Cat in the Hat')
```

However, some function calls in *re* have no arguments, or they either use the modifier prefix pseudo-group or use it in string form. For example:

```
>>> import re
>>> re.split(r'(?i)th','Brillig and
['Brillig and ', 'e Sli', 'y Toves']
>>> re.split(re.compile('th',re.I),'
['Brillig and ', 'e Sli', 'y Toves']
```

See the *re* module documentation for details or

.....

The modifiers listed below are used in *re* expressions. They may be accustomed to a *g* option for "global" matching, or not, as their default unit, and "global" means to match the whole passed string as its unit, so "global" is simply the default. The regular expressions have to be tailored to local characters, or the strings being operated on should be in a certain means.

- \* *L* (*re.L*) - Locale customization of matching
- \* *i* (*re.I*) - Case-insensitive match

- ```
* m (re.M) - Treat string as multiple lines
* s (re.S) - Treat string as single line
* u (re.U) - Unicode customization
* x (re.X) - Enable verbose regular expressions
```

The single-line option ("s") allows the wildcard otherwise). The multiple-line option ("m") causes end of each line in the target, not just the beginning. The insensitive option ("i") ignores differences in case. Unicode options ("L" and "u") give different interpretations of the character classes. The word boundary option ("w") gives different interpretations of the alphanumeric ("w") escaped patterns and their

The verbose option ("x") is somewhat different  
may contain nonsignificant whitespace and inlin  
different interpretation of regular expression pa  
easily readable complex patterns. Some exampl

[illegible]

Let's take a look first at how case-insensitive a behavior.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s = '''MAINE # Massachusetts # C
... mississippi # Missouri # Minnesc
>>> re_show(r'M.*[ise] ', s)
{MAINE # Massachusetts }# Colorado #
```



```
mississippi # {Missouri }# Minnesota
```

```
>>> re_show(r'(?i)M.*[ise] ', s)
{MAINE # Massachusetts }# Colorado #
{mississippi # Missouri }# Minnesota
```

```
>>> re_show(r'(?si)M.*[ise] ', s)
{MAINE # Massachusetts # Colorado #
mississippi # Missouri }# Minnesota
```

Looking back to the definition of `re_show()`, we see the `multiline` option. So patterns displayed with `re_show()` can be replaced by a couple of examples that use *`re.findall()`* instead:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> s = '''MAINE # Massachusetts # Colorado #
... mississippi # Missouri # Minnesota
>>> re_show(r'(?im)^M.*[ise] ', s)
{MAINE # Massachusetts }# Colorado #
{mississippi # Missouri }# Minnesota
```

```
>>> import re
>>> re.findall(r'(?i)^M.*[ise] ', s)
['MAINE # Massachusetts ']
>>> re.findall(r'(?im)^M.*[ise] ', s)
```





```
>>> from re_new import re_new
>>> s = "A-xyz-37 # B:abcd:142 # C-w
>>> re_new(r'(?P<prefix>[A-Z])(-[a-z
...      r'\g<prefix>\g<id>',s)
{A37} # B:abcd:142 # {C66} # D93}
```

[illegible]

Another trick of advanced regular expression is lookahead assertion, which is similar to regular grouped subexpression, except that it does not capture anything. There are two advantages to using lookahead assertion. First, a lookahead assertion can function in a similar way to a grouped subexpression, i.e., it can match something without counting it in backreference. Second, a lookahead assertion can specify that the next capture group is a different (more general) subexpression actually backreferencing that other subexpression).

There are two kinds of lookahead assertions: positive and negative. A positive assertion specifies that something does or does not come next. Emphasizing the positive, the syntax for lookahead assertions is `(?=pattern)` for positive assertions and `(?!pattern)` for negative assertions.

```
>>> from re_new import re_new
>>> s = 'A-xyz37 # B-ab6142 # C-Wxy6'
>>> # Assert that three lowercase le
...

```





```
>>> re_show(pat, s)
```

```
The URL for my site is: {http://mysi  
might also enjoy {ftp://yoursite.com  
place to download files.
```

---

**Team-Fly**

## Chapter 3. Regular Expressions

---

### 3.2 Some Common Tasks

#### 3.2.1 Problem: Making a text block flush left

For visual clarity or to identify the role of text, prose-oriented documents (but log files, configuration initial fields). For downstream purposes, indent incorrect, since the indentation is not part of the text. However, it often makes matters even worse to simply remove leading whitespace from indented text blocks. The relative indentations of lines will be lost, and functions (for example, the blocks of text might

The general procedure you need to take in mind is to find the maximum indentation and remove it. But it is easy to throw more code at it than is necessary. A series of nested loops of *string.find()* and *string.replace()* using regular expressions combined with the concise *re* module give you a quick, short, and direct transformation.



## flush\_left.py

```
# Remove as many leading spaces as possible
from re import findall, sub
# What is the minimum line indentation?
indent = lambda s: reduce(min, map(len, findall(' ', s)))
# Remove the block-minimum indentation
flush_left = lambda s: sub('^(?m)^(%s)' % indent(s), '', s)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    import sys
    print flush_left(sys.stdin.read())
```

The `flush_left()` function assumes that blocks are separated by blank lines. Combined with spaces and an initial pass through the file, the script (`$PYTHONPATH/tools/scripts/flush_left.py`) can convert block-oriented text to a flat format.

A helpful adjunct to `flush_left()` is likely to be the `flush_right()` function. See [Chapter 2](#), Problem 2. Between the two of these, you can have a "batch-oriented word processor." (What other c

### 3.2.2 Problem: Summarizing command-line options

Documentation of command-line options to programs is often found in places like manpages, docstrings, READMEs and

expect to see command-line options indented a by one or more lines of description, and usually users browsing documentation, but is of sufficient expressions are well suited to finding the right

A specific scenario where you might want a surrounding configuration files that call multiple Unix-like systems is a good example of such a themselves often have enough complexity and have difficulty parsing them.

The utility below will look for every service and summary documentation of all the options used

## **show\_services.py**

```
import re, os, string, sys

def show_opts(cmdline):
    args = string.split(cmdline)
    cmd = args[0]
    if len(args) > 1:
        opts = args[1:]
    # might want to check error output
    (in_, out_, err) = os.popen3('ma
```

```

manpage = out_.read()
if len(manpage) > 2:          # four
    print '\n%s' % cmd
    for opt in opts:
        pat_opt = r'(?sm)^\s*'+c
        opt_doc = re.search(pat_
        if opt_doc is not None:
            print opt_doc.group(
        else:                  # try
            mentions = []
            for para in string.s
                if re.search(opt,
                    mentions.appe
            if not mentions:
                print '\n      ',op
            else:
                print '\n      ',op
                print '\n'.join(n
    else:                      # no n
        print cmdline
        print '      No documentator

```

```

def services(fname):
    conf = open(fname).read()
    pat_srv = r'''(?xm) (?=^[^#])

```

```

        (?:(?:[\w/]+\s+){6}
        (.*$)

    return re.findall(pat_srv, conf)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    for service in services(sys.argv):
        show_opts(service)

```

The particular tasks performed by `show_opts()` are specific to these systems, but the general techniques are more broadly applicable. For example, the comment character and number of fields in `/etc/passwd` scripts, but the use of regular expressions to find lines is common. If the `man` and `col` utilities are not on the relevant system, such as reading in the docstrings from Python modules. For the samples in `$PYTHONPATH/tools/` use `comp` and `comp`.

Another thing worth noting is that even where the data is not structured, you need not do everything with regular expressions. For example, to identify paragraphs in `show_opts()` is still the question. The `re.split()` could do the same thing.

Note: Along the lines of paragraph splitting, here is a regular expression that matches every whole paragraph. For purposes of the puzzle, assume that a paragraph is separated by doubled newlines (`"\n\n"`).

### 3.2.3 Problem: Detecting duplicate words

A common typo in prose texts is doubled words except in those few cases where they are intentional. In programming language code, configuration files, and other files, it is often not suited to detecting this occurrence, which just makes it easy to wrap the regex in a small utility with a

## **dupwords.py**

```
# Detect doubled words and display words
# Include words doubled across lines

import sys, re, glob
for pat in sys.argv[1:]:
    for file in glob.glob(pat):
        newfile = 1
        for para in open(file).read().splitlines():
            dups = re.findall(r'(?m)\b(\w+)\s+\b\1\b')
            if dups:
                if newfile:
                    print '%s\n%s\n' % (file, para)
                    newfile = 0
                for dup in dups:
                    print ' [%s] -->' % dup
```

This particular version grabs the line or lines or

context (along with a prompt for the duplicate) and the assumption made by dupwords.py is that a document is the beginning of another, ignoring whitespace paragraphs is not likewise noteworthy.

### **3.2.4 Problem: Checking for server errors**

Web servers are a ubiquitous source of information, but finding documents is largely hit-or-miss. Every Web master, once a month or two, thereby breaking bookmarks and annoying surfers, it is worse for robots faced with the difficulty of finding content and errors. By-the-by, it is easy to accept error messages rather than desired content.

In principle, Web servers can and should return useful information. In practice, Web servers almost always return dysfunctional pages. Such pages are basically perfectly normal, but they are like "Error 404: File not found!" Most of the time they contain custom graphics and layout, links to other pages, tags, and all sorts of other stuff. It is actually quite common for a server to send in response to requests for nonexistent URLs.

Below is a very simple Python script to examine the results of requests. Getting an error page is usually as simple as sending a request to `http://somewebsite.com/phony-url` or the like (as discussed in [Chapter 5](#), but its details are not in

## url\_examine.py

```
import sys
from urllib import urlopen

if len(sys.argv) > 1:
    fpin = urlopen(sys.argv[1])
    print fpin.geturl()
    print fpin.info()
    print fpin.read()
else:
    print "No specified URL"
```

Given the diversity of error pages you might re-  
gular expression (or any program) that deter-  
mines if a document is an error page. Furthermore, some  
errors are quite useful, but not really quite content either  
or suggestions on how to get to content). But some  
content from errors. One noteworthy heuristic is  
if the status code is 404 or 403 (not a sure thing, but good enough  
to estimate the "error probability" of HTML documents:

## error\_page.py

```

import re, sys
page = sys.stdin.read()

# Mapping from patterns to probabilities
err_pats = {r'(?is)<TITLE>.*?(404|403):',
             r'(?is)<TITLE>.*?ERROR.*',
             r'(?is)<TITLE>ERROR</TITLE>.*',
             r'(?is)<TITLE>.*?ERROR.*',
             r'(?is)<META .*?(404|403):',
             r'(?is)<META .*?ERROR.*?',
             r'(?is)<TITLE>.*?File Not Found',
             r'(?is)<TITLE>.*?Not Found',
             r'(?is)<BODY.*(404|403).',
             r'(?is)<H1>.*?(404|403).',
             r'(?is)<BODY.*not found.',
             r'(?is)<H1>.*?not found.',
             r'(?is)<BODY.*the request',
             r'(?is)<BODY.*the page you',
             r'(?is)<BODY.*page.{1,50}',
             r'(?is)<BODY.*request.{1,50}',
             r'(?i)does not exist': 0.5}

err_score = 0
for pat, prob in err_pats.items():
    if err_score > 0.9: break

```



```

        if re.search(pat, page):
            # print pat, prob
            err_score += prob

if err_score > 0.90:    print 'Page is
elif err_score > 0.75: print 'It is
elif err_score > 0.50: print 'Better
elif err_score > 0.25: print 'Fair i
else:                  print 'Page is

```

Tested against a fair number of sites, a collective threshold confidences works quite well. Within an error page, `erro_page.py` has gotten no false lowest warning level for every true error page.

The patterns chosen are all fairly simple, and determined entirely subjectively by the author. technique can be used to solve many "fuzzy logic with Web server errors).

Code like that above can form a general approach is worth, the scripts `url_examine.py` and `error_` from the first to the second. For example:

```

% python urlopen.py http://gnosis.cx
Page is almost surely an error repor

```

### 3.2.5 Problem: Reading lines with continuation

Many configuration files and other types of configuration files have a facility to treat multiple lines as if they were a single line. This is usually desirable as a first step to turn all these lines into a list (or more likely, to transform both single and continued lines and then iterate through later). A continuation character is a character placed before a newline, or possibly the last thing on the line (other than a partial) table of continuation characters used by various languages is given below:

```
\ Python, JavaScript, C/C++, Bash, T  
_ Visual Basic, PAW  
& Lyris, COBOL, IBIS  
; Clipper, TOP  
- XSPEC, NetREXX  
= Oracle Express
```

Most of the formats listed are programming languages. The problem is not just identifying the lines. More often, it is the problem of interest in simple parsing, and most of the time the problem is of using trailing backslashes for continuation lines.

One *could* manage to parse logical lines with a regular expression and performed concatenations when needed. But this is a difficult problem to a single regular expression. The more

## logical\_lines.py

```
# Determine the logical lines in a file
# continuation characters.  'logical'
# list.  The self-test prints the logical
# physical lines (for all specified
```

```
import re
```

```
def logical_lines(s, continuation='\n',
                  strip_trailing_space=False):
    c = continuation
    if strip_trailing_space:
        s = re.sub(r'(?m)(%s)(\s+)$' % c,
                    r'(?sm)^\s*$', s)
    pat_log = r'(?sm)^\s*$(?<!\s)' % c
    return [t.replace(c+'\n', '') for t in s.split(pat_log)]
```

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    import sys
    files, strip, contin = ([], 0, None)
    for arg in sys.argv[1:]:
        if arg[:1] == '--continue':
            contin = arg[2:]
        elif arg[:1] == '-c':
            contin = arg[2:]
        elif arg in ('--string', '-s'):
            strip = 1
        else:
            files.append(arg)
```

```

if not files: files.append(sys.
for file in files:
    s = open(sys.argv[1]).read(
    print '\n'.join(logical_lir

```

The comment in the `pat_log` definition shows a times. The comment is the pattern that is used dense as it is with symbols, you can still read it version of the same line with the verbose modi

```

>>> pat = r'''
...  (?x)      # This is the verbose ve
...  (?s)      # In the pattern, let ".
...  (?m)      # Allow ^ and $ to match
...  ^        # Start the match at the
...  *?       # Non-greedily grab ever
...          # where the rest of the
...  $        # End the match at an er
...  (?<!     # Only count as a match
...          # the immediately last t
...  \\)      # It wasn't an (escaped)

```

### 3.2.6 Problem: Identifying URLs and email ad

A neat feature of many Internet and news clien

that the applications can act upon. For URL resources, "clickable"; for an email address it usually means an email address. Depending on the nature of an application, each identified resource. For a text processing application, something more batch-oriented: extraction, transformation,

Fully and precisely implementing RFC1822 (for example, is possible within regular expressions. But doing so is not needed to identify 99% of resources. Moreover, many real-world "almost correct" resource identifiers. The utility of "almost correct" resource identifiers. The utility of a balance of other well-implemented and practical identifiers intended to look like a resource, and *almost* no

## find\_urls.py

```
# Functions to identify and extract URLs from text

import re, fileinput

pat_url = re.compile( r'''
    (?x) ( # verbose identifier
    (http|ftp|gopher) # make sure we have a protocol
    :// # ...needs to be a URL
    (\w+[:.]{2,}) # at least two dots or colons
    )
```

```

        (/?| # could be ju
        [^ \n\r"]+ # or stuff th
        [\w/]) # resource na
        (=[\s\.,>) '"\]]) # assert: fol
        ) # end of matc
        '')
pat_email = re.compile(r'''
        (?xm) # verbose ide
        (?=^.{11} # Mail header
        (?<!Message-ID:| # rule out Me
        In-Reply-To)) # ...and also
        (.*) ( # must grab t
        ([A-Za-z0-9-]+\.)? # maybe an ir
        [A-Za-z0-9-]+ # definitely
        @ # ...needs ar
        (\w+\.?){2,} # at least tw
        (=[\s\.,>) '"\]]) # assert: fol
        ) # end of matc
        '')

extract_urls = lambda s: [u[0] for u
extract_email = lambda s: [(e[1]) fc

if __name__ == '__main__':
    for line in fileinput.input():
        urls = extract_urls(line)

```

```

if urls:
    for url in urls:
        print fileinput.file
emails = extract_email(line)
if emails:
    for email in emails:
        print fileinput.file

```

A number of features are notable in the utility `extract_email()` are each a single line, using the especially list comprehensions (four or five line style helps emphasize where the work is done) STDOUT, but you could do something else with

A bit of testing of preliminary versions of the re complications to them. In part this lets readers greater part, this helps weed out what I would least two domain groupsthis rules out LOCALHOST colon to end a domain group, we allow for spec <http://gnosis.cx:8080/resource/>.

Email addresses have one particular special cor addresses happen to be actual mail archives, y these headers is very similar to that of email ac Message-IDs). By combining a negative look-be can make sure that everything that gets extrac

little complicated to combine these things corre

### 3.2.7 Problem: Pretty-printing numbers

In producing human-readable documents, Python leaves something to be desired. Specifically, thousands of 1,000 in written large numerals are not produced, making reading large numbers difficult. For example:

```
>>> budget = 12345678.90
>>> print 'The company budget is $%s' % budget
The company budget is $12345678.9
>>> print 'The company budget is %10.2f' % budget
The company budget is 12345678.90
```

Regular expressions can be used to transform raw numeric values into a more readable format (an alternative would be to process numeric values by splitting them into chunks and then stringifying the chunks). A few basic utility functions are provided in the following code snippet.

#### **pretty\_nums.py**

```
# Create/manipulate grouped string values
import re
```



```

def commify(f, digits=2, maxgroups=5):
    template = '%%1.%df' % digits
    s = template % f
    pat = re.compile(r'(\d+)(\d{3})')
    if european:
        repl = r'\1.\2\3\4'
    else:    # could also use locale.
        repl = r'\1,\2\3\4'
    for i in range(maxgroups):
        s = re.sub(pat, repl, s)
    return s

```

```

def uncommify(s):
    return s.replace(',', '')

```

```

def eurify(s):
    s = s.replace('.', '\000')    # pl
    s = s.replace(',', '\000')    # ch
    s = s.replace('\000', ',')    # de
    return s

```

```

def anglofy(s):
    s = s.replace(',', '\000')    # pl
    s = s.replace('.', ',')       # ch
    s = s.replace('\000', '.')    # de

```

```

    return s

vals = (12345678.90, 23456789.01, 34
sample = '''The company budget is $%
Its debt is $%s, against assets
of $%s'''

if __name__ == '__main__':
    print sample % vals, '\n-----'
    print sample % tuple(map(commify
    print eurify(sample % tuple(map

```

The technique used in `commify()` has virtues and is slightly kludgy inasmuch as it loops through the argument, it is not good for numbers bigger than smaller than this). If purity is a goal and it probably with a single regular expression to do the whole the "place holder" idea that was mentioned in the

Python has undergone several changes in its re by *pre* in Python 1.5; *pre*, in turn, by *sre* in Pyt include the older modules in its standard library deprecated when the newer versions are includ served as a wrapper to the underlying regular e Python 2.0+ has used *re* to wrap *sre*, *pre* is stil underlying *pcre* C extension module that can te

Each version has generally improved upon its predecessor as regular expressions there are always a few limitations. Python's Unicode support and is faster for most operations. Perl's insensitive searches. Subtle details of regular expressions. The *regex* module perform faster than the newer or older versions. It can be extremely complicated and dependent upon the platform.

Readers might start to feel their heads swim with all this information. If you are out of historic interest, you really do not need to know all this. The simple rule is just use what you need. The interface is compatible between versions.

The real virtue of regular expressions is that they provide a (usually cryptic) description of complex patterns in text. They are *fast enough*; there is rarely any point in optimizing them. Python does what it needs to do fast enough that speed is not a concern. "We should forget about small efficiencies, say about 97% of the time: premature optimization is the root of all evil." ("Computer Programming: Lecture Notes Number 27, Stanford University Department of Information, 1992).

In case regular expression operations prove to be a bottleneck in an application, there are four steps to follow in these in order:

- 1. Think about whether there is a way to solve the problem without regular expressions. Most especially, is it possible to reduce the amount of data being matched? You should always try to reduce the amount of data being matched.**

**however; performance characteristics r**

- Consider whether regular expressions are *rea* surprising frequency, faster and simpler operati other modules) do what needs to be done. Actu first one.
- Write the search or transformation in a faster Low-level modules will inevitably involve more about the problem. But order-of-magnitude spe
- Code the application (or the relevant parts of is the absolutely first consideration in an applic Tools like swigwhile outside the scope of this bc modules to perform bottleneck operations. The *must* be solved with regular expressions that P means).

### 3.3.2 Simple Pattern Matching

#### **fnmatch • Glob-style pattern matching**

The real purpose of the *fnmatch* module is to r *fnmatch* is used indirectly through the *glob* mo files (for example to process each matching file about filesystems, it simply provides a way of c

language used by *fnmatch* is much simpler than *re*, depending on your needs. As a plus, most Unix command line is already familiar with the shell-style expansions.

Four subpatterns are available in *fnmatch*: pattern grouping and no quantifiers. Obviously, the *fnmatch* is simpler than with *re*. The subpatterns are as follows:

## Glob-style subpatterns

|                     |                                                                                                                                                                      |
|---------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <code>*</code>      | Match everything that follows                                                                                                                                        |
| <code>?</code>      | Match any single character.                                                                                                                                          |
| <code>[set]</code>  | Match one character from a set. <code>set</code> follows the same rules as a <code>re</code> character class. It may include and zero or more enumerated characters. |
| <code>[!set]</code> | Match any one character that is not in <code>set</code> .                                                                                                            |

A pattern is simply the concatenation of one or more subpatterns.

## FUNCTIONS

**`fnmatch.fnmatch(s, pat)`**

Test whether the pattern `pat` matches the string `s`, case-insensitive. A cross-platform script should match actual filenames.

```
>>> from fnmatch import fnmatch
>>> fnmatch('this', '[T]?i*')    # On
0
```

```
>>> fnmatch('this', '[T]?i*')    # On
1
```

**SEE ALSO:** `fnmatch.fnmatchcase()` 233;

## **`fnmatch.fnmatchcase(s, pat)`**

Test whether the pattern `pat` matches the string `s`, case-sensitive. A cross-platform script should match actual filenames.

```
>>> from fnmatch import fnmatchcase
>>> fnmatchcase('this', '[T]?i*')
0
>>> from string import upper
>>> fnmatchcase(upper('this'), upper('[T]?i*'))
1
```

SEE ALSO: `fnmatch.fnmatch()` 233;

## **`fnmatch.filter(lst, pat)`**

Return a new list containing those elements of *fnmatch.fnmatch()* rather than like *fnmatch.fnr* dependent. The example below shows a (slow on all platforms).

```
>>> import fnmatch                                # Assume
>>> fnmatch.filter(['This', 'that', 'c
['This', 'thing']
>>> fnmatch.filter(['This', 'that', 'c
['that', 'other', 'thing']
>>> from fnmatch import fnmatchcase
>>> mymatch = lambda s: fnmatchcase(
>>> filter(mymatch, ['This', 'that', '
['that', 'other', 'thing']
```

For an explanation of the built-in function *filter*

SEE ALSO: `fnmatch.fnmatch()` 233; `fnmatch.fn`

SEE ALSO: `glob` 64; `re` 236;



### 3.3.3 Regular Expression Modules

---

---

**pre • Pre-sre module**

---

---

---

---

**pcre • Underlying C module for pre**

---

---

The Python-written module *pre*, and the C-written regular expression engine, are the regular expression backwards compatibility, they continue to be in space of *pre* is intended to be equivalent to *import re* in Python 2.0+, with the exception of the handling of *re* is, the lines below are almost equivalent, other specific operations:

```
>>> import pre as re
>>> import re
```

However, there is very rarely any reason to use *pre* should know far more about the internals of this book. Of course, prior to Python 2.0, *import re* (Python wrappers later renamed *pre*).

**SEE ALSO:** *re* 236;

---

---

## reconvert • Convert [regex] patterns to [r

---

This module exists solely for conversion of old 1.5 versions of Python, or possibly from regular sed, awk, or grep. Conversions are not guaranteed a starting point for a code update.

## FUNCTIONS

### reconvert.convert(s)

Return as a string the modern *re*-style pattern passed in argument *s*. For example:

```
>>> import reconvert
>>> reconvert.convert(r'\<\(cat\|dog\|
'\b(cat|dog)\b')
>>> import re
>>> re.findall(r'\b(cat | dog)\b', '
['dog']
```

**SEE ALSO:** [regex 235](#);

---

## **regex • Deprecated regular expression module**

---

The *regex* module is distributed with recent Python for compatibility of scripts. Starting with Python 2.7, it issues a `DeprecationWarning`:

```
% python -c "import regex"
-c:1: DeprecationWarning: the regex module
      please use the re module
```

For all users of Python 1.5+, *regex* should not be used. It is recommended to convert its usage to *re* calls.

**SEE ALSO:** [reconvert 235](#);

---

## **sre • Secret Labs Regular Expression Engine**

---

Support for regular expressions in Python 2.0+ is provided by the *sre* module, which simply wraps *sre* in order to have a backwards-compatible interface. There is almost never any reason to import *sre* itself, and it is recommended to deprecate *sre* also. As with *pre*, anyone deciding to use the internals of regular expression engines that

**SEE ALSO:** [re 236](#);

---

### PATTERN SUMMARY

Figure 3.1 lists regular expression patterns; for more detailed explanation of patterns in action, in this chapter. The utility function `re_show()` displays descriptions.

**Figure 3.1. Regular**

| Summary of Regular Expression Patterns |         |                                     |             |
|----------------------------------------|---------|-------------------------------------|-------------|
| Atoms                                  |         | Quantifiers                         |             |
| Plain symbol:                          | ...     | Universal quantifier:               | *           |
| Escape:                                | \       | Non-greedy universal quantifier:    | *?          |
| Grouping operators:                    | ( )     | Existential quantifier:             | +           |
| Backreference:                         | \#, \## | Non-greedy existential quantifier:  | +?          |
| Character class:                       | [ ]     | Potentiality quantifier:            | ?           |
| Digit character class:                 | \d      | Non-greedy potentiality quantifier: | ??          |
| Non-digit character class:             | \D      | Exact numeric quantifier:           | {num}       |
| Alphanumeric char class:               | \w      | Lower-bound quantifier:             | {min, }     |
| Non-alphanumeric char class:           | \W      | Bounded numeric quantifier:         | {min, max}  |
| Whitespace char class:                 | \s      | Non-greedy bounded quantifier:      | {min, max}? |
| Non-whitespace char class:             | \S      | Group-Like Patterns                 |             |
| Wildcard character:                    | .       |                                     |             |
| Beginning of line:                     | ^       | Pattern modifiers:                  | (?Limsux)   |
| Beginning of string:                   | \A      | Comments:                           | (?#...)     |
| End of line:                           | \$      | Non-backreferenced atom:            | (?:...)     |
| End of string:                         | \Z      | Positive Lookahead assertion:       | (?=...)     |
| Word boundary:                         | \b      | Negative Lookahead assertion:       | (?!...)     |
| Non-word boundary:                     | \B      | Positive Lookbehind assertion:      | (?<=...)    |
| Alternation operator:                  |         | Negative Lookbehind assertion:      | (?<!=...)   |
| Constants                              |         | Named group identifier:             | (?P<name>)  |
|                                        |         | Named group backreference:          | (?P=name)   |
| re.IGNORECASE                          | re.I    |                                     |             |
| re.LOCALE                              | re.L    |                                     |             |
| re.MULTILINE                           | re.M    |                                     |             |
| re.DOTALL                              | re.S    |                                     |             |
| re.UNICODE                             | re.U    |                                     |             |
| re.VERBOSE                             | re.X    |                                     |             |

# ATOMIC OPERATORS

## Plain symbol

Any character not described below as having a target string. An "A" matches exactly one "A" in

## Escape: "\"

The escape character starts a special sequence summary must be escaped to be treated as literal character itself). The letters "A", "b", "B", "d", " patterns if preceded by an escape. The escape group with up to two decimal digits. The escape special escaped meaning.

Since Python string escapes overlap regular expressions for regular expressions that potentially

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'\$ \\ \^', r'\$ \\ \^
\$ \\ \^ {$ \ ^}
```

```
>>> re_show(r'\d \w', '7 a 6 # ! C')
{7 a} 6 # ! C
```

## Grouping operators: "(", ")"

Parentheses surrounding any pattern turn that pattern). Quantifiers refer to the immediately preceding character or character class. For

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'abc+', 'abcabc abc abc
{abc}{abc} {abc} {abccc}
```

```
>>> re_show(r'(abc)+', 'abcabc abc a  
{abcabc} {abc} {abc}cc
```

## Backreference: "\d", "\dd"

A backreference consists of the escape character backslash followed by a digit. The digit in a back reference may not be a zero. A backreference refers to the group identified by an earlier group, where the enumeration of groups begins with 1.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show  
>>> re_show(r'([abc])(.*)\1', 'all  
{all the boys are coy
```

An attempt to reference an undefined group will raise an exception.

## Character classes: "[", "]"

Specify a set of characters that may occur at a particular position in a string. The set is enumerated with no delimiter. Predefined character classes are available. A range of characters may be specified. A dash is allowed within a class. If a dash is meant to be part of the class, it should occur as the first listed character. A character may be negated by preceding it with a caret ("^"). If a caret is meant to be part of the class, it should occur as the first listed character.

occur in a noninitial position. Most special characters have no meaning inside a character class and are merely characters. "\", and "-" should be escaped with a backslash.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'[a-zA-F]', 'A X c G')
{A} X {c} G
```

```
>>> re_show(r'[-A$BC\]]', r'A X - \
{A} X {-} \ {} [ {$}
```

```
>>> re_show(r'^A-Za-f]', r'A X c G'
A{ }{X}c{}{G}
```

## Digit character class: "\d"

The set of decimal digits. Same as "0-9".

## Non-digit character class: "\D"

The set of all characters *except* decimal digits.

## Alphanumeric character class: "\w"



The set of alphanumeric characters. If `re.LOCA` the same as `[a-zA-Z0-9_]`. Otherwise, the set is appropriate to the locale or with an indicated U

### **Non-alphanumeric character class: `"\W"`**

The set of nonalphanumeric characters. If `re.LC` this is the same as `[^a-zA-Z0-9_]`. Otherwise, indicated by the locale or Unicode character pro

### **Whitespace character class: `"\s"`**

The set of whitespace characters. Same as `[ \t\`

### **Non-whitespace character class: `"\S"`**

The set of nonwhitespace characters. Same as

### **Wildcard character: `"."`**

The period matches any single character at a p will match a newline. Otherwise, it will match a

## **Beginning of line: "^"**

The caret will match the beginning of the target  
"^" will match the beginning of each line within

## **Beginning of string: "\A"**

The "\A" will match the beginning of the target specified, "\A" behaves the same as "^". But even the beginning of the entire target.

## **End of line: "\$"**

The dollar sign will match the end of the target  
"\$" will match the end of each line within the target

## **End of string: "\Z"**

The "\Z" will match the end of the target string  
"\Z" behaves the same as "\$". But even if the rest of the entire target.

## Word boundary: "\b"

The "\b" will match the beginning or end of a word consisting of alphanumeric characters according to the current locale.

## Non-word boundary: "\B"

The "\B" will match any position that is *not* the beginning or end of a word defined as a sequence of alphanumeric characters and "\_". "\B" is a zero-width match.

## Alternation operator: "|"

The pipe symbol indicates a choice of multiple patterns. Any of the groups separated by a pipe will match. For example:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'A|c|G', r'A X c G')
{A} X {c} {G}
```

```
>>> re_show(r'(abc)|(xyz)', 'abc efg xyz lmn')
{abc} efg {xyz} lmn
```

# QUANTIFIERS

## Universal quantifier: "\*"

Match zero or more occurrences of the preceding empty string. For example:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show('a* ', ' a aa aaa aaaa k
{ }{a }{aa }{aaa}{aaaa }b
```

## Non-greedy universal quantifier: "\*?"

Match zero or more occurrences of the preceding allowable. For example:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show('<.*>', '<> <tag>Text</t
{<> <tag>Text</tag>}
```

```
>>> re_show('<.*?>', '<> <tag>Text</
{<>} {<tag>}Text{</tag>}
```

## Existential quantifier: "+"

Match one or more occurrences of the preceding target string to satisfy the "+" quantifier. For example:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show('a+ ', ' a aa aaa aaaa k
{a }{aa }{aaa }{aaaa }b
```

## Non-greedy existential quantifier: "+?"

Match one or more occurrences of the preceding allowable. For example:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show('<.+>', '<> <tag>Text</
{<> <tag>Text</tag>}
```

```
>>> re_show('<.+?>', '<> <tag>Text</
{<> <tag>}Text{</tag>}
```

## Potentiality quantifier: "?"

Match zero or one occurrence of the preceding empty string. For example:

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show('a? ', ' a aa aaa aaaa
{ }{a }a{a }aa{a }aaa{a }b
```

## Non-greedy potentiality quantifier: "??"

Match zero or one occurrence of the preceding

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(' a?', ' a aa aaa aaaa k
{ a}{ a}a{ a}aa{ a}aaa{ }b
```

```
>>> re_show(' a??', ' a aa aaa aaaa
{ }a{ }aa{ }aaa{ }aaaa{ }b
```

## Exact numeric quantifier: "{num}"

Match exactly num occurrences of the precedin

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show('a{3} ', ' a aa aaa aaaa
```

```
a aa {aaa }a{aaa }b
```

## Lower-bound quantifier: "{min,}"

Match *at least* min occurrences of the preceding

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show('a{3,} ', ' a aa aaa aa
a aa {aaa }{aaaa }b
```

## Bounded numeric quantifier: "{min,max}"

Match *at least* min and *no more than* max occu

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show('a{2,3} ', ' a aa aaa aa
a {aa }{aaa }a{aaa }
```

## Non-greedy bounded quantifier: "{min,max}?"

Match *at least* min and *no more than* max occu  
as few occurrences as allowable. Scanning is fr  
produced in terms of right-side groupings. For c

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(' a{2,4}? ', ' a aa aaa a
a{ aa}{ aa}a{ aa}aa b

>>> re_show('a{2,4}? ', ' a aa aaa a
a {aa }{aaa }{aaaa }b
```

## GROUP-LIKE PATTERNS

Python regular expressions may contain a number of matches in some manner. With the exception of backreferencing. All pseudo-group patterns have a backreference.

### Pattern modifiers: "(?Limsux)"

The pattern modifiers should occur at the very beginning of the pattern. The set "Limsux" may be included in the pattern. The interpretation of the pattern is changed globally or the tutorial for details.

### Comments: "(?#...)"

Create a comment inside a pattern. The comment is ignored by the engine.



no effect on what is matched. In most cases, u  
formatted comments than does "(?#...)".

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'The(?#words in caps) (
{The Cat} in the Hat
```

## Non-backreferenced atom: "(?:...)"

Match the pattern "...", but do not include the r  
Moreover, methods like *re.match.group()* will r  
atom.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'(?:\w+) (\w+).* \1', '
{abc xyz xyz} abc
```

```
>>> re_show(r'(\w+) (\w+).* \1', 'ak
{abc xyz xyz abc}
```

## Positive Lookahead assertion: "(?=...)"

Match the entire pattern only if the subpattern  
substring matched by "...", as part of the match

same characters, or some of them).

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'\w+ (?=xyz)', 'abc xyz
{abc }{xyz }xyz abc
```

## Negative Lookahead assertion: "(?!...)"

Match the entire pattern only if the subpattern

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'\w+ (?!xyz)', 'abc xyz
abc xyz {xyz }abc
```

## Positive Lookbehind assertion: "(?<=...)"

Match the rest of the entire pattern only if the s  
current match point. But do not include the targ  
match (the same characters may or may not be  
pattern). The pattern "... " must match a fixed r  
general quantifiers.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'\w+ (?<=[A-Z]) ', 'Word
```

Words {THAT }end in {capS }X

## Negative Lookbehind assertion: "(?<![...])"

Match the rest of the entire pattern only if the s to the current match point. The same character group(s) in the entire pattern. The pattern "... " therefore not contain general quantifiers.

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'\w+(?<![A-Z]) ', 'Words
{Words }THAT {end }{in }capS X
```

## Named group identifier: "(?P<name>)"

Create a group that can be referred to by the n backreferences. The forms below are equivalent

```
>>> from re_show import re_show
>>> re_show(r'(\w+) (\w+).* \1', 'abc
{abc xyz xyz abc}
```

```
>>> re_show(r'(?P<first>\w+) (\w+).*
{abc xyz xyz abc}
```

```
>>> re_show(r'(?P<first>\w+) (\w+) .*  
{abc xyz xyz abc}
```

## Named group backreference: "(?P=name)"

Backreference a group by the name *name* rather than by the index. The name must have been defined earlier by `(?P<name>...)`.

## CONSTANTS

A number of constants are defined in the *re* module. These constants are independent bit-values, so they can be combined by bitwise disjunction of modifiers. For example:

```
>>> import re  
>>> c = re.compile('cat | dog', re.I | re.M)
```

## **re.I, re.IGNORECASE**

Modifier for case-insensitive matching. Lowercase patterns modified with this modifier. The prefix `re.IGNORECASE` achieve the same effect.

## **re.L, re.LOCALE**

Modifier for locale-specific matching of `\w`, `\W`, inside the pattern to achieve the same effect.

## **re.M, re.MULTILINE**

Modifier to make `^` and `$` match the beginning string rather than the beginning and end of the used inside the pattern to achieve the same effect.

## **re.S, re.DOTALL**

Modifier to allow `.` to match a newline character. The prefix `(?s)` may also be used inside the pattern to achieve the same effect.

## **re.U, re.UNICODE**

Modifier for Unicode-property matching of `\w`, `\W`. The prefix `(?u)` may also be used inside the pattern to achieve the same effect.

## **re.X, re.VERBOSE**

Modifier to allow patterns to contain insignificant whitespace. This significantly improves readability of patterns. This can also be achieved by using `re.compile(pattern, re.VERBOSE)` to achieve the same effect.

## **re.engine**

The regular expression engine currently in use. The default engine normally is set to the string `sre`. The presence of `re.engine` makes sure which underlying implementation is used.

## **FUNCTIONS**

For all *re* functions, where a regular expression is required, it can be either a compiled regular expression or a string.

## **re.escape(s)**

Return a string with all nonalphanumeric characters escaped. This conversion makes an arbitrary string suitable for use in a regular expression (all literals in original string).

```
>>> import re
>>> print re.escape("(*@&^$@|")
\\(\\*\\@\\&\\^\\$\\@\\|
```

## **re.findall(pattern=..., string=...)**

Return a list of all nonoverlapping occurrences of groups, return a list of tuples where each tuple contains matches are included in the returned list, if the

```
>>> import re
>>> re.findall(r'\b[a-z]+\d+\b', 'abc123 xyz666 def77')
['abc123', 'xyz666', 'def77']
>>> re.findall(r'\b([a-z]+)(\d+)\b', 'abc123 xyz666 def77')
[('abc', '123'), ('xyz', '666'), ('def', '77')]
```

**SEE ALSO:** [re.search\(\)](#) 249; [mx.TextTools.findall\(\)](#)

## **re.purge()**

Clear the regular expression cache. The *re* module caches compiled regular expression patterns. The number of patterns cached in recent versions generally keeps 100 items in the cache; it is flushed automatically. You could use *re.purge()*

However, such tuning is approximate at best: Python off explicitly compiled with *re.compile()* and the

**`re.split(pattern=..., string=...[,maxsplit=0])`**

Return a list of substrings of the second argument delimited by the regular expression that delimits the substrings. The delimiters are included in the resultant list. Otherwise, those substrings are only the substrings between occurrences of pattern.

If the third argument `maxsplit` is specified as a non-negative integer, at most that many splits are parsed into the list, with any leftover content in the last element.

```
>>> import re
>>> re.split(r'\s+', 'The Cat in the Hat')
['The', 'Cat', 'in', 'the', 'Hat']
>>> re.split(r'\s+', 'The Cat in the Hat')
['The', 'Cat', 'in', 'the Hat']
>>> re.split(r'(\s+)', 'The Cat in the Hat')
['The', ' ', 'Cat', ' ', 'in', ' ', 'Hat']
>>> re.split(r'(a)(t)', 'The Cat in the Hat')
['The C', 'a', 't', ' ' in the H', 'a', 't']
>>> re.split(r'a(t)', 'The Cat in the Hat')
['The C', 't', ' ' in the H', 't', '']
```



SEE ALSO: `string.split()` 142;

**`re.sub(pattern=..., repl=..., string=...[,count=0]`**

Return the string produced by replacing every `pattern` in the string `string` with the second argument `repl` in the text. If `count` is specified, no more than `count` replacements

The second argument `repl` is most often a regular expression. Backreferences to groups matched by `pattern` in `repl` are backreferences using the usual escaped number notation. `repl` may also be referred to using the form `\g<name>` (where `name` is the `pattern` group name). As well, enumerated backreferences may be referred to using the form `\g<num>`, where `num` is an integer between 1 and the number of groups in the `pattern`.

```
>>> import re
>>> s = 'abc123 xyz666 lmn-11 def77'
>>> re.sub(r'\b([a-z]+)(\d+)', r'\2\1', s)
'123abc : 666xyz : lmn-11 77def :'
>>> re.sub(r'\b(?P<lets>[a-z]+)(?P<num>\d+)', r'\2\1', s)
'123abc : 666xyz : lmn-11 77def :'
>>> re.sub('A', 'X', 'AAAAAAAAAAAA', count=5)
'XXXXXAAAAAAAA'
```

A variant manner of calling `re.sub()` uses a function as the replacement string. The callback function should take a `MatchObject` as the first argument and return the replacement string.

function is invoked for each match of pattern, a result for whatever pattern matched. For exam

```
>>> import re
>>> sub_cb = lambda pat: '('+'len(pat)'+', '
>>> re.sub(r'\w+', sub_cb, 'The length of each word')
'(3)The (6)length (2)of (4)each (4)word'
```

Of course, if repl is a function object, you can't use it (instead of) simply returning modified strings. F

```
>>> import re
>>> def side_effects(match):
...     # Arbitrarily complicated behavior
...     print len(match.group()), match.group()
...     return match.group() # unchanged
...
>>> new = re.sub(r'\w+', side_effects, 'The length of each word')
3 The
6 length
2 of
4 each
4 word
>>> new
'The length of each word'
```

Variants on callbacks with side effects could be, in principle, a parser and execution environment both contained in the callback function, for example,

**SEE ALSO:** `string.replace()` 139;

**`re.subn(pattern=..., repl=..., string=...[,count=0])`**

Identical to `re.sub()`, except return a 2-tuple of the string and the number of replacements made.

```
>>> import re
>>> s = 'abc123 xyz666 lmn-11 def77'
>>> re.subn(r'\b([a-z]+)(\d+)', r'\2', s)
('123abc : 666xyz : lmn-11 77def :', 3)
```

**SEE ALSO:** `re.sub()` 246;

## CLASS FACTORIES

As with some other Python modules, primarily `collections`, `re` has classes that can be specialized. Instead, `re` has objects. The practical difference is small for most purposes. The attributes of returned instances in the same module are:

## **re.compile(pattern=...[,flags=...])**

Return a PatternObject based on pattern string specified, use the modifiers indicated by flags. Pattern string as an argument to *re* functions. However application should be compiled in advance to avoid repeated execution. Moreover, a compiled PatternObject achieve effects equivalent to *re* functions, but with less overhead in some contexts. For example:

```
>>> import re
>>> word = re.compile('[A-Za-z]+'
>>> word.findall('The Cat in the Hat')
['The', 'Cat', 'in', 'the', 'Hat']
>>> re.findall(word, 'The Cat in the Hat')
['The', 'Cat', 'in', 'the', 'Hat']
```

## **re.match(pattern=..., string=...[,flags=...])**

Return a MatchObject if an initial substring of the string matches the pattern in the first argument pattern. Otherwise return None. MatchObject has methods and attributes to manipulate the match. MatchObject itself a string.

Since *re.match()* only matches initial substrings:

constrained to itself match only initial substring

**SEE ALSO:** `re.search()` 249; `re.compile.match()`

**`re.search(pattern=..., string=...[,flags=...])`**

Return a MatchObject corresponding to the left that matches the pattern in the first argument matched string can be of zero length if the pattern desired). A MatchObject, if returned, has a variable matched pattern but notably a MatchObject is *n*

**SEE ALSO:** `re.match()` 248; `re.compile.search()`

## **METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES**

**`re.compile.findall(s)`**

Return a list of nonoverlapping occurrences of the pattern with the PatternObject.

**SEE ALSO** *re.findall()*

**`re.compile.flags`**

The numeric sum of the flags passed to *re.compile* is given by Python as to the values a

```
>>> import re
>>> re.I, re.L, re.M, re.S, re.X
(2, 4, 8, 16, 64)
>>> c = re.compile('a', re.I | re.M)
>>> c.flags
10
```

## **re.compile.groupindex**

A dictionary mapping group names to group number. If no group names are present in the pattern, the dictionary is empty. For example:

```
>>> import re
>>> c = re.compile(r'(\d+) ([A-Z]+) ([a-z]+)')
>>> c.groupindex
{}
>>> c=re.compile(r'(?P<nums>\d+) (?P<caps>[A-Z]+) (?P<lwrs>[a-z]+)')
>>> c.groupindex
{'nums': 1, 'caps': 2, 'lwrs': 3}
```

## **re.compile.match(s [,start [,end]])**

Return a MatchObject if an initial substring of the string matches the pattern. Otherwise, return None. A MatchObject, if returned, can be used to manipulate the matched pattern but notably a MatchObject is not a string.

In contrast to the similar function *re.match()*, the arguments start and end that limit the match to a substring of s, start and end is similar to taking a slice of s as in s[start:end]. If start and end is used, "^" will only match the true start of s. For example,

```
>>> import re
>>> s = 'abcdefg'
>>> c = re.compile('^b')
>>> print c.match(s, 1)
None
>>> c.match(s[1:])
<SRE_Match object at 0x10c4440>
>>> c = re.compile('.*f$')
>>> c.match(s[:-1])
<SRE_Match object at 0x116d80>
>>> c.match(s, 1, 6)
<SRE_Match object at 0x10c4440>
```

**SEE ALSO:** [re.match\(\)](#) 248; [re.compile.search\(\)](#)

**[re.compile.pattern](#)**

The pattern string underlying the compiled Mat

```
>>> import re
>>> c = re.compile('^abc$')
>>> c.pattern
'^abc$'
```

### **re.compile.search(s [,start [,end]])**

Return a MatchObject corresponding to the left matches the PatternObject. If no match is possible, return None. If the pattern allows that (usually not), a zero length match is returned, has a variety of methods and attributes. A MatchObject is *not* itself a string.

In contrast to the similar function *re.search()*, arguments start and end that limit the match to a specific range. Specifying start and end is similar to taking a slice. If start and end are used, "^" will only match the true

```
>>> import re
>>> s = 'ABCDEFGH'
>>> c = re.compile('^b')
>>> c = re.compile('^b')
>>> print c.search(s, 1), c.search(s, 1)
```



```
None <SRE_Match object at 0x117980>
>>> c = re.compile('.*f$')
>>> print c.search(s[:-1]), c.search(s)
<SRE_Match object at 0x51040> <SRE_Match object at 0x51040>
```

**SEE ALSO:** `re.search()` 249; `re.compile.match()`

### **`re.compile.split(s [,maxsplit])`**

Return a list of substrings of the first argument that do not contain matches for the regular expression. If the second argument `maxsplit` is specified, at most `maxsplit` splits will be performed; the resulting list will have at most `maxsplit+1` members. Otherwise, all splits will be performed. The list of substrings is returned, and the matches are dropped. Only the substrings between the matches are returned.

If the second argument `maxsplit` is specified as 0, all splits will be performed. The list of substrings is returned, and the matches are dropped. Only the substrings between the matches are returned.

*re.compile.split()* is identical in behavior to *re.split()*. See the documentation of the latter for examples of use.

**SEE ALSO:** `re.split()` 246;

### **`re.compile.sub(repl, s [,count=0])`**

Return the string produced by replacing every match of the regular expression in the second argument with the first argument `repl` in the second argument.

specified, no more than count replacements will

The first argument *repl* may be either a regular function. Backreferences may be named or enu

*re.compile.sub()* is identical in behavior to *re.s*  
documentation of the latter for a number of exa

**SEE ALSO:** *re.sub()* 246; *re.compile.subn()* 252

## ***re.compile.subn()***

Identical to *re.compile.sub()* , except return a 2  
replacements made.

*re.compile.subn()* is identical in behavior to *re.s*  
documentation of the latter for examples of usa

**SEE ALSO:** *re.subn()* 248; *re.compile.sub()* 252

Note: The arguments to each "MatchObject" m  
ellipses given on the *re.search()* line. All argum  
*re.search()* return the very same type of object

## ***re.match.end([group])***

## ***re.search.end ([group])***

The index of the end of the target substring `match.group` is specified, return the ending index of the target substring; otherwise, return the ending index of group 0 (i.e., the whole match). If `re.search.start` is specified, return the ending index of the target substring that is not used in the current match; otherwise, return the same non-negative value as `re.search.start`.

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search('(\w+) ((\d*)| ) (\w')
>>> m.groups()
('The', ' ', None, 'Cat')
>>> m.end(0), m.end(1), m.end(2), m.
(7, 3, 4, -1, 7)
```

## re.match.endpos, re.search.endpos

The end position of the search. If *re.compile.se* value, otherwise it is the length of the target string. If the search fails, the value is always the length of the string.

**SEE ALSO:** `re.compile.search()` 250; `re.search()`

```
re.match.expand(template)
re.search.expand(template)
```

Expand backreferences and escapes in the argument by the MatchObject. The expansion rules are the same as for the re.sub() function. Any nonescaped characters may also be included in the replacement string.

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search('(\w+) (\w+)', 'The Cat')
>>> m.expand(r'\g<2> : \1')
'Cat : The'
```

**re.match.group([group [,...]])**  
**re.search.group([group [,...]])**

Return a group or groups from the MatchObject matched substring. If one argument group is specified, return the substring of the target string. If multiple arguments group1, group2, ..., groupN are specified, return a tuple of corresponding substrings of the target.

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search(r'(\w+) (/) (\d+)', 'abc/123')
>>> m.group()
'abc/123'
>>> m.group(1)
'abc'
>>> m.group(1, 3)
('abc', '123')
```

SEE ALSO: `re.search.groups()` 253; `re.search.g`

**`re.match.groupdict([defval])`**

**`re.search.groupdict([defval])`**

Return a dictionary whose keys are the named  
Enumerated but unnamed groups are not included  
dictionary are the substrings matched by each  
part of an alternation operator that is not used  
that key is `None`, or `defval` if an argument is sp

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search(r'(?P<one>\w+) ((?P<tab>\t)|(?P<two>\d+))')
>>> m.groupdict()
{'one': 'abc', 'tab': None, 'two': '123'}
>>> m.groupdict('---')
{'one': 'abc', 'tab': '---', 'two': '123'}
```

SEE ALSO: `re.search.groups()` 253;

**`re.match.groups([defval])`**

**`re.search.groups([defval])`**

Return a tuple of the substrings matched by gr

alternation operator that is not used in the current version, or `default` if an argument is specified.

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search(r'(\w+) ((\t) | (/)) (
>>> m.groups()
('abc', '/', None, '/', '123')
>>> m.groups('---')
('abc', '/', '---', '/', '123')
```

**SEE ALSO:** `re.search.group()` 253; `re.search.groupdict()` 253

## **`re.match.lastgroup`, `re.search.lastgroup`**

The name of the last matching group, or `None` if no groups compose the match.

## **`re.match.lastindex`, `re.search.lastindex`**

The index of the last matching group, or `None` if no groups compose the match.

## **`re.match.pos`, `re.search.pos`**

The start position of the search. If *re.compile.s* value, otherwise it is 0. If *re.search()* or *re.mat* 0.

**SEE ALSO:** `re.compile.search()` 250; `re.search()`

## **`re.match.re`, `re.search.re`**

The `PatternObject` used to produce the match. must be retrieved from the `PatternObject`'s `pat`

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search('a', 'The Cat in th
>>> m.re.pattern
'a'
```

## **`re.match.span ([group])` `re.search.span([group])`**

Return the tuple composed of the return values (group). If the argument group is not specified,

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search('(\w+) ((\d*) | ) (\w
```

```
>>> m.groups()
('The', ' ', None, 'Cat')
>>> m.span(0), m.span(1), m.span(2),
((0, 7), (0, 3), (3, 4), (-1, -1), (
```

**re.match.start ([group])**  
**re.search.start ([group])**

The index of the end of the target substring `m.start([group])` if `group` is specified, return the ending index of the match. If `group` is not specified, return the ending index of group 0 (i.e., the whole match). If `group` is an alternation operator that is not used in the current match, return the same non-negative value as *re.search.start*.

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search('(\w+) ((\d*)| ) (\w+)')
>>> m.groups()
('The', ' ', None, 'Cat')
>>> m.start(0), m.start(1), m.start(2), m.start(3), m.start(4)
(0, 0, 3, -1, 4)
```

**re.match.string, re.search.string**

The target string in which the match occurs.



```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search('a', 'The Cat in th
>>> m.string
'The Cat in the Hat'
```

## EXCEPTIONS

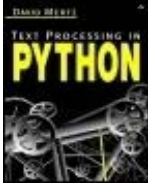
### **re.error**

Exception raised when an invalid regular expres  
produce a compiled regular expression (includin

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

## Chapter 4. Parsers and State Machines

All the techniques presented in the prior chapters of this book have something in common, but something that is easy to overlook. In a sense, every basic string and regular expression operation treats strings as *homogeneous*. Put another way: String and regex techniques operate on *flat* texts. While said techniques are largely in keeping with the "Zen of Python" maxim that "Flat is better than nested," sometimes the maxim (and homogeneous operations) cannot solve a problem. Sometimes the data in a text has a deeper *structure* than the linear sequence of bytes that make up strings.

It is not entirely true that the prior chapters have eschewed data structures. From time to time, the examples presented broke flat texts into lists of lines, or of fields, or of segments matched by patterns. But the structures used have been quite simple and quite regular. Perhaps a text

was treated as a list of substrings, with each substring manipulated in some manner or maybe even a list of lists of such substrings, or a list of tuples of data fields. But overall, the data structures have had limited (and mostly fixed) nesting depth and have consisted of sequences of items that are themselves treated similarly. What this chapter introduces is the notion of thinking about texts as *trees* of nodes, or even still more generally as graphs.

Before jumping too far into the world of nonflat texts, I should repeat a warning this book has issued from time to time. If you do not *need* to use the techniques in this chapter, you are better off sticking with the simpler and more maintainable techniques discussed in the prior chapters. Solving too general a problem too soon is a pitfall for application development; it is almost always better to do less than to do more. Fullscale parsers and state machines fall to the "more" side of such a choice. As we have seen already, the class of problems you can solve using regular expressions or even only string operations is quite broad.

There is another warning that can be mentioned at this point. This book does not attempt to explain parsing theory or the design of parseable languages. There are a lot of intricacies to these matters, about which a reader can consult a specialized text like the so-called "Dragon Book" Aho, Sethi, and Ullman's *Compilers: Principle, Techniques and Tools* (Addison-Wesley, 1986; ISBN: 0201100886) or Levine, Mason, and Brown's *Lex & Yacc* (Second Edition, O'Reilly, 1992; ISBN: 1-56592-000-7). When Extended Backus-Naur Form (EBNF) grammars or other parsing descriptions are discussed below, it is in a general fashion that does not delve into algorithmic resolution of ambiguities or big-O efficiencies (at least not in much detail). In practice, everyday Python programmers who are processing texts but who are not designing new programming languages need not worry about those parsing subtleties omitted from this book.

## Chapter 4. Parsers and State Machines

### 4.1 An Introduction to Parsers

#### 4.1.1 When Data Becomes Deep and Texts Be

Regular expressions can match quite complicated patterns, but it comes to matching arbitrarily nested subpatterns (which comes quite often in programming languages and text processing places sometimes). For example, in HTML documents, tags are nested inside each other. For that matter, characters can be nested arbitrarily. The following defines a valid HTML document:

```
>>> s = '''<p>Plain text, <i>italicized subphrase<subphrase</b></i>, <i>other phrase</i></p>'''
```

The problem with this fragment is that most analyses are less or more than a desired `<i>` element body.

```

>>> ital = r'''(?sx)<i>.+</i>'''
>>> for phrs in re.findall(ital, s):
...     print phrs, '\n-----'
...
<i>italicized phrase,
        <i>italicized subphrase</i>,
        subphrase</b></i>, <i>other i
        phrase</i>
-----

>>> ital2 = r'''(?sx)<i>.+?</i>'''
>>> for phrs in re.findall(ital2, s)
...     print phrs, '\n-----'
...
<i>italicized phrase,
        <i>italicized subphrase</i>
-----

<i>other italic
        phrase</i>
-----

```

What is missing in the proposed regular expres  
 imagine reading through a string character-by-  
 match must do within the underlying regex eng  
 of "How many layers of italics tags am I in?" W  
 would be possible to figure out which opening t

meant to match. But regular expressions are not

You encounter a similar nesting in most programming languages. Suppose we have a hypothetical (somewhat BASIC-like) IF/THEN/END structure. To simplify, suppose that the regex `cond\d+`, and every action matches a valid IF/THEN/END structure. We can nest IF/THEN/END structures within each other. We can define the following three top-level structures:

```
>>> s = '''
IF cond1 THEN act1 END
-----
IF cond2 THEN
    IF cond3 THEN act3 END
END
-----
IF cond4 THEN
    act4
END
'''
```

As with the markup example, you might first try to find a regular expression like:

```
>>> pat = r'''(?sx)
IF \s+
```



```

cond\d+ \s+
THEN \s+
act\d+ \s+
END'''
>>> for stmt in re.findall(pat, s):
...     print stmt, '\n-----'
...
IF cond1 THEN act1 END
-----
IF cond3 THEN act3 END
-----
IF cond4 THEN
    act4
END
-----

```

This indeed finds three structures, but the wrong structure should be the compound statement that contains cond3. It is not too difficult to allow a nested IF statement to substitute for a simple action; for example:

```

>>> pat2 = '''(?sx) (
IF \s+
cond\d+ \s+
THEN \s+

```

```

( (IF \s+ cond\d+ \s+ THEN \s+ act\
  | (act\d+)
) \s+
END
) '''
>>> for stmt in re.findall(pat2, s):
...     print stmt[0], '\n-----'
...
IF cond1 THEN act1 END
-----
IF cond2 THEN
    IF cond3 THEN act3 END
END
-----
IF cond4 THEN
    act4
END
-----

```

By manually nesting a "first order" IF/THEN/END simple action, we can indeed match the example assumed that nesting of IF/THEN/END structures. "second order" structure is nested inside a "third order" structure. What we would like is a means of describing a text, in a manner similar to, but more general

describe.

### 4.1.2 What Is a Grammar?

In order to parse nested structures in a text, you need a "grammar." A grammar is a specification of a set of "productions" arranged into a strictly hierarchical structure. Each node has a name and perhaps some other properties, and a collection of child nodes. When a document is parsed, no node can ever be a descendent of itself; this is why parsing produces a tree rather than a graph.

In many actual implementations, such as the flex and yacc grammars, the grammar is expressed at two layers. At the first layer, the lexer produces a stream of "tokens" for a "parser" to process. These are frequently what you might think of as words or phrases, but they can be the text differently than does our normal idea of words. A nonoverlapping subsequences of the original text. In the specification used, some subsequences may be overlapping. A "zero-case" lexer is one that simply treats the input as a stream of characters; the parser operates on (some modules discussed in

The second layer of a grammar is the actual parser. It takes a sequence of tokens and generates a "parse tree" representing the structure generated under the assumption that the input is valid according to the grammar; that is, there is a way to derive the input from the grammar specification. With most parser tools,

on EBNF.

An EBNF grammar consists of a set of rule declarations that use similar quantification and alternation as that in BNF. XML uses slightly different syntax for specifying grammar rules, but also uses the same quantifiers and available quantifiers. But almost all XML dialects use their grammar specifications. Even the DTDs (see [Chapter 5](#)) have a very similar syntax to other EBNF grammars in the sense since an XML dialect is a particular grammar.

```
<!ELEMENT body ((example-column | image-column | text-column)*)
```

In brief, under the sample DTD, a `<body>` element must occur exactly once, and it must contain one or more occurrences of a "first thing" that first thing being either a `<image-column>`, a `<text-column>`, or a `<example-column>`. Following the optional first `<example-column>`, one or more occurrences of a `<image-column>` must occur. Of course, we would need to see the full DTD in a `<text-column>`, or to see what other elements are allowed in. But each such rule is similar in form.

A familiar EBNF grammar to Python programmers is the Python grammar. On many Python installations, this grammar as a file in a location like `[...]/Python22/Doc/ref/grammar.txt`. The *Python Language Reference* excerpts from the Python grammar. For example, a floating point number in Python is defined as

**EBNF-style description of Python floating point number**

```

floatnumber ::= pointfloat | expon
pointfloat  ::= [intpart] fraction
exponentfloat ::= (intpart | pointfl
intpart     ::= digit+
fraction    ::= "." digit+
exponent    ::= ("e" | "E") ["+" |
digit       ::= "0"..."9"

```

The Python grammar is given in an EBNF variational notation. The grammar is expressive. Most of the tools this chapter discuss are still ultimately capable of expressing just as much as the grammar (albeit more verbosely). Both literal strings and character ranges are used. Alternation is expressed with "|". Quantifiers are used. These features are very similar to the features of regular expressions. Additionally, optional groups are indicated with parentheses, and mandatory groups with parentheses and an asterisk. Conceptually, the grammar is a regex "?" quantifier.

Where an EBNF grammar goes beyond a regular expression is in the use of named terms as parts of patterns. At first glance, it might seem to substitute regular expression patterns for named terms. In the floating point pattern presented, we could simply use a regular expression to match the floating point pattern.

## Regular expression to identify a floating point number

```
pat = r'(?x)
```

```
(                                # exponent
(                                # intpart
(                                # pointflc
    (\d+)?[.]\d+                # optional
    |
    \d+[.]                      # intpart
)                                # end poir
|
\d+                             # intpart
)                                # end intp
[eE] [+]? \d+                  # exponent
)                                # end expc
|
(                                # pointflc
    (\d+)?[.]\d+                # optional
    |
    \d+[.]                      # intpart
)                                # end poir
!!!
```

need for a little tweaking and documentation, but  
as general and exactly equivalent to the Python

You might wonder, therefore, what the point of floating point number is an unusually simple structure. A floatnumber requires no recursion or self-reference. What makes up a floatnumber is something simpler, and each of those simpler components is itself made up of something even simpler, in defining a Python floating point number.

In the general case, structures can recursively contain other structures that in turn contain other structures. It is entirely absurd to imagine floating point numbers in a programming language that had them would not be Python, however. A "googol" was defined in 1938 by Edward Kasner (otherwise called "10 dotrigintillion"). As a Python expression, it is `10**100`. Kasner also defined a "googolplex" as  $10^{10^{100}}$ , much larger than anyone needs for any practical purpose. Python has an expression to name a googolplex for example `10**(10**100)`. To conceive a programming language that allowed expressions like `10**(10**100)` is a googolplex. By the way: If you try to actually compile such an expression in any other programming language, you will be in for a long wait, a memory error, a compiler crash and/or some sort of crash or overflow error. In most programming languages, most language grammars are quite a bit more restrictive than Python. Python can actually do anything with.

Suppose that you wanted to allow these new "ε" language. In terms of the grammar, you could :

description:

```
exponent ::= ("e" | "E") ["+" | "-"]
```

In the regular expression, the change is a problem. The regular expression identifies the (optional) exponent:

```
[eE] [+ -]? \d+          # exponent
```

In this case, an exponent is just a series of digits. For floating point terms, the regular expression would use a regular expression in place of `\d+`. Unfortunately, the replacement would still contain the insufficient regular expression. The sequence of substitutions require substitution. The sequence of substitutions regular expression is infinitely long.

### 4.1.3 An EBNF Grammar for IF/THEN/END Structures

The IF/THEN/END language structure presented an example of nestable grammatical structures that can be described by numbers. In fact, Python along with almost every other programming language has precisely such if statements inside other if statements. We might describe our hypothetical simplified IF/THEN/END EBNF variant used for Python's grammar.

Recall first our simplified rules for allowable strings and END, and they always occur in that order with



in this language are always in all capitals. Any  
insignificant, except that each term is separate  
whitespace. Every condition is spelled to match  
Every IF "body" either contains an action that r  
act\d+, *or* it contains another IF/THEN/END str  
three IF/THEN/END structures, one of which co

```
IF cond1 THEN act1 END
-----
IF cond2 THEN
    IF cond3 THEN act3 END
END
-----
IF cond4 THEN
    act4
END
```

Let us try a grammar:

## EBNF grammar for IF/THEN/END structures

```
if_expr    ::= "IF" ws cond ws "THEN"
whitechar  ::= " " | "\t" | "\n" | "\"
ws         ::= whitechar+
digit      ::= "0"..."9"
```

```
number      ::= digit+
cond        ::= "cond" number
action      ::= simpleact | if_expr
simpleact    ::= "act" number
```

This grammar is fairly easy to follow. It defines `ws` and `number` that consist of repetitions of symbols as an explicit alternation of individual characters. Taken to the extreme, every production could be as verbose as the `if_expr` production; you would just substitute productions for the names in the `if_expr` production, much easier to read. The most notable aspect of this production, since an action can itself recursively

For this problem, the reader is encouraged to develop robust variations on the very simple IF/THEN/ELSE. It is evident, it is difficult to actually do much with these actions and conditions are given semantic meaning. People can invent their own variations, but a few are presented

#### 4.1.4 Pencil-and-Paper Parsing

To test a grammar at this point, just try to expand some production that is allowed at that point in the text and paper. Think of the text of test cases as a target production (if so, write the satisfied production). If the symbol is added to the "unsatisfied register"

with pencil and paper, however: It is better to s  
subsequence than a shorter one. If a parent pr  
the children must be satisfied in the specified o  
For now, assume only one character of lookahe  
example, suppose you find the following sequen

```
"IF    cond1..."
```

Your steps with the pencil would be something

### **1. Read the "I"no production is satisfied.**

- Read the "F", unsatisfied becomes "I"-"F". No  
in if\_expr (a literal is considered a production).  
quantifiers or alternates, write down the "IF" pr
- Read the space, Unsatisfied becomes simply a  
ws, but hold off for a character since ws contain  
substring to satisfy it.
- Read the second space, unsatisfied becomes s  
production ws. But again hold off for a character
- Read the third space, unsatisfied becomes spa  
the production ws. But keep holding off for the
- Read the "c", unsatisfied becomes "space-spa  
production, so revert to the production in 5. Un

- Et cetera.

If you get to the last character, and everything case is valid under the grammar. Otherwise, the few IF/THEN/END structures that you think are grammar.

### 4.1.5 Exercise: Some variations on the language

- 1. Create and test an IF/THEN/END grammar occur between the THEN and the END. For structures are valid under this variation**

```
IF cond1 THEN act1 act2 act3 END
```

.....

IF cond2 THEN

**IF cond3 THEN act3 END**

IF cond4 THEN act4 END

**END**

\_\_\_\_\_

IF cond5 THEN IF cond6 THEN act6 a

- Create and test an IF/THEN/END grammar that uses numbers as conditions (as an enhancement of the IF/THEN/END grammar, a comparison consists of two numbers with one of the following operators: <, >, =, <=, >=). There might or might not be any whitespace between the numbers and the operator.

surrounding numbers. Use your judgment about Python floating point grammar might provide a simpler).

- Create and test an IF/THEN/END grammar that action. A loop consists of the keyword LOOP, followed by action(s), and terminated by the END keyword actions, and therefore ifs and loops can be combined example:

```
IF cond1 THEN
  LOOP 100
    IF cond2 THEN
      act2
    END
  END
END
```

You can make this LOOP-enhanced grammar as you wish.

- Create and test an IF/THEN/END grammar that If an ELSE occurs, it is within an IF body, but E own body that can contain action(s). For example

```
IF cond1 THEN
  act1
```

```
    act2
ELSE
    act3
    act4
END
```

- Create and test an IF/THEN/END grammar that has an IF, ELSE, or LOOP body. For example, the following variant:

```
IF cond1 THEN
ELSE act2
END
--*--
IF cond1 THEN
    LOOP 100 END
ELSE
END
```

## **Chapter 4. Parsers and State Machines**

---

### **4.2 An Introduction to State Machines**

State machines, in a theoretical sense, underlay many things that are not directly related. But a Python programmer does not need to understand them to get things done matters in writing programs. Nonetheless, there are many problems where the best and most natural approach is to use a state machine solution. At heart, a state machine is just a way of modeling a process or application.

A parser is a specialized type of state machine that is used to parse structured texts. Generally a parser is accompanied by a grammar that describes the states and transitions used by the machine, which in turn is applied to text obeying a "grammar."

In some text processing problems, the processing of text depends upon what we have done so far. This kind of processing can be naturally expressed using a parser grammar. The semantics of the prior text than with its properties a portion of a text has is generally of

Concretely, we might calculate some arithmetic name encountered in a text file in a database, processing. Where the parsing of a text depends on a useful approach.

Implementing an elementary and generic state machine used for a variety of purposes. The third-party library discussed later in this chapter, can also be used in processors.

### **4.2.1 Understanding State Machines**

A much too accurate description of a state machine is a set of nodes and a set of transition functions. States are events; each event is in the domain of the transition function. The range is a subset of the nodes. The function returns a subset of the nodes are end-states; if an end-state is reached, the machine stops.

An abstract mathematical description like the one above is used in programming problems. Equally, Picayune is the programming language like Python is a state machine. It is really in a declarative functional or constraint-based language. Furthermore, every regular expression is logically a state machine. A parser implements an abstract state machine. It does so without really thinking about it, but that fact provides a useful technique.



An informal, heuristic definition is more useful than a formal one. A program requirement that includes a handful of informal requirements is more useful than a formal requirement. Furthermore, it is sometimes the case that informal requirements determine which type of treatment is appropriate (e.g., "identifying"). The state machines discussed in this section are intended to express clearly the programming requirements. In this sense to talk about your programming problem in terms of state events, it is likely to be a good idea to program state machines.

## 4.2.2 Text Processing State Machines

One of the programming problems most likely to arise is processing text files. Processing a text file very often consists of reading the file (typically either a character or a line), and doing something with it. In some cases, this processing is "stateless" that is, the state of the machine to determine exactly what to do in response to the input is not affected by the input. Although the text file is not 100 percent stateless (for example, the line number might matter for some processing), it is highly "stateful" (the meaning of a chunk depends on the state of the machine, maybe even on what chunks come next). Files containing human-readable texts, programming source files, and data files are examples of stateful chunks. A line that might

```
myObject = SomeClass(this, that, other)
```

That line means something very different if it has

```
"""How to use SomeClass:
myObject = SomeClass(this, that, oth
"""
```

That is, we needed to know that we were in a "comment rather than an action. Of course, a pr general way will usually use a parser and gram

### 4.2.3 When Not to Use a State Machine

When we begin the task of writing a processor should ask ourselves is "What types of things d is a candidate for a state. These types should b indefinite, a state machine is probably not the i solution is appropriate. Or maybe the problem be that many types of things.

Moreover, we are not quite ready for a state ma It might turn out that even though our text file where each chunk is a single type of thing. A st the transitions between types of text require sc single state-block.

An example of a somewhat stateful text file tha state machine is a Windows-style .ini file (gene data-with-API Windows registry). Those files cc and a number of value assignments. For exampr

## **File: hypothetical.ini**

```
; set the colorscheme and userlevel  
[colorscheme]  
background=red  
foreground=blue  
title=green  
  
[userlevel]  
login=2  
; admin=0  
title=1
```

This example has no real-life meaning, but it works in the .ini format. (1) In one sense, the type of each line is (keyword, semicolon, left brace, or alphabetic). (2) In another sense, the keyword "title" presumably means something important. I could program a text processor that had a COLR module that processed the value assignments of each state. I would handle this problem.

On the one hand, we could simply create the naive code like:

## **Chunking Python code to process .ini file**

```

txt = open('hypothetical.ini').read()
from string import strip, split
nocomm = lambda s: s[0] != ';'
eq2pair = lambda s: split(s, '=')
def assignments(sect):
    name, body = split(sect, ']')
    assigns = split(body, '\n')
    assigns = filter(strip, assigns)
    assigns = filter(None, assigns)
    assigns = filter(nocomm, assigns)
    assigns = map(eq2pair, assigns)
    assigns = map(tuple, assigns)
    return (name, assigns)
sects = split(txt, '[')
sects = map(strip, sects)
sects = filter(nocomm, sects)
config = map(assignments, sects)
pprint.pprint(config)

```

Applied to the hypothetical.ini file above, this c

```

[('colorscheme',
  [('background', 'red'),
   ('foreground', 'blue'),
   ('title', 'green')]),

```

```
('userlevel',  
  [('login', '2'),  
   ('title', '1')]))]
```

This particular list-oriented data structure may be enough to transform this into dictionary entries. Slightly modified code could generate other data.

An alternative approach is to use a single current section and process lines accordingly:

```
for line in open('hypothetical.ini'):  
    if line[0] == '[':  
        current_section = line[1:-2]  
    elif line[0] == ';':  
        pass      # ignore comments  
    else:  
        apply_value(current_section,
```

## **Sidebar: A digression on functional programming**

Readers will have noticed that the .ini chunking is more functional programming (FP) style than what I wrote. I presented the code this way for two reasons: to emphasize the contrast with a state machine approach and to show how FP can be used in a practical way.

its eschewal of state (see the discussion of functional programming). The example is, in a sense, even farther from a stateful program than that which used a few nested loops in place of the map function.

The more substantial reason I adopted a functional style for this type of problem is precisely the sort that can only be solved *clearly* using FP constructs. Basically, our source data is homogeneous at each level. Each section is similar to others. Each assignment is similar to others. A clear and stateful programming structure is applying an operation uniformly to each element. To do a given set of operations to find the assignment for each element, we'll just map() that set of operations to the collection. The functional approach is more terse than a bunch of nested loops, and better expressing the underlying intention of the code.

Use of a functional programming style, however, has some drawbacks. map(), reduce(), and filter() can quickly become verbose if function/variable names are not chosen carefully. "Pythonic" code (a popular competition for other languages) is often more constructs. Warnings in mind, it is possible to compare the functional code of the .ini chunking code (that produces identical output) to the imperative code. It is considerably shorter and less obfuscated, but will still be a challenge for some programmers. On the plus side, it is half the length and has fewer accidental side effects:

**Strongly functional code to process .ini file**

```

from string import strip, split
eq2tup = lambda s: tuple(split(s, '='))
splitnames = lambda s: split(s, ']')
parts = lambda s, delim: map(strip,
useful = lambda ss: filter(lambda s:
config = map(lambda _: (_[0], map(eq2
                map(splitnames, useful(
pprint.pprint(config)

```

In brief, this functional code says that a config  
(2) a list of key/value pairs. Using list compreh  
the example code is compatible back to Python  
and parts() go a long way towards keeping the  
are, furthermore, potentially worth saving in a  
makes the relevant .ini chunking code even shc

A reader exercise is to consider how the higher  
on functional programming could further impro  
presented in this subsection.

## 4.2.4 When to Use a State Machine

Now that we have established not to use a stat  
should look at a case where a state machine is  
[Appendix D](#). Txt2Html converts "smart ASCII" f

In very brief recap, smart ASCII format is a text format that distinguishes different types of text blocks, such as code samples. While it is easy for a human reader to identify these text block types, there is no simple way to parse them. Unlike in the .ini file example, text block types are not separated by a single delimiter that separates blocks in all cases (a blank line within a code sample does not necessarily separate blocks). But we do need to know the type of each text block for the correct final XML output. A natural solution here is a state machine.

The general behavior of the Txt2Html reader is to read a line of the text file and go to the current state. If the line matches the current state, it leaves the current state and enters another state. If the line does not match the current state, it stays in the current state. This example shows the state machine but it expresses the pattern described:

## A simple state machine input loop in Python

```
global state, blocks, newblock
for line in fpin.readlines():
    if state == "HEADER":
        #
        if blankln.match(line):
            newblock = "HEADER"
        elif textln.match(line):
            state = "TEXT"
        elif codeIn.match(line):
            state = "CODE"
        else:
```



```

        if newblock: startHead(l
        else: blocks[-1] += line
elif state == "TEXT":          #
    if blankln.match(line):    ne
    elif headln.match(line):   st
    elif codeIn.match(line):   st
    else:
        if newblock: startText(l
        else: blocks[-1] += line
elif state == "CODE":          # blar
    if blankln.match(line):    blocks
    elif headln.match(line):   startF
    elif textln.match(line):   startT
    else: blocks[-1] += line
else:
    raise ValueError, "unexpected ir

```

The only real thing to notice is that the variable in functions like `startText()`. The transition conc expression patterns, but they could just as well actually done later in the program; the state m in the blocks list. In a sense, the state machine processor.

#### 4.2.5 An Abstract State Machine Class

It is easy in Python to abstract the form of a state machine model of the program stand out block in the previous example (which doesn't require other conditional). Furthermore, the class performs the job of isolating in-state behavior. This improves test cases.

### **File: statemachine.py**

```
class InitializationError(Exception):
```

```
class StateMachine:
```

```
    def __init__(self):
        self.handlers = []
        self.startState = None
        self.endStates = []
```

```
    def add_state(self, handler, end_state):
        self.handlers.append(handler)
        if end_state:
            self.endStates.append(handler)
```

```
    def set_start(self, handler):
        self.startState = handler
```

```

def run(self, cargo=None):
    if not self.startState:
        raise InitializationError
            "must call .set_startState"
    if not self.endStates:
        raise InitializationError
            "at least one state must be an end state"
    handler = self.startState
    while 1:
        (newState, cargo) = handler(cargo)
        if newState in self.endStates:
            return newState(cargo), cargo
        break
    elif newState not in self.endStates:
        raise RuntimeError, "no handler for state %s" % newState
    else:
        handler = newState

```

The StateMachine class is really all you need for a state machine. It has fewer lines than something similar would require if you were passing function objects in Python. You could easily modify it to check and the self.handlers list, but the extra for clarity is worth the intention.

To actually *use* the StateMachine class, you need to create an instance of the class, you need to set the start state, and you need to set the end states.

want to use. A handler must follow a particular in any case it must have some breakout condition should process another event of the state's type handler should check for breakout conditions at transition to. At the end, a handler should pass and any cargo the new state handler will need.

An encapsulation device is the use of cargo as a (necessarily called cargo by the handlers). This one state handler to take over where the last state consist of a file handle, which would allow the return point where the last state handler stopped. But complex class instance, or a tuple with several

#### **4.2.6 Processing a Report with a Concrete State**

A moderately complicated report format provided to a state machine programming style and specification. The hypothetical report below has a number of to buyer orders, but at other times the identical Blank lines, for example, are processed differently processed according to different rules, each get order, a degree of stateful processing is performed calculations:

#### **Sample Buyer/Order Report**

## MONTHLY REPORT -- April 2002

=====

### Rules:

- Each buyer has price schedule for
- Each buyer has a discount schedul
- Discounts are per-order (i.e., cc
- Buyer listing starts with line cc
- Item quantities have name-whitesp
- Comment sections begin with line  
and ends with first line that enc

>> Acme Purchasing

widgets	100
whatzits	1000
doodads	5000
dingdongs	20

\* Note to Donald: The best contact f  
\* 413-555-0001. Fallback is Sue For

>> Megamart

doodads 10k

```
whatzits    5k
```

```
>> Fly-by-Night Sellers
```

```
widgets      500
```

```
whatzits      4
```

```
flazs        1000
```

```
* Note to Harry: Have Sales contact
```

```
*
```

```
Known buyers:
```

```
>> Acme
```

```
>> Megamart
```

```
>> Standard (default discounts)
```

```
*
```

```
*** LATE ADDITIONS ***
```

```
>> Acme Purchasing
```

```
widgets      500      (rush shipment)
```

The code to process this report below is a bit is devoted merely to deciding when to leave the of the "buyer states" is sufficiently similar that parameterized state; but in a real-world applica

detailed custom programming for both in-state  
For example, a report might allow different forr

## **buyer\_invoices.py**

```
from statemachine import StateMachir
from buyers import STANDARD, ACME, M
from pricing import discount_schedul
import sys, string

#-- Machine States
def error(cargo):
    # Don't want to get here! Under
    sys.stderr.write('Unidentifiable

def eof(cargo):
    # Normal termination -- Cleanup
    sys.stdout.write('Processing Suc

def read_through(cargo):
    # Skip through headers until buy
    fp, last = cargo
    while 1:
        line = fp.readline()
```

```

        if not line:                retu
        elif line[:2] == '>>':    retu
        elif line[0] == '*':      retu
        else:                     cont

```

```

def comment(cargo):
    # Skip comments
    fp, last = cargo
    if len(last) > 2 and string.rstr
        return read_through, (fp, ''
    while 1:
        # could save or process comm
        line = fp.readline()
        lastchar = string.rstrip(lir
        if not line:                retu
        elif lastchar == '*':      retu
def STANDARD(cargo, discounts=discou
                prices=item_pric
    fp, company = cargo
    invoice = 0
    while 1:
        line = fp.readline()
        nextstate = buyerbranch(line
        if nextstate == 0: continue
        elif nextstate == 1:

```



```

        invoice = invoice + calc
    else:
        pr_invoice(company, 'sta
        return nextstate, (fp, l

def ACME(cargo, discounts=discount_s
        prices=item_prices[A
    fp, company = cargo
    invoice = 0
    while 1:
        line = fp.readline()
        nextstate = buyerbranch(line
        if nextstate == 0: continue
        elif nextstate == 1:
            invoice = invoice + calc
        else:
            pr_invoice(company, 'neg
            return nextstate, (fp, l

def MEGAMART(cargo, discounts=discou
        prices=item_pric
    fp, company = cargo
    invoice = 0
    while 1:
        line = fp.readline()

```

```

        nextstate = buyerbranch(line)
        if nextstate == 0: continue
        elif nextstate == 1:
            invoice = invoice + calc
        else:
            pr_invoice(company, 'neg
            return nextstate, (fp, l

#-- Support function for buyer/state
def whichbuyer(line):
    # What state/buyer does this line
    line = string.upper(string.replace
    find = string.find
    if find(line, 'ACME') >= 0:
    elif find(line, 'MEGAMART') >= 0:
    else:

def buyerbranch(line):
    if not line:
    elif not string.strip(line):
    elif line[0] == '*':
    elif line[:2] == '>>':
    else:

#-- General support functions

```

```
def calc_price(line, prices):
    product, quant = string.split(line)
    quant = string.replace(quant, ' ', '')
    quant = int(quant)
    return quant*prices[product]
```

```
def discount(invoice, discounts):
    multiplier = 1.0
    for threshold, percent in discounts:
        if invoice >= threshold: multiplier = multiplier*percent
    return invoice*multiplier
```

```
def pr_invoice(company, disctype, amount):
    print "Company name:", company[0]
    print "Invoice total: $", amount
```

```
if __name__ == "__main__":
    m = StateMachine()
    m.add_state(read_through)
    m.add_state(comment)
    m.add_state(STANDARD)
    m.add_state(ACME)
    m.add_state(MEGAMART)
    m.add_state(error, end_state=1)
    m.add_state eof, end_state=1)
```

```
m.set_start(read_through)
m.run((sys.stdin, ''))
```

The body of each state function consists mostly returning a new target state, along with a cargo of a file handle and the last line read. In some cases, the last line read is also needed for use by the subsequent state. The flow diagram lets you see the set of transitions

All of the buyer states are "initialized" using `State` during calls by a normal state machine `.run()` call as classes instead of as functions, but that feels awkward. Specific initializer values are contained in a superclass.

## pricing.py support data

```
from buyers import STANDARD, ACME, MEGAMART

# Discount consists of dollar requirement and discount
# Each buyer can have an ascending series of discounts
# one applicable to a month is used.
discount_schedules = {
    STANDARD : [(5000, 10), (10000, 20)],
    ACME      : [(1000, 10), (5000, 15)],
    MEGAMART  : [(2000, 10), (5000, 20)]
```

```

        BAGOBOLTS : [ (2500,10) , (5000,15)
    ]
item_prices = {
    STANDARD      : { 'widgets':1.0, 'whā
        'dingdongs':1.3, 'f
    ACME          : { 'widgets':0.9, 'whā
        'dingdongs':0.9, 'f
    MEGAMART      : { 'widgets':1.0, 'whā
        'dingdongs':1.2, 'f
    BAGOBOLTS     : { 'widgets':0.8, 'whā
        'dingdongs':1.3, 'f
}

```

In place of reading in such a data structure, a f read them from a database of some sort. None abstract flow into separate modules makes for

### 4.2.7 Subgraphs and State Reuse

Another benefit of the state machine design ap states without touching the state handlers at al doing soif a state branches to another state, th "registered" states. You can, however, add hom states. For example:

## Creating end states for subgraphs

```
from statemachine import StateMachine
from BigGraph import *

def subgraph_end(cargo): print "Leaving subgraph"
foo = subgraph_end
bar = subgraph_end

def spam_return(cargo): return spam, eggs, baz
baz = spam_return

if __name__ == '__main__':
    m = StateMachine()
    m.add_state(foo, end_state=1)
    m.add_state(bar, end_state=1)
    m.add_state(baz)
    map(m.add_state, [spam, eggs, baz])
    m.set_start(spam)
    m.run(None)
```

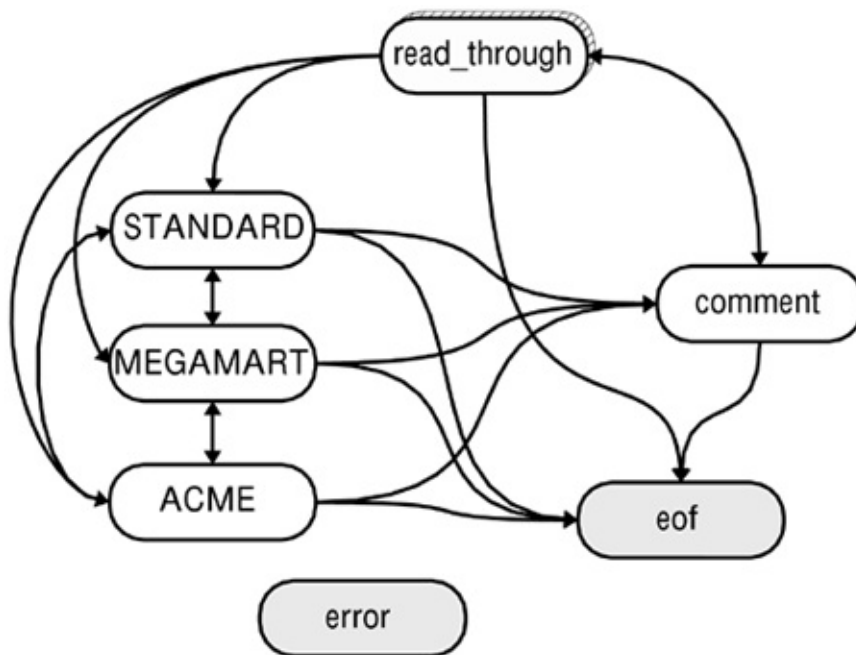
In a complex state machine graph, you often encounter a particular collection of states i.e., nodes might have a few connections out to the rest of the graph. Unrelated set of functionality.

For processing the buyer report discussed earlier, meaningful subgraphs really exist. But in the *BigGraph* module contains hundreds or thousands of complex complete graph. Supposing that the state subgraph, and all branches out of the subgraph, an entire new application.

The example redefined `foo` and `bar` as end state (StateMachine object) ends when they are reached into the `spam-eggs-bacon` subgraph. A subgraph state machine. It is actually the `end_state` flag as an end state, it would raise a `RuntimeError`.

If you create large graphs especially with the intent is often useful to create a state diagram. Pencil this; a variety of flow-chart software also exists to allow you to identify clustered subgraphs and of a functional subgraph. A state diagram from A quick look at [Figure 4.1](#), for example, allows which might not have been evident in the code enhancement to the diagram and handlers might written into it.

**Figure 4.1. Buyer s**



## 4.2.8 Exercise: Finding other solutions

1. On the face of it, a lot of "machinery" was complicated a report above. The goal of robust and to allow for expansion to larger machine approach in your mind, how else the presented type (assume that "reasons" the same type).

Try writing a fresh report processing application against the presented application (or at least some against the sample report and against a

What errors did you encounter running more concise than the presented one? What presented application? Is your application



**another programmer? Which approach v  
other report formats? In what respect is  
state machine example?**

- The error state is never actually reached in th  
transition conditions into the error state would  
types of corruption or mistakes in reports do y  
reports, or other documents, are flawed, but it  
possible. What are good approaches to recover  
those approaches in state machine terms, using  
framework?

## Chapter 4. Parsers and State Machines

---

### 4.3 Parser Libraries for Python

#### 4.3.1 Specialized Parsers in the Standard Library

Python comes standard with a number of modules that handle a variety of custom formats are in sufficiently wide variety of standard library support for them. Aside from the *email* and *xml* packages, and the modules *urllib* and *urllib2*, which performs parsing of sorts. A number of modules handle and process audio and image formats, including *image* tools. However, these media formats are better handled than as token streams of the sort parsers handle.

The specialized tools discussed under this section are listed in the *Python Library Reference* for detailed documentation. It is worth knowing what is available, but for space reasons, I will not discuss the specifics of these few modules.

## ConfigParser

Parse and modify Windows-style configuration files

```
>>> import ConfigParser
>>> config = ConfigParser.ConfigParser()
>>> config.read(['test.ini', 'nonesuch.ini'])
>>> config.sections()
['userlevel', 'colorscheme']
>>> config.get('userlevel', 'login')
'2'
>>> config.set('userlevel', 'login', 5)
>>> config.write(sys.stdout)
[userlevel]
login = 5
title = 1

[colorscheme]
background = red
foreground = blue
```

**difflib**

**.../Tools/scripts/ndiff.py**

The module *difflib*, introduced in Python 2.1, can help you determine the difference and similarity of sequences enough to work with sequences of all kinds, but it's best for lines or sequences of characters.

Word similarity is useful for determining likely matches required between strings. The function *difflib.get\_close\_matches()* performs "fuzzy matching" of a string against patterns. The

```
>>> users = ['j.smith', 't.smith', 'p.smyth']
>>> maxhits = 10
>>> login = 'a.smith'
>>> difflib.get_close_matches(login,
['t.smith', 'j.smith', 'p.smyth'])
>>> difflib.get_close_matches(login,
['t.smith', 'j.smith'])
>>> difflib.get_close_matches(login,
['t.smith', 'j.smith', 'p.smyth', 'a.smith'])
```

Line matching is similar to the behavior of the *diff* utility. The utility is able to take a source and a difference, (file). The functions *difflib.ndiff()* and *difflib.res* time, however, the bundled *ndiff.py* tool performs the "patches" with an *-r#* option).

```
% . ./ndiff.py chap4.txt chap4.txt~ |
-: chap4.txt
```

```

+: chap4.txt~
+     against patterns.
-     against patterns. The require
-
-     >>> users = ['j.smith', 't.smi
-     >>> maxhits = 10
-     >>> login = 'a.smith'

```

There are a few more capabilities in the *difflib* r possible.

## formatter

Transform an abstract sequence of formatting e objects. Writer objects, in turn, produce concrete parent formatter and writer classes are contain

In a way, *formatter* is an "anti-parser" that is, w program events, *formatter* transforms a series

The purpose of the *formatter* module is to struc processor file formats. The module *htmlib* utilizes details provide calls related to features like font

For highly structured output of prose-oriented c albeit requiring learning a fairly complicated AP

classes included to create simple tools. For example, equivalent to `lynx -dump`:

## **urldump.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import sys
from urllib import urlopen
from htmllib import HTMLParser
from formatter import AbstractFormat
if len(sys.argv) > 1:
    fpin = urlopen(sys.argv[1])
    parser = HTMLParser(AbstractFormat)
    parser.feed(fpin.read())
    print '-----'
    print fpin.geturl()
    print fpin.info()
else:
    print "No specified URL"
```

**SEE ALSO:** [htmlib 285](#); [urllib 388](#);

## **htmlib**

Parse and process HTML files, using the service module, *htmllib* relies on the user constructing callbacks from HTML events, usually utilizing the a "writer" (also usually based on the *formatter* layers of indirection in the *htmllib* API to make

**SEE ALSO:** [HTMLParser 384](#); [formatter 284](#); [sg](#)

## **multifile**

The class *multifile.MultiFile* allows you to treat a file as if it were several files, each with their own `F.seek()`, and `.tell()` methods. In iterator fashion with the method *multifile.MultiFile.next()*.

**SEE ALSO:** [fileinput 61](#); [mailbox 372](#); [email.Parser 372](#)

## **parser symbol token tokenize**

Interface to Python's internal parser and tokenization. Arguably a text processing task, the complexity of this book.

## robotparser

Examine a robots.txt access control file. This file describes the behavior of automatic indexers and Web crawler requests.

## sgmlib

A partial parser for SGML. Standard Generalized Markup Language is a complex document standard; in its full generality it is more a grammar for describing concrete formats. XML is (almost) a simplified subset of SGML.

Although it might be nice to have a Python library that does such a thing. Instead, *sgmlib* implements just a subset of SGML with *htmlib*. You might be able to coax parsing of XML but Python's standard XML tools are far more robust.

**SEE ALSO:** [htmlib 285](#); [xml.sax 405](#);

## shlex

A lexical analyzer class for simple Unix shell-like command languages. It implements small command language within Python.



## tabnanny

This module is generally used as a command-line application. The module/script *tabnanny* checks tabs and spaces within the same block. Behind the scenes, the code is tokenized, but normal usage consists of something like:

```
% /sw/lib/python2.2/tabnanny.py SCRIPTS/cmdline.py 165 '\treturn 1\r\n'
'SCRIPTS/HTMLParser_stack.py': TokenError: (multiline
SCRIPTS/outputters.py 18 '\tself.write
SCRIPTS/txt2bookU.py 148 '\ttry:\n'
```

The tool is single purpose, but that purpose adds to the programming.

**SEE ALSO:** tokenize 285;

### 4.3.2 Low-Level State Machine Parsing

**mx.TextTools • Fast Text Manipulation Tools**

Marc-Andre Lemburg's *mx.TextTools* is a remarkable

gestalt of. *mx.TextTools* can be blazingly fast as difficult as it might be to "get" the mindset of an application written with it working just right. On the other hand, *mx.TextTools* can process a larger class of text simultaneously operating much faster. But debugging it is like you wish you were merely debugging a cryptic

In recent versions, *mx.TextTools* has come in a new form as other "mx Extensions for Python." Most of the common implementations of datatypes not found in a base

*mx.TextTools* stands somewhere between a state machine and the module *SimpleParse*, discussed below, is an alternative to *mx.TextTools*. As a state machine, *mx.TextTools* is a *statemachine* module presented in the prior section. It is very close to a high-level parser. This is how Leif's accompanying *mx.TextTools*:

*mxTextTools* is an extension package for Python that implements high-performance text processing in addition to a very flexible and extendable state machine for scanning and processing text based on low-level tuples. It gives you access to the speed of C in a few steps every time you change the parsing description.

Applications include parsing structured text, finding patterns (using translation tables) and recombining strings.

The Python standard library has a good set of powerful, flexible, and easy to work with. But Python is fast. Mind you, for most problems, Python by its class of problems, being able to choose *mx.Text*

The unusual structure of *mx.TextTools* application usage. After a few sample applications are presented, commands, modifiers, and functions is given.

## BENCHMARKS

A familiar computer-industry paraphrase of Mark Twain dictates that there are "Lies, Damn Lies, and Statistics." But certainly do not want readers to put too great a value on them. Nonetheless, in exploring *mx.TextTools*, I want to give you here is a rough idea.

The second example below presents part of a *txt2html* application reproduced in [Appendix D](#). It is the regular expression replacements performed to convert ASCII inline markup of words and phrases.

In order to get a timeable test case, I concatenated a file a bit over 2MB, and about 41k lines and 300,000 one text block, first using an *mx.TextTools* version.

Processing time of the same test file went from

slowish Linux test machine (running Python 1.5 about a 3x speedup over what I get with the *re* particular applications might gain significantly more. Moreover, 34 seconds is a long time in an interactive batch process done once a day, or once a week.

## Example: Buyer/Order Report Parsing

Recall (or refer to) the sample report presented in [State Machines](#)." A report contained a mixture of comments. The state machine we used looked at new lines based on context whether the new line indicated a new comment to write almost the same algorithm utilizing *mx* that is not what we will do.

A more representative use of *mx.TextTools* is to parse the interesting components of the report document into a "grammar" that describes every valid "buyer report". A procedural/grammar approach is much easier, and more compact, than a report.

An *mx.TextTools* tag table is a miniature state machine that matches a portion of a string. Matching, in this context, means that a "failure" ends a state while nonmatching means that a "failure" ends a state. A tag table is a success state. Each individual state in a tag table is constructed by reading from the "read-head" and either success or failure, program flow jumps to the next state.

success or failure state for the tag table as a way that is often different from the jump target for failure jump targets, unlike the *statemachine* module's

Notably, one of the types of states you can include can "externally" look like a simple match of subpatterns and machine flow in order to determine as in an EBNF grammar, you can build nested constructs. States can also have special behavior, such as for *mx.TextTools* tag table state is simply a binary

Let us look at an *mx.TextTools* parsing application that works:

## buyer\_report.py

```
from mx.TextTools import *

word_set = set(alphanumeric+white+'-')
quant_set = set(number+'kKmM')

item = ( (None, AllInSet, newline_
         (None, AllInSet, white_set),
         ('Prod', AllInSet, a2z_set),
         (None, AllInSet, white_set)
```

```

        ('Quant', AllInSet, quant
        (None, WordEnd, '\n', -5)

buyers = ( ('Order', Table,
            ( (None, WordEnd,
              ('Buyer', AllInS
              ('Item', Table,
              Fail, +0), )

comments = ( ('Comment', Table,
              ( (None, Word, '\r
                (None, WordEnd,
                (None, Skip, -1)
                +1, +2),
              (None, Skip, +1),
              (None, EOF, Here, -2) )

def unclaimed_ranges(tagtuple):
    starts = [0] + [tup[2] for tup in
    stops = [tup[1] for tup in tagtu
    return zip(starts, stops)

def report2data(s):
    comtuple = tag(s, comments)
    taglist = comtuple[1]

```

```

    for beg,end in unclaimed_ranges(
        taglist.extend(tag(s, buyers
taglist.sort(cmp)
return taglist

if __name__=='__main__':
    import sys, pprint
    pprint.pprint(report2data(sys.st

```

Several tag tables are defined in *buyer\_report*: such as those in each tag table are general match patterns; after working with *mx.TextTools* for a tag tables. As mentioned above, states in tag table name or inline. For example, buyers contains a utilizes the tag table named item.

Let us take a look, step by step, at what the buyer tag table needs to be passed as an argument to a string to match against. That is done in the report general, buyers or any tag table contains a list of example, all such states are numbered in common state, which contains a subtable with three states

## Tag table state in buyers

### 1. Try to match the subtable. If the match

**taglist of matches. If the match fails, do  
jump back into the one state (i.e., +0).  
succeeds, advancing the read-head on c**

## **Subtable states in buyers**

**1. Try to find the end of the "word" \n>>  
than symbols at the beginning of a line.  
past the point that first matched. If this  
(sub)table as a whole fails to match. No  
match, so the default jump of +1 is taken  
anything to the taglist upon a state mat**

- Try to find some word\_set characters. This set  
various other sets are defined in *mx.TextTools*  
Buyer to the taglist of matches. As many contiguous  
matched. The match is considered a failure if the  
state match fails, jump to Fail, as in state (1).

- Try to match the item tag table. If the match  
matches. What gets added, moreover, includes  
match fails, jump to MatchOk that is, the (sub)table  
succeeds, jump +0 that is, keep looking for another

What *buyer\_report* actually does is to first identify  
between comments for buyer orders. This approach  
the design of *mx.TextTools* allows us to do this



not involve actually pulling out the slices that n  
numerically the offset ranges where they occur.  
performing repeated slices, or otherwise creati

The following is important to notice: As of versi  
mx.TextTools.tag() function that accompanies *r*  
optional third and fourth arguments are passed  
offsets within a larger string to scan, *not* the st  
versions will fix the discrepancy (either approac  
breakage in existing code).

What *buyer\_report* produces is a data structure  
something like:

### **buyer\_report.py data structure**

```
$ python ex_mx.py < recs.tmp
[('Order', 0, 638,
  [ ('Buyer', 547, 562, None),
    ('Item', 562, 583,
      [ ('Prod', 566, 573, None), ('Qua
    ('Item', 583, 602,
      [ ('Prod', 585, 593, None), ('Qu
    ('Item', 602, 621,
      [ ('Prod', 604, 611, None), ('Qu
```

```
    ('Item', 621, 638,  
      [('Prod', 623, 632, None), ('Qua  
( 'Comment', 638, 763, []),  
( 'Order', 763, 805,  
  [('Buyer', 768, 776, None),  
    ('Item', 776, 792,  
      [('Prod', 778, 785, None), ('Qua  
( 'Item', 792, 805,  
      [('Prod', 792, 800, None), ('Qua  
( 'Order', 805, 893,  
  [('Buyer', 809, 829, None),  
    ('Item', 829, 852,  
      [('Prod', 833, 840, None), ('Qua  
( 'Item', 852, 871,  
      [('Prod', 855, 863, None), ('Qua  
( 'Item', 871, 893,  
      [('Prod', 874, 879, None), ('Qua  
( 'Comment', 893, 952, []),  
( 'Comment', 952, 1025, []),  
( 'Comment', 1026, 1049, []),  
( 'Order', 1049, 1109,  
  [('Buyer', 1054, 1069, None),  
    ('Item', 1069, 1109,  
      [('Prod', 1070, 1077, None), ('Q
```

While this is "just" a new data structure, it is quite useful for reports. For example, here is a brief function that converts a taglist to XML. You could even arrange for it to be valid XML (see [Chapter 5](#) for details about XML, DTDs, etc).

```
def taglist2xml(s, taglist, root):
    print '<%s>' % root
    for tt in taglist:
        if tt[3]:
            taglist2xml(s, tt[3], tt[1])
        else:
            print '<%s>%s</%s>' % (tt[1], s, tt[1])
    print '</%s>' % root
```

## Example: Marking up smart ASCII

The "smart ASCII" format uses email-like conventions for emphasis, source code, and URL links. This format was used to produce the book you hold (which was written by obeying just a few conventions (that are almost universal in email), a writer can write without much clutter,

The Txt2Html utility uses a block-level state machine and regular expressions, to identify and modify markup. Python's regular expression engine is moderately fast, so it takes only a couple seconds. In practice, Txt2Html is

documents. However, it is easy to imagine a need for converting multimegabyte documents and/or data from a high-volume Web site. In such a case, Python regular expressions, would simply be too slow.

*mx.TextTools* can do everything regular expressions cannot. In particular, a taglist can contain recursive regular expressions cannot. The utility *mxTypography.py* utilizes a number of callback capabilities the prior example did not use. Rather than *mxTypography.py* utilizes a number of callback match event. As well, *mxTypography.py* adds some new capabilities. Something similar to these techniques is almost always updated over time (or simply to aid the initial development of an application should.

## **mx.TextTools version of Typography()**

```
from mx.TextTools import *
import string, sys

#-- List of all words with markup,
ws, head_pos, loops = [], None, 0

#-- Define "emitter" callbacks for e
def emit_misc(tl,txt,l,r,s):
```

```

        ws.append(txt[l:r])
def emit_func(tl,txt,l,r,s):
    ws.append('<code>'+txt[l+1:r-1]+
def emit_modl(tl,txt,l,r,s):
    ws.append('<em><code>'+txt[l+1:r
def emit_emph(tl,txt,l,r,s):
    ws.append('<em>'+txt[l+1:r-1]+'<
def emit_strg(tl,txt,l,r,s):
    ws.append('<strong>'+txt[l+1:r-1
def emit_titl(tl,txt,l,r,s):
    ws.append('<cite>'+txt[l+1:r-1]+
def jump_count(tl,txt,l,r,s):
    global head_pos, loops
    loops = loops+1
    if head_pos is None: head_pos =
    elif head_pos == r:
        raise "InfiniteLoopError", \
            txt[l-20:l]+'{' +txt[l]
    else: head_pos = r

```

```

#-- What can appear inside, and what
punct_set = set("'!@#$%^&*()_-=|\\{}
markable = alphanumeric+whitespace+'
markable_func = set(markable+"*_[]'
markable_modl = set(markable+"*_-'")

```

```
markable_emph = set(markable+"*_ ' []"  
markable_strg = set(markable+"-_ ' []"  
markable_titl = set(markable+"*- ' []"  
markup_set    = set("-*_ ' []_")
```

```
#-- What can precede and follow mark
```

```
darkins = ' (/ "'
```

```
leadins = whitespace+darkins      #
```

```
darkouts = ' / . ) , : ; ? ! " '
```

```
darkout_set = set(darkouts)
```

```
leadouts = whitespace+darkouts    #
```

```
leadout_set = set(leadouts)
```

```
#-- What can appear inside plain wor
```

```
word_set = set(alphanumeric+' { } / @ # $ %
```

```
wordinit_set = set(alphanumeric+" $ # +
```

```
#-- Define the word patterns (global
```

```
# Special markup
```

```
def markup_struct(lmark, rmark, call
```

```
    struct = \
```

```
        ( callback, Table+CallTag,
```

```
          ( (None, Is, lmark),
```

```
            (None, AllInSet, markables
```

```
            (None, Is, rmark),
```

```

        (None, IsInSet, leadout_set,
        (None, Skip, -1,+1, MatchC
        (None, IsIn, x_post, MatchC
        (None, Skip, -1,+1, MatchC
    )
)
return struct
funcs      = markup_struct("'", "'", en
modules    = markup_struct("[", "]", en
emphs      = markup_struct("-", "-", en
strongs    = markup_struct("*", "*", en
titles     = markup_struct("_", "_", en

# All the stuff not specially marked
plain_words = \
    ( ws, Table+AppendMatch,
      ( (None, IsInSet,
          wordinit_set, MatchFail),
        (None, Is, "'", +1),
        (None, AllInSet, word_set, +1),
        (None, Is, "'", +2),
        (None, IsIn, "st", +1),
        (None, IsInSet,
          darkout_set, +1, MatchOk),
        (None, IsInSet,

```

```

        whitespace_set, MatchFail),
        (None, Skip, -1)
    ) )
# Catch some special cases
bullet_point = \
    ( ws, Table+AppendMatch,
      ( (None, Word+CallTag, "* "),
      ) )
horiz_rule = \
    ( None, Table,
      ( (None, Word, "-"*50),
        (None, AllIn, "-"),
      ) )
into_mark = \
    ( ws, Table+AppendMatch,
      ( (None, IsInSet, set(darkins)),
        (None, IsInSet, markup_set),
        (None, Skip, -1)
      ) )
stray_punct = \
    ( ws, Table+AppendMatch,
      ( (None, IsInSet, punct_set),
        (None, AllInSet, punct_set),
        (None, IsInSet, whitespace_set)
        (None, Skip, -1)
      ) )

```



```

    ) )
leadout_eater = (ws, AllInSet+Appenc

#-- Tag all the (possibly marked-up)
tag_words = \
    ( bullet_point+(+1,),
      horiz_rule + (+1,),
      into_mark   + (+1,),
      stray_punct+ (+1,),
      emphs       + (+1,),
      funcs       + (+1,),
      strongs     + (+1,),
      modules     + (+1,),
      titles      + (+1,),
      into_mark+ (+1,),
      plain_words +(+1,),                      #
      leadout_eater+(+1,-1),                  #
      (jump_count, Skip+CallTag, 0),          #
      (None, EOF, Here, -13)                  #
    )
def Typography(txt):
    global ws
    ws = []      # clear the list befrc
    tag(txt, tag_words, 0, len(txt),
    return string.join(ws, '')

```

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    print Typography(open(sys.argv[1
```

`mxTypographify.py` reads through a string and of the markup patterns in `tag_words`. Or rather application just will not know what action to take. For subtable matches, a callback function is called, being appended to the global list `ws`. In the end

Several of the patterns given are mostly fallback. The table detects the condition where the next bit can go alone without abutting any words. In most cases it is a pattern, but *mxTypographify* has to do something

Making sure that every subsequence is matched. Here are a few examples of matches and failures for a pattern that does not match this subtable needs to match some condition

```
-- spam          # matches "--"
& spam           # fails at "AllInSet" s
#@$ %% spam      # matches "#@$"
**spam           # fails (whitespace is r
```

After each success, the read-head is at the space. After a failure, the read-head remains where it

Like `stray_punct`, `emphs`, `funcs`, `strongs`, `plain_` in `tag_words` has its appropriate callback function. They "emit" the match, along with surrounding text, which is appended to their tuple; what this does is specify the position to try matching against the other patterns. That is, even if these patterns fail to match, we position to try matching against the other patterns.

After the basic word patterns each attempt a match. In `mxTypography.py`, a "leadout" is the opposite of a "leadin": it might precede a word pattern, and the former `leadin_set` includes whitespace characters, but the latter `leadout_set` includes characters like hyphen and question mark, which might end a word. This is as designed, it preserves exactly the whitespace in the original text (normalize whitespace here by emitting something like a space always).

The `jump_count` is extremely important; we will see later enough to say that we *hope* the line never does.

The EOF line is our flow control, in a way. The code is such that nothing is actually *done* with any match. This is just a filler value that occupies the tuple position at the end of the read buffer. On success, the whole tuple is added to the list of tuples. On failure, if we have succeeded, processing stops. EOF failure is more complicated: if we reach the end of our string, we jump -13 states (to be precise, to the start of the list of tuples), and then we start over, hopefully with the read-head advanced to the start of the list of tuples, we continue eating until we are exhausted (calling callbacks along the way).

The `tag()` call simply launches processing of the contained in `txt`). In our case, we do not care a is handled in callbacks. However, in cases where tuple can be used to determine if there is reasc buffer.

## DEBUGGING A TAG TABLE

Describing it is easy, but I spent a large number of tables that would match every pattern I was interested in something it wasn't. While smart ASCII markup has a few complications (e.g., markup characters being characters and other punctuation appearing in a format that is complicated enough to warrant us to have similar complications.

Without question, the worst thing that can go wrong above is that *none* of the listed states match for happens, your program winds up in a tight infinite loop so you cannot get at it with Python code directly process *countless* times during my first brush at

Fortunately, there is a solution to the infinite loop `jump_count`.

**`mxTypography.py` infinite loop catcher**

```

def jump_count(taglist,txt,l,r,subtag):
    global head_pos
    if head_pos is None: head_pos = l
    elif head_pos == r:
        raise "InfiniteLoopError", \
            txt[1-20:1]+'{' +txt[1]
    else: head_pos = r

```

The basic purpose of jump\_count is simple: We have been run through multiple times without matching the tag. We need to check whether the last read-head position is correct. If it cannot get anywhere, since we have reached the end of the text, it is fated to happen forever. mxTypography.py simply reports a little bit of buffer context to see what is going on.

It is also possible to move the read-head manually. To manipulate the read head in this fashion, we can use the tag table items. But a better approach is to create a loop from a Python loop. This Python loop can look at the next call if no match occurred. Either way, it is a little way than with the loop tag table approach, less efficient.

Not as bad as an infinite loop, but still undesirable when they are not supposed to or not match what we have to match, or we would have an infinite loop examining this situation much easier. During development, I changed to my emit\_\* callbacks to print or log the state of the read head.

output from these temporary print statements, lies.

## CONSTANTS

The *mx.TextTools* module contains constants for character classes. Many of these character classes are of type `str`. Some of these constants also has a set version predefined. The set version of a character class is a `set` object that may be used in tag tables. To obtain a character set from a (custom) character class, use:

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import a2z, se
>>> varname_chars = a2z + '_'
>>> varname_set = set(varname_chars)
```

**mx.TextTools.a2z**

**mx.TextTools.a2z\_set**

English lowercase letters ("abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz")

**mx.TextTools.A2Z**

**mx.TextTools.A2Z\_set**

English uppercase letters ("ABCDEFGHJKLMNC

**mx.TextTools.umlaute**  
**mx.TextTools.umlaute\_set**

Extra German lowercase hi-bit characters.

**mx.TextTools.Umlaute**  
**mx.TextTools.Umlaute\_set**

Extra German uppercase hi-bit characters.

**mx.TextTools.alpha**  
**mx.TextTools.alpha\_set**

English letters (A2Z + a2z).

**mx.TextTools.german\_alpha**  
**mx.TextTools.german\_alpha\_set**

German letters (A2Z + a2z + umlaute + Umlau

**mx.TextTools.number**  
**mx.TextTools.number\_set**

The decimal numerals ("0123456789").

**mx.TextTools.alphanumeric**  
**mx.TextTools.alphanumeric\_set**

English numbers and letters (alpha + number).

**mx.TextTools.white**  
**mx.TextTools.white\_set**

Spaces and tabs (" \t\v"). This is more restrictive than

**mx.TextTools.newline**  
**mx.TextTools.newline\_set**

Line break characters for various platforms (" \r\n").

**mx.TextTools.formfeed**  
**mx.TextTools.formfeed\_set**



Formfeed character ("`\f`").

**`mx.TextTools.whitespace`**

**`mx.TextTools.whitespace_set`**

Same as *string.whitespace* (white+newline+for

**`mx.TextTools.any`**

**`mx.TextTools.any_set`**

All characters (0x00-0xFF).

**SEE ALSO:** `string.digits` 130; `string.hexdigits` 1.  
`string.uppercase` 131; `string.letters` 131; `string`  
`string.printable` 132;

## COMMANDS

Programming in *mx.TextTools* amounts mostly  
tag table requires just one call to the *mx.TextT*  
mini-languagesomething close to a specialized

Each tuple within a tag table contains several e

```
(tagobj, command[+modifiers], arguments  
[, jump_no_match=MatchFail ]
```

The "tag object" may be None, a callable object, a pattern may match, but nothing is added to a table if it is not invoked. If a callable object (usually a function) is used, a string is used, it is used to name a part of the table. *mx.TextTools.tag()*.

A command indicates a type of pattern to match. A value occurs in case of such a match. Some commands are used to specify behaviors to take if they are reached. Some values that are allowed and how they are interpreted.

Two jump conditions may optionally be specified. The default is MatchFail that is, unless otherwise specified, causes the tag table as a whole to fail. If a value is given, the specified number of states forward or backward is jumped in forward branches. Branches backward will be

```
# Branch forward one state if next c  
# ... branch backward three states i  
tupX = (None, Is, 'X', +1, -3)  
# assume all the tups are defined sc  
tagtable = (tupA, tupB, tupV, tupW,
```

If no value is given for jump\_match, branching

Version 2.1.0 of *mx.TextTools* adds named jumps (to maintain) than numeric offsets. An example is

```
tag_table = ('start',
              ('lowercase', AllIn, a2z,
               ('upper', AllIn, A2Z, 'skip',
                'skip',
                (None, AllIn, white+newline),
                (None, AllNotIn, alpha+whitespace),
                (None, EOF, Here, 'start'))
```

It is easy to see that if you were to add or remove a jump to, for example, skip than to change ever

## UNCONDITIONAL COMMANDS

**mx.TextTools.Fail**

**mx.TextTools.Jump**

Nonmatch at this tuple. Used mostly for documentation. Here or To placeholder. The tag tables below are

```
table1 = ( ('foo', Is, 'X', MatchFail),
            ('foo', Is, 'X', +1, +2),
```

```
( 'Not_X', Fail, Here) )
```

The Fail command may be preferred if several conditions need to be documented explicitly.

Jump is equivalent to Fail, but it is often better than Fail; for example:

```
tup1 = (None, Fail, Here, +3)
tup2 = (None, Jump, To, +3)
```

## **mx.TextTools.Skip**

## **mx.TextTools.Move**

Match at this tuple, and change the read-head relative amount, Move to an absolute offset (with example:

```
# read-head forward 20 chars, jump to position 10
tup1 = (None, Skip, 20)
# read-head to position 10, and jump to position 6
tup2 = (None, Move, 10, 0, -4)
```

Negative offsets are allowed, as in Python list indexing.

## MATCHING PARTICULAR CHARACTERS

**`mx.TextTools.AllIn`**

**`mx.TextTools.AllInSet`**

**`mx.TextTools.AllInCharSet`**

Match all characters up to the first that is not in string while `AllInSet` uses a set as argument. For to match `CharSet` objects. In general, the set of The following are functionally the same:

```
tup1 = ('xyz', AllIn, 'XYZxyz')
tup2 = ('xyz', AllInSet, set('XYZxyz'))
tup3 = ('xyz', AllInSet, CharSet('XYZxyz'))
```

At least one character must match for the tuple

**`mx.TextTools.AllNotIn`**

Match all characters up to the first that *is* included *mx.TextTools* does not include an `AllNotInSet` class functionally the same (the second usually faster)

```
from mx.TextTools import AllNotIn, AllNotInSet
```

```
tup1 = ('xyz', AllNotIn, 'XYZxyz')
tup2 = ('xyz', AllInSet, invset('xyz
```

At least one character must match for the tuple

## **mx.TextTools.Is**

Match specified character. For example:

```
tup = ('X', Is, 'X')
```

## **mx.TextTools.IsNot**

Match any one character except the specified character

```
tup = ('X', IsNot, 'X')
```

## **mx.TextTools.IsIn**

## **mx.TextTools.IsInSet**

## **mx.TextTools.IsInCharSet**

Match exactly one character if it is in argument a set as argument. For version 2.1.0, you may

In general, the set or CharSet form will be faster, but are functionally the same:

```
tup1 = ('xyz', IsIn, 'XYZxyz')
tup2 = ('xyz', IsInSet, set('XYZxyz'))
tup3 = ('xyz', IsInSet, CharSet('XYZxyz'))
```

## **mx.TextTools.IsNotIn**

Match exactly one character if it is *not* in argument set. Does not include an 'AllNotInSet' command. However, 'AllNotInSet' is faster (the second usually faster):

```
from mx.TextTools import IsNotIn, IsIn
tup1 = ('xyz', IsNotIn, 'XYZxyz')
tup2 = ('xyz', IsInSet, invset('XYZxyz'))
```

## **MATCHING SEQUENCES**

### **mx.TextTools.Word**

Match a word at the current read-head position

```
tup = ('spam', Word, 'spam')
```

**mx.TextTools.WordStart**  
**mx.TextTools.sWordStart**  
**mx.TextTools.WordEnd**  
**mx.TextTools.sWordEnd**

Search for a word, and match up to the point of failure. These commands are extremely fast, and this is one of the reasons why the commands sWordStart and sWordEnd use "search" (which is significantly faster).

WordStart and sWordStart leave the read-head at the point of failure. WordEnd and sWordEnd leave the read-head at the point of failure. On failure, the read-head is not moved forward.

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import *
>>> s = 'spam and eggs taste good'
>>> tab1 = ( ('toeggs', WordStart, 'toeggs') )
>>> tag(s, tab1)
(1, [('toeggs', 0, 9, None)], 9)
>>> s[0:9]
'spam and '
>>> tab2 = ( ('pasteggs', sWordEnd, 'pasteggs') )
>>> tag(s, tab2)
(1, [('pasteggs', 0, 13, None)], 13)
>>> s[0:13]
```



```
'spam and eggs'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `mx.TextTools.BMS()` 307; `mx.TextTools`

## **`mx.TextTools.sFindWord`**

Search for a word, and match only that word. *A* ignored. This command accepts a search object head is positioned immediately after the match

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import *
>>> s = 'spam and eggs taste good'
>>> tab3 = ( ('justeggs', sFindWord,
>>> tag(s, tab3)
(1, [('justeggs', 9, 13, None)], 13)
>>> s[9:13]
'eggs'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `mx.TextTools.sWordEnd` 302;

## **`mx.TextTools.EOF`**

Match if the read-head is past the end of the string argument Here, for example:

```
tup = (None, EOF, Here)
```

## COMPOUND MATCHES

**mx.TextTools.Table**

**mx.TextTools.SubTable**

Match if the table given as argument matches a difference between the Table and the SubTable. When the Table command is used, any matches are associated with the structure associated with the tuple. When SubTable is used, the matches are associated with the current level taglist. For example:

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import *
>>> from pprint import pprint
>>> caps = ('Caps', AllIn, A2Z)
>>> lower = ('Lower', AllIn, a2z)
>>> words = ( ('Word', Table, (caps,
...                          (None, AllIn, whitespace)),
>>> from pprint import pprint
>>> pprint(tag(s, words))
(0,
 [ ('Word', 0, 4, [ ('Caps', 0, 1, Nor
   ('Word', 5, 19, [ ('Caps', 5, 6, Nc
```

```

        ('Word', 20, 29, [('Caps', 20, 24,
        ('Word', 30, 35, [('Caps', 30, 32,
    ],
    35)
>>> flatwords = ( (None, SubTable, (
...                (None, AllIn, whit
>>> pprint (tag(s, flatwords))
(0,
 [ ('Caps', 0, 1, None),
   ('Lower', 1, 4, None),
   ('Caps', 5, 6, None),
   ('Lower', 6, 19, None),
   ('Caps', 20, 24, None),
   ('Lower', 24, 29, None),
   ('Caps', 30, 32, None),
   ('Lower', 32, 35, None)],
    35)

```

For either command, if a match occurs, the rea match.

The special constant ThisTable can be used inst recursively.

## **mx.TextTools.TableInList**

## **mx.TextTools.SubTableInList**

Similar to Table and SubTable except that the a index). The advantage (and the danger) of this added after the tuple defined in particular, the c list\_of\_tables to allow recursion. Note, however with the Table or SubTable commands and is us

**SEE ALSO:** mx.TextTools.Table 304; mx.TextTools

## **mx.TextTools.Call**

Match on any computable basis. Essentially, wh parsing/matching is turned over to Python rath function that is called must accept arguments s pos is the current read-head position, and end called function must return an integer for the n from pos, the match is a success.

As an example, suppose you want to match at make up a dictionary word. Perhaps an efficient the dictionary word list. You might check diction

```
tup = ('DictWord', Call, inDict)
```

Since the function inDict is written in Python, it

*mx.TextTools* pattern tuple.

## **mx.TextTools.CallArg**

Same as `Call`, except `CallArg` allows passing additional arguments. The following dictionary example given in the discussion of `Call` shows the maximum word length for a match:

```
tup = ('DictWord', Call, (inDict, ['E
```

**SEE ALSO:** `mx.TextTools.Call` 305;

## **MODIFIERS**

### **mx.TextTools.CallTag**

Instead of appending (`tagobj`, `l`, `r`, `subtags`) to the taglist, the function indicated as the tag object (which must be a function) is called. The function called must accept the arguments `tagobj`, `l`, `r`, `subtags`, and `taglist`. `tagobj` is the present taglist, `s` is the underlying string, `l` is the left match, and `subtags` is the nested taglist. The function may modify `taglist` or `subtags` as part of its action. Functions that include:

```
>>> def todo_flag(taglist, s, start,
...               sys.stderr.write("Fix issue
...
>>> tup = (todo_flag, Word+CallTag,
>>> tag('XXX more stuff', (tup,))
Fix issue at offset 0
(1, [], 3)
```

## **mx.TextTools.AppendMatch**

Instead of appending (tagobj,start,end,subtags append the match found as string. The produce the same manner as "normal" taglist data struc joining or for list processing styles.

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import *
>>> words = (('Word', AllIn+AppendMa
...          (None, AllIn, whitespac
>>> tag('this and that', words)
(0, ['this', 'and', 'that'], 13)
>>> join(tag('this and that', words)
'this-and-that')
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.split()` 142;

## **mx.TextTools.AppendToTagobj**

Instead of appending (tagobj,start,end,subtags) to the taglist, use the .append() method of the tag object. The tag object is only available in Python 2.2+).

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import *
>>> ws = []
>>> words = ((ws, AllIn+AppendToTagobj,
...           (None, AllIn, whitespace)),)
>>> tag('this and that', words)
(0, [], 13)
>>> ws
[(None, 0, 4, None), (None, 5, 8, None)]
```

**SEE ALSO:** `mx.TextTools.CallTag` 305;

## **mx.TextTools.AppendTagobj**

Instead of appending (tagobj,start,end,subtags) to the taglist, use the .append() method of the tag object. The produced taglist is in the same manner as "normal" taglist data structure for joining or for list processing styles.

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import *
```

```
>>> words = (('word', AllIn+AppendTa
...          (None, AllIn, whitespac
>>> tag('this and that', words)
(0, ['word', 'word', 'word'], 13)
```

## **mx.TextTools.LookAhead**

If this modifier is used, the read-head position name suggests, this modifier allows you to create lookaheads.

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import *
>>> from pprint import pprint
>>> xwords = (None, IsIn+LookAhead,
...          ('xword', AllIn, alpha
...          ('other', AllIn, alpha
...          (None, AllIn, whitespac
>>> pprint(tag('Xylophone trumpet xr
(0,
[('xword', 0, 9, None),
 ('other', 10, 17, None),
 ('xword', 18, 22, None),
 ('other', 23, 29, None)],
29)
```



## CLASSES

**`mx.TextTools.BMS(word [,translate])`**

**`mx.TextTools.FS(word [,translate])`**

**`mx.TextTools.TextSearch(word [,translate [,all]])`**

Create a search object for the string `word`. This is a class expression. A search object has several methods. The `BMS` name is short for "Boyer-Moore Search". The name `FS` is reserved for accessing the "Fast Search" object. Both classes use Boyer-Moore. For *mx.TextTools.TextSearch()* constructor.

If a `translate` argument is given, the searched string is equivalent to transforming the string with *string.translate()*.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.translate()` 145;

**`mx.TextTools.CharSet(definition)`**

Version 2.1.0 of *mx.TextTools* adds the `UnicodeCharSet` class. It may be initialized to support character ranges, e.g., `definition="a-mXYZ"`. In most respects, `CharSet` is identical to `UnicodeCharSet`.

## METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES

**`mx.TextTools.BMS.search(s [,start [,end]])`**

**`mx.TextTools.FS.search(s [,start [,end]])`**

**`mx.TextTools.TextSearch.search(s [,start [,en`**

Locate as a slice the first match of the search o  
end are used, only the slice `s[start:end]` is cons  
documentation that accompanies *mx.TextTools*  
search object methods as indicating the length

**`mx.TextTools.BMS.find(s, [,start [,end]])`**

**`mx.TextTools.FS.find(s, [,start [,end]])`**

**`mx.TextTools.TextSearch.search(s [,start [,en`**

Similar to *mx.TextTools.BMS.search()*, except r  
The behavior is similar to that of *string.find()*.

**SEE ALSO:** *string.find()* 135; *mx.TextTools.find*

**`mx.TextTools.BMS.findall(s [,start [,end]])`**

**`mx.TextTools.FS.findall(s [,start [,end]])`**

**`mx.TextTools.TextSearch.search(s [,start [,en`**

Locate as slices *every* match of the search object and end are used, only the slice `s[start:end]` is

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import BMS, ar
>>> foosrch = BMS('FOO', upper(any))
>>> foosrch.search('foo and bar and
(0, 3)
>>> foosrch.find('foo and bar and FC
0
>>> foosrch.findall('foo and bar and
[(0, 3), (16, 19)]
>>> foosrch.search('foo and bar and
(16, 19)
```

**SEE ALSO:** `re.findall` 245; `mx.TextTools.findall`(

**`mx.TextTools.BMS.match`**

**`mx.TextTools.FS.match`**

**`mx.TextTools.TextSearch.match`**

The string that the search object will look for in

**`mx.TextTools.BMS.translate`**

**`mx.TextTools.FS.translate`**

## **mx.TextTools.TextSearch.match**

The translation string used by the object, or None

## **mx.TextTools.CharSet.contains(c)**

Return a true value if character c is in the CharSet

## **mx.TextTools.CharSet.search(s [,direction [,start**

Return the position of the first CharSet character in s. If there is no match. You may specify a negative direction

**SEE ALSO:** re.search() 249;

## **mx.TextTools.CharSet.match(s [,direction [,start**

Return the length of the longest contiguous match in s[start:end].

## **mx.TextTools.CharSet.split(s [,start=0 [,stop=**

Return a list of substrings of `s[start:end]` divided

SEE ALSO: `re.search()` 249;

**`mx.TextTools.CharSet.splitx(s [,start=0 [,stop`**

Like *`mx.TextTools.CharSet.split()`* except retain elements.

**`mx.TextTools.CharSet.strip(s [,where=0 [,star`**

Strip all characters in `s[start:stop]` appearing in

## FUNCTIONS

Many of the functions in *`mx.TextTools`* are used as higher-level utility functions that do not require a module and are listed under a separate heading and general *string* module.

**`mx.TextTools.cmp(t1, t2)`**

Compare two valid taglist tuples on their slice p

passes of *mx.TextTools.tag()*, or combined by a custom comparison function in string order. This custom comparison function is

```
>>> import mx.TextTools
>>> from pprint import pprint
>>> t1 = [('other', 10, 17, None),
...       ('other', 23, 29, None),
...       ('xword', 0, 9, None),
...       ('xword', 18, 22, None)]
>>> t1.sort(mx.TextTools.cmp)
>>> pprint(t1)
[('xword', 0, 9, None),
 ('other', 10, 17, None),
 ('xword', 18, 22, None),
 ('other', 23, 29, None)]
```

## **mx.TextTools.invset(s)**

Identical to *mx.TextTools.set(s, 0)*.

SEE ALSO: *mx.TextTools.set()* 310;

## **mx.TextTools.set(s [,includechars=1])**

Return a bit-position encoded character set. Bit like InSet and AllInSet operate more quickly than AllIn).

If includechars is set to 0, invert the character

**SEE ALSO:** `mx.TextTools.invset()` 310;

**`mx.TextTools.tag(s, table [,start [,end [,taglist`**

Apply a tag table to a string. The return value if success is a binary value indicating whether the match after the match attempt. Even on a nonmatch (or advanced to some degree by member tuples in the data structure generated by application. Modify the composition of taglist; but in the normal case of the form (tagname, start, end, subtaglist).

Assuming a "normal" taglist is created, tagname object in a tuple within the tag table. start and subtaglist is either None or a taglist for a subtable

If start or end are given as arguments to `mx.TextTools.slice s[start:end]` (or `s[start:]` if only start is used) object is used instead of a new list. This allows for example. If None is passed as taglist, no taglist

See the application examples and command illustration for `mx.TextTools.tag()`.

## UTILITY FUNCTIONS

### **`mx.TextTools.charsplit(s, char, [start [,end]])`**

Return a list split around each char. Similar to `string.split()`, the arguments start and end are used, only the slice is returned.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.split()` 142; `mx.TextTools.sets()`

### **`mx.TextTools.collapse(s, sep=' ')`**

Return a string with normalized whitespace. This is similar to `string.join(s,sep)`, but faster.

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import collapse
>>> collapse('this and that', '-')
'this-and-that'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.join()` 137; `string.split()` 142;

### **`mx.TextTools.countlines(s)`**



Returns the number of lines in `s` in a platform-p style), LF (Unix-style), or CRLF (DOS-style), including the last line if it is not empty.

**SEE ALSO:** `FILE.readlines()` 17; `mx.TextTools.s`

### **`mx.TextTools.find(s, search_obj, [start, [,end]`**

Return the position of the first match of `search_obj` in `s`. If `start` and `end` are used, only the slice `s[start:end]` is searched. `search_obj` must be a `Search` object method of the same name; the syntax is the same as for `findall`; see the `findall` method for synonyms:

```
from mx.TextTools import BMS, find
s = 'some string with a pattern in it'
pos1 = find(s, BMS('pat'))
pos2 = BMS('pat').find(s)
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.find()` 135; `mx.TextTools.BMS`

### **`mx.TextTools.findall(s, search_obj [,start [,end [,step]]])`**

Return as slices *every* match of `search_obj` against `s`. If `start` and `end` are used, only the slice `s[start:end]` is considered. `search_obj` must be a `Search` object method of the same name; the syntax is the same as for `find`; see the `find` method for synonyms:

```
from mx.TextTools import BMS, findall
s = 'some string with a pattern in i
pos1 = findall(s, BMS('pat'))
pos2 = BMSCpat').findall(s)
```

**SEE ALSO:** `mx.TextTools.find()` 312; `mx.TextTo`

### **`mx.TextTools.hex2str(hexstr)`**

Returns a string based on the hex-encoded stri

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import hex2str
>>> str2hex('abc')
'616263'
>>> hex2str('616263')
'abc'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `mx.TextTools.str2hex()` 315;

### **`mx.TextTools.is_whitespace(s [,start [,end]])`**

Returns a Boolean value indicating whether `s[s`  
`start` and `end` are optional, and will default to 0

## **mx.TextTools.isascii(s)**

Returns a Boolean value indicating whether s c

## **mx.TextTools.join(joinlist [,sep="" [,start [,end**

Return a string composed of slices from other s  
form (s, start, end, ...) each indicating the sour  
Negative offsets do not behave like Python slice  
item tuple contains extra entries, they are igno

If the optional argument sep is specified, a deli  
start and end are specified, only joinlist[start:e

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import join
>>> s = 'Spam and eggs for breakfast
>>> t = 'This and that for lunch'
>>> j1 = [(s, 0, 4), (s, 9, 13), (t,
>>> join(j1, '/', 1, 4)
'/eggs/This/that'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.join()` *137*;

## **mx.TextTools.lower(s)**

Return a string with any uppercase letters converted to lowercase by `string.lower()` , but much faster.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.lower()` 138; `mx.TextTools.upper()` 315

**`mx.TextTools.prefix(s, prefixes [,start [,stop [,translate]]])`**

Return the first prefix in the tuple `prefixes` that matches `s` starting at `start` and ending at `stop`, only operate on the slice `s[start:end]`.

If a `translate` argument is given, the searched slice will be transformed first with `translate` before searching. This is equivalent to transforming the string with `string.translate(translate)` before searching.

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import prefix
>>> prefix('spam and eggs', ('spam', 'eggs', 'spam'))
'spam'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `mx.TextTools.suffix()` 316; `mx.TextTools.find()` 317

**`mx.TextTools.multireplace(s ,replacements [,start [,stop [,translate]]])`**

Replace multiple nonoverlapping slices in `s` with tuples of the form `(new, left, right)`. Indexing is done on the original string `s`. If a replacement changes the length of the result. If `start` and `stop` are given, only operate on the slice `s[start:end]`.

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import findall
>>> s = 'spam, bacon, sausage, and spam'
>>> repls = [('X',l,r) for l,r in findall('spam',s)]
>>> multireplace(s, repls)
'X, bacon, sausage, and X'
>>> repls
[('X', 0, 4), ('X', 26, 30)]
```

## **mx.TextTools.replace(s, old, new [,start [,stop**

Return a string where the pattern matched by *s* and *old* is replaced by *new*. If *start* and *end* are specified, only operate on the substring *s[start:end]* and leave the rest of *s* alone. This is more powerful than *string.replace()*, since a search object is used.

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import replace
>>> s = 'spam, bacon, sausage, and spam'
>>> spam = BMS('spam')
>>> replace(s, spam, 'eggs')
'eggs, bacon, sausage, and eggs'
>>> replace(s, spam, 'eggs', 5)
'bacon, sausage, and eggs'
```

**SEE ALSO:** [string.replace\(\)](#) 139; [mx.TextTools.findall\(\)](#) 139

## **mx.TextTools.setfind(s, set [,start [,end]])**

Find the first occurrence of any character in set. If start and end is specified, look only in s[start:end]. The :

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import *
>>> s = 'spam and eggs'
>>> vowel = set('aeiou')
>>> setfind(s, vowel)
2
>>> setfind(s, vowel, 7, 10)
9
```

**SEE ALSO:** [mx.TextTools.set\(\)](#) 310;

## **mx.TextTools.setsplit(s, set [,start [,stop]])**

Split s into substrings divided at any characters in set. If start and stop are specified, return only the substrings of s[start:stop]; if end is specified, use s[start:end].

**SEE ALSO:** [string.split\(\)](#) 142; [mx.TextTools.set\(\)](#)

## **mx.TextTools.setsplitx(text, set [,start =0, stop**

Split `s` into substrings divided at any characters returned list. Adjacent characters in set are returned specified, create a list of substrings of `s[start:]` argument set must be a set.

```
>>> s = 'do you like spam'
>>> setsplit(s, vowel)
['d', ' y', ' l', 'k', ' sp', 'm']
>>> setsplitx(s, vowel)
['d', 'o', ' y', 'ou', ' l', 'i', 'k
```

**SEE ALSO:** `string.split()` 142; `mx.TextTools.set`

**`mx.TextTools.splitat(s, char, [n=1 [,start [end]`**

Return a 2-element tuple that divides `s` around specified, only operate on the slice `s[start:end]`

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import splitat
>>> s = 'spam, bacon, sausage, and s
>>> splitat(s, 'a', 3)
('spam, bacon, s', 'usage, and spam'
>>> splitat(s, 'a', 3, 5, 20)
(' bacon, saus', 'ge')
```

## **mx.TextTools.splitlines(s)**

Return a list of lines in *s*. Line-ending combinations recognized in any combination, which makes this similar to `string.split(s, "\n")` or `FILE.readlines()`.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.split()` 142; `FILE.readlines()` 311; `mx.TextTools.countlines()` 311;

## **mx.TextTools.splitwords(s)**

Return a list of whitespace-separated words in *s*.

**SEE ALSO:** `string.split()` 142;

## **mx.TextTools.str2hex(s)**

Returns a hexadecimal representation of a string *s*. Equivalent to `s.encode("hex")`.

**SEE ALSO:** `"".encode()` 188; `mx.TextTools.hex2str(s)` 311;

## **mx.TextTools.suffix(s, suffixes [,start [,stop [,**



Return the first suffix in the tuple suffixes that specified, only operate on the slice s[start:end]

If a translate argument is given, the searched s equivalent to transforming the string with *string*

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import suffix
>>> suffix('spam and eggs', ('spam',
'eggs ')
```

SEE ALSO: mx.TextTools.prefix() 313;

## mx.TextTools.upper(s)

Return a string with any lowercase letters converted to uppercase. This is equivalent to *string.upper()*, but much faster.

SEE ALSO: string.upper() 146; mx.TextTools.lower()

### 4.3.3 High-Level EBNF Parsing

---

---

#### **SimpleParse • A Parser Generator for mx.**

---

---

*SimpleParse* is an interesting tool. To use this r

module installed. While there is nothing you can do with *mx.TextTools* by itself, *SimpleParse* is often much more useful of these, and the only one that this book was written against *SimpleParse* version 1.0, but the book covers the features of 2.0. Version 2.0 is fully backward compatible with 1.0.

*SimpleParse* substitutes an EBNF-style grammar for the *mx.TextTools* tag tables. Or more accurately, *SimpleParse* is based on friendlier and higher-level EBNF grammar and modify tag tables before passing them to *mx.TextTools*. If you want to stick wholly with *SimpleParse*'s EBNF version of the grammatical description of the text format.

An application based on *SimpleParse* has two main components: a grammar that defines the structure of a processed text. The application generates *mx.TextTools* taglist. *SimpleParse* 2.0 taglists present a data structure that is quite easy to traverse. The tools in *SimpleParse* 2.0 are not covered here, but the *mx.TextTools* illustrate such traversal.

## Example: Marking up smart ASCII (Redux)

Elsewhere in this book, applications to process text are discussed. [Appendix D](#) lists the Txt2Html utility, which uses paragraphs and regular expressions for identifying text. An example was given in the discussion of *mx.TextTools*.

table was developed to recognize inline markup, grammar is yet another way to perform the same. The following styles will highlight a number of advantages that make it concise, and applications built around it can be

The application `simpleTypography.py` is quite simple in creating a grammar to describe smart ASCII read, but designing one *does* require a bit of thought.

# typography.def

```
para      := (plain / markup)+
plain     := (word / whitespace)
<whitespace> := [ \t\r\n]+
<alphanums> := [a-zA-Z0-9]+
<word>    := alphanums, (wordpunct)
<wordpunct> := [-_]
<contraction> := "'", ('am'/'clock'/'
markup    := emph / strong / mcode
emph      := '-', plain, '-'
strong    := '*', plain, '*'
module    := '[', plain, ']'
code      := "'", plain, "'"
title     := '_', plain, '_'
<punctuation> := (safepunct / mdash /
```

```

<mdash>          := ' -- '
<safepunct>       := [ !@#$%^&()+=|\{\} : ;

```

This grammar is almost exactly the way you would write it verbally, which is a nice sort of clarity. A paragraph of marked-up text. Plaintext consists of some collection of marked-up text. Marked-up text might be emphasized, or strongly emphasized. Strongly emphasized text is surrounded by asterisks. This is what a "word" really is, or just what a contraction is. The syntax of EBNF doesn't get in the way.

Notice that some declarations have their left side as a list of productions will not be written to the tag list. This is the *mx.Texttools* tag table. Of course, if a production cannot be, either. By omitting some production structure is produced (with only those elements).

In contrast to the grammar above, the same source can be written using regular expressions. This is what the *Txt2tags* program does. But this terseness is much harder to read. The code below expresses largely (but not precisely)

## Python regexes for smart ASCII markup

```

# [module] names
re_mods = re.compile(r'([\s\'"/>]|^)\[ (.*?

```

```

# *strongly emphasize* words
re_strong = r"([\s'/"|^)\*(.*)"
# -emphasize- words
re_emph = r"([\s'/"|^)\-(.*)"
# _Book Title_ citations
re_title = r"([\s'/"|^)\_(.*)"
# 'Function()' names
re_funcs = r"([\s'/"|^)\'(.*)\'("

```

If you discover or invent some slightly new variations with the EBNF grammar than with those regular expressions, therefore *mx.TextTool* will generally be even faster patterns.

## GENERATING AND USING A TAGLIST

For `simpleTypography.py`, I put the actual grammar in a good organization to use. Changing the grammar is changing the application logic, and the files reflect this, so in principle you could include it in the application and generate it in some way).

Let us look at the entire compact tagging application.

**`simpleTypography.py`**

```
from sys import stdin, stdout, stderr
from simpleparse import generator
from mx.TextTools import TextTools
from typo_html import codes
from pprint import pprint
```

```
src = stdin.read()
decl = open('typography.def').read()
parser = generator.buildParser(decl)
taglist = TextTools.tag(src, parser)
pprint(taglist, stderr)
```

```
for tag, beg, end, parts in taglist:
    if tag == 'plain':
        stdout.write(src[beg:end])
    elif tag == 'markup':
        markup = parts[0]
        mtag, mbeg, mend = markup[:3]
        start, stop = codes.get(mtag)

        stdout.write(start + src[mbeg:mend])
    else:
        raise TypeError, "Top level"

```

With version 2.0 of *SimpleParse*, you may use :

taglist:

```
from simpleparse.parser import Parse
parser = Parser(open('typography.def'))
taglist = parser.parse(src)
```

Here is what it does. First read in the grammar grammar. The generated parser is similar to the mxTypography.py module discussed earlier (but with a different structure). Next, apply the tag table/parser to the input through the taglist, and emit some new markup or do anything else desired with each production encountered.

For the particular grammar used for smart ASCII, productions fall into either a "plain" production or a "markup" production across a single level in the taglist (except when a markup production, such as "title"). But a more general programming language could easily recursively define production names at every level. For example, in markup codes, this recursive style would probably be useful for figuring out how to adjust the grammar (hint: look for mutually recursive).

The particular markup codes that go to the output are not essential, reasons. A little trick of using a different (although the otherwise case remains too narrow) organization is that we might in the future want to say, HTML, DocBook,  $\text{\LaTeX}$ , or others. The particu

like:

## **typo\_html.py**

```
codes = \
{ 'emph'      : ('<em>', '</em>'),
  'strong'    : ('<strong>', '</strong>'),
  'module'    : ('<em><code>', '</code>'),
  'code'      : ('<code>', '</code>'),
  'title'     : ('<cite>', '</cite>'),
}
```

Extending this to other output formats is straight

## **THE TAGLIST AND THE OUTPUT**

The *tag table* generated from the grammar in `typo_html.py` includes numerous recursions. Only the exception is the manual modification of tag tables. The average user need not even look at these tags, `simpleTypography.py`.

The *taglist* produced by applying a grammar, in `run` of `simpleTypography.py` against a small input



```
% python simpleTypography.py < p.txt
(1,
  [('plain', 0, 15, []),
   ('markup', 15, 27, [('emph', 15, 27, []),
    ('plain', 27, 42, []),
    ('markup', 42, 51, [('module', 42, 51, []),
     ('plain', 51, 55, []),
     ('markup', 55, 70, [('code', 55, 70, []),
      ('plain', 70, 90, []),
      ('markup', 90, 96, [('strong', 90, 96, []),
       ('plain', 96, 132, []),
       ('markup', 132, 145, [('title', 132, 145, []),
        ('plain', 145, 174, [])]),
      ('plain', 145, 174, [])]),
    ('plain', 145, 174, [])]),
  174)
```

Most productions that were satisfied are not needed for the application. You can control this without angle braces on the left side of their definition. For example, you can expect:

```
% cat p.txt
Some words are -in italics-, others
name [modules] or 'command lines'.
Still others are *bold* -- that's how
it goes. Maybe some _book titles_.
```

And some in-fixed dashes.

```
% cat p.html
```

Some words are *in italics*,  
name *`modules`* c  
Still others are **bold**  
it goes. Maybe some *book title*  
And some in-fixed dashes.

[illegible]

# GRAMMAR

The language of *SimpleParse* grammars is itself a grammar. In principle, you could refine the language variable declaration in `bootstrap.py`, or `simpleparse.py`, for example, extended regular expressions, W3C XML Schema integer occurrence quantification. To specify this, use the following declaration in *SimpleParse*:

```
foos := foo, foo, foo, foo?, foo?, f
```

Hypothetically, it might be more elegant to write

```
foos := foo{3,7}
```

In practice, only someone developing a custom

reason to fiddle quite so deeply; "normal" programs are defined by default. Nonetheless, taking a look at the code in understanding the module.

## DECLARATION PATTERNS

A *SimpleParse* grammar consists of a set of one or more declarations, each of which generally occurs on a line by itself; within a line, however, to improve readability. A common strategy is to use the assignment symbol ":", followed by a definition, and then the declaration, following an unquoted "#" (just as

In contrast to most imperative-style programming languages, declarations can occur in any order. When a parser generator's "level" of the grammar is given as an argument, the call of the form:

```
from simpleparse import generator
parser = generator.buildParser(decl)
from mx.TextTools import TextTools
taglist = TextTools.tag(src, parser)
```

Under *SimpleParse* 2.0, you may simplify this to

```
from simpleparse.parser import Parse
```

```

parser = Parser(decl, 'toplevel')
taglist = parser.parse(src)

```

A left side term may be surrounded by angle brackets to prevent it from being written into a taglist produced by *m* "unreported" production. Other than in relation to *m*, it acts just like a reported one. Either type of term can be used in productions in the same manner (without angle brackets).

In *SimpleParse* 2.0 you may also use reversed productions, but not the production itself. As with *m*, it functions normally in matching inputs; it differs

PRODUCTIONS	TAGLIST
-----	-----
a := (b, c)	('a', l, r, l)
b := (d, e)	('b', l, r, l)
c := (f, g)	('c', l, r, l)
-----	-----
a := (b, c)	('a', l, r, l)
<b> := (d, e)	# no b, e
c := (f, g)	('c', l, r, l)
-----	-----
# Only in 2.0+	('a', l, r, l)
a := (b, c)	# no b, k
>b< := (d, e)	('d', l, r, l)

```
c      := (f, g)                ('e', 1,
                                ('c', 1,
                                -----
```

The remainder of the documentation of the *Sir* occur on the right sides of declarations. In addition another production may occur anywhere any other recursive relations to one another.

## LITERALS

### Literal string

A string enclosed in single quotes matches the used for the characters `\a`, `\b`, `\f`, `\n`, `\r`, `\t`, and may used. To include a literal backslash, it should

```
foo := "bar"
```

### Character class: "[", "]"

Specify a set of characters that may occur at a be enumerated with no delimiter. A range of characters Multiple ranges are allowed within a class.

To include a "]" character in a character class, the character must be either the first (after the opening bracket) or the last (before the closing bracket).

```
varchar := [a-zA-Z_0-9]
```

## QUANTIFIERS

### Universal quantifier: "\*"

Match zero or more occurrences of the preceding expression. Precedence: higher than alternation or sequencing; group scope as well.

```
any_Xs      := "X"*  
any_digits := [0-9]*
```

### Existential quantifier: "+"

Match one or more occurrences of the preceding expression. Precedence: higher than alternation or sequencing; group scope as well.

```
some_Xs      := "X"+  
some_digits := [0-9]+
```

## Potentiality quantifier: "?"

Match at most one occurrence of the preceding  
precedence than alternation or sequencing; grc  
scope as well.

```
maybe_Xs      := "X"?  
maybe_digits  := [0-9]?
```

## Lookahead quantifier: "?"

In *SimpleParse* 2.0+, you may place a question  
but should not actually claim the pattern. As with  
positive or negative lookahead assertions.

```
next_is_Xs      := ?"X"  
next_is_not_digits := ?-[0-9]
```

## Error on Failure: "!"

In *SimpleParse* 2.0+, you may cause a descriptor  
does not match, rather than merely stopping parsing.

```
require_Xs      := "X"!
```

```
require_code := ([A-Z]+, [0-9])!  
contraction := "'", ('clock'/'d'/'ll
```

For example, modifying the contraction product every apostrophe is followed by an ending. Since like:

```
% python typo2.py < p.txt  
Traceback (most recent call last):  
[...]  
simpleparse.error.ParserSyntaxError:  
Failed parsing production "contracti  
Expected syntax: ('clock'/'d'/'ll'/'  
Got text: 'command lines'. Still oth
```

## STRUCTURES

### Alternation operator: "/"

Match the first pattern possible from several alt patterns to match. Some EBNF-style parsers with *SimpleParse* more simply matches the *first* pos

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import tag
```



```

>>> from simpleparse import generator
>>> decl = '''
... short := "foo", " "*
... long  := "foobar", " "*
... sl    := (short / long) *
... ls    := (long / short) *
... '''
>>> parser = generator.buildParser(c
>>> tag('foo foobar foo bar', parser
[('short', 0, 4, []), ('short', 4, 7
>>> parser = generator.buildParser(c
>>> tag('foo foobar foo bar', parser
[('short', 0, 4, []), ('long', 4, 11

```

## Sequence operator: ","

Match the first pattern followed by the second (present, ...). Whenever a definition needs several patterns, the sequence operator is used.

```
term := someterm, [0-9]*, "X"+, (oth
```

## Negation operator: "-"

Match anything that the next pattern *does not* match a simple term or a compound expression.

```
nonletters      := -[a-zA-Z]
nonfoo          := -foo
notfoobazbarbaz := -(foo, bar, baz)
```

An expression modified by the negation operator, and a compound expression with a negative lookahead assertion

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import tag
>>> from simpleparse import generator
>>> decl = '''not_initfoo := [ \t]*
>>> p = generator.buildParser(decl).
>>> tag(' foobar and baz', p)      #
(0, [], 0)
>>> tag(' bar, foo and baz', p)    #
(1, [], 5)
>>> tag(' bar foo and baz', p)     #
(1, [], 17)
```

## Grouping operators: "(", ")"

Parentheses surrounding any pattern turn that pattern into a sub-expression (a smaller expression within a larger expression). Quantifiers and operators re

one is defined, otherwise to the adjacent literal

```
>>> from mx.TextTools import tag
>>> from simpleparse import generator
>>> decl = '''
... foo      := "foo"
... bar      := "bar"
... foo_bars := foo, bar+
... foobars  := (foo, bar)+
... '''
>>> p1 = generator.buildParser(decl)
>>> p2 = generator.buildParser(decl)
>>> tag('foobarfoobar', p1)
(1, [('foo', 0, 3, []), ('bar', 3, 6, []),
      ('foo', 6, 9, []), ('bar', 9, 12, [])])
>>> tag('foobarfoobar', p2)
(1, [('foo', 0, 3, []), ('bar', 3, 6, []),
      ('foo', 6, 9, []), ('bar', 9, 12, [])])
>>> tag('foobarbarbar', p1)
(1, [('foo', 0, 3, []), ('bar', 3, 6, []),
      ('bar', 6, 9, []), ('bar', 9, 12, [])])
>>> tag('foobarbarbar', p2)
(1, [('foo', 0, 3, []), ('bar', 3, 6, []),
      ('bar', 6, 9, []), ('bar', 9, 12, [])])
```

## USEFUL PRODUCTIONS

In version 2.0+, *SimpleParse* includes a number of productions for matching your grammars. See the examples and documentation for more information on the many included productions and their usage.

The included productions, at the time of this writing, are:

### **`simpleparse.common.calendar_names`**

Locale-specific names of months, and days of the week.

### **`simpleparse.common.chartypes`**

Locale-specific categories of characters, such as `locale_decimal_point`, and so on.

### **`simpleparse.common.comments`**

Productions to match comments in a variety of languages, including end-of-line comments (Python, Bash, Perl, etc.) and block comments (C, C++, etc.).

### **`simpleparse.common.iso_date`**

Productions for strictly conformant ISO date and

### **simpleparse.common.iso\_date\_loose**

Productions for ISO date and time formats with formatting.

### **simpleparse.common.numbers**

Productions for common numeric formats, such numbers, and so on.

### **simpleparse.common.phonetics**

Productions to match phonetically spelled word bravo, charlie, ..." spelling is the only style supported

### **simpleparse.common.strings**

Productions to match quoted strings as used in

### **simpleparse.common.timezone\_names**

Productions to match descriptions of timezones data/time fields.

## GOTCHAS

There are a couple of problems that can easily you are having problems in your application, keep

### 1. **Bad recursion. You might fairly naturally**

`a := b, a?`

**Unfortunately, if a long string of b rules can either exceed the C-stack's recursion memory to construct nested tuples. Use**

`a := b+`

**This will grab all the b productions in or parse out each b if necessary).**

- Quantified potentiality. That is a mouthful; co

`a := (b? / c) *`

`x := (y?, z?) +`

The first alternate b? in the first and both y? and

characters (if a b or y or z do not occur at the c possible" zero-width patterns, you get into an i always simple; it might not be b that is qualifie productions *in* b productions, etc.).

- No backtracking. Based on working with regul productions to use backtracking. They do not. f

`a := ((b/c) *, b)`

If this were a regular expression, it would matc match the final b. As a *SimpleParse* production, productions occur, they will be claimed by (b/c)

### 4.3.4 High-Level Programmatic Parsing

#### **PLY • Python Lex-Yacc**

One module that I considered covering to round module. This module is both widely used in the However, I believe that the audience of this book Beazley's *PLY* module than with the older *Spark*

In the documentation accompanying *PLY*, Beaz *Spark* on his design and development. While th *Spark* the APIs are significantly different there is

module. Both modules require a very different do *mx.TextTools*, *SimpleParse*, or the state machine. In particular, both *PLY* and *Spark* make heavy use of state machines out of specially named variables.

Within an overall similarity, *PLY* has two main advantages. The first, and probably greatest, advantage is that *PLY* has implemented some rather clever optimizations for repeated runs. The main speed difference lies in the parsing algorithm. For the compiler development), *PLY*'s LR parsing is preferred.

A second advantage *PLY* has over every other module is its flexible and fine-grained error reporting and error processing context, this is particularly important for

For compiling a programming language, it is generally the case of even small errors. But for processing you usually want to be somewhat tolerant of mistakes. One possible way from a text automatically is frequently the job of handling "allowable" error conditions gracefully.

*PLY* consists of two modules: a lexer/tokenizer and a parser. The choice of names is taken from the popular C- or C++-correspondingly similar. Parsing with *PLY* usually follows the steps at the beginning of this chapter: (1) Divide the input into tokens using *lex.py*. (2) Generate a parse tree from the



When processing text with *PLY*, it is possible to event. Depending on application requirements, *SimpleParse*. For example, each time a specific modify the stored token according to whatever different application action. Likewise, during pa constructed, the node can be modified and/or c *SimpleParse* simply delivers a completed parse separately. However, while *SimpleParse* does not *PLY* does, *SimpleParse* offers a higher-level and the two modules is full of pros and cons.

## **Example: Marking up smart ASCII (yet again)**

This chapter has returned several times to appl machine in [Appendix D](#); a functionally similar e with *SimpleParse*. This email-like markup format presents just enough complications to make for techniques and libraries. In many ways, an app version above both use grammars and parsing s

## **GENERATING A TOKEN LIST**

The first step in most *PLY* applications is the cr by a series of regular expressions attached to s By convention, the *PLY* token types are in all ca

string is merely assigned to a variable. If action is defined as a function, with the rule name as the function name, the function is passed to the function is a LexToken object (which may be modified and returned. The pattern is c

## wordscanner.py

```
# List of token names. This is always
tokens = [ 'ALPHANUMS', 'SAFEPUNCT', '
           'UNDERSCORE', 'APOSTROPHE',
```

```
# Regular expression rules for simple
t_ALPHANUMS      = r'[a-zA-Z0-9]+'
t_SAFEPUNCT      = r'[@#$%^&()+=|\{\}'
t_BRACKET        = r'[\[\]]'
t_ASTERISK       = r'\*'
t_UNDERSCORE     = r'_'
t_APOSTROPHE     = r'\''
t_DASH           = r'-'
```

```
# Regular expression rules with actions
def t_newline(t):
    r'\n+'
    t.lineno += len(t.value)
```

```
# Special case (faster) ignored char
t_ignore = " \t\r"
```

```
# Error handling rule
def t_error(t):
    sys.stderr.write("Illegal charac
                        % (t.value[0],
    t.skip(1)
```

```
import lex, sys
def stdin2tokens():
    lex.input(sys.stdin.read())
    toklst = []
    while 1:
        t = lex.token()
        if not t: break      # No more
        toklst.append(t)
    return toklst
```

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    lex.lex()
    for t in stdin2tokens():
        print '%s<%s>' % (t.value.lj
```

You are required to list the token types you wish such token, and any special patterns that are non-variable or as a function. After that, you just input off sequentially. Let us look at some results:

```
% cat p.txt
-Itals-, [modname]--let's add ~ unde
% python wordscanner.py < p.txt
Illegal character '~' (1)
-                <DASH>
Itals            <ALPHANUMS>
-                <DASH>
,                <SAFE PUNCT>
[                <BRACKET>
modname          <ALPHANUMS>
]                <BRACKET>
-                <DASH>
-                <DASH>
let              <ALPHANUMS>
'                <APOSTROPHE>
s                <ALPHANUMS>
add              <ALPHANUMS>
underscored     <ALPHANUMS>
var              <ALPHANUMS>
-                <UNDERSCORE>
```

```
name          <ALPHANUMS>
.             <SAFEPUNCT>
```

The output illustrates several features. For one nondiscarded substring as constituting some to tilde character is handled gracefully by being or something different if desired, of course. While tokenizer the special `t-ignore` variable quickly if function contains some extra code to maintain

The simple tokenizer above has some problems dash or to mark italicized phrases; apostrophes for a function name; underscores can occur both Readers who have used *Spark* will know of its class inheritance; *PLY* cannot do that, but it can utilize exactly the same effect:

## **wordplusscanner.py**

```
"Enhanced word/markup tokenization"
from wordscanner import *
tokens.extend(['CONTRACTION', 'MDASH'])
t_CONTRACTION = r'(?<=[a-zA-Z])' (a
t_WORDPUNCT   = r'(?<=[a-zA-Z0-9])
def t_MDASH(t): # Use HTML style mda
```

```

    r'--'
    t.value = '&mdash;'
    return t

if __name__ == '__main__':
    lex.lex()
    for t in stdin2tokens():
        print '%s<%s>' % (t.value.lj

```

Although the tokenization produced by wordscanner.py grammar rules, producing more specific tokens. In the case of t\_MDASH(), wordplusscanner.py recognition:

```

% python wordplusscanner.py < p.txt
Illegal character '~' (1)
-          <DASH>
Itals     <ALPHANUMS>
-          <DASH>
,          <SAFE PUNCT>
[          <BRACKET>
modname   <ALPHANUMS>
]          <BRACKET>
&mdash;    <MDASH>
let       <ALPHANUMS>

```

's	<CONTRACTION>
add	<ALPHANUMS>
underscored	<ALPHANUMS>
var	<ALPHANUMS>
_	<WORDPUNCT>
name	<ALPHANUMS>
.	<SAFEPUNCT>

## Parsing a token list

A parser in *PLY* is defined in almost the same manner. The named functions of the form `p_rulename()` are used to match (or a disjunction of several such patterns) a `YaccSlice` object, which is list-like in assigning `token` to an indexed position.

The code within each function should assign a value to `token` at `t[1:]`. If you would like to create a parse tree object of some sort and assign each right-hand side non-terminal to an example:

```
def p_rulename(t):
    'rulename : somerule SOME_TOKEN c'
    #      ^           ^           ^
    #  t[0]         t[1]         t[2]
```

```
t[0] = Node('rulename', t[1:])
```

Defining an appropriate Node class is left as an exercise; the result would be a traversable tree structure.

It is fairly simple to create a set of rules to convert the output of wordplusscanner.py. In the sample application, markupbuilder.py simply creates a list of match codes. Other data structures are possible too, and at the time a rule is matched (e.g., write to STDOUT).

## markupbuilder.py

```
import yacc
from wordplusscanner import *

def p_para(t):
    '''para : para plain
            | para emph
            | para strong
            | para module
            | para code
            | para title
            | plain
            | emph'''
```



```
        | strong
        | module
        | code
        | title '''
try:     t[0] = t[1] + t[2]
except: t[0] = t[1]
```

```
def p_plain(t):
    '''plain : ALPHANUMS
              | CONTRACTION
              | SAFEUNCT
              | MDASH
              | WORDPUNCT
              | plain plain '''
    try:     t[0] = t[1] + t[2]
    except: t[0] = [t[1]]
```

```
def p_emph(t):
    '''emph : DASH plain DASH'''
    t[0] = ['<i>'] + t[2] + ['</i>']
```

```
def p_strong(t):
    '''strong : ASTERISK plain ASTEF
    t[0] = ['<b>'] + t[2] + ['</b>']
```

```

def p_module(t):
    '''module : BRACKET plain BRACKET
    t[0] = ['<em><tt>'] + t[2] + ['<

def p_code(t):
    '''code : APOSTROPHE plain APOST
    t[0] = ['<code>'] + t[2] + ['</c

def p_title(t):
    '''title : UNDERSCORE plain UNDE
    t[0] = ['<cite>'] + t[2] + ['</c

def p_error(t):
    sys.stderr.write('Syntax error a
                        % (t.value,t.li

if __name__=='__main__':
    lex.lex()                # Build
    yacc.yacc()              # Build
    result = yacc.parse(sys.stdin.re
    print result

```

The output of this script, using the same input

```
% python markupbuilder.py < p.txt
```

```
Illegal character '~' (1)
['<i>', 'Itals', '</i>', ',', '<em><
'</tt></em>', '&mdash;', 'let', "'s'
'var', '_', 'name', '.']
```

One thing that is less than ideal in the *PLY* grammar *SimpleParse* or another EBNF library, we might

```
plain := (ALPHANUMS | CONTRACTION |
```

Quantification can make declarations more direct using self-referential rules whose left-hand term is similar to recursive definitions, for example:

```
plain : plain plain
      | OTHERSTUFF
```

For example, `markupbuilder.py`, above, uses this

If a tree structure were generated in this parse containing lower plain nodes (and terminal leaf nodes) Traversal would need to account for this possibility, in this case. A particular plain object might be a smaller list, but either way it is a list by the time

## LEX

A *PLY* lexing module that is intended as support  
A lexing module that constitutes a stand-alone

## 1. Import the `lex` module:

```
import lex
```

- Define a list or tuple variable tokens that contains the tokens that are allowed to produce. A list may be modified in-place in an importing module; for example:

```
tokens = ['FOO', 'BAR', 'BAZ', 'FLAM']
```

- Define one or more regular expression patterns. Tokens should have a corresponding pattern; otherwise, corresponding substrings will not be included in the output.

Token patterns may be defined in one of two ways: (1) By associating a string to a specially named variable. (2) By defining a docstring is a regular expression string. In the first style, the string is matched. In both styles, the token name is passed to the function. It should return the LexToken object passed to it, or None if it does not wish to include the token in the token stream.

```
t_FOO = r"[Ff] [Oo] {1,2}"
t_BAR = r"[Bb] [Aa] [Rr]"
def t_BAZ(t):
```

```

r"([Bb] [Aa] [Zz])+"
t.value = 'BAZ'          # canonical
return t

def t_FLAM(t):
    r"(FLAM|flam) *"
    # flam's are discarded (no retur

```

Tokens passed into a pattern function have three attributes: `line` contains the current line number within the string, `col` contains the current column number within the string, and `pos` contains the current position within the string. The `pos` attribute is used to change the reported position, even if the token is not at that position. Normally the string matched by the regular expression is returned, but if the token is a tuple or instance, it may be assigned instead. The `token` attribute is a string naming the token (the same as the part

There is a special order in which various token patterns used, several patterns could grab the desired pattern first claim on a substring. Each the order it is defined in the lexer file; all patte considered *after* every function-defined pattern however, are not considered in the order they a

The purpose of this ordering is to let longer pat "==" would be claimed before "=", allowing th correctly, rather than as sequential assignment

The special variable `t_ignore` may contain a string matching. These characters are skipped more efficiently. The return value. The token name `ignore` is, therefore

token (if the all-cap token name convention is followed).

The special function `t_error()` may be used to process the passed-in `LexToken` will contain the remainder of the match). If you want to skip past a problem area in the body of `t_error()`, use the `.skip()` method.

- Build the lexer. The `/lex` module performs a bit of magic so you do not need to name the built lexer. Most applications you wish to use if you need multiple lexers in the same module. For example:

```
mylexer = lex.lex()      # named lexer
lex.lex()                 # default lexer
mylexer.input(mytext)     # set input for mylexer
lex.input(othertext)      # set input for lex
```

- Give the lexer a string to process. This step is done in conjunction with `/lex`, and nothing need be done to pass the input string using `lex.input()` (or similarly with `mylexer.input()`).
- Read the token stream (for stand-alone token stream processing, use `lex.token()` function or the `.token()` method of `mylexer`). *PLY* does not treat the token stream as a Python iterator, so you must use an iterator wrapper with:

```
from __future__ import generators
# ...define the lexer rules, etc...
```

```
def tokeniterator(lexer=lex):
    while 1:
        t = lexer.token()
        if t is None:
            raise StopIteration
        yield t
# Loop through the tokens
for t in tokeniterator():
    # ...do something with each token
```

Without this wrapper, or generally in earlier versions with a break condition:

```
# ...define the lexer rules, etc...
while 1:
    t = lex.token()
    if t is None:      # No more input
        break
    # ... do something with each token
```

## YACC

A *PLY* parsing module must do five things:

### **1. Import the yacc module:**

```
import yacc
```

- Get a token map from a lexer. Suppose a lexer has requirements 1 through 4 in the above LEX description.

```
from mylexer import *
```

Given the special naming convention `t_*` used in the above, the pollution from `import *` is minimal.

You could also, of course, simply include the lexer module itself.

- Define a collection of grammar rules. Grammar rules are functions. Specially named functions having a prefix `r_` and a corresponding action code. Whenever a production rule matches, the body of that function runs.

Productions in *PLY* are described with a simplified notation (only sequencing and alternation are available in rules; only sequencing and alternation with recursion and component productions).

The left side of each rule contains a single rule name, followed by spaces, a colon, and an additional one or more spaces following this. The right side of a rule can occupy any number of lines. Each line is allowed to fulfill a rule name, each such pattern is enclosed in quotes ("|"). Within each right side line, a production item is separated from the previous one by a comma, and the line ends with a semicolon. Items which may be either tokens generated by



production may be included in the same `p_*`()  
each function to one production (you are free to

```
def p_rulename(t):  
    '''rulename      : foo SPACE bar  
                       | foo bar baz  
                       | bar SPACE baz  
    otherrule       : this that other  
                       | this SPACE that  
    #...action code...
```

The argument to each `p_*`() function is a `YaccS`  
the rule to an indexed position. The left side ru  
term/token on the right side is listed thereafter  
large enough to contain every term needed; th  
production is fulfilled on a particular call.

Empty productions are allowed by *yacc* (matchi  
empty production in a grammar, but this empty  
higher-level productions. An empty production  
of (potentiality) quantification in *PLY*; for exam

```
def p_empty(t):  
    '''empty : ''  
    pass  
def p_maybefoo(t):
```

```

        '''foo : FOOTOKEN
            | empty '''
    t[0] = t[1]
def p_maybebar(t):
    '''bar : BARTOKEN
        | empty '''
    t[0] = t[1]

```

If a fulfilled production is used in other product code should assign a meaningful value to index production. Moreover what is returned by the a production. For example:

```

# Sum N different numbers: "1.0 + 3
def p_sum(t):
    '''sum : number PLUS number'''
    #      ^      ^      ^      ^
    #  t[0]    t[1]  t[2]  t[3]
    t[0] = t[1] + t[3]
def p_number(t):
    '''number : BASICNUMBER
        | sum      '''
    #      ^      ^
    #  t[0]    t[1]
    t[0] = float(t[1])

```

```
# Create the parser and parse some s
yacc.yacc()
print yacc.parse('1.0')
```

The example simply assigns a numeric value with position 0 of the YaccSlice a list, Node object, or higher-level productions.

- To build the parser the *yacc* module performs do not need to name the built parser. Most applications. However, if you wish to refer to if you need multiple built parser to a name. For example:

```
myparser = yacc.yacc()           # named
yacc.yacc()                       # default
r1 = myparser.parse(mytext)      # set ir
r0 = yacc.parse(othertext)       # set ir
```

When parsers are built, *yacc* will produce diagnostic the grammar.

- Parse an input string. The lexer is implicitly called rules. The return value of a parsing action can be builds. It might be an abstract syntax tree, if a might be a simple list as in the smart ASCII example concatenations and modifications during parsing parsing was done wholly to trigger side effects

index position 0 of the root rule's LexToken.

## MORE ON PLY PARSERS

Some of the finer points of *PLY* parsers will not be covered here. The accompanying *PLY* contains some additional information. More systematically to parsing theory will address at least be touched on.

### Error Recovery

A *PLY* grammar may contain a special `p_error()` function. If a token is not matched (at the current position) by any other rule, the parser enters an "error-recovery" mode. If the parser successfully recovers, a traceback is generated. You may catch errors that occur at specific points in the

To implement recovery within the `p_error()` function, you can use `yacc.token()`, `yacc.restart()`, and `yacc.errok()`. If this token or some sequence of tokens meets so that the parser can restart, use `yacc.restart()` or `yacc.errok()`. The first of these states basically, only the final sub-string of the input data structure you have built will remain as it was in its last state and just ignore any bad tokens. You can use `p_error()` itself, or via calls to `yacc.token()` in the

## The Parser State Machine

When a parser is first compiled, the file `parsetab.py`, contains more or less unreadable (but useful) information about the state machine. For subsequent parser invocations, these structure tables are regenerated; timestamps and signatures are changed. Pregenerating state tables speeds up

The file `parser.out` contains a fairly readable description of the state machine by `yacc`. Although you cannot manually modify it, it can help you in understanding error messages for grammars.

## Precedence and Associativity

To resolve ambiguous grammars, you may set the precedence and the associativity of tokens. Absence of a token means shift rather than reduce a rule where bc

The *PLY* documentation gives an example of an ambiguous grammar for `4 + 5 * 3`. After the tokens `3`, `*`, and `4` have been read, the grammar allows reduction of the product. But at the same time, it allows `PLUS NUMBER`, which would allow a lookahead reduction (the next token). Moreover, the same token can have different precedences: the unary-minus and minus operators in `3 - 4 * 5`

To solve both the precedence ambiguity and the associativity ambiguity, we can declare an explicit precedence and associativity.

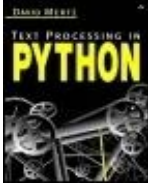
## Declaring precedence and associativity

```
precedence = (  
    ('left', 'PLUS', 'MINUS'),  
    ('left', 'TIMES', 'DIVIDE'),  
    ('right', 'UMINUS'),  
)  
  
def p_expr_uminus(t):  
    'expr : MINUS expr % prec UMINUS'  
    t[0] = -1 * t[2]  
  
def p_expr_minus(t):  
    'expr : expr MINUS expr'  
    t[0] = t[1] - t[3]  
  
def p_expr_plus(t):  
    'expr : expr PLUS expr'  
    t[0] = t[1] + t[3]
```

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

## Chapter 5. Internet Tools and Techniques

Be strict in what you send, and lenient in what you accept.

Internet Engineering Task Force

Internet protocols in large measure are descriptions of textual formats. At the lowest level, TCP/IP is a binary protocol, but virtually every layer run on top of TCP/IP consists of textual messages exchanged between servers and clients. Some basic messages govern control, handshaking, and authentication issues, but the information content of the Internet predominantly consists of texts formatted according to two or three general patterns.

The handshaking and control aspects of Internet protocols usually consist of short commands and sometimes challenges sent during an initial conversation between a client and server. Fortunately for Python programmers, the Python standard library



contains intermediate-level modules to support all the most popular communication protocols: *poplib*, *smtplib*, *ftplib*, *httplib*, *telnetlib*, *gopherlib*, and *imaplib*. If you want to use any of these protocols, you can simply provide required setup information, then call module functions or classes to handle all the lower-level interaction. Unless you want to do something exotic such as programming a custom or less common network protocol there is never a need to utilize the lower-level services of the *socket* module.

The communication level of Internet protocols is not primarily a text processing issue. Where text processing comes in is with parsing and production of compliant texts, to contain the *content* of these protocols. Each protocol is characterized by one or a few message types that are typically transmitted over the protocol. For example, POP3, NNTP, IMAP4, and SMTP protocols are centrally means of transmitting texts that conform to RFC-822, its updates, and associated RFCs. HTTP is firstly a means of transmitting Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) messages.

Following the popularity of the World Wide Web, however, a dizzying array of other message types also travel over HTTP: graphic and sounds formats, proprietary multimedia plug-ins, executable byte-codes (e.g., Java or Jython), and also more textual formats like XML-RPC and SOAP.

The most widespread text format on the Internet is almost certainly human-readable and human-composed notes that follow RFC-822 and friends. The basic form of such a text is a series of headers, each beginning a line and separated from a value by a colon; after a header comes a blank line; and after that a message body. In the simplest case, a message body is just free-form text; but MIME headers can be used to nest structured and diverse contents within a message body. Email and (Usenet) discussion groups follow this format. Even other protocols, like HTTP, share a top envelope structure with RFC-822.

A strong second as Internet text formats go is HTML. And in third place after that is XML, in various dialects. HTML, of course, is

the lingua franca of the Web; XML is a more general standard for defining custom "applications" or "dialects," of which HTML is (almost) one. In either case, rather than a header composed of line-oriented fields followed by a body, HTML/XML contain hierarchically nested "tags" with each tag indicated by surrounding angle brackets. Tags like HTML's `<body>`, `<cite>`, and `<blockquote>` will be familiar already to most readers of this book. In any case, Python has a strong collection of tools in its standard library for parsing and producing HTML and XML text documents. In the case of XML, some of these tools assist with specific XML dialects, while lower-level underlying libraries treat XML *sui generis*. In some cases, third-party modules fill gaps in the standard library.

Various Python Internet modules are covered in varying depth in this chapter. Every tool that comes with the Python standard library is examined at least in summary. Those tools that I feel are of greatest importance to application programmers (in text processing applications) are documented in fair detail

and accompanied by usage examples, warnings, and tips.

---

**Team-Fly**

◀ Previous

Next ▶

[Top](#)

## Chapter 5. Internet Tools and Techniques

---

### 5.1 Working with Email and Newsgroups

Python provides extensive support in its standard library for processing (and sending) newsgroup) messages. There are three general categories of messages supported by one or more Python modules.

- 1. Communicating with network servers to retrieve and send messages. The modules *poplib*, *imaplib*, and *smtp* are the protocols contained in their names. These modules handle text processing per se, but are often used in conjunction with email. The discussion of each of these modules covers not only those methods necessary to conduct a conversation, but the first three modules/protocols. The remainder of the chapter is here under the assumption that email is being processed rather than Usenet articles. Individual modules are almost always frowned upon, while automatic processing (within limits).**
- Examining the contents of message folders. V

messages in a variety of formats, many providing a module *mailbox* provides a uniform API for reading and writing popular folder formats. In a way, *imaplib* serves as a proxy to an IMAP4 server can also structure folders, but for folders that are only cursorily that topic also falls afield of text processing. Texts are definitely text formats, and *mailbox* makes

- The core text processing task in working with the actual messages. RFC-822 describes a format for Internet communication. Not every Mail Agent (MTA) strictly conforms to the RFC-822 (standard) but they all generally try to do so. The *rfc822*, *rfc1822*, *mimify*, *mimetools*, *MimeWrite* modules provide parsing and processing email messages.

Although existing applications are likely to use *mailbox* and *multifile*, the package *email* contains more complete implementations of the same capabilities. The full synopsis while the various subpackages of *email*

There is one aspect of working with email that is often unnecessary. Unfortunately, in the real-world, a message may be a virus, and frauds; any application that works with email demands a way to filter out the junk messages. Outside the scope of this discussion, readers might benefit from "Techniques," at:

<<http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/filtering/>>

A flexible Python project for statistical analysis Bayesian and related models, is SpamBayes:

<<http://spambayes.sourceforge.net/>>

### 5.1.1 Manipulating and Creating Message Text

---

**email • Work with email messages**

---

Without repeating the whole of RFC-2822, it is email or newsgroup message. Messages may be nested that impose larger-level structure, but here we consider a single message. An RFC-2822 message, like most email format, often restricted to true 7-bit ASCII.

A message consists of a header and a body. A body may contain "payloads." In fact, MIME multipart/\* type payloads, but such nesting is comparatively uncommon. A payload in a body is divided by a simple, but fairly complex, pseudo-random, and you need to examine the header to see either contain text or binary data using base64 encoding (even 8-bit, which is not generally safe). The header either have MIME type text/\* or compose the whole message (payload delimiter).

An RFC-2822 header consists of a series of fields

beginning of a line and is followed by a colon and the field name, starting on the same line, but the continued field value cannot be left aligned, but one space or tab. There are some moderately complex contents can split between lines, often depends on the field name. Most field names occur only once in a header, but their order of occurrence is not important to email parsers. Field names notably `Received` typically occur multiple times. Complicating headers further, field values can contain any ASCII character set.

The most important element of the *email* package is the `Message` class, whose instances provide a data structure and methods for accessing the structure of RFC-2822 messages. Various capabilities for creating a message, and for parsing a whole message into its parts, are contained in subpackages of the *email* package and are wrapped in convenience functions in the top-level `email` package.

A version of the *email* package was introduced in Python 2.1. However, *email* has been independently upgraded several times. At the time this chapter was written, the latest version was 0.7.1, and this discussion reflects that version (and the version most likely to remain consistent in later versions). You should use the version accompanying your Python installation. To get the latest version of the *email* package from <http://mimelib.sourceforge.net/>, use the version accompanying your Python installation. The current (and expected future) version is 0.7.1, compatible with Python versions back to 2.1. See <http://gnosis.cx/TPiP/>, for instructions on using the *email* package.



incompatible with versions of Python before 2.0

## CLASSES

Several children of *email.Message.Message* allow for messages with special properties and convenient initialization. These are technically contained in a module named *email.mime* in the *email* namespace, but each is available directly in the *email* namespace, but each is ve

**`email.MIMEBase.MIMEBase(maintype, subtype)`**

Construct a message object with a Content-Type header. This class is used only as a parent for further subclasses,

```
>>> mess = email.MIMEBase.MIMEBase('text/html')
>>> print mess
From nobody Tue Nov 12 03:32:33 2002
Content-Type: text/html; charset="us-ascii"
MIME-Version: 1.0
```

**`email.MIMENonMultipart.MIMENonMultipart(maintype, subtype)`**

Child of *email.MIMEBase.MIMEBase*, but raises

.attach(). Generally this class is used for further

**email.MIMEMultipart.MIMEMultipart([subtype:  
[,\*\*params]]])**

Construct a multipart message object with subtype and boundary with the argument boundary, but specify content type to be calculated. If you wish to populate the message with parts as additional arguments. Keyword arguments are used to specify the Type header.

```
>>> from email.MIMEBase import MIMEBase
>>> from email.MIMEMultipart import MIMEMultipart
>>> mess = MIMEBase('audio','midi')
>>> combo = MIMEMultipart('mixed', {'Content-Type': 'audio/midi'})
>>> print combo
```

```
From nobody Tue Nov 12 03:50:50 2002
Content-Type: multipart/mixed; charset=utf-8
        boundary="=====5954819931142521=="
MIME-Version: 1.0
```

```
--=====5954819931142521==
Content-Type: audio/midi
MIME-Version: 1.0
```

--=====5954819931142521==

## **email.MIMEAudio.MIMEAudio(audiodata [,sndhdr [,subtype [,encoder [,parameters]]]])**

Construct a single part message object that holds audio data specified as a string in the argument *audiodata*. If *sndhdr* is used to detect the signature of the audio data, *subtype* is used to detect the signature of the audio data. An encoder can be specified by the argument *encoder* (but usually should not be used). *parameters* are parameters to the Content-Type header.

```
>>> from email.MIMEAudio import MIMEAudio
>>> mess = MIMEAudio(open('melody.mi
```

SEE ALSO: [sndhdr 397](#);

## **email.MIMEImage.MIMEImage(imagedata [,subtype [,encoder [,parameters]]])**

Construct a single part message object that holds image data specified as a string in the argument *imagedata*. If *imghdr* is used to detect the signature of the image data, *subtype* is used to detect the signature of the image data. An encoder can be specified by the argument *encoder* (but usually should not be used). *parameters* are parameters to the Content-Type header.

```
>>> from email.MIMEImage import MIMEImage
>>> mess = MIMEImage(open('landscape.jpg').read())
```

**SEE ALSO:** `imghdr` 396;

**`email.MIMEText.MIMEText(text [,subtype [,charset]])`**

Construct a single part message object that holds a string in the argument `text`. A character set may be specified in the argument `charset`.

```
>>> from email.MIMEText import MIMEText
>>> mess = MIMEText(open('TPiP.tex').read(), 'text/plain', 'ascii')
```

## **FUNCTIONS**

**`email.message_from_file(file [, _class=email.Message])`**

Return a message object based on the message file. This function call is exactly equivalent to:

```
email.Parser.Parser(_class, strict).parse(file)
```

**SEE ALSO:** `email.Parser.Parser.parse()` 363;

**email.message\_from\_string(s [, \_class=email.**

Return a message object based on the message  
function call is exactly equivalent to:

`email.Parser.Parser(_class, strict).`

**SEE ALSO:** `email.Parser.Parser.parsestr()` 363;

---

---

## **email.Encoders • Encoding message payload**

---

---

The module *email.Encoder* contains several functions to part message objects. Each of these functions sets the body to an appropriate value after encoding the body. The `.get_payload()` message method can be used to

## **FUNCTIONS**

**email.Encoders.encode\_quopri(mess)**

Encode the message body of message object `m` to a string and sets the header Content-Transfer-Encoding.

## **email.Encoders.encode\_base64(mess)**

Encode the message body of message object `m` to base64 and set the header Content-Transfer-Encoding.

## **email.Encoders.encode\_7or8bit(mess)**

Set the Content-Transfer-Encoding to 7bit or 8bit and not modify the payload itself. If message `m` has no header, calling this will create a second one it is calling this function.

**SEE ALSO:** `email.Message.Message.get_payload`

## **email.Errors • Exceptions for [email] pack**

Exceptions within the *email* package will raise a `ValueError` if the desired level of generality. The exception hierarchy is as follows:

**Figure 5.1. Standard email exceptions**

<code>exceptions.Exception</code>	Root class for all built-in exceptions
<code>MessageError</code>	Base for email exceptions
<code>MessageParseError</code>	Base for message parsing exceptions
<code>BoundaryError</code>	Could not find boundary
<code>HeaderParseError</code>	Problem parsing the header
<code>MultipartConversionError</code>	Also child of <code>exceptions.TypeError</code>

SEE ALSO: [exceptions 44](#);

---

## **email.generator • Create text representations**

---

The module *email.generator* provides support for *email.Message.Message* objects. In principle, you can convert message objects to specialized formats for example, convert an *email.Message.Message* object to store values in a database. In practice, you almost always want to write message objects to 2822 message texts. Several of the methods of *email.generator* utilize *email.generator*.

## **CLASSES**

**`email.generator.generator(file [,mangle_from_`**

Construct a generator instance that writes to the file `file`. If `mangle_from_` is specified as a true value, any email address in the `From` header begins with the string `From` followed by a space and the email address (a reversible transformation prevents BSD mailbox

argument maxheaderlen specifies where long h  
such is possible).

## email.Generator.DecodedGenerator(file [,man)

Construct a generator instance that writes RFC-initializers as its parent *email.Generator.Generator* argument *fmt*.

The class `email.generator.DecodedGenerator` of a multipart message payload. Nontext parts may contain keyword replacement values. For e

[Non-text (% (type)s) part of message]

Any of the keywords type, maintype, subtype, and subtype, used as keyword replacements in the string format, the payload, a simple description of its unavailability.

## METHODS

## email.Generator.Generator.clone()

## email.Generator.DecodedGenerator.clone()



Return a copy of the instance with the same op

**email.Generator.Generator.flatten(mess [,unix  
email.Generator.DecodedGenerator.flatten(m**

Write an RFC-2822 serialization of message obj  
instance was initialized with. If the argument u  
BSD mailbox From\_ header is included in the s

**email.Generator.Generator.write(s)  
email.Generator.DecodedGenerator.write(s)**

Write the string s to the file-like object the inst  
generator object itself act in a file-like manner,

**SEE ALSO:** email.Message 355; mailbox 372;

<b>email.Header • Manage headers with non-</b>
------------------------------------------------

The module *email.Charset* provides fine-tuned  
conversions and maintaining a character set re  
provided by *email.Header* provides all the capa  
friendlier form.

The basic reason why you might want to use them is that email bodies are somewhat more lenient than headers, which are restricted to using only 7-bit ASCII to encode characters. *email.Header* provides a single class and two constructors. The non-ASCII characters in email headers is described in RFC-2045, RFC-2046, RFC-2047, and most directly

## CLASSES

**`email.Header.Header([s="" [,charset [,maxlinelen [,continuation_ws=" "]]]])`**

Construct an object that holds the string *s* or Unicode string *s* and charset to use in encoding *s*; absent any arguments, the default charset is 'utf-8' and the default continuation\_ws is ' '.  
as needed.

Since the encoded string is intended to be used in email headers, it is wrapped to multiple lines (depending on the value of *maxlinelen*). The value of *continuation\_ws* specifies where the wrapping will occur; header methods anticipate using the encoded string with it is significant. If *header\_name* is specified and *header\_name* is not a valid header name, no width is set aside for the header name. If *continuation\_ws* is specified, it must be a combination of spaces and tabs.

Instances of the class *email.Header.Header* implement the following methods:

therefore respond to the built-in *str()* function : built-in techniques are more natural, but the method performs an identical action. As an example, let

```
>>> from unicodedata import lookup
>>> lquot = lookup("LEFT-POINTING DOUBLE QUOTATION MARK")
>>> rquot = lookup("RIGHT-POINTING DOUBLE QUOTATION MARK")
>>> s = lquot + "Euro-style" + rquot
>>> s
u'\xabEuro-style\xbb quotation'
>>> print s.encode('iso-8859-1')
Euro-style quotation
```

Using the string *s*, let us encode it for an RFC-2047 header.

```
>>> from email.Header import Header
>>> print Header(s)
=?utf-8?q?=C2=ABEuro-style=C2=BB_quotation?
>>> print Header(s, 'iso-8859-1')
=?iso-8859-1?q?=ABEuro-style=BB_quotation?
>>> print Header(s, 'utf-16')
=?utf-16?b?/v8AqwBFAHUAcgBvACOAchwBOA?
=?utf-16?b?/v8AuwAgAHEAdQBvAHQAYQBC?
>>> print Header(s, 'us-ascii')
=?utf-8?q?=C2=ABEuro-style=C2=BB_quotation?
```

Notice that in the last case, the *email.Header.H* my request for an ASCII character set, since it However, the class is happy to skip the encodin

```
>>> print Header('"US-style" quotati
"US-style" quotation
>>> print Header('"US-style" quotati
=?utf-8?q?=22US-style=22_quotation?=
>>> print Header('"US-style" quotati
"US-style" quotation
```

## METHODS

### **email.Header.Header.append(s [,charset])**

Add the string or Unicode string *s* to the end of character set *charset*. Note that the charset of that of the existing content.

```
>>> subj = Header(s, 'latin-1', 65)
>>> print subj
=?iso-8859-1?q?=ABEuro-style=BB_quot
>>> unicodedata.name(omega), unicode
('GREEK SMALL LETTER OMEGA', 'GREEK
```

```
>>> subj.append(', Greek: ', 'us-asc
>>> subj.append(Omega, 'utf-8')
>>> subj.append(omega, 'utf-16')
>>> print subj
=?iso-8859-1?q?=ABEuro-style=BB_quot
=?utf-8?b?zqk=?= =?utf-16?b?/v8DyQ=
>>> unicode(subj)
u'\xabEuro-style\xbb quotation, Gre
```

**email.Header.Header.encode()**  
**email.Header.Header.\_\_str\_\_()**

Return an ASCII string representation of the in-

## **FUNCTIONS**

**email.Header.decode\_header(header)**

Return a list of pairs describing the components: header object header. Each pair in the list contains encoding name.

```
>>> email.Header.decode_header(Header
```

```
[('spam and eggs', None)]
>>> print subj
=?iso-8859-1?q?=ABEuro-style=BB_quot
=?utf-8?b?zqk=?= =?utf-16?b?/v8DyQ=
>>> for tup in email.Header.decode_header():
...
(' \xabEuro-style\xbb quotation', 'is
', Greek:', None)
(' \xce\xa9', 'utf-8')
(' \xfe\xff\x03\xc9', 'utf-16')
```

These pairs may be used to construct Unicode strings using the `unicode()` function. However, plain ASCII strings show an error when passed to the `unicode()` function.

```
>>> for s,enc in email.Header.decode_header():
...     enc = enc or 'us-ascii'
...     print `unicode(s, enc)`
...
u' \xabEuro-style\xbb quotation'
u', Greek:'
u' \u03a9'
u' \u03c9'
```

**SEE ALSO:** `unicode()` 423; `email.Header.make_header()` 423

**email.Header.make\_header(decoded\_seq [,m  
[,continuation\_ws]]))**

Construct a header object from a list of pairs of *email.Header.decode\_header()*. You may also, c  
decoded\_seq manually, or by other means. The  
header\_name, and continuation\_ws are the sar

```
>>> email.Header.make_header([ ('\xce  
...                               ('-mar  
'=?utf-8?b?qk=?=-man ')
```

**SEE ALSO:** email.Header.decode\_header() 353;

## **email.Iterators • Iterate through compon**

The module *email.Iterators* provides several co  
messages in ways different from *email.Message*  
*email.Message.Message.walk()*.

## **FUNCTIONS**

**email.Iterators.body\_line\_iterator(mess)**

Return a generator object that iterates through mess. The entire body that would be produced content types and nesting of parts. But any MIME returned lines.

```
>>> import email.MIMEText, email.Itc
>>> mess1 = email.MIMEText.MIMEText(
>>> mess2 = email.MIMEText.MIMEText(
>>> combo = email.Message.Message()
>>> combo.set_type('multipart/mixed')
>>> combo.attach(mess1)
>>> combo.attach(mess2)
>>> for line in email.Iterators.body
...     print line
...
message one
message two
```

**email.Iterators.typed\_subpart\_iterator(mess |**

Return a generator object that iterates through matches maintype. If a subtype subtype is spe maintype/subtype.



**email.Iterators.\_structure(mess [,file=sys.std**

Write a "pretty-printed" representation of the s  
Output to the file-like object file.

```
>>> email.Iterators._structure(combomultipart/mixed
    multipart/digest
        image/png
        text/plain
    audio/mp3
    text/html
```

**SEE ALSO:** email.Message.Message.get\_payload  
362;

**email.Message • Class representing an em**

A message object that utilizes the *email.Message* syntactic conveniences and support methods for  
The class *email.Message.Message* is a very good built-in *str()* function and therefore also the primary produce its RFC-2822 serialization.

In many ways, a message object is dictionary-like

implemented in it to support keyed indexing and containment testing with the `in` keyword, and keys that expect to find in a Python dict are all implemented. *email.Message.Message*:`has_key()`, `.keys()`, `.values()` examples are helpful:

```
>>> import mailbox, email, email.Parser
>>> mbox = mailbox.PortableUnixMailbox('~/Mailbox', email.Parser
...                                     email.Parser)
>>> mess = mbox.next()
>>> len(mess)                                # number of lines
16
>>> 'X-Status' in mess                        # membership test
1
>>> mess.has_key('X-AGENT')                  # also works
0
>>> mess['x-agent'] = "Python Mail Agent"
>>> print mess['X-AGENT']                     # access
Python Mail Agent
>>> del mess['X-Agent']                       # delete
>>> print mess['X-AGENT']
None
>>> [fld for (fld, val) in mess.items() if fld == 'Received']
['Received', 'Received', 'Received',
```

This is dictionary-like behavior, but only to an email header rules. Moreover, a given key may key will return only the first such value, but message will return a list of all the entries. In some other cases it is more like a list of tuples, chiefly in guarantee fields.

A few more details of keyed indexing should be added. To add an *additional* header, rather than replace a header, the `add_header()` operation is more like a `list.append()` method. It adds every matching header. If you want to replace or assign.

The special syntax defined by the *email.Message* headers. But a message object will typically also have a `get_payload()` method. If the Content-Type header contains the value `multipart`, then zero or more payloads, each one itself a message object (including where none is explicitly specified), then the message is an encoded one. The message instance method `get_payload()` returns either a list of message objects or a string. Use `get_payload()` to determine which return type is expected.

As the epigram to this chapter suggests, you should construct messages yourself. But in real-world messages with badly mismatched headers and content, it is not unusual to be multipart, and vice versa. Moreover, the loose indication of what payloads actually contain is often exploited by spammers and virus writers trying to exploit the

security of Microsoft applications a malicious payload on Windows will typically launch apps based on file extensions. Problems arise not out of malice, but simply out of ignorance. Depending on the source of your processed message, you may need to be aware of the allowable structure and headers of messages.

**SEE ALSO:** UserDict 24; UserList 28;

## **CLASSES**

### **email.Message.Message()**

Construct a message object. The class accepts the following arguments:

## **METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES**

### **email.Message.Message.add\_header(field, value)**

Add a header to the message headers. The header field is a string, and the value is a string. The effect is the same as keyed assignment to the message object. The following parameters use Python keyword arguments.

```
>>> import email.Message
>>> msg = email.Message.Message()
```

```
>>> msg['Subject'] = "Report attachment"
>>> msg.add_header('Content-Disposition', 'attachment',
...                filename='report.txt')
>>> print msg
From nobody Mon Nov 11 15:11:43 2002
Subject: Report attachment
Content-Disposition: attachment; filename="report.txt"
```

### **email.Message.Message.as\_string([unixfrom: bool])**

Serialize the message to an RFC-2822-compliant string. If *unixfrom* is specified with a true value, include the BSD mail header style. Serialization with *str()* or *print* includes the "From:" header.

### **email.Message.Message.attach(mess)**

Add a payload to a message. The argument *mess* can be a string, an *email.Message.Message* object, or a list of these. After this call, the message is a multipart/\* message object. If this is the first call, the method *.is\_multipart* will return True. If this is a subsequent call, the method *.is\_multipart* will return False. You may need to separately set a correct multipart/\* content type object.

```
>>> mess = email.Message.Message()
```

```

>>> mess.is_multipart()
0
>>> mess.attach(email.Message.Message)
>>> mess.is_multipart()
1
>>> mess.get_payload()
[<email.Message.Message instance at
>>> mess.get_content_type()
'text/plain'
>>> mess.set_type('multipart/mixed')
>>> mess.get_content_type()
'multipart/mixed'

```

If you wish to create a single part payload for a *email.Message.Message.set-payload()*.

**SEE ALSO:** *email.Message.Message.set\_payload*

**email.Message.Message.del\_param(param [,h**

Remove the parameter param from a header. If is taken, but also no exception is raised. Usual header, but you may specify a different header argument requote controls whether the parameter no harm).

```
>>> mess = email.Message.Message()
>>> mess.set_type('text/plain')
>>> mess.set_param('charset', 'us-asc
>>> print mess
From nobody Mon Nov 11 16:12:38 2002
MIME-Version: 1.0
Content-Type: text/plain; charset="u

>>> mess.del_param('charset')
>>> print mess
From nobody Mon Nov 11 16:13:11 2002
MIME-Version: 1.0
content-type: text/plain
```

## **email.Message.Message.epilogue**

Message bodies that contain MIME content delimit the area between the first and final delimiter. A stored in *email.Message.Message.epilogue*.

**SEE ALSO:** `email.Message.Message.preamble` 3

**email.Message.Message.get\_all(field [,failobj:**

Return a list of all the headers with the field name value specified in argument failobj. In most cases (at all), but a few fields such as Received typically

The default nonmatch return value of None is provided. Returning an empty list will let you use this method

```
>>> for rcv in mess.get_all('Received'):
...     print rcv
...
```

About that time

A little earlier

```
>>> if mess.get_all('Foo', []):
...     print "Has Foo header(s)"
```

**email.Message.Message.get\_boundary([failobj])**

Return the MIME message boundary delimiter if the boundary is defined; this *should* always be the

**email.Message.Message.get\_charsets([failobj])**

Return a list of string descriptions of contained



## **email.Message.Message.get\_content\_charset()**

Return a string description of the message character set.

## **email.Message.Message.get\_content\_maintype()**

For message mess, equivalent to mess.get\_content\_type().

## **email.Message.Message.get\_content\_subtype()**

For message mess, equivalent to mess.get\_content\_type().

## **email.Message.Message.get\_content\_type()**

Return the MIME content type of the message (lowercase and contains both the type and subtype).

```
>>> msg_photo.get_content_type()
'image/png'
>>> msg_combo.get_content_type()
'multipart/mixed'
>>> msg_simple.get_content_type()
```

```
'text/plain'
```

## **email.Message.Message.get\_default\_type()**

Return the current default type of the message payloads that are not accompanied by an explicit

## **email.Message.Message.get\_filename([fallback])**

Return the filename parameter of the Content-Disposition header if it exists (perhaps because no such header exists)

## **email.Message.Message.get\_param(param [,fallback])**

Return the parameter param of the header header. If the parameter does not exist, return None. If the parameter is specified as a true value, the quote marks are removed

```
>>> print mess.get_param('charset','us-ascii')
us-ascii
>>> print mess.get_param('charset','us-ascii')
"us-ascii"
```

SEE ALSO: `email.Message.Message.set_params`

## **`email.Message.Message.get_params([,failobj`**

Return all the parameters of the header header. If the header does not exist, return fail list of key/val pairs. The argument unquote ren

```
>>> print mess.get_params(header="To:
[('<mertz@gnosis.cx>', '')]
>>> print mess.get_params(unquote=0)
[('text/plain', ''), ('charset', 'u
```

## **`email.Message.Message.get_payload([i [,dec`**

Return the message payload. If the message method returns a list of component message of string with the message body. Note that if the *email.Parser.HeaderParser*, then the body is treated as MIME delimiters.

Assuming that the message is multipart, you may return the indexed component. Specifying the `i` argument returns a list without specifying `i`. If `decode` is specified, the returned payload is decoded (i.e.,

I find that dealing with a payload that may be awkward. Frequently, you would like to simply whether or not MIME multiparts are contained in uniformity:

### **write\_payload\_list.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
"Write payload list to separate file
import email, sys
def get_payload_list(msg, decode=1):
    payload = msg.get_payload(decode=
    if type(payload) in [type(""), t
        return [payload]
    else:
        return payload
mess = email.message_from_file(sys.s
for part,num in zip(get_payload_list
    file = open('%s.%d' % (sys.argv[
print >> file, part
```

**SEE ALSO:** [email.Parser 363](#); [email.Message.Message.walk\(\) 362](#);

## **email.Message.Message.get\_unixfrom()**

Return the BSD mailbox "From\_" envelope header.

**SEE ALSO:** mailbox 372;

## **email.Message.Message.is\_multipart()**

Return a true value if the message is multipart. multipart is having multiple message objects in not guaranteed to be multipart/\* when this message *should* be).

**SEE ALSO:** email.Message.Message.get\_payload

## **email.Message.Message.preamble**

Message bodies that contain MIME content delimit the area between the first and final delimiter. A is stored in *email.Message.Message.preamble*.

**SEE ALSO:** email.Message.Message.epilogue 372

## **email.Message.Message.replace\_header(field)**

Replaces the first occurrence of the header with matching header is found, raise `KeyError`.

### **`email.Message.Message.set_boundary(s)`**

Set the boundary parameter of the Content-Type header. If the message does not have a Content-Type header, raise `HeaderParseError`. It is recommended to create a boundary manually, since the *email* module does not create it on its own for multipart messages.

### **`email.Message.Message.set_default_type(cty)`**

Set the current default type of the message to `cty`. This is used for decoding payloads that are not accompanied by a Content-Type header.

### **`email.Message.Message.set_param(param, value, *, requote=1 [,charset [,language]])`**

Set the parameter `param` of the header `header` to `value`. If `requote` is specified as a true value, the parameter value is quoted. If `charset` or `language` may be used to encode the parameter value.

### **`email.Message.Message.set_payload(payload)`**

Set the message payload to a string or to a list overwrites any existing payload the message has. If you must use this method to configure the message, you must subclass to construct the message in the first place.

**SEE ALSO:** `email.Message.Message.attach()` 35; `email.MIMEImage.MIMEImage` 348; `email.MIMEMultipart.MIMEMultipart` 350

## **`email.Message.Message.set_type(ctype [,headers])`**

Set the content type of the message to `ctype`, if it is not already set. If the argument `headers` is specified as a true value, you must also specify an alternative header to write the content type. I cannot think of any reason you would want to.

## **`email.Message.Message.set_unixfrom(s)`**

Set the BSD mailbox envelope header. The argument `s` is a string, usually a space, usually followed by a name and a date.

**SEE ALSO:** `mailbox` 372;

## **`email.Message.Message.walk()`**

Recursively traverse all message parts and sub-iterator will yield each nested message object in

```
>>> for part in mess.walk():  
...     print part.get_content_type()  
multipart/mixed  
text/html  
audio/midi
```

**SEE ALSO:** `email.Message.Message.get_payload`

---

---

**email.Parser • Parse a text message into :**

---

---

There are two parsers provided by the *email.Parser* child *email.Parser.HeaderParser*. For general use the latter allows you to treat the body of an RFC-2822 message as text. Skipping the parsing of message bodies can be useful for improperly formatted message bodies (something like spam messages that lack any content value as

The parsing methods of both classes accept an optional `headersonly` argument. Specifying `headersonly` has a stronger effect than specifying `skip_bodies` in the *email.Parser* class. If `headersonly` is specified in the parsing method, the body is skipped altogether the message object created. On the other hand, if *email.Parser.HeaderParser* is specified as `True` (the default), the body is al



content type is multipart/\*.

## CLASSES

**email.Parser.Parser([\_class=email.Message.MessageParser])**

Construct a parser instance that uses the class `email.Message.MessageParser`. There is normally no reason to specify a different class. Parsing with the `strict` option will cause exceptions if the message does not conform fully to the RFC-2822 specification. In some cases, this is useful.

**email.Parser.HeaderParser([\_class=email.Message.MessageHeaderParser])**

Construct a parser instance that is the same as `email.Parser.Parser`, but that multipart messages are parsed as if they were not.

## METHODS

**email.Parser.Parser.parse(file [,headersonly=0])**  
**email.Parser.HeaderParser.parse(file [,headersonly=0])**

Return a message object based on the message; if the optional argument `headersonly` is given a true value, the body is discarded.

**`email.Parser.Parser.parsestr(s [,headersonly=True])`**  
**`email.Parser.HeaderParser.parsestr(s [,headersonly=True])`**

Return a message object based on the message; if the optional argument `headersonly` is given a true value, the body is discarded.

## **`email.Utils` • Helper functions for working with email**

The module *email.Utils* contains a variety of convenience functions for working with special header fields.

## **FUNCTIONS**

**`email.Utils.decode_rfc2231(s)`**

Return a decoded string for RFC-2231 encoded strings.

```
>>> Omega = unicodedata.lookup("GREEK OMEGA")
```

```
>>> print email.Utils.encode_rfc2231  
%3A9-man%40gnosis.cx  
>>> email.Utils.decode_rfc2231("utf-  
( 'utf-8', ' ', ':9-man@gnosis.cx')
```

## **email.Utils.encode\_rfc2231(s [,charset [,language]])**

Return an RFC-2231-encoded string from the string s. The charset and language may optionally be specified.

## **email.Utils.formataddr(pair)**

Return a formatted address from pair (realname, email address).

```
>>> email.Utils.formataddr(('David M  
'David Mertz <mertz@gnosis.cx>')
```

## **email.Utils.formataddr([timeval [,localtime=0]**

Return an RFC-2822-formatted date based on a timeval or a Python *time.localtime()*. If the argument localtime is specified, use the local timezone rather than UTC. With no options, use the local timezone.

```
>>> email.Utils.formatdate()  
'Wed, 13 Nov 2002 07:08:01 -0000'
```

### **email.Utils.getaddresses(addresses)**

Return a list of pairs (realname,addr) based on argument addresses.

```
>>> addrs = ['"Joe" <jdoe@nowhere.lan>',  
>>> email.Utils.getaddresses(addrs)  
[('Joe', 'jdoe@nowhere.lan'), ('Jane', 'jdoe@nowhere.lan')]
```

### **email.Utils.make\_msgid([seed])**

Return a unique string suitable for a Message-ID header. If seed is not None, incorporate that string into the returned value; name or other identifying information.

```
>>> email.Utils.make_msgid('gnosis')  
'<20021113071050.3861.13687.gnosis@lunatix.com>'
```

### **email.Utils.mktime\_tz(tuple)**

Return a timestamp based on an *email.Utils.pa*

```
>>> email.Utils.mktime_tz((2001, 1,
979224542.0
```

### **email.Utils.parseaddr(address)**

Parse a compound address into the pair (realna

```
>>> email.Utils.parseaddr('David Mer
('David Mertz', 'mertz@gnosis.cx')
```

### **email.Utils.parsedate(datestr)**

Return a date tuple based on an RFC-2822 date

```
>>> email.Utils.parsedate('11 Jan 20
(2001, 1, 11, 14, 49, 2, 0, 0, 0)
```

SEE ALSO: time 86;

### **email.Utils.parsedate\_tz(datestr)**

Return a date tuple based on an RFC-2822 date but adds a tenth tuple field for offset from UTC

### **email.Utils.quote(s)**

Return a string with backslashes and double qu

```
>>> print email.Utils.quote(r'"MyPat  
"MYPath"' is d:\\this\\that
```

### **email.Utils.unquote(s)**

Return a string with surrounding double quotes

```
>>> print email.Utils.unquote('<mert  
mertz@gnosis.cx  
>>> print email.Utils.unquote('"us-a  
us-ascii
```

## **5.1.2 Communicating with Mail Servers**

---

**imaplib • IMAP4 client**

---

The module *imaplib* supports implementing clients in RFC-1730 and RFC-2060. As with the discussion, the documentation aims only to cover the basics of the module. Methods and functions are omitted here. In particular, it is not possible to retrieve messages or create new mailboxes in this book.

The *Python Library Reference* describes the POP3 and IMAP4 protocols. It recommends the use of IMAP4 if your server supports it. IMAP4 indeed has some advantages in some cases, but it is more widespread among both clients and servers. Your specific requirements will dictate the choice.

Aside from using a more efficient transmission (IMAP4 sends whole messages), IMAP4 maintains multiple connections and automates filtering messages by criteria. A typical example might look like the one below. To illustrate a few features, the script promises subject lines, after deleting any that match, to itself retrieve regular messages, only their headers.

## **check\_imap\_subjects.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import imaplib, sys
if len(sys.argv) == 4:
    sys.argv.append('INBOX')
```

```

(host, user, passwd, mbox) = sys.args
i = imaplib.IMAP4(host, port=143)
i.login(user, passwd)
resp = i.select(mbox)
if r[0] <> 'OK':
    sys.stderr.write("Could not select mailbox\n")
    sys.exit()
# delete some spam messages
typ, spamlist = i.search(None, '(SUFFICIENT)')
i.store(' ', ' ', join(spamlist.split()), 'DELETE')
i.expunge()
typ, messnums = i.search(None, 'ALL')
for mess in messnums:
    typ, header = i.fetch(mess, 'RFC822')
    for line in header[0].split('\n'):
        if string.upper(line[:9]) == 'X-SPAM-':
            print line[9:]
i.close()
i.logout()

```

There is a bit more work to this than in the POP3 protocol, but it has many additional capabilities. Unfortunately, much of the work of passing strings with flags and commands, none of which is documented in the *Python Library Reference* or in the source to the *imaplib* module, is probably necessary for complex client applications.



## CLASSES

**imaplib.IMAP4([host="localhost" [port=143]])**

Create an IMAP instance object to manage a host

## METHODS

**imaplib.IMAP4.close()**

Close the currently selected mailbox, and delete the connection. The *imaplib.IMAP4.logout()* method is used to actually close the connection.

**imaplib.IMAP4.expunge()**

Permanently delete any messages marked for deletion.

**imaplib.IMAP4.fetch(message\_set, message\_attrs)**

Return a pair (typ, datalist). The first field typ is the type of the data returned. The second field datalist is a list of returned strings. message\_set is a comma-separated list of message numbers.

message\_parts describe the components of the and so on.

**imaplib.IMAP4.list([dirname="" [,pattern="\*"]])**

Return a (typ,datalist) tuple of all the mailbox glob-style pattern pattern. datalist contains a list of mailbox names. Use this method with *imaplib.IMAP4.search()*, which searches for messages from the currently selected mailbox.

**imaplib.IMAP4.login(user, passwd)**

Connect to the IMAP server specified in the instance's server attribute. Authentication information given by user and password.

**imaplib.IMAP4.logout()**

Disconnect from the IMAP server specified in the instance's server attribute.

**imaplib.IMAP4.search(charset, criterion1 [,criterion2 [,criterion3 [,...]]])**

Return a (typ,messnums) tuple where messnums is a list of message numbers of matching messages. Message criteria are specified by criterion1, criterion2, criterion3, etc.

either be ALL for all messages or flags indicating

**imaplib.IMAP4.select([mbox="INBOX" [,readonly**

Select the current mailbox for operations such as *imaplib.IMAP4.expunge()*. The argument *mbox* read-only allows you to prevent modification to

**SEE ALSO:** email 345; poplib 368; smtpplib 370

---

---

## **poplib • A POP3 client class**

---

---

The module *poplib* supports implementing clients in RFC-1725. As with the discussion of other protocols, only to cover the basics of communicating with may be omitted here.

The *Python Library Reference* describes the POP3 recommends the use of IMAP4 if your server supports technically IMAP indeed has some advantages in more widespread among both clients and servers your specific requirements will dictate the choice

A typical (simple) POP3 client application might use a few methods, this application will print all the p

delete any that look like spam. The example does only their headers.

### **new\_email\_subjects.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import poplib, sys, string
spamlist = []
(host, user, passwd) = sys.argv[1:]
mbox = poplib.POP3(host)
mbox.user(user)
mbox.pass_(passwd)

for i in range(1, mbox.stat()[0]+1):
    # messages use one-based indexing
    headerlines = mbox.top(i, 0)[1]
    for line in headerlines:
        if string.upper(line[:9]) == 'X-SPAM:':
            if -1 <> string.find(line, 'X-SPAM:'):
                spam = string.join(line.split('X-SPAM:')[1:], ' ')
                spamlist.append(spam)
            mbox.delete(i)
        else:
            print line[9:]
```

```
mbox.quit()  
for spam in spamlist:  
    report_to_spamcop(spam)           # as
```

## CLASSES

**poplib.POP3(host [,port=110])**

The *poplib* module provides a single class that connects to a POP3 server at host host, using port port.

## METHODS

**poplib.POP3.apop(user, secret)**

Log in to a server using APOP authentication.

**poplib.POP3.dele(messnum)**

Mark a message for deletion. Normally the actual deletion is done with *poplib.POP3.quit()*, but server implementa

## **poplib.POP3.pass\_(password)**

Set the password to use when communicating with the POP server.

## **poplib.POP3.quit()**

Log off from the connection to the POP server. If there are any deletions to be carried out. Call this method as soon as you have finished with the connection to the POP server; while you are connected, you can receive any incoming messages.

## **poplib.POP3.retr(messnum)**

Return the message numbered messnum (using the form (resp,linelist,octets), where linelist is a list of lines of the message. To re-create the whole message, you can use the following code:

## **poplib.POP3.rset()**

Unmark any messages marked for deletion. Since it is a good practice to mark messages using *poplib.POP3.delete()* you want to erase them. However, *poplib.POP3.rset()* is useful in unusual circumstances occur before the connection is closed.

## **poplib.POP3.top(messnum, lines)**

Retrieve the initial lines of message *messnum*. *lines* lines from the body. The return format is that you will typically be interested in offset 1 of the

## **poplib.POP3.stat()**

Retrieve the status of the POP mailbox in the folder. It gives you the total number of message pending messages.

## **poplib.POP3.user(username)**

Set the username to use when communicating

**SEE ALSO:** *email 345; smtpplib 370; imaplib 36*

---

---

### **smtpplib • SMTP/ESMTP client class**

---

---

The module *smtpplib* supports implementing clients in RFC-821 and RFC-1869. As with the discussion documentation aims only to cover the basics of

methods and functions are omitted here. The n retrieve incoming email, and the module *smtplib*

A typical (simple) SMTP client application might a command-line tool that accepts as a paramet header, constructs the From using environment STDIN. The To and From are also added as RFC

### **send\_email.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import smtplib
from sys import argv, stdin
from os import getenv
host = getenv('HOST', 'localhost')
if len(argv) >= 2:
    to_ = argv[1]
else:
    to_ = raw_input('To: ').strip()
if len(argv) >= 3:
    subject = argv[2]
    body = stdin.read()
else:
    subject = stdin.readline()
    body = subject + stdin.read()
```



```
from_ = "%s@%s" % (getenv('USER', 'u  
mess = '''From: %s\nTo: %s\n\n%s' %  
server = smtp.SMTP(host)  
server.login  
server.sendmail(from_, to_, mess)  
server.quit()
```

## CLASSES

**smtplib.SMTP([host="localhost" [,port=25]])**

Create an instance object that establishes a connection to an SMTP server using port port.

## METHODS

**smtplib.SMTP.login(user, passwd)**

Login to an SMTP server that requires authentication. If authentication fails.

Not all or even most SMTP servers use password authentication, but since not all clients support

often disabled. One commonly used strategy to prevent malicious/spam messages to be sent through this arrangement, an IP address is authorized to use that same address has successfully authenticated the machine. The timeout period is typically a few minutes.

## **smtpplib.SMTP.quit()**

Terminate an SMTP connection.

## **smtpplib.SMTP.sendmail(from\_, to\_, message [,mail\_options [,rcpt\_options]])**

Send the message message with From envelope from from\_. from\_ may either be a string containing a single address or a list of addresses. The message should include any desired RFC-822 headers. Optional arguments mail\_options and rcpt\_options.

**SEE ALSO:** email 345; poplib 368; imaplib 366, 367

## **5.1.3 Message Collections and Message Parts**

<b>mailbox • Work with mailboxes in various ways</b>
------------------------------------------------------

The module *mailbox* provides a uniform interface to popular formats. Each class in the *mailbox* module provides an appropriate format, and returns an instance with a `next()` method that returns each consecutive message with its header. Moreover, the `.next()` method is conformant with the `next()` method of the `Iterator` interface, which lets you loop over messages in recent versions of Python.

By default, the messages returned by `mailbox` are in the *rfc822* format. These message objects provide attributes for the message's header and body. However, the recommendation of this format is to use the *email* module in place of the older *rfc822*. Fortunately, you may use an optional message constructor. The only constraint is that the object must be callable and accept a file-like object as its argument. Here are two logical choices here.

```
>>> import mailbox, email, email.parser
>>> mbox = mailbox.PortableUnixMailbox('mbox')
>>> mbox.next()
<rfc822.Message instance at 0x41d770>
>>> mbox = mailbox.PortableUnixMailbox('mbox', email.parser.Parser())
...
>>> mbox.next()
<email.Message.Message instance at 0x41d770>
>>> mbox = mailbox.PortableUnixMailbox('mbox', email.parser.Parser())
...
>>> mbox.next()
```

<email.Message.Message instance at C

In Python 2.2+ you might structure your applic

## Looping through a mailbox in 2.2+

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
from mailbox import PortableUnixMail
from email import message_from_file
import sys
folder = open(sys.argv[1])
for message in PortableUnixMailbox(f
    # do something with the message.
    print message['Subject']
```

However, in earlier versions, this same code will use the `__getitem__()` magic method. The slightly less elegant application in an older Python is:

## Looping through a mailbox in any version

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
"Subject printer, older Python and r
import sys
```

```
from mailbox import PortableUnixMailbox
mbox = PortableUnixMailbox(open(sys.
while 1:
    message = mbox.next()
    if message is None:
        break
    print message.getheader('Subject
```

## CLASSES

**mailbox.UnixMailbox(file [,factory=rfc822.MessageParser])**

Read a BSD-style mailbox from the file-like object specified, it must be a callable object that accepts a file object (in this case, that object is a portion of an underlying file).

A BSD-style mailbox divides messages with a blank line. In this strict case, the "From\_" line must have a value that matches a regular expression. In most cases, you can use *mailbox.PortableUnixMailbox*, which relaxes the requirement that the message be in a file.

**mailbox.PortableUnixMailbox(file [,factory=rfc822.MessageParser])**

The arguments to this class are the same as for `mailbox.Mailbox`. The order of messages within the mailbox file depends only on the beginning of a line. In practice, this is as much of a guarantee that all mailboxes of interest will be available in the same version.

**`mailbox.BabylMailbox(file [,factory=rfc822.Mailbox])`**

The arguments to this class are the same as for `mailbox.Mailbox`. The order of messages within the mailbox file depends only on the beginning of a line. In practice, this is as much of a guarantee that all mailboxes of interest will be available in the same version.

**`mailbox.MmdfMailbox(file [,factory=rfc822.Mailbox])`**

The arguments to this class are the same as for `mailbox.Mailbox`. The order of messages within the mailbox file depends only on the beginning of a line. In practice, this is as much of a guarantee that all mailboxes of interest will be available in the same version.

**`mailbox.MHMailbox(dirname [,factory=rfc822.Mailbox])`**

The MH format uses the directory structure of the filesystem to organize mail folders. Each message is held in a file. The `mailbox.MHMailbox` is a string giving the name of the directory. The `factory` argument is the same as with `mailbox.Mailbox`.

**mailbox.Maildir(dirname [,factory=rfc822.Mes**

The QMail format, like the MH format, uses the native filesystem to organize mail folders. The string giving the name of the directory to be pr same as with *mailbox.UnixMailbox*.

**SEE ALSO:** email 345; poplib 368; imaplib 366,

---

---

**mimetypes • Guess the MIME type of a file**

---

---

The *mimetypes* module maps file extensions to is a dictionary, but several convenience function files containing additional mappings, and also c ways. As well as actual MIME types, the *mimet*, for example, compression wrapper.

In Python 2.2+, the *mimetypes* module also pr lets instances each maintain their own MIME ty multiple distinct mapping is rare enough not to

## **FUNCTIONS**

**mimetypes.guess\_type(url [,strict=0])**

Return a pair (typ, encoding) based on the file by url. If the strict option is specified with a true value, only one type or encoding is considered. Otherwise, a larger number of wildcards are considered. If either type or encoding cannot be guessed, None is returned.

```
>>> import mimetypes
>>> mimetypes.guess_type('x.abc.gz')
(None, 'gzip')
>>> mimetypes.guess_type('x.tgz')
('application/x-tar', 'gzip')
>>> mimetypes.guess_type('x.ps.gz')
('application/postscript', 'gzip')
>>> mimetypes.guess_type('x.txt')
('text/plain', None)
>>> mimetypes.guess_type('a.xyz')
(None, None)
```

## **mimetypes.guess\_extension(type [,strict=0])**

Return a string indicating a likely extension assuming that the given type is correct. If no extensions are possible, one is returned (generally the default extension for the type, but this is not guaranteed). The argument strict has the same meaning as in *mimetypes.guess\_type()*.

```
>>> print mimetypes.guess_extension('text/plain')
```



None

```
>>> print mimetypes.guess_extension(  
.pdf  
>>> print mimetypes.guess_extension(  
.ai
```

## **mimetypes.init([list-of-files])**

Add the definitions from each filename listed in  
Several default files are examined even if this f  
configuration files may be added as needed on  
system, which uses somewhat different directo  
run:

```
>>> mimetypes.init(['/private/etc/ht  
...                '/private/etc/ht
```

Notice that even if you are specifying only one  
enclose its name inside a list.

## **mimetypes.read\_mime\_types(fname)**

Read the single file named fname and return a  
types.

```
>>> from mimetypes import read_mime_
>>> types = read_mime_types('/privat
>>> for _ in range(5): print types.p
...
('.wbxml', 'application/vnd.wap.wbxml')
('.aiff', 'audio/x-aiff')
('.rm', 'audio/x-pn-realaudio')
('.xbm', 'image/x-xbitmap')
('.avi', 'video/x-msvideo')
```

## ATTRIBUTES

### **mimetypes.common\_types**

Dictionary of widely used, but unofficial MIME types.

### **mimetypes.inited**

True value if the module has been initialized.

### **mimetypes.encodings\_map**

Dictionary of encodings.

## **mimetypes.knownfiles**

List of files checked by default.

## **mimetypes.suffix\_map**

Dictionary of encoding suffixes.

## **mimetypes.types\_map**

Dictionary mapping extensions to MIME types.



## Chapter 5. Internet Tools and Technique

---

### 5.2 World Wide Web Applications

#### 5.2.1 Common Gateway Interface

---

---

#### **cgi • Support for Common Gateway Interf**

---

---

The module *cgi* provides a number of helpful to elements to CGI, basically: (1) Reading query \ requesting browser. The first of these elements just a matter of formatting suitable text to retu is its primary interface; it also contains several here because their use is uncommon (and not l specific needs). See the *Python Library Referen*

#### A CGI PRIMER

A primer on the Common Gateway Interface is application in any programming language that recognizes a request for a CGI application, sets control to the CGI application. By default, this is for the CGI application to run in, but technology some tricks to avoid extra process creation. This but change little from the point of view of the C

A Python CGI script is called in exactly the same between a CGI and a static URL is that the form server conventionally, such scripts are confined another directory name is used); Web servers (scripts may live. When a CGI script runs, it is e STDOUT, followed by a blank line, then finally s often an HTML document. That is really all the

CGI requests may utilize one of two methods: I associated query data to the STDIN of the CGI script). A GET request puts the query in an env There is not a lot of difference between the two query information in a Uniform Resource Identifier without HTML forms and saved/bookmarked. For query to a script example discussed below:

<<http://gnosis.cx/cgi-bin/simple.cgi?this=tha>

You do not actually *need* the *cgi* module to create the script simple.cgi mentioned above:

## **simple.cgi**

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import os,sys
print "Content-Type: text/html"
print
print "<html><head><title>Environmer
for k,v in os.environ.items():
    print k, "::",
    if len(v)<=40: print v
    else:          print v[:37]+"...
print "&lt;STDIN&gt; ::", sys.stdin.
print "</pre></body></html>"
```

I happen to have composed the above sample (script) from another Web page. Here is one that

**<http://gnosis.cx/simpleform.html>**

```
<html><head><title>Test simple.cgi</
<form action="cgi-bin/simple.cgi" me
<input type="hidden" name="this" val
<input type="text" value="" name="sp
<input type="submit" value="GET">
```

```
</form>
<form action="cgi-bin/simple.cgi" me
<input type="hidden" name="this" val
<input type="text" value="" name="sp
<input type="submit" value="POST">
</form>
</body></html>
```

It turns out that the script `simple.cgi` is moderate what it has to work with. For example, the query by the GET form on `simpleform.html`) returns a (edited):

```
DOCUMENT_ROOT :: /www/gnosis
HTTP_ACCEPT_ENCODING :: gzip, deflate
CONTENT_TYPE :: application/x-www-fc
SERVER_PORT :: 80
REMOTE_ADDR :: 151.203.xxx.xxx
SERVER_NAME :: www.gnosis.cx
HTTP_USER_AGENT :: Mozilla/5.0 (Maci
REQUEST_URI :: /cgi-bin/simple.cgi?t
QUERY_STRING :: this=that&spam=eggs+
SERVER_PROTOCOL :: HTTP/1.1
HTTP_HOST :: gnosis.cx
REQUEST_METHOD :: GET
```

```
SCRIPT_NAME :: /cgi-bin/simple.cgi
SCRIPT_FILENAME :: /www/gnosis/cgi-k
HTTP_REFERER :: http://gnosis.cx/sin
<STDIN> ::
```

A few environment variables have been omitted Web servers and setups. The most important variables perhaps want to make other decisions based on HTTP\_USER\_AGENT, or HTTP\_REFERER (yes, that STDIN is empty in this case. However, user will give a slightly different response (trimmed)

```
CONTENT_LENGTH :: 28
REQUEST_URI :: /cgi-bin/simple.cgi
QUERY_STRING ::
REQUEST_METHOD :: POST
<STDIN> :: this=that&spam=eggs+are+c
```

The CONTENT\_LENGTH environment variable is and STDIN contains the query. The rest of the (

A CGI script need not utilize any query data and example, on some of my Web pages, I utilize a reports back who "looks" at it. Web bugs have send HTML mail and want to verify receipt cover some additional information about visitors to a might contain, at bottom:



```
Egg</dt>\n<dd>",
else:
    print "<dt>Eggs</dt>\n<dd>", egg
```

For special circumstances you might wish to change the default by specifying an optional (named) argument. The argument headers read for POST requests. The argument headers headers to values usually consisting of {"Content-Type": "text/html"} the environment if no argument is given. The argument headers environment mapping is found. If you specify a argument headers will be included for a blank HTML form field mapping is specified, a ValueError will be raised if there

## METHODS

The methods `.keys()`, `.values()`, and `.has_key()`  
The method `.items()`, however, is not supported

## cgi.FieldStorage.getfirst(key [,default=None])

Python 2.2+ has this method to return exactly  
You cannot rely on which such string value will  
form fields have the same namebut you are ass

a list.

## **cgi.FieldStorage.getlist(key [,default=None])**

Python 2.2+ has this method to return a list of matches on the key key. This allows you to loop about whether they are a list or a single string.

```
>>> spam = form.getlist('spam')
>>> for s in spam:
...     print s
```

## **cgi.FieldStorage.getvalue(key [,default=None**

Return a string or list of strings that are the value of key. If the argument default is specified, return the specified value if key is not found. If indexing by name, this method retrieves actual .value attribute.

```
>>> import sys, cgi, os
>>> from cStringIO import StringIO
>>> sys.stdin = StringIO("this=that&that=this")
>>> os.environ['REQUEST_METHOD'] = 'POST'
>>> form = cgi.FieldStorage()
```

```
>>> form.getvalue('this')
['that', 'other']
>>> form['this']
[MiniFieldStorage('this', 'that'), Mir
```

## ATTRIBUTES

### **cgi.FieldStorage.file**

If the object handled is an uploaded file, this attribute contains a file object. While you can read the entire file contents as a string, you may want to read it line-by-line using the `.readlines()` method of the file object.

### **cgi.FieldStorage.filename**

If the object handled is an uploaded file, this attribute contains the filename. An HTML form to upload a file looks something like

```
<form action="upload.cgi" method="POST"
      enctype="multipart/form-data">
  Name: <input name="" type="file" size="" />
  <input type="submit" value="Upload" />
```

```
</form>
```

Web browsers typically provide a point-and-click

## **cgi.FieldStorage.list**

This attribute contains the list of mapping objects. Each object in the list is itself a *cgi.MinifieldStorage* if you upload files that themselves contain multiple

```
>>> form.list
[MiniFieldStorage('this', 'that'),
MiniFieldStorage('this', 'other'),
MiniFieldStorage('spam', 'good eggs')]
```

**SEE ALSO:** [cgi.FieldStorage.getvalue\(\) 380](#);

## **cgi.FieldStorage.value**

## **cgi.MinifieldStorage.value**

The string value of a storage object.

**SEE ALSO:** [urllib 388](#); [cgitb 382](#); [dict 24](#);



## **cgitb • Traceback manager for CGI scripts**

---

Python 2.2 added a useful little module for debugging CGI scripts. For earlier Python versions from <http://lfw.c> developing CGI scripts is that their normal output goes to the underlying Web server and forwarded to an external program. If a traceback occurs due to a script error, that output goes to the external program (not in a CGI context). A more useful action is either to capture the output and display them in the client browser.

Using the *cgitb* module to examine CGI script errors. At the top of your CGI script, simply include the line

### **Traceback enabled CGI script**

```
import cgitb
cgitb.enable()
```

If any exceptions are raised, a pretty-formatted traceback will be displayed in a browser window with a name starting with @).

### **METHODS**

**`cgitb.enable([display=1 [,logdir=None [context=...]]])`**

Turn on traceback reporting. The argument displayed to the browser you might not want this to happen will have little idea what to make of such a report (letting them see it). If logdir is specified, traceback will be written to a file in that directory. The argument context indicates how many lines of source code to show around the point where an error occurred.

For earlier versions of Python, you will have to use a different approach is:

## Debugging CGI script in Python

```
import sys
sys.stderr = sys.stdout
def main():
    import cgi
    # ...do the actual work of the CGI script
    # perhaps ending with:
    print template % script_dictionary
print "Content-type: text/html\n\n"
main()
```

This approach is not bad for quick debugging; however, it is not ideal. Unfortunately, though, the traceback (if one occurs) will not be visible to the user, so that you need to go to "View Source" in a browser to see it.



traceback. With a few more lines, we can add a

## Debugging/logging CGI script in Python

```
import sys, traceback
print "Content-type: text/html\n\n"
try:                                # use explicit ex
    import my_cgi                   # main CGI functi
    my_cgi.main()
except:
    import time
    errtime = '--- ' + time.ctime(tim
    errlog = open('cgi_errlog', 'a')
    errlog.write(errtime)
    traceback.print_exc(None, errlog
    print "<html>\n<head>"
    print "<title>CGI Error Encounte
    print "<body><p>A problem was er
    print "<p>Please check the serve
    print "</body></html>"
```

The second approach is quite generic as a wrap write. Just import a different CGI module as ne more detailed or friendlier.

SEE ALSO: `cgi` 376;

## 5.2.2 Parsing, Creating, and Manipulating HTML

### **htmlentitydefs • HTML character entity re**

The module *htmlentitydefs* provides a mapping symbolic names of corresponding HTML 2.0 entities have equivalents in the ISO-8859-1 character set HTML numeric references instead.

## ATTRIBUTES

### **htmlentitydefs.entitydefs**

A dictionary mapping symbolic names to character

```
>>> import htmlentitydefs
>>> htmlentitydefs.entitydefs['omega']
'&#969;'
>>> htmlentitydefs.entitydefs['uuml']
'\xfc'
```

For some purposes, you might want a reverse of the ISO 8859-1 characters.

```
>>> from htmlentitydefs import entit
>>> iso8859_1 = dict([(v,k) for k,v
>>> iso8859_1['\xfc']
'uuml'
```

## **HTMLParser • Simple HTML and XHTML pa**

The module *HTMLParser* is an event-based framework in contrast to *htmlib*, which is based on *sgmlib*, *l* expressions to identify the parts of an HTML document and so on. The different internal implementations of the modules.

I find the module *HTMLParser* much more straightforward, therefore *HTMLParser* is documented in detail in *htmlib* more or less *requires* the use of the *and* no extra difficulty in letting *HTMLParser* make *o* to do this, for example, if you have an existing document format.

Both *HTMLParser* and *htmlib* provide an interface to expat XML parsers. That is, a documentHTML object with events, with no data structure created to represent

documents, another processing API is the Document as an in-memory hierarchical data structure.

In principle, you could use *xml.sax* or *xml.dom* conformed with XHTML that is, tightened up HTML. The problem is that very little existing HTML is XHTML. HTML does not require closing tags in many cases (to be closed. But implicit closing tags can be introduced with certain names). A popular tool like tidy does this way. The more significant problem is semantics: quite lax about tag matching. Web browsers that parse pages are quite complex software projects.

For example, a snippet like that below is quite lenient.

```
<p>The <a href="http://ietf.org">IETF  
    <i>Be lenient in what you <b>accept
```

If you know even a little HTML, you know that if I wanted the whole quote in italics, the word *accept* would be a data structure such as a DOM object is difficult to parse. (If fairly lenient about what it will process; however, if not any other problem), the module will raise the exception.

**SEE ALSO:** *htmllib* 285; *xml.sax* 405;

## CLASSES

## HTMLParser.HTMLParser()

The *HTMLParser* module contains the single class *HTMLParser* which is fairly useful, since it does not actually do any parsing. Utilizing *HTMLParser.HTMLParser()* is a matter of subclassing and handling the events you are interested in.

If it is important to keep track of the structural elements of a document, you will need to maintain a data structure. Here is an example:

### HTMLParser\_stack.py

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
import HTMLParser

html = """<html><head><title>Advice<
<p>The <a href="http://ietf.org">IETF
    <i>Be strict in what you <b>send<
</body></html>
"""

tagstack = []
class ShowStructure(HTMLParser.HTMLParser):
    def handle_starttag(self, tag, attrs):
```

```

def handle_endtag(self, tag): ta
def handle_data(self, data):
    if data.strip():
        for tag in tagstack: sys
        sys.stdout.write(' >> %s
ShowStructure().feed(html)

```

Running this optimistic parser produces:

```

% ./HTMLParser_stack.py
/html/head/title >> Advice
/html/body/p >> The
/html/body/p/a >> IETF admonishes:
/html/body/p/a/i >> Be strict in wha
/html/body/p/a/i/b >> send
/html/body/p/a/i >> .

```

You could, of course, use this context informati  
particular bit of content (or when you process t

A more pessimistic approach is to maintain a "f  
that will remove the most recent starttag corre  
<p> and <blockquote> tags from nesting if no  
do more along this line for a production applica  
good start:

```

class TagStack:
    def __init__(self, lst=[]): self
    def __getitem__(self, pos): retu
    def append(self, tag):
        # Remove every paragraph-lev
        if tag.lower() in ('p','bloc
            self.lst = [t for t in s
                        if t not i
        self.lst.append(tag)
    def pop(self, tag):
        # "Pop" by tag from nearest
        self.lst.reverse()
        try:
            pos = self.lst.index(tag
        except ValueError:
            raise HTMLParser.HTMLPar
        del self.lst[pos]
        self.lst.reverse()
tagstack = TagStack()

```

This more lenient stack structure suffices to pa  
given in the module discussion.

## **METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES**

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.close()**

Close all buffered data, and treat any current d

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.feed(data)**

Send some additional HTML data to the parser data. You may feed the instance with whatever be processed, maintaining the previous state.

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.getpos()**

Return the current line number and offset. Gen report or analyze the state of the processing of

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_charref(nan**

Method called when a character reference is en references may be interspersed with element to construct a Unicode character from a character Unicode (or raw character reference) to *HTMLP*

```
class CharacterData(HTMLParser.HTMLP
```



```
def handle_charref(self, name):
    import unicodedata
    char = unicodedata.name(unic
    self.handle_data(char)
    [...other methods...]
```

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_comment(d**

Method called when a comment is encountered with `---`. The argument data contains the content of the comment.

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_data(data)**

Method called when content data is encountered. The argument data contains the content of the data. If the data contains a character or entity reference, the respective handler methods will be called in an

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_decl(data)**

Method called when a declaration is encountered. The argument data contains the contents of the declaration. Declarations like a type of declaration, but are handled by the `HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle_comment()` method.

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_endtag(tag)**

Method called when an endtag is encountered. (without brackets).

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_entityref(name)**

Method called when an entity reference is encountered. Entity references occur in the middle of an element text with calls to *HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_data*. The latter method with decoded entities; for example:

```
class EntityData(HTMLParser.HTMLParser):
    def handle_entityref(self, name):
        import htmlentitydefs
        self.handle_data(htmlentitydefs.entitydefs[name])
    [...other methods...]
```

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_pi(data)**

Method called when a processing instruction (PI) is encountered. They end with `?>`. They are less common in HTML than data contains the contents of the PI.

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_endtag**

Method called when an XHTML-style empty tag

```

```

The arguments tag and attrs are identical to the *HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_starttag()*.

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.handle\_starttag(tag**

Method called when a starttag is encountered. (without brackets), and the argument attrs contains such as `[("href", "http://ietf.org")]`.

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.lasttag**

The last tagstart or endthat was encountered. (structure like those discussed is more useful. But You should treat it as read-only.

## **HTMLParser.HTMLParser.reset()**

Restore the instance to its initial state, lose any within unclosed tags).

### 5.2.3 Accessing Internet Resources

#### **urllib • Open an arbitrary URL**

The module *urllib* provides convenient, high-level. While *urllib* lets you connect to a variety of protocols, connections especially issues of complex authentication instead. However, *urllib* does provide hooks for

The interface to *urllib* objects is file-like. You can get a connection for almost any function or class that the World Wide Web, File Transfer Protocol (FTP) is treated, almost transparently, as if it were part

Although the module provides two classes that give you more tuned control, generally in practice the functions you need to the *urllib* module.

## **FUNCTIONS**

**urllib.urlopen(url [,data])**

Return a file-like object that connects to the URL named in `url`. This resource may be an HTTP, FTP, or other protocol. If the `data` argument is specified, it can be specified to make a POST request. If `url` is a URL-encoded string, which may be created by the `urllib.quote()` function, and if the `method` is specified with an HTTP URL, the GET method is used.

Depending on the type of resource specified, a different object is returned, but each provides the methods: `.close()`, `.info()`, and `.geturl()` (but not `.xreadlines()`).

Most of the provided methods are shared by file objects. The `url` argument and return values are actual URLs. The `url` attribute contains the URL that the object connects to, and the `url` method returns the URL.

The method `.info()` returns `mimertools.Message` objects. This object is documented in detail in this book. This object is an `email.Message.Message` object. Specifically, it represents an email message and provides dictionary-like indexing:

```
>>> u = urllib.urlopen('urlopen.py')
>>> print 'u.info()'
<mimertools.Message instance at 0x62f...
>>> print u.info()
Content-Type: text/x-python
Content-Length: 577
Last-modified: Fri, 10 Aug 2001 06:00:00
```

```
>>> u.info().keys()
['last-modified', 'content-length',
>>> u.info() ['content-type']
'text/x-python']
```

**SEE ALSO:** `urllib.urlretrieve()` 390; `urllib.urlenc`

**`urllib.urlretrieve(url [,fname [,repthook [,data`**

Save the resources named in the argument `url`. If `fname` is specified, that filename will be used; otherwise, a filename will be generated. The optional argument `data` may contain data to be sent in an HTTP POST request, as with `urllib.urlopen()`.

The optional argument `repthook` may be used to implement a progress meter for downloads. This hook is called repeatedly with the arguments `bl_transferred`, `total_size`, and `file_size`. `bl_transferred` is the number of bytes transferred so far, `total_size` is the total size of the file, and `file_size` will *approximately* equal `bl_transferred` when the file is fully transferred.

The return value of `urllib.urlretrieve()` is a pair of values: the first is the name of the created file, the same as the `fname` argument if specified; the second return value is a `mimetypes.Message` object, like the `urllib.urlopen` object.

**SEE ALSO:** `urllib.urlopen()` 389; `urllib.urlencod`

## **urllib.quote(s [,safe="/"])**

Return a string with special characters escaped for being quoted.

```
>>> urllib.quote('/~username/special  
'/%7Eusername/special%26odd%21')
```

## **urllib.quote\_plus(s [,safe="/"])**

Same as *urllib.quote()*, but encode spaces as +

## **urllib.unquote(s)**

Return an unquoted string. Inverse operation o

## **urllib.unquote\_plus(s)**

Return an unquoted string. Inverse operation o

## **urllib.urlencode(query)**

Return a urlencoded query for an HTTP POST on either a dictionary-like object or a sequence of preserved in the generated query.

```
>>> query = urllib.urlencode([('hl',  
...                             ('q', '  
>>> print query  
hl=en&q=Text+Processing+in+Python  
>>> u = urllib.urlopen('http://googl
```

Notice, however, that at least as of the moment results on this request because a Python shell provides a SOAP interface that is more lenient, create a custom *urllib* class that spoofed an acc

## CLASSES

You can change the behavior of the basic *urllib*. by substituting your own class into the module to use *urllib* classes:

```
import urllib  
class MyOpener(urllib.FancyURLopener)  
    pass  
urllib._urlopener = MyOpener()
```



```
u = urllib.urlopen("http://some.url")
```

## **urllib.URLopener([proxies [,\*\*x509]])**

Base class for reading URLs. Generally you should use *urllib.FancyURLopener* unless you need to implement a custom opener.

The argument `proxies` may be specified with a dictionary mapping protocol names to proxy resources through a proxy. The keyword argument `userpwd` is for basic authentication; specifically, you should give `username:password` in that case.

```
import urllib
proxies = {'http': 'http://192.168.1.1:8080'}
urllib._urlopener = urllib.URLopener
```

## **urllib.FancyURLopener([proxies [,\*\*x509]])**

The optional initialization arguments are the same as for *urllib.URLopener*. This class is a subclass of *urllib.URLopener* and further to use other arguments. This class handles HTTP redirect codes, as well as 401 authentication. *urllib.FancyURLopener* is the one actually used by the `urllib` module. You can use it to add custom capabilities.

## METHODS AND ATTRIBUTES

**`urllib.URLFancyopener.get_user_passwd(host)`**

Return the pair (user,passwd) to use for authenticating the method `.prompt_user_passwd()` in turn. In the absence of a GUI login interface or obtain authentication information such as a database.

**`urllib.ULopener.open(url [,data])`**

**`urllib.URLFancyopener.open(url [,data])`**

Open the URL url, optionally using HTTP POST (data) if data is not None.

SEE ALSO: `urllib.urlopen()` 389;

**`urllib.ULopener.open_unknown (url [,data])`**

**`urllib.URLFancyopener.open_unknown (url [,data])`**

If the scheme is not recognized, the `.open()` method will raise an exception. You can implement error reporting or fallback behavior by subclassing the `ULopener` or `URLFancyopener` classes.

**`urllib.URLFancyopener.prompt_user_passwd(host)`**

Prompt for the authentication pair (user,password) prompt within a GUI. If the authentication is not possible, means, directly overriding .get\_user\_passwd()

**urllib.URLopener.retrieve(url [,fname [,report\_hook]])**  
**urllib.URLFancyopener.retrieve(url [,fname [,report\_hook]])**

Copies the URL url to the local file named fname. If report\_hook is specified, use the optional HTTP F

**SEE ALSO:** urllib.urlretrieve() 390;

**urllib.URLopener.version**  
**urllib.URLFancyopener.version**

The User Agent string reported to a server is `urllib/##`, where the *urllib* version number is used.

---

---

## **urlparse • Parse Uniform Resource Locator**

---

---

The module *urlparse* support just one fairly simple enough for quick implementations to get wrong resources on the Internet: access protocol, net

fragment. Using *urlparse*, you can break out and generate URLs. The format of URLs is based

Notice that the *urlparse* module does not parse but merely returns them as a field. For example `ftp://guest:gnosis@192.168.1.102:21//tmp/M/` network (at least at the moment this is written) retrieve this file. Parsing this fairly complicated

```
>>> import urlparse
>>> url = 'ftp://guest:gnosis@192.168.1.102:21//tmp/M/'
>>> urlparse.urlparse(url)
('ftp', 'guest:gnosis@192.168.1.102:', '', '', '', '')
```

While this information is not incorrect, this network all but the host are optional. The actual structure uses bracket nesting to indicate optional components:

```
[user[:password]@]host[:port]
```

The following mini-module will let you further parse

## **location\_parse.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
```

```

def location_parse(netloc):
    "Return tuple (user, passwd, host, port)
    if '@' not in netloc:
        netloc = ':@' + netloc
    login, net = netloc.split('@')
    if ':' not in login:
        login += ':'
    user, passwd = login.split(':')
    if ':' not in net:
        net += ':'
    host, port = net.split(':')
    return (user, passwd, host, port)

#-- specify network location on command line
if __name__ == '__main__':
    import sys
    print location_parse(sys.argv[1])

```

## FUNCTIONS

**urlparse.urlparse(url [,def\_scheme="" [,fragment="" [,password="" [,username="" [,hostname="" ]]]]]])**

Return a tuple consisting of six components of a URL (scheme, netloc, path, query, fragment). A URL is assumed to follow the format:

query#fragment. If a default scheme `def_scheme` is in case no scheme is encoded in the URL itself. fragments will not be split from other fields.

```
>>> from urlparse import urlparse
>>> urlparse('gnosis.cx/path/sub/file')
('http', '', 'gnosis.cx/path/sub/file')
>>> urlparse('gnosis.cx/path/sub/file')
('http', '', 'gnosis.cx/path/sub/file')
>>> urlparse('http://gnosis.cx/path/...
...          'gopher', 1)
('http', 'gnosis.cx', '/path/file.cc')
>>> urlparse('http://gnosis.cx/path/...
...          'gopher', 0)
('http', 'gnosis.cx', '/path/file.cc')
```

## **`urlparse.urlunparse(tup)`**

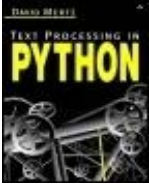
Construct a URL from a tuple containing the fields returned by `urlparse`. The returned URL has canonical form (redundancy is removed). `urlparse.urlunparse()` and `urlparse.urlparse()` are not precisely inverse functions. `urlunparse(urlparse(s))` should be idempotent.

## **`urlparse.urljoin(base, file)`**

Return a URL that has the same base path as b  
example:

```
>>> from urlparse import urljoin
>>> urljoin('http://somewhere.lan/pa
...         'sub/other.html
'http://somewhere.lan/path/sub/other
```

In Python 2.2+ the functions *urlparse.urlsplit()*  
These differ from *urlparse.urlparse()* and *urlpai*  
does not split out params from path.



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Chapter 5. Internet Tools and Techniques

### 5.3 Synopses of Other Internet Modules

There are a variety of Internet-related modules in the standard library that will not be covered here in their specific usage. In the first place, there are two general aspects to writing Internet applications. The first aspect is the parsing, processing, and generation of messages that conform to various protocol requirements. These tasks are solidly inside the realm of text processing and should be covered in this book. The second aspect, however, are the issues of actually sending a message "over the wire": choosing ports and network protocols, handshaking, validation, and so on. While these tasks are important,



they are outside the scope of this book. The synopses below will point you towards appropriate modules, though; the standard documentation, Python interactive help, or other texts can help with the details.

A second issue comes up also, moreover. As Internet standards usually canonicalized in RFCs have evolved, and as Python libraries have become more versatile and robust, some newer modules have superceded older ones. In a similar way, for example, the *re* module replaced the older *regex* module. In the interests of backwards compatibility, Python has not dropped any Internet modules from its standard distributions. Nonetheless, the *email* module represents the current "best practice" for most tasks related to email and newsgroup message handling. The modules *mimify*, *mimetools*, *MimeWriter*, *multifile*, and *rfc822* are likely to be utilized in existing code, but for new applications, it is better to use the capabilities in *email* in their stead.

As well as standard library modules, a few third-party tools deserve special mention (at the bottom of this section). A large number of Python developers have created tools for

various Internet-related tasks, but a small number of projects have reached a high degree of sophistication and a widespread usage.

### **5.3.1 Standard Internet-Related Tools**

#### **asyncore**

Asynchronous socket service clients and servers.

#### **Cookie**

Manage Web browser cookies. Cookies are a common mechanism for managing state in Web-based applications. RFC-2109 and RFC-2068 describe the encoding used for cookies, but in practice MSIE is not very standards compliant, so the parsing is relaxed in the *Cookie* module.

**SEE ALSO:** `cgi` 376; `httplib` 396;

## email.Charset

Work with character set encodings at a fine-tuned level. Other modules within the *email* package utilize this module to provide higher-level interfaces. If you need to dig deeply into character set conversions, you might want to use this module directly.

**SEE ALSO:** [email 345](#); [email.Header 351](#); [unicode 423](#); [codecs 189](#);

## ftplib

Support for implementing custom File Transfer Protocol (FTP) clients. This protocol is detailed in RFC-959. For a full FTP application, *ftplib* provides a very good starting point; for the simple capability to retrieve publicly accessible files over FTP, *urllib.urlopen()* is more direct.

**SEE ALSO:** [urllib 388](#); [urllib2 398](#);

## gopherlib

Gopher protocol client interface. As much as I am still personally fond of the gopher protocol, it is used so rarely that it is not worth documenting here.

## httplib

Support for implementing custom Web clients. Higher-level access to the HTTP and HTTPS protocols than using raw *sockets* on ports 80 or 443, but lower-level, and more communications oriented, than using the higher-level *urllib* to access Web resources in a file-like way.

**SEE ALSO:** [urllib 388](#); [socket 397](#);

## ic, icopen

Internet access configuration (Macintosh).

## icopen

Internet Config replacement for `open()`

(Macintosh).

## **imghdr**

Recognize image file formats based on their first few bytes.

## **mailcap**

Examine the mailcap file on Unix-like systems. The files `/etc/mailcap`, `/usr/etc/mailcap`, `/usr/local/etc/mailcap`, and `$HOME/.mailcap` are typically used to configure MIME capabilities in client applications like mail readers and Web browsers (but less so now than a few years ago). See RFC-1524.

## **mhlib**

Interface to MH mailboxes. The MH format consists of a directory structure that mirrors the folder organization of messages. Each message is contained in its own file. While the MH format is in many ways *better*, the Unix

mailbox format seems to be more widely used. Basic access to a single folder in an MH hierarchy can be achieved with the *mailbox.MHMailbox* class, which satisfies most working requirements.

**SEE ALSO:** mailbox 372; email 345;

## **mimetools**

Various tools used by MIME-reading or MIME-writing programs.

## **MimeWriter**

Generic MIME writer.

## **mimify**

Mimification and unmimification of mail messages.

## **netrc**

Examine the netrc file on Unix-like systems. The file `$HOME/.netrc` is typically used to configure FTP clients.

**SEE ALSO:** `ftplib` 395; `urllib` 388;

## **nntplib**

Support for Network News Transfer Protocol (NNTP) client applications. This protocol is defined in RFC-977. Although Usenet has a different distribution system from email, the message format of NNTP messages still follows the format defined in RFC-822. In particular, the *email* package, or the *rfc822* module, are useful for creating and modifying news messages.

**SEE ALSO:** `email` 345; `rfc822` 397;

## **nsremote**

Wrapper around Netscape OSA modules (Macintosh).

## **rfc822**

RFC-822 message manipulation class. The *email* package is intended to supercede *rfc822*, and it is better to use *email* for new application development.

**SEE ALSO:** email 345; poplib 368; mailbox 372; smtp lib 370;

## **select**

Wait on I/O completion, such as sockets.

## **sndhdr**

Recognize sound file formats based on their first few bytes.

## **socket**

Low-level interface to BSD sockets. Used to communicate with IP addresses at the level



underneath protocols like HTTP, FTP, POP3, Telnet, and so on.

**SEE ALSO:** `ftplib` 395; `gopherlib` 395; `httplib` 396; `imaplib` 366; `nntplib` 397; `poplib` 368; `smtplib` 370; `telnetlib` 397;

## SocketServer

Asynchronous I/O on sockets. Under Unix, pipes can also be monitored with *select*. *socket* supports SSL in recent Python versions.

## telnetlib

Support for implementing custom telnet clients. This protocol is detailed in RFC-854. While possibly useful for intranet applications, Telnet is an entirely unsecured protocol and should not really be used on the Internet. Secure Shell (SSH) is an encrypted protocol that otherwise is generally similar in capability to Telnet. There is no support for SSH in the Python standard library, but third-party options exist, such as *pyssh*. At worst, you can

script an SSH client using a tool like the third-party *pyexpect*.

## **urllib2**

An enhanced version of the *urllib* module that adds specialized classes for a variety of protocols. The main focus of *urllib2* is the handling of authentication and encryption methods.

**SEE ALSO:** [urllib 388](#);

## **Webbrowser**

Remote-control interfaces to some browsers.

### **5.3.2 Third-Party Internet Related Tools**

There are many very fine Internet-related tools that this book cannot discuss, but to which no slight is intended. A good index to such tools is the relevant page at the Vaults of Parnassus:

<<http://py.vaults.ca/apyllo.py/812237977>>

## Quixote

In brief, *Quixote* is a templating system for HTML delivery. More so than systems like PHP, ASP, and JSP to an extent, *Quixote* puts an emphasis on Web application structure more than page appearance. The home page for *Quixote* is <<http://www.mems-exchange.org/software/quixote/>>

## Twisted

To describe *Twisted*, it is probably best simply to quote from Twisted Matrix Laboratories' Web site <<http://www.twistedmatrix.com/>>:

Twisted is a framework, written in Python, for writing networked applications. It includes implementations of a number of commonly used network services such as a Web server, an IRC chat server, a mail server, a relational database interface and an object broker. Developers can build

applications using all of these services as well as custom services that they write themselves. Twisted also includes a user authentication system that controls access to services and provides services with user context information to implement their own security models.

While *Twisted* overlaps significantly in purpose with *Zope*, *Twisted* is generally lower-level and more modular (which has both pros and cons). Some protocols supported by *Twisted* usually both server and client and implemented in pure Python are SSH; FTP; HTTP; NNTP; SOCKSv4; SMTP; IRC; Telnet; POP3; AOL's instant messaging TOC; OSCAR, used by AOL-IM as well as ICQ; DNS; MouseMan; finger; Echo, discard, chargen, and friends; Twisted Perspective Broker, a remote object protocol; and XML-RPC.

## Zope

*Zope* is a sophisticated, powerful, and just plain *complicated* Web application server. It incorporates everything from dynamic page generation, to database interfaces, to Web-

based administration, to back-end scripting in several styles and languages. While the learning curve is steep, experienced Zope developers can develop and manage Web applications more easily, reliably, and faster than users of pretty much any other technology.

The home page for Zope is  
<<http://zope.org/>>.

---

**Team-Fly**

◀ Previous

Next ▶

[Top](#)

## Chapter 5. Internet Tools and Techniques

---

### 5.4 Understanding XML

Extensible Markup Language (XML) is a text format for storage and transport requirements. Parsing is an important element of many text processing applications. This chapter discusses techniques for dealing with XML in Python. While XML is simplifying the exchange of complex and hierarchical data into a standard of considerable complexity. This chapter provides details of XML tools; an excellent book dedicated to this topic is

*Python & XML*, Christopher A. Jones & Fred L. Oki, 200128-2.

The XML format is sufficiently rich to represent almost any data structure more straightforwardly than others. A task that XML is well-suited for is marking up text documentation, books, articles, etc. XML is probably used more often to represent containers, and so on. In many of these cases, XML is extra verbiage. XML itself is more like a metalanguage.

syntax constraints that any XML document must follow. Document formats are defined as XML *dialects*. A dialect is a set of tags that are used within a type of document. A document that uses those tags is called an XML *document*. What I refer to as an XML *dialect* is called "an *application* of XML."

## THE DATA MODEL

At base, XML has two ways to represent data. Names and values. Both names and values are Unicode strings, but values frequently encode other basic data types. XML Schemas. Attribute names are mildly restricted in XML markup; attribute values can encode any string and are escaped. XML attribute values are whitespace restricted and can itself also be escaped. A bare example is:

```
>>> from xml.dom import minidom
>>> x = '<x a="b" d="e f g" num="38">c</x>'
>>> d = minidom.parseString(x)
>>> d.firstChild.attributes.items()
[(u'a', u'b'), (u'num', u'38'), (u'd', u'e f g')]
```

As with a Python dictionary, no order is defined for the attributes of a tag.

The second way XML represents data is by nesting elements. A tag together with a corresponding "close tag"

an ordered sequence of *subelements*. The subelements can be nested subelements. A general term for any parameter, an attribute, or one of the special parameters is *subelement*. For example, an element that contains some subelements:

```
>>> x = '''<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8">
... <root>
...   <a>Some data</a>
...   <b data="more data" />
...   <c data="a list">
...     <d>item 1</d>
...     <d>item 2</d>
...   </c>
... </root>'''
>>> d = minidom.parseString(x)
>>> d.normalize()
>>> for node in d.documentElement.childNodes:
...     print node
...
<DOM Text node "
">
<DOM Element: a at 7033280>
<DOM Text node "
">
<DOM Element: b at 7051088>
```



```
<DOM Text node "  
  ">  
<DOM Element: c at 7053696>  
<DOM Text node "  
">  
>>> d.documentElement.childNodes[3].  
[(u'data', u'more data')]
```

There are several things to notice about the Python

## **1. The "document element," named root is subelement nodes, named a, b, and c.**

- Whitespace is preserved within elements. The between the subelements make up several text intermix, each potentially meaningful. Spacing nonetheless also often used for visual clarity (a
- The example contains an XML declaration, <? included.
- Any given element may contain attributes *and*

## **OTHER XML FEATURES**

Besides regular elements and text nodes, XML has "special" nodes. Comments are common and used

be hand edited at some point (or even potentially how a document is to be handled. Document type validity rules for where elements and attributes CDATA lets you embed mini-XML documents or documents, while leaving markup untouched. E

```
<?xml version="1.0" ?>
<!DOCTYPE root SYSTEM "sometype.dtd"
<root>
<!-- This is a comment -->
This is text data inside the <root>
<![CDATA[Embedded (not well-formed)
    <this><that> >>string<< </t
</root>
```

XML documents may be either "well-formed" or indicates that a document obeys the proper syntax in general: All tags are either self-closed or follow a specific pattern; characters are escaped; tags are properly hierarchical. Some particular documents can also fail to be well-formed XML documents sensu stricto, but merely fragments. Well-formed XML can be found at <http://www.w3.org/TR/xml11/>.

Beyond well-formedness, some XML documents document matches a further grammatical specification: Document Type Definition (DTD), or in an XML Schema. The most

W3C XML Schema specification, found in form at <http://www.w3.org/TR/xmlschema-0/> and in schema specifications, however one popular alternative is documented at <http://www.oasis-open.org/cc>

The grammatical specifications indicated by DTDs can specify that certain subelements must occur a certain cardinality and order. Or, certain attributes may be optional. In the simple case, the following DTD is one that the following XML document would conform to. There are an infinite number of DTDs but each one describes a slightly different *range*

```
<!ELEMENT root ((a|OTHER-A)?, b, c*)
<!ELEMENT a (#PCDATA)>
<!ELEMENT b EMPTY>
<!ATTLIST b data CDATA #REQUIRED
           NOT-THERE (this | that)
<!ELEMENT c (d+)>
<!ATTLIST c data CDATA #IMPLIED>
<!ELEMENT d (#PCDATA)>
```

The W3C recommendation on the XML standard features of the above DTD example can be noted. The attribute NOT-THERE are permitted by this DTD. The sample XML document. The quantifications ?, \* and the sequence operator have similar meaning as in regular expressions. Attributes may be required or optional as well as

value types; for example, the data attribute must be one of the values in the `enum` attribute. There attribute may contain this or that only.

Schemas go farther than DTDs, in a way. Beyond attributes, schemas must contain strings describing parts of the document. For example, dates, schemas allow more flexible quantification. For example, the following W3C XML Schema might describe purchases:

```
<xsd:element name="item">
  <xsd:complexType>
    <xsd:sequence>
      <xsd:element name="USPrice" type="float"/>
      <xsd:element name="shipDate" type="date" minOccurs="0" maxOccurs="1"/>
    </xsd:sequence>
    <xsd:attribute name="partNum" type="string"/>
  </xsd:complexType>
</xsd:element>
<!-- Stock Keeping Unit, a code for identifying a product -->
<xsd:simpleType name="SKU">
  <xsd:restriction base="xsd:string">
    <xsd:pattern value="\d{3}-[A-Z]{2}" />
  </xsd:restriction>
</xsd:simpleType>
```

An XML document that is valid under this schema

```
<item partNum="123-XQ">  
  <USPrice>21.95</USPrice>  
  <shipDate>2002-11-26</shipDate>  
</item>
```

Formal specifications of schema languages can be found in the appendix. This example is meant simply to illustrate the type of schema language used in this book.

In order to check the validity of an XML document, you need a *validating parser*. Some stand-alone tools perform this check, but many web browsers do not. Some messages in cases of invalidity. As well, certain web browsers within larger applications. As a rule, however, most web browsers do not check only for well-formedness.

Quite a number of technologies have been built on top of XML, specified by W3C, OASIS, or other standards groups. One you should be aware of is XSLT. There are a number of thick books on XSLT, but the matter is too complex to document here. But it is a declarative programming language whose syntax is simple. An XML document is processed using a set of rules in a stylesheet to produce an output, often a different XML document. The stylesheet describes a pattern that might occur in a source document, and the output that will be produced if that pattern is encountered. In the details, "patterns" can have loops and other constructs. I find XSLT to be more complicated than genuine XML, but for my own purposes, but you are free to use it as you see fit.

processes if you work with existing XML applica

### 5.4.1 Python Standard Library XML Modules

There are two principle APIs for accessing and widespread use: DOM and SAX. Both are supported by these two APIs make up the bulk of Python's XML programming language neutral, and using them is similar to using them in Python.

The Document Object Model (DOM) represents Nodes may be of several types: a document type, comments, elements, and attribute maps but with a strictly nested hierarchy. Typically, nodes have some nodes are *leaf nodes* without children. The actions on nodes: delete nodes, add nodes, find and other actions. The DOM itself does not specify how an XML document is transformed (parsed) into a DOM representation or how a DOM is serialized to an XML document. In practice, however, `xml.dom` incorporate these capabilities. Formal :

<<http://www.w3.org/DOM/>>

and:

<<http://www.w3.org/TR/2000/REC-DOM-Level>>

The Simple API for XML (SAX) is an *event-base*

which envisions XML as a rooted tree of nodes, occurring linearly in a file, text, or other stream the sense of telling you very little inherently about the document and also in the sense of being extremely memory efficient (in the sense that once a tag or content is processed, it is not manually save it in a data structure). However, to assure well-formedness of parsed documents, you may want to check for the case of problems in well-formedness; you may want to check for these. Formal specification of SAX can be found

<http://www.saxproject.org/>

[illegible]

## xml.dom

The module `xml.dom` is a Python implementation of the DOM Model, Level 2. As much as possible, its API follows the DOM Model, but some conveniences are added as well. A brief example

```
>>> from xml.dom import minidom
>>> dom = minidom.parse('address.xml')
>>> addrs = dom.getElementsByTagName('address')
>>> print addrs[1].toxml()
<address city="New York" number="344" street="100 Main St">
>>> jobs = dom.getElementsByTagName('job')
```

```
>>> for key, val in jobs[3].attribut
...     print key, '=', val
employee-type = Part-Time
is-manager = no
job-description = Hacker
```

**SEE ALSO:** `gnosis.xml.objectify` 409;

## **xml.dom.minidom**

The module *xml.dom.minidom* is a lightweight You may pass in a custom SAX parser object w default, *xml.dom.minidom* uses the fast, nonva

## **xml.dom.pulldom**

The module *xml.dom.pulldom* is a DOM implem building the portions of a DOM tree that are rec some cases, this approach can be considerably *xml.dom.minidom* or another DOM parser; how somewhat underdocumented and experimental

## **xml.parsers.expat**



Interface to the expat nonvalidating XML parser. The *xml.dom.minidom* modules utilize the services. The functionality lives mostly in a C library. You can use it directly, but since the interface uses the same general conventions as the expat library, there is usually no reason to.

## **xml.sax**

The package *xml.sax* implements the Simple API for XML. It uses the underlying *xml.parser.expat* parser, but any other parser may be used instead. In particular, the *PyXML* package.

When you create a SAX application, your main task is to define handlers that will process events generated during parsing. The default handler is a *ContentHandler*, but you may also use an *ErrorHandler*. Generally you will specialize the *ContentHandler* for your own applications. After defining and registering your handlers, you call the *.parse()* method of the parser that you register. For incremental processing, you can use the *feed()* method.

A simple example illustrates usage. The application *xmlcat.py* is an equivalent, but not necessarily identical, document used as a canonical form of the document:

## **xmlcat.py**

```

#!/usr/bin/env python
import sys
from xml.sax import handler, make_parser
from xml.sax.saxutils import escape

class ContentGenerator(handler.ContentHandler):
    def __init__(self, out=sys.stdout):
        handler.ContentHandler.__init__(self)
        self._out = out
    def startDocument(self):
        xml_decl = '<?xml version="1.0"'
        self._out.write(xml_decl)
    def endDocument(self):
        sys.stderr.write("Bye bye!\n")
    def startElement(self, name, attrs):
        self._out.write('<' + name)
        name_val = attrs.items()
        name_val.sort()
        for (name, value) in name_val:
            self._out.write(' %s="%s"' % (name, value))
        self._out.write('>')
    def endElement(self, name):
        self._out.write('</%s>' % name)
    def characters(self, content):
        self._out.write(escape(content))

```

```

def ignorableWhitespace(self, cc
    self._out.write(content)
def processingInstruction(self,
    self._out.write('<?%s %s?>')

if __name__ == '__main__':
    parser = make_parser()
    parser.setContentHandler(Content
    parser.parse(sys.argv[1])

```

## **xml.sax.handler**

The module *xml.sax.handler* defines classes `ContentHandler` and `ErrorHandler` that are normally used as par

## **xml.sax.saxutils**

The module *xml.sax.saxutils* contains utility functions. Several functions allow escaping and munging :

## **xml.sax.xmlreader**

The module *xml.sax.xmlreader* provides a fram

will be usable by the *xml.sax* module. Any new conventions can be plugged in to the *xml.sax.n*

## **xmlilib**

Deprecated module for XML parsing. Use *xml.s*

## **xmlrpclib**

### **SimpleXMLRPCServer**

XML-RPC is an XML-based protocol for remote p  
For the most part, the XML aspect is hidden fro  
*xmlrpclib* to call remote methods and the modu  
your own server that supports such method cal

```
>>> import xmlrpclib  
>>> betty = xmlrpclib.Server("http://  
>>> print betty.examples.getStateName  
South Dakota
```

The XML-RPC format itself is a bit verbose, even  
you to pass argument values to a remote meth

```
>>> import xmlrpclib
```

```
>>> print xmlrpclib.dumps((xmlrpclib
<params>
<param>
<value><boolean>1</boolean></value>
</param>
<param>
<value><int>37</int></value>
</param>
<param>
<value><array><data>
<value><double>11.199999999999999</c
<value><string>spam</string></value>
</data></array></value>
</param>
</params>
```

**SEE ALSO:** `gnosis.xml.pickle` 410;

### 5.4.2 Third-Party XML-Related Tools

A number of projects extend the XML capabilities of the `gnosis.xml` package. The principle author of several XML-related modules is the `gnosis.xml` package. Information on the current release can be found at

<[http://gnosis.cx/download/Gnosis\\_Utils.ANN](http://gnosis.cx/download/Gnosis_Utils.ANN)>

The package itself can be downloaded as a *dist*

<[http://gnosis.cx/download/Gnosis\\_Utils-curr](http://gnosis.cx/download/Gnosis_Utils-curr)

The Python XML-SIG (special interest group) produces *PyXML*. The work of this group is incorporated in Python releases not every *PyXML* tool, however, given moment, the most sophisticated and often downloading the latest *PyXML* package. Be aware it overrides the default Python XML support and re-

<<http://pyxml.sourceforge.net/>>

Fourthought, Inc. produces the *4Suite* package. Fourthought releases *4Suite* as free software, and it is incorporated into the *PyXML* project (albeit at a moment). Fourthought is a for-profit company that also offers commercial support for *4Suite*. The community page for *4Suite* is:

<<http://4suite.org/index.xhtml>>

The Fourthought company Web site is:

<<http://fourthought.com/>>

Two other modules are discussed briefly below. However, both *PYX* and *yaml* fill many of the same roles as *PyXML*, being easier to manipulate with text processing tools than editing by hand. There is a contrast between these

semantically identical to XML, merely using a different syntax. JSON has a quite different semantics from XML. In some concrete applications where developers might use JSON ("buzz"), YAML is a better choice.

The home page for *PYX* is:

<<http://pyxie.sourceforge.net/>>

I have written an article explaining PYX in more

<[http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/xml\\_](http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/xml_)

The home page for YAML is:

<http://yaml.org>

I have written an article contrasting the utility of

<[http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/xml\\_](http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/xml_)

[illegible]

# gnosis.xml.indexer

The module *gnosis.xml.indexer* builds on the full example in [Chapter 2](#) (and contained in the *gnosis.xml.indexer* module of file contents, *gnosis.xml.indexer* creates indi

for a kind of "reverse XPath" search. That is, with the `gnosis.xml.indexer` package, lets you see the contents of an XML document. The `gnosis.xml.indexer` identifies the XPaths to the module may be used either in a larger application or as a standalone example:

```
% indexer symmetric
./cryptol.xml::/section[2]/panel[8]/
./cryptol.xml::/section[2]/panel[8]/
./cryptol.xml::/section[2]/panel[7]/
./crypto2.xml::/section[4]/panel[6]/
4 matched wordlist: ['symmetric']
Processed in 0.100 seconds (SlicedZFI
```

```
% indexer "-filter=*::/*/title" symmetric
./cryptol.xml::/section[2]/panel[8]/
./cryptol.xml::/section[2]/panel[7]/
2 matched wordlist: ['symmetric']
Processed in 0.080 seconds (SlicedZFI
```

Indexed searches, as the example shows, are very fast. For more details on this module:

<[http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/xml\\_indexer.html](http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/xml_indexer.html)

**gnosis.xml.objectify**



The module *gnosis.xml.objectify* transforms ar that have a "native" feel to them. Where XML is believe that using *gnosis.xml.objectify* is the qu data in a Python application.

The Document Object Model defines an OOP m programming languages. But while DOM is nor are distinctly un-Pythonic. For example, here is (skipping whitespace text nodes for some indic

```
>>> from xml.dom import minidom
>>> dom_obj = minidom.parse('address
>>> dom_obj.normalize()
>>> print dom_obj.documentElement.ch
...                                     .at
Los Angeles
```

In contrast, *gnosis.xml.objectify* feels like you a

```
>>> from gnosis.xml.objectify import
>>> xml_obj = XML_Objectify('address
>>> py_obj = xml_obj.make_instance()
>>> py_obj.person[2].address.city
u'Los Angeles'
```

**gnosis.xml.pickle**

The module *gnosis.xml.pickle* lets you serialize format. In most respects, the purpose is the same. The target is useful for certain purposes. You may use standard XML parsers, XSLT processors, XML editors.

In several respects, *gnosis.xml.pickle* offers finer control than the module does. You can control security permissions, the representation of object types within an XML file, and the behavior during the pickle/unpickle cycle; and several other things are possible. However, in basic usage, *gnosis.xml.pickle* is very easy to use. An example illustrates both the usage and the output.

```
>>> class Container: pass
...
>>> inst = Container()
>>> dct = {1.7:2.5, ('t','u','p'):'t'}
>>> inst.this, inst.num, inst.dct = 'this', 1, dct
>>> import gnosis.xml.pickle
>>> print gnosis.xml.pickle.dumps(inst)
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<!DOCTYPE PyObject SYSTEM "PyObjects.dtd">
<PyObject module="__main__" class="Container">
  <attr name="this" type="string" value="this"/>
  <attr name="num" type="float" value="1.0"/>
  <attr name="dct" type="dict" id="60000000">
    <entry>
      <key type="tuple" id="5973680" >
```

```

        <item type="string" value="t"
        <item type="string" value="u"
        <item type="string" value="p"
    </key>
    <val type="string" value="tuple"
</entry>
<entry>
    <key type="numeric" value="1.7"
    <val type="numeric" value="2.5"
</entry>
</attr>
<attr name="num" type="numeric" valu
</PyObject>

```

**SEE ALSO:** [pickle 93](#); [cPickle 93](#); [yaml 415](#); [pp](#)

## **gnosis.xml.validity**

The module *gnosis.xml.validity* allows you to do their containment according to XML validity cor *always* produce string representations that are formed ones. When you attempt to add an item that is not permissible, a descriptive exception specify quantification, subelement types, and s

For example, suppose you wish to create document  
Document Type Definition:

## **dissertation.dtd**

```
<!ELEMENT dissertation (dedication?,  
<!ELEMENT dedication (#PCDATA)>  
<!ELEMENT chapter (title, paragraph+  
<!ELEMENT title (#PCDATA)>  
<!ELEMENT paragraph (#PCDATA I figur  
<!ELEMENT figure EMPTY>  
<!ELEMENT table EMPTY>  
<!ELEMENT appendix (#PCDATA)>
```

You can use *gnosis.xml.validity* to assure your  
documents. First, you create a Python version of

## **dissertation.py**

```
from gnosis.xml.validity import *  
class appendix(PCDATA): pass  
class table(EMPTY): pass  
class figure(EMPTY): pass  
class _mixedpara(Or): _disjoins
```

```

class paragraph(Some):      _type = _n
class title(PCDATA):        pass
class _paras(Some):         _type = pa
class chapter(Seq):         _order = (
class dedication(PCDATA):   pass
class _apps(Any):           _type = ap
class _chaps(Some):         _type = ch
class _dedi(Maybe):         _type = de
class dissertation(Seq):    _order = (

```

**Next, import your Python validity constraints, a**

```

>>> from dissertation import *
>>> chap1 = LiftSeq(chapter, ('About
>>> paras_ch1 = chap1[1]
>>> paras_ch1 += [paragraph('OOP car
>>> print chap1
<chapter><title>About Validity</titl
<paragraph>It is a good thing</parac
<paragraph>OOP can enforce it</parac
</chapter>

```

**If you attempt an action that violates constrain  
example:**

```

>>> try:

```

```

..         paras_ch1.append(dedication('
.. except ValueError, x:
...         print x
Items in _paras must be of type <class 'dissertation.dedication'
(not <class 'dissertation.dedication'

```

## PyXML

The *PyXML* package contains a number of capabilities in the standard library. *PyXML* was at version 0.8.1 at the time this number indicates, it remains an in-progress/being developed. The last released version of Python was 2.2.2, with this, *PyXML* will probably be at a later number and the current features will have been incorporated into the next version where is a moving target.

Some of the significant features currently available in the library are listed below. You may install *PyXML* to override the existing XML support.

- A validating XML parser written in Python capable of parsing a program rather than a C extension, *xmlproc* (which uses the underlying *expat* parser).
- A SAX extension called *xml.sax.writers* that can write to other formats.

- A fully compliant DOM Level 2 implementation
- Support for canonicalization. That is, two XML documents are considered identical even though they are not byte-wise identical if they have the same attribute orders, character entities, and some *meaning* of the document. Two canonicalized documents are identical if and only if they are byte-wise identical
- XPath and XSLT support, with implementations faster than most other XSLT implementations around, however
- A DOM implementation, called *xml.dom.pulldom*, which allows processing of nodes has been incorporated into recent versions of Python, this is available in *PyXML*.
- A module with several options for serializing XML documents, comparable to *gnosis.xml.pickle*, but I like the

## PYX

PYX is both a document format and a Python module. As well as the Python module, tools write documents between XML and PYX format.

The idea behind PYX is to eliminate the need for a node in an XML document is represented, in the prefix character to indicate the node type. Most

exception of document type declarations, comments could be incorporated into an updated PYX format.

Documents in the PYX format are easily processed: processing tools like sed, grep, awk, sort, wc, and a basic *FILE.readline()* loop are equally able to process them. This makes it much easier to use familiar text processing tools with XML. A brief example illustrates the PYX

```
% cat test.xml
<?xml version="1.0"?>
<?xml-stylesheet href="test.css" type="text/css"/>
<Spam flavor="pork">
    <Eggs>Some text about eggs.</Eggs>
    <MoreSpam>Ode to Spam (spam="smoked-pork")
</Spam>

% ./xmln test.xml
?xml-stylesheet href="test.css" type="text/css"
Aflavor pork
-\\n
(Eggs
-Some text about eggs. )Eggs
-\\n
(MoreSpam
-Ode to Spam (spam="smoked-pork")
)MoreSpam
```



-\n  
) Spam

## 4Suite

The tools in *4Suite* focus on the use of XML documents, searching them, transforming them, and address a variety of XML technologies. In some technologies not found in the Python standard library, *4Suite* provides more advanced implementation.

Among the XML technologies implemented in *4Suite* are XPointer, XLink and XPath, and SOAP. Among them, performing XSLT transformations. *4xpath* lets you use powerful XPath descriptions of how to reach the documents use to identify their semantic characteristics.

I detail *4Suite* technologies in a bit more detail

<[http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/xml\\_](http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/xml_)

## yaml

The native data structures of object-oriented programming

straightforward to represent in XML. While XML can represent any compound data, the only inherent limitation is that it only maps strings to strings. Moreover, even for a given data structure, the XML is quite verbose and is especially tedious to edit manually.

The YAML format is designed to match the structure of programming languages: Python, Perl, Ruby, and Java all have their own ways of writing. Moreover, the YAML format is extremely simple. The acronym cutely stands for "YAML Ain't Markup Language". It is as a better pretty-printer than *pprint*, while simple enough to be used for configuration files or to exchange data between different programming languages.

There is no fully general and clean way, however, to convert between XML and YAML. One can use the *yaml* module to read YAML data files and to write to one particular XML format. Unlike XML dialects than *gnosis.xml.pickle*, there are no standard XML and YAML representations of the same data. On the other hand, there is essentially a straight-forward and clean way to convert Python data structures and YAML representations.

In the YAML example below, refer back to the sections on *gnosis.xml.pickle* and *pprint* in their respective sections. In this case unlike *pprint* the serialization can be done on an existing object (or to create a different object after editing the data).

```
>>> class Container: pass
```

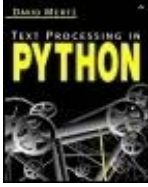
```
...
>>> inst = Container()
>>> dct = {1.7:2.5, ('t','u','p'):'t
>>> inst.this, inst.num, inst.dct =
>>> import yaml
>>> print yaml.dump(inst)
--- !!__main__.Container
dct:
  1.7: 2.5
  ?
    - t
    - u
    - p
: tuple
num: 38
this: that
```

**SEE ALSO:** pprint 94; gnosis.xml.pickle 410;

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

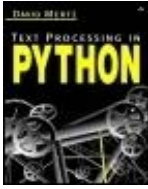
## Appendix A. A Selective and Impressionistic Short Review of Python

A reader who is coming to Python for the first time would be well served reading Guido van Rossum's *Python Tutorial*, which can be downloaded from <http://python.org/>, or picking up one of the several excellent books devoted to teaching Python to novices. As indicated in the Preface, the audience of this book is a bit different.

The above said, some readers of this book might use Python only infrequently, or not have used Python for a while, or may be sufficiently versed in numerous other programming languages, that a quick review on Python constructs suffices for understanding. This appendix will briefly mention each major element of the Python language itself, but will not address any libraries (even standard and ubiquitous ones that may be discussed in the main

chapters). Not all fine points of syntax and semantics will be covered here, either. This review, however, should suffice for a reader to understand all the examples in this book.

Even readers who are familiar with Python might enjoy skimming this review. The focus and spin of this summary are a bit different from most introductions. I believe that the way I categorize and explain a number of language features can provide a moderately novel but equally accurate perspective on the Python language. Ideally, a Python programmer will come away from this review with a few new insights on the familiar constructs she uses every day. This appendix does not shy away from using some abstract terms from computer science if a particular term is not familiar to you, you will not lose much by skipping over the sentence it occurs in; some of these terms are explained briefly in the Glossary.



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Appendix A. A Selective and Impressionistic Short Review of Python

### A.1 What Kind of Language Is Python?

Python is a byte-code compiled programming language that supports multiple programming paradigms. Python is sometimes called an interpreted and/or scripting language because no separate compilation step is required to run a Python program; in more precise terms, Python uses a virtual machine (much like Java or Smalltalk) to run machine-abstracted instructions. In most situations a byte-code compiled version of an application is cached to speed future runs, but wherever necessary compilation is performed "behind

the scenes."

In the broadest terms, Python is an imperative programming language, rather than a declarative (functional or logical) one. Python is dynamically and strongly typed, with very late binding compared to most languages. In addition, Python is an object-oriented language with strong introspective facilities, and one that generally relies on conventions rather than enforcement mechanisms to control access and visibility of names. Despite its object-oriented core, much of the syntax of Python is designed to allow a convenient procedural style that masks the underlying OOP mechanisms. Although Python allows basic functional programming (FP) techniques, side effects are the norm, evaluation is always strict, and no compiler optimization is performed for tail recursion (nor on almost any other construct).

Python has a small set of reserved words, delimits blocks and structure based on indentation only, has a fairly rich collection of built-in data structures, and is generally both terse and readable compared to other



programming languages. Much of the strength of Python lies in its standard library and in a flexible system of importable modules and packages.

---

**Team-Fly**

◀ Previous

Next ▶

[Top](#)

## Appendix A. A Selective and Impression

---

### A.2 Namespaces and Bindings

The central concept in Python programming is the `scope` (or `scope`) in a Python program has available to it a set of `namespaces`; each namespace contains a set of `objects`. In older versions of Python, namespace was called "three-scope rule" (builtin/global/local), but Python 3 introduced nested scoping. In most cases you do not need to worry about how scoping works the way you would expect (the semantics of lexical scoping are mostly ones with nested functions).

There are quite a few ways of binding a name to a namespace/scope and/or within some other scope. This section describes some of the ways below.

#### A.2.1 Assignment and Dereferencing

A Python statement like `x=37` or `y="foo"` does

"foo" does not exist, Python creates one. If such  
Next, the name x or y is added to the current namespace and that name is bound to the corresponding object in the current namespace, it is re-bound. Multiple namespaces/namespaces, can be bound to the same

A simple assignment statement binds a name in the current namespace if the name has been declared as global. A name declared in a module-level namespace instead. A qualified assignment statement binds a name into a specified namespace object, or to the namespace of a module/package.

```
>>> x = "foo" # bind 'x' to 'foo'
>>> def myfunc(): # bind 'myfunc' to a function object
...     global x, y # specify global namespace
...     x = 1 # rebind 'x' to 1
...     y = 2 # create 'y' and bind it to 2
...     z = 3 # create 'z' and bind it to 3
...
>>> import package.module # bind 'package.module' to the module object
>>> package.module.w = 4 # bind 'w' to 4 in the module's namespace
>>> from mymod import obj # bind 'obj' to the object in the module's namespace
>>> obj.attr = 5 # bind 'attr' to 5 in the object's namespace
```

Whenever a (possibly qualified) name occurs on a line by itself, the name is dereferenced to the object it is bound to. If the name is not bound inside some accessible scope, it cannot be

raises a `NameError` exception. If the name is `foo` (possibly with comma-separated expressions before it), it is invoked/called after it is dereferenced. Exactly how this is controlled and overridden for Python objects; but for a method `foo` runs some code, and invoking a class `foo` creates a new object.

```
>>> pkg.subpkg.func()      # invoke a function
>>> x = y                   # deref 'y'
```

## A.2.2 Function and Class Definitions

Declaring a function or a class is simply the process of binding it to a name. But the `def` and `class` declarations are assignments. In the case of functions, the *lambda* expression is a direct technique for classes, but their declarative nature is more complex.

```
>>> add1 = lambda x,y: x+y # bind 'add1'
>>> def add2(x, y):        # bind 'add2'
...     return x+y
...
>>> class Klass:           # bind 'Klass'
...     def meth1(self):    # bind 'meth1'
...         return 'Myself'
```

## A.2.3 import Statements

Importing, or importing *from*, a module or a package into the current namespace. The import statement has the following effect.

Statements of the forms

```
>>> import modname
>>> import pkg.subpkg.modname
>>> import pkg.modname as othername
```

add a new module object to the current namespace, and define namespaces that you can bind values in.

Statements of the forms

```
>>> from modname import foo
>>> from pkg.subpkg.modname import foo
```

instead add the names `foo` or `bar` to the current namespace. In the first form, any statements in the imported module that use the names `foo` or `bar` will have the effect upon namespaces as if they had been executed in the current namespace.

There is one more special form of the import statement.

```
>>> from modname import *
```

The asterisk in this form is not a generalized glob. It is a special syntactic form. "Import star" imports every name in the module `modname` into the current namespace.

the current namespace (except those named `__builtins__` which will be explicitly imported if needed). Use of this `globals()` risks adding names to the current namespace that may rebind existing names.

## A.2.4 `for` Statements

Although `for` is a looping construct, the way it visits elements of an iterable object to a name (in the current namespace) are (almost) equivalent:

```
>>> for x in somelist:    # repeated k
...     print x
...
>>> ndx = 0               # rebinds 'r
>>> while 1:              # repeated k
...     x = somelist[ndx]
...     print x
...     ndx = ndx+1
...     if ndx >= len(somelist):
...         del ndx
...         break
```

## A.2.5 `except` Statements

The except statement can optionally bind a name

```
>>> try:
...     raise "ThisError", "some mes
... except "ThisError", x:      # Bind
...     print x
...
some message
```

---

**Team-Fly**

## Appendix A. A Selective and Impression

---

### A.3 Datatypes

Python has a rich collection of basic datatypes. you to hold heterogeneous elements inside the (with some minor limitations). It is straightforward, therefore Python.

Unlike many languages, Python datatypes come in two flavors: immutable and mutable. All of the atomic datatypes are immutable. The collections list and dict are mutable, as are the tuple and set datatypes. The question of whether an object is mutable or immutable is simply a question of whether the object's value can change in place. An immutable object can only be created once, and its value cannot change during its existence. One upshot of this distinction is that immutable objects can be used as dictionary keys, but mutable objects may not. When you want a data structure especially a large one that will be used in a long program operation, you should choose a mutable object.

Most of the time, if you want to convert values from one datatype to another, an explicit conversion/encoding call is required, but



rules to allow numeric expressions over a mixt listed below with discussions of each. The built-the datatype of an object.

### A.3.1 Simple Types

#### **bool**

Python 2.3+ supports a Boolean datatype with earlier versions of Python, these values are typ 2.3+, the Boolean values behave like numbers micro-releases of Python (e.g., 2.2.1) include t Boolean datatype.

#### **int**

A signed integer in the range indicated by the r platform. For most current platforms, integers i  $(2^{**31})-1$ . You can find the size on your platfo are the bottom numeric type in terms of promc integer, but integers are sometimes promoted t string may be explicitly converted to an int usir

**SEE ALSO:** `int` 18;

## long

An (almost) unlimited size integral number. A literal is followed by an `l` or `L` (e.g., `34L`, `98765432101L`) that overflow `sys.maxint` are automatically promoted. A float may be explicitly converted to a long using the

## float

An IEEE754 floating point number. A literal float is an int or long by containing a decimal point and exponent (e.g., `37.`, `.453e-12`). A numeric expression that involves floats promotes all component types to floats before the final result. A long, or string may be explicitly converted to a float using the

**SEE ALSO:** `float` 19;

## complex

An object containing two floats, representing real and imaginary number. A numeric expression that involves both real and imaginary types promotes all component types to complex. There is no way to spell a literal complex in Python. The usual way of computing a complex value. A `j` indicates an imaginary number. An int, long, or float may be explicitly converted to a complex using the

complex using the *complex()* function. If two floats are passed to *complex()*, the second is the imaginary component. For example, `complex(1.1,2)`.

## string

An immutable sequence of 8-bit character values. In many other programming languages, there is no "character" type in Python. A character is a string of length one. String objects have a variety of methods. String methods always return a new string object rather than modifying the original. The built-in *chr()* function will return a length-one string from a passed integer. The *str()* function will return a string object from any object. For example:

```
>>> ord('a')
97
>>> chr(97)
'a'
>>> str(97)
'97'
```

**SEE ALSO:** [string 129](#);

## unicode

An immutable sequence of Unicode characters. Unicode character, but Unicode strings of length 1 are Unicode characters. Unicode strings contain a similar collection of methods. In the latter, Unicode methods return new Unicode objects. See [Chapter 2](#) and [Appendix C](#) for additional details.

### A.3.2 String Interpolation

Literal strings and Unicode strings may contain format codes, values may be *interpolated* into the string, and a tuple or dictionary giving the values to substitute.

Strings that contain format codes may follow either the `%` pattern or the `format()` pattern. The `%` pattern uses format codes with the syntax  `%[format code] (value [, value] [, value])` . Interpolating a string with format codes on this pattern requires a tuple of matching length and content datatypes. When interpolated, you may give the bare item rather than a string, as in the following example:

```
>>> "float %3.1f, int %+d, hex %06x"
'float 1.2, int +1234, hex 0004d2'
>>> '%e' % 1234
'1.234000e+03'
>>> '%e' % (1234,)
'1.234000e+03'
```

The (slightly) more complex pattern for format

format code, which is then used as a string key syntax of this pattern is `%(key)[flags][len[.pre` with this style of format codes requires `%` complete all the named keys, and whose corresponding values are example:

```
>>> dct = {'ratio':1.234, 'count':1234}
>>> "float %(ratio)3.1f, int %(count)4d"
'float 1.2, int +1234, hex 0004d2'
```

You *may not* mix tuple interpolation and dictionary interpolation.

I mentioned that datatypes must match format codes for different range of datatypes, but the rules are a bit more complex. Generally, numeric data will be promoted or demoted to the appropriate type. Complex types cannot be used for numbers.

One useful style of using dictionary interpolation is to use a namespace dictionary. Regular bound names do not work with dictionary interpolation.

```
>>> s = "float %(ratio)3.1f, int %(count)4d"
>>> ratio = 1.234
>>> count = 1234
>>> offset = 1234
>>> s % globals()
```

```
'float 1.2, int +1234, hex 0004d2'
```

If you want to look for names across scope, you can use `globals()` and `locals()` to get both local and global names:

```
>>> vardct = {}
>>> vardct.update(globals())
>>> vardct.update(locals())
>>> interpolated = somestring % varc
```

The flags for format codes consist of the following:

- 0 Pad to length with leading zeros
- Align the value to the left within the field
- (space) Pad to length with leading spaces
- + Explicitly indicate the sign of positive numbers

When a length is included, it specifies the *minimum* length of the formatted string. Numbers that will not fit within a length specified will be padded with zeros. When a precision is included, the length of the integer and decimal are included in the total length:

```
>>> '[%f]' % 1.234
'[1.234000]'
>>> '[%5f]' % 1.234
'[1.234000]'
```

```
>>> '[%.1f]' % 1.234
'[1.2]'
>>> '[%5.1f]' % 1.234
'[  1.2]'
>>> '[%05.1f]' % 1.234
'[001.2]'
```

**The formatting types consist of the following:**

```
d Signed integer decimal
i Signed integer decimal
o Unsigned octal
u Unsigned decimal
x Lowercase unsigned hexadecimal
X Uppercase unsigned hexadecimal
e Lowercase exponential format float
E Uppercase exponential format float
f Floating point decimal format
g Floating point: exponential format
G Uppercase version of 'g'
c Single character: integer for chr()
r Converts any Python object using repr()
s Converts any Python object using str()
% The '%' character, e.g.: '%%%d' %
```

One more special format code style allows the interpolation of a tuple. In this case, the interpolated tuple must contain an exact number of values for each format code, preceding the value to format.

```
>>> "%0*d # %0*.2f" % (4, 123, 4, 1.23)
'0123 # 1.23'
>>> "%0*d # %0*.2f" % (6, 123, 6, 1.23)
'000123 # 001.23'
```

### A.3.3 Printing

The least-sophisticated form of textual output is the use of the `sys.stdout` and `sys.stderr` streams. In particular, the `STDOUT` and `STDERR` streams can be accessed via `sys.stdout` and `sys.stderr`. Writing to these is just like writing to a file. For example:

```
>>> import sys
>>> try:
...     # some fragile action
...     sys.stdout.write('result of action\n')
... except:
...     sys.stderr.write('could not complete\n')
...
result of action
```

You cannot seek within `STDOUT` or `STDERR` generators.



pure sequential outputs.

Writing to STDOUT and STDERR is fairly inflexible. The `print` statement accomplishes the same purpose more flexibly. `sys.stdout.write()` only accepts a single string as an argument, while `print` can accept any number of arguments of any type. Each argument is converted to a string equivalent of `repr(obj)`. For example:

```
>>> print "Pi: %.3f" % 3.1415, 27+11j, {1: 2, 3: 4}, (1, 2, 3)
Pi: 3.142 38 {1: 2, 3: 4} (1, 2, 3)
```

Each argument to the `print` statement is evaluated, and the resulting object is passed to a function. As a consequence, the object is printed, rather than the exact form of the object. For example, the dictionary prints in a different order than it was defined. The spacing of the list and dictionary is slightly different. `print` is a very common means of defining and displaying data.

There are a few things to watch for with the `print` statement. If you don't use a separating space, you will need to use string formatting to get the right result. For example:

```
>>> numerator, denominator = 3, 7
>>> print repr(numerator)+"/"+repr(denominator)
3/7
>>> print "%d/%d" % (numerator, denominator)
```

3/7

By default, a print statement adds a linefeed to eliminate the linefeed by adding a trailing comma with a space added to the end:

```
>>> letlist = ('a','B','Z','r','w')
>>> for c in letlist: print c,      # i
...
a B Z r w
```

Assuming these spaces are unwanted, you must otherwise calculate the space-free string you want.

```
>>> for c in letlist+('\n',): # no s
...     sys.stdout.write(c)
...
aBZrw
>>> print ''.join(letlist)
aBZrw
```

There is a special form of the print statement that works other than STDOUT. The print statement itself can take a file object, then a writable file-like object, then a comma-separated list of arguments. For example:

```
>>> print >> open('test','w'), "Pi:
```

```
>>> open('test').read()  
'Pi: 3.142 38\n'
```

Some Python programmers (including your author) are "noisy," but it *is* occasionally useful for quick c

If you want a function that would do the same as `print` one does so, but without any facility to eliminate output:

```
def print_func(*args):  
    import sys  
    sys.stdout.write(' '.join(map(repr, args)) + '\n')
```

Readers could enhance this to add the missing `flush` statement is the clearest approach, generally.

**SEE ALSO:** `sys.stderr 50`; `sys.stdout 51`;

## A.3.4 Container Types

### **tuple**

An immutable sequence of (heterogeneous) objects. The membership and length of a tuple cannot be modified. Elements and subsequences can be accessed by

tuples can be constructed from such elements as "records" in some other programming language

The constructor syntax for a tuple is commas between parentheses around a constructed list are required for constructs such as function arguments, but it is also used to construct a tuple. Some examples:

```
>>> tup = 'spam', 'eggs', 'bacon', 'sausage'
>>> newtup = tup[1:3] + (1,2,3) + (tup[0],)
>>> newtup
('eggs', 'bacon', 1, 2, 3, 'sausage', 'spam')
```

The function *tuple()* may also be used to construct a tuple (either a list or custom sequence type).

**SEE ALSO:** tuple 28;

## **list**

A mutable sequence of objects. Like a tuple, lists support subscripting and slicing; unlike a tuple, list methods can modify the length and membership of a list.

The constructor syntax for a list is surrounding a constructed list with square brackets. A list constructed with no objects between the braces:

an object name; longer lists separate each element. Slices, of course, also use square braces, but the Python grammar (and common sense usually prevails) provides examples:

```
>>> lst = ['spam', (1,2,3), 'eggs',  
>>> lst[:2]  
['spam', (1, 2, 3)]
```

The function *list()* may also be used to construct a list (either a tuple or custom sequence type).

**SEE ALSO:** list 28;

## dict

A mutable mapping between immutable keys and values. A dict exists for a given key; adding the same key again overrides the previous entry (much as with binary operations). Dicts are unordered, and entries are accessed either by key or by index. Entries are contained objects using the methods *.keys()*, *.values()*, and *.items()*. Python versions 2.2 and later have the *.popitem()* method. All objects in an dict are in an unspecified order.

The constructor syntax for a dict is surrounding a list of key-value pairs with curly braces. If constructed with no objects between the braces, it creates an empty dict.

dict is separated by a colon, and successive pairs are separated by commas. Here is an example:

```
>>> dct = {1:2, 3.14:(1+2j), 'spam':  
>>> dct['spam']  
'eggs'  
>>> dct['a'] = 'b'      # add item to  
>>> dct.items()  
[('a', 'b'), (1, 2), ('spam', 'eggs')]  
>>> dct.popitem()  
('a', 'b')  
>>> dct  
{1: 2, 'spam': 'eggs', 3.14: (1+2j)}
```

In Python 2.2+, the function *dict()* may also be called with a sequence of pairs or from a custom mapping type.

```
>>> d1 = dict([('a','b'), (1,2), ('s  
>>> d1  
{'a': 'b', 1: 2, 'spam': 'eggs'}  
>>> d2 = dict(zip([1,2,3],['a','b','  
>>> d2  
{1: 'a', 2: 'b', 3: 'c'}
```

**SEE ALSO:** dict 24;

## sets.Set

Python 2.3+ includes a standard module that in Python versions, a number of developers have sets. If you have at least Python 2.2, you can c <<http://tinyurl.com/2d31>> (or browse the Pyth definition True,False=1, 0 to your local version,

A set is an unordered collection of hashable obj in a set more than once; a set resembles a dict utilize bitwise and Boolean syntax to perform b test does not have a special syntactic form, ins .issuperset() methods. You may also loop throu order. Some examples illustrate the type:

```
>>> from sets import Set
>>> x = Set([1,2,3])
>>> y = Set((3,4,4,6,6,2)) # init wi
>>> print x, '//', y      # make su
Set([1, 2, 3]) // Set([2, 3, 4, 6])
>>> print x | y           # union c
Set([1, 2, 3, 4, 6])
>>> print x & y           # interse
Set([2, 3])
>>> print y-x             # differe
Set([4, 6])
```

```
>>> print x ^ y          # symmetric difference
Set([1, 4, 6])
```

You can also check membership and iterate over

```
>>> 4 in y                # membership test
1
>>> x.issubset(y)         # subset test
0
>>> for i in y:
...     print i+10,
...
12 13 14 16
>>> from operator import add
>>> plus_ten = Set(map(add, y, [10]*len(y)))
>>> plus_ten
Set([16, 12, 13, 14])
```

**sets.***Set* also supports in-place modification of : *Set* does not allow modification.

```
>>> x = Set([1,2,3])
>>> x |= Set([4,5,6])
>>> x
Set([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6])
>>> x &= Set([4,5,6])
```



```
>>> x
Set([4, 5, 6])
>>> x ^= Set([4, 5])
>>> x
Set([6])
```

## A.3.5 Compound Types

### class instance

A class instance defines a namespace, but this act as a data container (but a container that also has methods). A class instance (or any namespace of creating a mapping between names and values) can be set or modified using standard qualified name methods by qualifying with the namespace of the object, conventionally called `self`. For example:

```
>>> class Klass:
...     def setfoo(self, val):
...         self.foo = val
...
>>> obj = Klass()
>>> obj.bar = 'BAR'
>>> obj.setfoo(['this', 'that', 'other'])
```

```
>>> obj.bar, obj.foo
('BAR', ['this', 'that', 'other'])
>>> obj.__dict__
{'foo': ['this', 'that', 'other'], 'bar': ('BAR', ['this', 'that', 'other'])}
```

Instance attributes often dereference to other objects, and are often hierarchically organized namespace quantifications. Moreover, a number of "magic" methods named with two underscores provide optional syntactic convenience. The most common of these magic methods is `__dict__` (often utilizing arguments). For example:

```
>>> class Klass2:
...     def __init__(self, *args, **kwargs):
...         self.listargs = args
...         for key, val in kw.items():
...             setattr(self, key, val)
...
>>> obj = Klass2(1, 2, 3, foo='F00', bar={'baz': 'BLAM'})
>>> obj.bar.blam = 'BLAM'
>>> obj.listargs, obj.foo, obj.bar.kw
((1, 2, 3), 'F00', {'baz': 'BLAM'})
```

There are quite a few additional "magic" methods. Many of these methods let class instances behave like built-in types (maintaining special class behaviors). For example,

methods control the string representation of an object. Methods `__getitem__()` and `__setitem__()` methods allow indexed access to list elements (or list-like numbered indices); methods `__pow__()`, and `__abs__()` allow instances to behave like numbers. The *Python Reference Manual* discusses magic methods.

In Python 2.2 and above, you can also let instances behave like built-in types by inheriting classes from these built-in types. For example, a datatype whose "shape" contains both a mutable list and a string attribute. Two ways to define this datatype are:

```
>>> class FooList(list):                                # works
...     def __init__(self, lst=[], foo=''):
...         list.__init__(self, lst)
...         self.foo = foo
...
>>> foolist = FooList([1,2,3], 'F00')
>>> foolist[1], foolist.foo
(2, 'F00')
>>> class oldFooList:                                    # works
...     def __init__(self, lst=[], foo=''):
...         self._lst, self.foo = lst, foo
...     def append(self, item):
...         self._lst.append(item)
...     def __getitem__(self, item):
...         return self._lst[item]
```

```

...     def __setitem__(self, item,
...         self._lst[item] = val
...     def __delitem__(self, item):
...         del self._lst[item]
...
>>> foolst2 = oldFooList([1,2,3], 'F00')
>>> foolst2[1], foolst2.foo
(2, 'F00')

```

If you need more complex datatypes than the list whose class has magic methods, often these can be constructed whose attributes are bound in link-like fashion (e.g. for modeling graphs). As a simple example, you can use the following node class:

```

>>> class Node:
...     def __init__(self, left=None, right=None, value=None):
...         self.left, self.right, self.value = left, right, value
...     def __repr__(self):
...         return self.value
...
>>> tree = Node(Node(value="Left Leaf", left=None, right=None),
...               "Tree Root",
...               Node(left=Node(value="Left Leaf", left=None, right=None),
...                     right=Node(value="Right Leaf", left=None, right=None)))

```

```
>>> tree, tree.left, tree.left.left, tree.left.left.left
(Tree Root, Left Leaf, None, Right Leaf)
```

In practice, you would probably bind intermediates to allow for easy pruning and rearrangement.

**SEE ALSO:** `int` 18; `float` 19; `list` 28; `string` 129; `UserString` 33;

## Team-Fly

## **Appendix A. A Selective and Impression**

---

### **A.4 Flow Control**

Depending on how you count it, Python has about 10 mechanisms, which is much simpler than most languages. Python's collection of mechanisms is well chosen for a high degree of orthogonality between them.

From the point of view of this appendix, except for flow control techniques. In a language like Java, you are "happy" if it does not throw any exceptions at all. In Python, exceptions are less "exceptional" and a perfectly good design when an exception is raised.

Two additional aspects of the Python language are flow control, but nonetheless amount to such well-known functional programming style operations on lists and dictionaries, flow control constructs.

## A.4.1 if/then/else Statements

Choice between alternate code paths is general its optional elif and else components. An if block at the end of the compound statement, zero or followed by a Boolean expression and a colon. The elif statement, if it is followed by a Boolean expression and colon. The else statement, if it is followed by a colon. Each statement introduces a block (indented on the following lines or on the same

Every expression in Python has a Boolean value literal. Any empty container (list, dict, tuple) is false; the number 0 (of any numeric type) is false; the Unicode string '' is false; the number 0 (of any numeric type) is false; the number 0 (of any numeric type) is false; the number 0 (of any numeric type) is false; the number 0 (of any numeric type) is false. Without these special methods, Boolean expressions consist of comparisons. Comparisons actually evaluate to the canonical objects "0" or "1". The comparison operators are ==, <=, < >, < >=, !=, is, is not, in, and not in. Sometimes an expression.

Only one block in an "if/elif/else" compound statement can be executed. If multiple conditions hold, the first one that evaluates to true is executed.

```
>>> if 2+2 <= 4:
...     print "Happy math"
...
Happy math
```

```

>>> x = 3
>>> if x > 4: print "More than 4"
... elif x > 3: print "More than 3"
... elif x > 2: print "More than 2"
... else: print "2 or less"
...
More than 2
>>> if isinstance(2, int):
...     print "2 is an int"          # 2.
... else:
...     print "2 is not an int"

```

Python has no "switch" statement to compare cases and matches. Occasionally, the repetition of an expression in each line looks awkward. A "trick" in such a case is to use a dictionary. The following are equivalent, for example:

```

>>> if var.upper() == 'ONE':      val = 1
... elif var.upper() == 'TWO':    val = 2
... elif var.upper() == 'THREE':  val = 3
... elif var.upper() == 'FOUR':   val = 4
... else:                          val = 0
...
>>> switch = {'ONE':1, 'TWO':2, 'THREE':3, 'FOUR':4}
>>> val = switch.get(var.upper(), 0)

```



## A.4.2 Boolean Shortcutting

The Boolean operators `or` and `and` are "lazy." The `or` operator evaluates only as far as it needs to determine the disjoin of an `or` is true, the value of that disjoin without evaluating the rest; if the first conjunction becomes the value of the whole expression.

Shortcutting is formally sufficient for switching concise than "if/elif/else" blocks. For example:

```
>>> if this:                # 'if' compound
...     result = this
... elif that:
...     result = that
... else:
...     result = 0
...
>>> result = this or that or 0 # boolean
```

Compound shortcutting is also possible, but not

```
>>> (cond1 and func1()) or (cond2 and
```

## A.4.3 for/continue/break Statements

The for statement loops over the elements of a sequence. It utilizes an iterator object (which may not have a next method). Sequences like lists, tuples, and strings are automatically iterators. In earlier Python versions, a few special objects like xrange() also act as iterators.

Each time a for statement loops, a sequence/iterator object is passed to the loop variable. The loop variable may be a tuple with multiple names in each loop. For example:

```
>>> for x,y,z in [(1,2,3), (4,5,6), (7,8,9)]:
...     print x, y, z
1 2 3 * 4 5 6 * 7 8 9 *
```

A particularly common idiom for operating on a dictionary is to loop over its items().

```
>>> for key,val in dct.items():
...     print key, val, '*'
...
1 2 * 3 4 * 5 6 *
```

When you wish to loop through a block a certain number of times, you can use the range() or xrange() built-in functions to generate a sequence of numbers. For example:

```
>>> for _ in range(10):
...     print "X",          # '_' is not a valid identifier
```

```
...  
X X X X X X X X X X
```

However, if you find yourself binding over a range, it indicates that you have not properly understood how to be operating on a collection of related *things* that need a loop, not just a need to do exactly the same thing over and over.

If the `continue` statement occurs in a `for` loop, it skips the rest of the block and starts the next iteration. If the `break` statement occurs in a `for` loop, it exits the loop and continues with the next line of code. If the `break` statement occurs in a `try` block, it exits the `try` block and continues with the next line of code.

#### A.4.4 `map()`, `filter()`, `reduce()`, and List Comprehensions

Much like the `for` statement, the built-in functions `map()`, `filter()`, and `reduce()` are actions based on a sequence of items. Unlike a `for` loop, which returns a value resulting from this application to each item in the sequence, these programming style functions accept a function as a subsequent argument(s).

The `map()` function returns a list of items of the same type as the original sequence, where each item in the result is a "transformation" of the corresponding item in the original sequence. If you explicitly want such transformed items, use of `map()` is clearer than an equivalent `for` loop; for example:

```
>>> nums = (1, 2, 3, 4)
```

```

>>> str_nums = []
>>> for n in nums:
...     str_nums.append(str(n))
...
>>> str_nums
['1', '2', '3', '4']
>>> str_nums = map(str, nums)
>>> str_nums
['1', '2', '3', '4']

```

If the function argument of *map()* accepts (or can accept) multiple argument sequences, multiple sequences can be given as later arguments. If the sequences have different lengths, the shorter ones are padded with `None` given as the function argument, producing a sequence of results for each argument sequence.

```

>>> nums = (1,2,3,4)
>>> def add(x, y):
...     if x is None: x=0
...     if y is None: y=0
...     return x+y
...
>>> map(add, nums, [5,5,5])
[6, 7, 8, 4]
>>> map(None, (1,2,3,4), [5,5,5])

```

```
[(1, 5), (2, 5), (3, 5), (4, None)]
```

The *filter()* function returns a list of those items condition given by the function argument. The parameter, and its return value is interpreted as an example:

```
>>> nums = (1,2,3,4)
>>> odds = filter(lambda n: n%2, nums)
>>> odds
(1, 3)
```

Both *map()* and *filter()* can use function arguments making it possible but not usually desirable to re-use the *filter()* function. For example:

```
>>> for x in seq:
...     # bunch of actions
...     pass
...
>>> def actions(x):
...     # same bunch of actions
...     return 0
...
>>> filter(actions, seq)
[]
```

Some epicycles are needed for the scoping of block statements. But as a general picture, it is worth comparing between these very different-seeming techniques.

The *reduce()* function takes as a function argument, in addition to a sequence, a second argument, *reduce()* as an initializer. For each item in the input sequence, the aggregate result is combined with the item, until the sequence is exhausted. *map()* and *filter()* has a loop-like effect of operating on each item in the sequence. The main purpose is to create some sort of aggregate from many items. For example:

```
>>> from operator import add
>>> sum = lambda seq: reduce(add, seq, 0)
>>> sum([4, 5, 23, 12])
44
>>> def tastes_better(x, y):
...     # some complex comparison of x and y
...     # either return x, or return y
...     # ...
...
>>> foods = [spam, eggs, bacon, toast]
>>> favorite = reduce(tastes_better, foods, None)
```

List comprehensions (listcomps) are a syntactic extension of Python 2.0. It is easiest to think of list comprehensions as a combination of the *map()* or *filter()* functions. That is, like the

produce lists of items, based on "input" sequences and if that are familiar from statements. More a compound list comprehension expression than the *map()* and *filter()* functions.

For example, consider the following small problem: a string of characters; you would like to construct a number from the list and a character from the list that is larger than the number. In traditional imperative

```
>>> bigord_pairs = []
>>> for n in (95,100,105):
...     for c in 'aei':
...         if ord(c) > n:
...             bigord_pairs.append((n,c))
...
>>> bigord_pairs
[(95, 'a'), (95, 'e'), (95, 'i'), (100, 'a'), (100, 'e'), (100, 'i'), (105, 'a'), (105, 'e'), (105, 'i')]
```

In a functional programming style you might write

```
>>> dupelms=lambda lst,n: reduce(lambda x,y: x+y, map(ord,lst))
...
>>> combine=lambda xs,ys: map(None,xs,ys)
>>> bigord_pairs=lambda ns,cs: filter(lambda x: x[0]>ord(x[1]),
...                                     combine(ns,cs))
```

```
>>> bigord_pairs((95,100,105),'aei')
[(95, 'a'), (95, 'e'), (100, 'e'), (100, 'i'), (105, 'i')]
```

In defense of this FP approach, it has not *only* provided the general combinatorial function core, but also still rather obfuscated.

List comprehensions let you write something th

```
>>> [(n,c) for n in (95,100,105) for
      [(95, 'a'), (95, 'e'), (95, 'i'), (1
```

As long as you have listcomps available, you have no problem since it just amounts to repeating the for clause

Slightly more formally, a list comprehension consists of square brackets (like a list constructor, which it is not by requirement), contains some names that are more for clauses that bind a name repeatedly (like clauses that limit the results). Generally, but not always, some names that were bound by the for clause

List comprehensions may nest inside each other. A listcomp loops over a list that is defined by another listcomp. A listcomp is even used inside a listcomp's expression. It is as easy to produce difficult-to-read code by excessive nesting of *map()* and *filter()* functions. Use caution with nesting.



It is worth noting that list comprehensions are functional programming style calls. Specifically, bound in the enclosing scope (or global if the n put a minor extra burden on you to choose dist listcomps.

### **A.4.5 while/else/continue/break Statements**

The while statement loops over a block as long remains true. If an else block is used within a c the expression becomes false, the else block is if the while expression is initially false.

If the continue statement occurs in a while loop without executing later lines in the block. If the control passes past the loop without executing break occurs in a try). If a break occurs in a wh

If a while statement's expression is to go from name in the expression will be re-bound within will depend on an external condition, such as a a call to a function whose Boolean value change the most common Python idiom for while state a block. Some examples:

```
>>> command = ''  
>>> while command != 'exit':
```

```

...     command = raw_input('Command: ')
...     # if/elif block to dispatch
...
Command > someaction
Command > exit
>>> while socket.ready():
...     socket.getdata()    # do something
... else:
...     socket.close()      # cleanup
...
>>> while 1:
...     command = raw_input('Command: ')
...     if command == 'exit': break
...     # elif's for other commands
...
Command > someaction
Command > exit

```

## A.4.6 Functions, Simple Generators, and the yield Statement

Both functions and object methods allow a kind of structured execution, but one that is quite restrictive. A function or method enters at its top, executes any statements encountered in the function context as soon as a return statement is reached, and then returns. The invocation of a function or method is basically a

Python 2.2 introduced a flow control construct, style of nonlocal branching. If a function or method then it becomes a *generator function*, and invocation returns a *generator iterator* instead of a simple value. A generator iterator is an object that returns values. Any instance object's method is special in having

In a standard function, once a return statement is executed, all information about the function's flow is discarded. The returned value might contain some information, but it is always gone. A generator iterator, in contrast, maintains all local bindings, between each invocation of it. It is like a calling context each place a yield statement is executed in the body, but the calling context (or any context with a yield statement) is able to jump back to the flow point where this local binding was created.

In the abstract, generators seem complex, but here is a simple example:

```
>>> from __future__ import generator
>>> def generator_func():
...     for n in [1,2]:
...         yield n
...     print "Two yields in for loop"
...     yield 3
...
>>> generator_iter = generator_func()
```

```
>>> generator_iter.next()
1
>>> generator_iter.next()
2
>>> generator_iter.next()
Two yields in for loop
3
>>> generator_iter.next()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
StopIteration
```

The object `generator_iter` in the example can be created and returned from functions, just like any other iterator. `generator_iter.next()` jumps back into the last function body yielded.

In a sense, a generator iterator allows you to write code that looks like statements of some (older) languages, but still uses Python's programming model. The most common usage for generators is in loops. Most of the time, generators are used as "iterators".

```
>>> for n in generator_func():
...     print n
...
1
```

2

Two yields in for loop

3

In recent Python versions, the StopIteration exception is no longer raised by the for loop. The generator iterator's .next() method is possible by the for statement. The name indicated by the yield statement(s) is bound to the values the yield statement(s) return.

## A.4.7 Raising and Catching Exceptions

Python uses exceptions quite broadly and probably more so than any other programming language. In fact there are certain things that are awkward to express by means other than raising an exception.

There are two general purposes for exceptions. First, certain actions can be invalid or disallowed in various ways. For example, you cannot open (for reading) a filename that does not exist; you cannot open a file with a mode that requires arguments of specific types; you cannot assign a value to a variable of an assignment; and so on. The exceptions raised in these cases have names of the form [AZ].\*Error. Catching an exception allows you to recover from a problem condition and restore a normal state. If such error exceptions are not caught in an application, they provide debugging clues since they appear in traceback.

The second purpose for exceptions is for circumventing "exceptional." But understand "exceptional" in the context of Python.

indicates a programming or computer error, but the norm." For example, Python 2.2+ iterators can generate more items than can be generated. Most such iterators imply however; it is merely the case that they contain more items than can be generated. It's not "the norm" that they run out only once at the end. It's not "the norm" that it is often expected that this will happen eventually.

In a sense, raising an exception can be similar to causing control flow to leave a block. For example,

```
>>> n = 0
>>> while 1:
...     n = n+1
...     if n > 10: break
...
>>> print n
11
>>> n = 0
>>> try:
...     while 1:
...         n = n+1
...         if n > 10: raise "ExitLoop"
... except:
...     print n
...
11
```

In two closely related ways, exceptions behave. In the first place, exceptions could be described as contexts. A context is considered a sin akin to "GOTO," but you know at compile time exactly where an exception is caught (else, it is caught by the Python interpreter). It might be a function or a containing block, and so on; or it might be the caller that called it, or something that called the caller, and so on. Its way through execution contexts until it finds a handler. The propagation of exceptions is quite opposite to that of scoped bindings (or even to the earlier "three-scope" rule).

The corollary of exceptions' dynamic scope is that you can exit gracefully from deeply nested loops. The "while" loop is better than nested." And indeed it is so, if you use it properly. You should probably refactor (e.g., break loops out of nesting *just deeply enough*, dynamically scoped loops). Consider the following small problem: A "Fermat's Last Theorem" problem: Find integers  $(i, j, k)$  such that  $i^{**2} + j^{**2} == k^{**2}$ . Do any Fermat triples exist with all three integers  $i, j, k$  (but entirely nonoptimal) solution is:

```
>>> def fermat_triple(beg, end):
...     class EndLoop(Exception): pass
...     range_ = range(beg, end)
...     try:
...         for i in range_:
...             for j in range_:
```

```

...         for k in range_:
...             if i**2 + j**2 == n:
...                 raise EndLoop
...     except EndLoop, triple:
...         # do something with 'triple'
...         return i,j,k
...
>>> fermat_triple(1,10)
(3, 4, 5)
>>> fermat_triple(120,150)
>>> fermat_triple(100,150)
(100, 105, 145)

```

By raising the EndLoop exception in the middle catch it again outside of all the loops. A simple out of the most deeply nested block, which is possible for setting a "satisfied" flag and testing for this approach is much simpler. Since the except block catches the exception with the triple, it could have just been returned directly. In some cases, other actions can be required before a return.

It is not uncommon to want to leave nested blocks in the sense of an "Error" exception. Sometimes you discover a problem condition within a nested block and want to leave the nesting. Some typical examples are missing dictionary keys or list indices, and so on.



statements to the calling position that really need support functions as if nothing can go wrong. For

```
>>> try:
...     result = complex_file_operation(filename)
... except IOError:
...     print "Cannot open file", filename
```

The function `complex_file_operation()` should not know what to do if a bad filename is given to it in this context. Instead, such support functions can simply pass the error upwards, until some caller takes responsibility for it.

The try statement has two forms. The try/except form and the try/finally form is useful for "cleanup handling".

In the first form, a try block must be followed by an except block. The except block may specify an exception or tuple of exceptions. If no exception is raised, the except block may omit an exception (tuple), in which case it catches any exception not caught by an earlier except block. After the except block, an else block may be present. The else block is run only if no exception was raised. Here is an example:

```
>>> def except_test(n):
...     try: x = 1/n
...     except IOError: print "IO Error"
...     except ZeroDivisionError: print "Division by zero"
```

```

...     except: print "Some Other Error"
...     else: print "All is Happy"
...
>>> except_test(1)
All is Happy
>>> except_test(0)
Zero Division
>>> except_test('x')
Some Other Error

```

An except test will match either the exception or a base class of the exception. It tends to make sense, therefore, to use exceptions from related ones in the *exceptions* module. For

```

>>> class MyException(IOError): pass
>>> try:
...     raise MyException
... except IOError:
...     print "got it"
...
got it

```

In the try/finally form of the try statement, the finally block is always executed, whether or not an exception occurs in the try block. It is used for cleanup code. If no exception occurs in the try block, the finally block is executed. If an exception *was* raised in the try block, the original exception is re-raised at the end of the finally block.

statement is executed in a finally block or if a new exception occurs (including with the raise statement) the finally block's original exception disappears.

A finally statement acts as a cleanup block even if the try block contains a return, break, or continue statement. If the try block does not run all the way through, finally is still entered and its actions are accomplished. A typical use of this compound statement is to acquire a resource at the very start of the try block, then use it; if it may not succeed in the rest of the block, the finally block ensures the file gets closed, whether or not all the actions completed.

The try/finally form is never strictly needed since the raise statement can last exception. It is possible, therefore, to have a raise statement to propagate an error upward after the cleanup action is desired whether or not an exception occurred. The try/finally form can save a few lines and express your intention more clearly.

```
>>> def finally_test(x):
...     try:
...         y = 1/x
...         if x > 10:
...             return x
...     finally:
...         print "Cleaning up..."
...     return y
... 
```

```

>>> finally_test(0)
Cleaning up...
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "<stdin>", line 3, in finally
ZeroDivisionError: integer division
>>> finally_test(3)
Cleaning up...
0
>>> finally_test(100)
Cleaning up...
100

```

## A.4.8 Data as Code

Unlike in languages in the Lisp family, it is *usual* programs that execute data values. It is *possible* strings during program runtime using several built-in functions. *codeop*, *imp*, and *new* provide additional capabilities. The interactive shell itself is an example of a program that takes input, then executes them. So clearly, this approach

Other than in providing an interactive environment (as we know Python), a possible use for the "data as code" paradigm is to let code snippets themselves generate Python code, either to run in a separate application. At a simple level, it is not difficult to

based on templated functionality; for this to be a useful program to contain some customization that was

**`eval(s [,globals=globals() [,locals=locals()]])`**

Evaluate the expression in string `s` and return the result. You can specify optional arguments `globals` and `locals` to provide a dictionary for name lookup. By default, use the regular global dictionary and the local dictionary. That only an expression can be evaluated, not a statement.

Most of the time when a (novice) programmer needs to process some value often numeric based on data encoded in a report file contains a list of dollar amounts. These numbers. A naive approach to the problem is to use `eval()`.

```
>>> line = "$47    $33    $51    $76"
>>> eval("+" . join([d.replace('$', '') for d in line.split()])
207
```

While this approach is generally slow, that is not a significant issue is that `eval()` runs code that is not intended to. It could contain Python code that causes harm to the application to malfunction. Imagine that instead of the above code contained `os.rmdir("/")`. A better approach is to use `int()`, `float()`, and so on.

```
>>> nums = [int(d.replace('$', ''))
>>> from operator import add
>>> reduce(add, nums)
207
```

## **exec**

The `exec` statement is a more powerful sibling of `eval()`. Code may be run if passed to the `exec` statement. It allows optional namespace specification, as with `eval()`.

```
exec code [in globals [,locals]]
```

For example:

```
>>> s = "for i in range(10):\n    print i"
>>> exec s in globals(), locals()
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
```

The argument `code` may be either a string, a code object, or a callable object. `eval()`, the security dangers and speed penalties are convenience provided. However, where code is executed, `exec` is occasionally used for this statement.

```
__import__(s [,globals=globals() [,locals=locals()]])
```

Import the module named `s`, using namespace argument fromlist may be omitted, but if specified, the fully qualified subpackage will be imported. This statement is the way you import modules, but if the value of `s` is not determined until runtime, use `__import__`

```
>>> op = __import__('os.path', global  
>>> op.basename('/this/that/other')  
'other'
```

## **input([prompt])**

Equivalent to `eval(raw_input(prompt))`, along with `eval()` generally. Best practice is to always use existing programs.

## **raw\_input([prompt])**

Return a string from user input at the terminal. Used in console-based applications.

```
>>> s = raw_input('Last Name: ')  
Last Name: Mertz  
>>> s
```

'Mertz'

---

**Team-Fly**



## A.5 Functional Programming

This section largely recapitulates a brief description of functional programming for those with common unfamiliarity with functional programming. Additional material on functional programming nature can be found in articles at:

<<http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/charr>

<<http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/charr>

<<http://gnosis.cx/publish/programming/charr>

It is hard to find any consensus about exactly what is functional programming, either its proponents or detractors. It is not really a feature of languages, and to what extent a feature of languages, and to what extent a feature of languages, we can leave aside discussion of languages like Lisp, Scheme, Haskell, ML, Ocaml, etc. we can focus on what makes a Python program

Programs that lean towards functional program paradigms, tend to have many of the following

## **1. Functions are treated as first-class objects to other functions and methods, and return**

- Solutions are expressed more in terms of *what* and *how* the computation is performed.
- Side effects, especially rebinding names repeatedly, are avoided; programs are referentially transparent (see Glossary).
- Expressions are emphasized over statements; functions describe how a result collection is related to a collection of input objects.
- The following Python constructs are used prevalently: *filter()*, *reduce()*, *apply()*, *zip()*, and *enumerate()*; the *map()* operator; list comprehensions; and switches expressed as *if* statements.

Many experienced Python programmers consider this as a feature. The main drawback of a functional style (as seen elsewhere) is that it is easy to write unmaintainable code using it. Too many *map()*, *reduce()*, and *filter()* calls, and all the self-evidence of Python's simple statements, mixing unnamed *lambda* functions into the mix makes the code hard to read. A discussion in [Chapter 1](#) of higher-order functions

## A.5.1 Emphasizing Expressions Using `lambda`

The *lambda* operator is used to construct an "a more common def declaration, a function creating a single expression as a result, not a sequence of statements. There are inelegant ways to emulate statements, but one should think of *lambda* as a less-powerful cousin of *def*."

Not all Python programmers are happy with the benefit in readability to giving a function a descriptive name. The style below is clearly more readable than the first.

```
>>> from math import sqrt
>>> print map(lambda (a,b): sqrt(a**2+b**2),
               [(3,4), (7,11), (35,8)])
[5.0, 13.038404810405298, 35.9026461]
>>> sides = ((3,4), (7,11), (35,8))
>>> def hypotenuse(ab):
...     a,b = ab[:]
...     return sqrt(a**2+b**2)
...
>>> print map(hypotenuse, sides)
[5.0, 13.038404810405298, 35.9026461]
```

By declaring a named function `hypotenuse()`, the code is much more clear. Once in a while, though, a function is needed (e.g., in *Tkinter*, *xml.sax*, or *mx.TextTools*) where readability is less important than brevity.

only adds noise.

However, you may notice in this book that I fail to define a name. For example, you might see :

```
>>> hypotenuse = lambda (a,b): sqrt(a
```

This usage is mostly for documentation. A side saved in assigning an anonymous function to a concision is not particularly important. This function explicitly that I do not expect any side effects within the `hypotenuse()` function. While that fact is not advertised; you have to look through. Strictly speaking, there are ways like calling `set` *lambda*, but as a convention, I avoid doing so,

Moreover, a second documentary goal is served above. Whenever this form occurs, it is possible expression anywhere the left-hand name occurs parentheses usually, however). By using this form simply a short-hand for the defined expression.

```
>>> hypotenuse = lambda a,b: sqrt(a*  
>>> (lambda a,b: sqrt(a**2+b**2)) (3,  
    (5.0, 5.0)
```

Bindings with `def`, in general, lack substitutability

## A.5.2 Special List Functions

Python has two built-in functions that are strict and are frequently useful in conjunction with the "for" loop:

### `zip(seq1 [,seq2 [...]])`

The *zip()* function, in Python 2.0+, combines multiple sequences into tuples. Think of the teeth of a zipper for an image.

The function *zip()* is almost the same as *map()*, but it stops when it reaches the end of the shortest sequence. For example:

```
>>> map(None, (1,2,3,4), [5,5,5])
[(1, 5), (2, 5), (3, 5), (4, None)]
>>> zip((1,2,3,4), [5,5,5])
[(1, 5), (2, 5), (3, 5)]
```

Especially in combination with *apply()*, extended with multiple argument unpacking, *zip()* is useful for operating over multiple sequences. For example:

```
>>> lefts, tops = (3, 7, 35), (4, 11, 41)
>>> map(hypotenuse, zip(lefts, tops))
[5.0, 13.038404810405298, 35.90264611501372]
```

A little quirk of `zip()` is that it is *almost* its own syntax is needed for inversion, though. The expression `zip(*zip(*sides))` (as an exercise, play with variations). Consider

```
>>> sides = [(3, 4), (7, 11), (35, 8)]
>>> zip(*zip(*sides))
[(3, 4), (7, 11), (35, 8)]
```

## **enumerate(collection)**

Python 2.3 adds the `enumerate()` built-in function that returns a sequence of pairs of index positions at the same time. Basically, `enumerate(seq)` is like `zip(range(len(seq)),seq)`, but `enumerate()` is a more convenient way to loop over the entire list to loop over. A typical usage is:

```
>>> items = ['a','b']
>>> i = 0          # old-style explicit
>>> for thing in items:
...     print 'index',i,'contains',t
...     i += 1
index 0 contains a
index 1 contains b
>>> for i,thing in enumerate(items):
...     print 'index',i,'contains',t
...
```

```
index 0 contains a
index 1 contains b
```

### A.5.3 List-Application Functions as Flow Con

I believe that text processing is one of the area judicious use of functional programming technique conciseness. A strength of FP style specifically the *filter()*, and *reduce()* is that they are not merely *sequences*. In text processing contexts, most lines of text, frequently over lines. When you wish to process items, FP style allows the code to focus on the side issues of loop constructs and transient variables.

In part, a *map()*, *filter()*, or *reduce()* call is a kind of instruction to perform an action a number of times. For example:

```
for x in range(100):
    sys.stdout.write(str(x))
```

and:

```
filter(sys.stdout.write, map(str, range(100)))
```

are just two different ways of calling the *str()* function and the *sys.stdout.write()* method with each result). The

does not bother rebinding a name for each iteration; an application function returns a value; a list for *map()*; a value for *reduce()*. Functions/methods like *sys.exit()* and their side effects almost always return *None*; but beware! Around these, you avoid constructing a throwaway empty list.

### A.5.4 Extended Call Syntax and `apply()`

To call a function in a dynamic way, it is sometimes necessary to pass arguments in data structures prior to the call. Using several positional arguments is awkward, and using keyword arguments simply cannot be done with the Python 2.x example, consider the `salutation()` function:

```
>>> def salutation(title, first, last,
...               print_prefix,
...               if_use_title: print title,
...               print '%s %s,' % (first, last)
...               )
>>> salutation('Dr.', 'David', 'Mertz',
To: Dr. David Mertz,
```

Suppose you read names and prefix strings from a file. You can call `salutation()` with arguments determined at



```
>>> rec = get_next_db_record()
>>> opts = calculate_options(rec)
>>> salutation(rec[0], rec[1], rec[2]
...           use_title=opts.get('u
...           prefix=opts.get('pref
```

This call can be performed more concisely as:

```
>>> salutation(*rec, **opts)
```

Or as:

```
>>> apply(salutation, rec, opts)
```

The calls `func(*args,**keywds)` and `apply(func, args, keywds)` must be a sequence of the same length. The (optional) argument `keywds` is a dictionary matching keyword arguments (if not, it has no effect).

In most cases, the extended call syntax is more concise and resembles the *declaration* syntax of generic programming. In a few cases, particularly in higher-order function programming, it is still useful. For example, suppose that you have a function that can perform an action immediately or defer it for later, depending on a flag. In the following program this application as:

```
defer_list = []
```

```
if some_runtime_condition():
    doIt = apply
else:
    doIt = lambda *x: defer_list.append(x)
    #...do stuff like read records and call doIt
    doIt(operation, args, kwargs)
    #...do more stuff...
    #...carry out deferred actions...
map(lambda (f,args,kw): f(*args,**kwargs), deferred_actions)
```

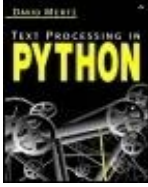
Since *apply()* is itself a first-class function rather than a method, as aroundor in the example, bind it to a name.



Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

# Appendix B. A Data Compression Primer

Section B.1. Introduction

Section B.2. Lossless and Lossy Compression

Section B.3. A Data Set Example

Section B.4. Whitespace Compression

Section B.5. Run-Length Encoding

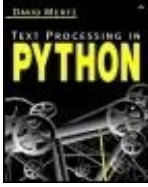
Section B.6. Huffman Encoding

Section B.7. Lempel Ziv-Compression

Section B.8. Solving the Right Problem

Section B.9. A Custom Text Compressor

Section B.10. References



[Text Processing in Python](#) By David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Primer

---

### B.1 Introduction

See [Section 2.2.5](#) for details on compression capabilities included in the Python standard library. This appendix is intended to provide readers who are unfamiliar with data compression a basic background on its techniques and theory. The final section of this appendix provides a practical example accompanied by some demonstration code of a Huffman-inspired custom encoding.

Data compression is widely used in a variety of programming contexts. All popular operating systems and programming languages have numerous tools and libraries for dealing with data

compression of various sorts. The right choice of compression tools and libraries for a particular application depends on the characteristics of the data and application in question: streaming versus file; expected patterns and regularities in the data; relative importance of CPU usage, memory usage, channel demands, and storage requirements; and other factors.

Just what is data compression, anyway? The short answer is that data compression removes *redundancy* from data; in information-theoretic terms, compression increases the *entropy* of the compressed text. But those statements are essentially just true by definition. Redundancy can come in a lot of different forms. Repeated bit sequences (11111111) are one type. Repeated byte sequences are another (XXXXXXXX). But more often redundancies tend to come on a larger scale, either regularities of the data set taken as a whole, or sequences of varying lengths that are relatively common. Basically, what data compression aims at is finding algorithmic transformations of data representations that will produce more compact

representations given "typical" data sets. If this description seems a bit complex to unpack, read on to find some more practical illustrations.

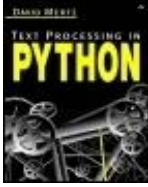
---

**Team-Fly**

◀ Previous

Next ▶

[Top](#)



[Text Processing in Python](#) By David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Primer

---

### B.2 Lossless and Lossy Compression

There are actually two fundamentally different "styles" of data compression: lossless and lossy. This appendix is generally about lossless compression techniques, but the reader would be served to understand the distinction first. Lossless compression involves a transformation of the representation of a data set such that it is possible to reproduce *exactly* the original data set by performing a decompression transformation. Lossy compression is a representation that allows you to reproduce something "pretty much like" the original data set. As a plus for the lossy techniques,



they can frequently produce far more compact data representations than lossless compression techniques can. Most often lossy compression techniques are used for images, sound files, and video. Lossy compression may be appropriate in these areas insofar as human observers do not perceive the literal bit-pattern of a digital image/sound, but rather more general "gestalt" features of the underlying image/sound.

From the point of view of "normal" data, lossy compression is not an option. We do not want a program that does "about the same" thing as the one we wrote. We do not want a database that contains "about the same" kind of information as what we put into it. At least not for most purposes (and I know of few practical uses of lossy compression outside of what are already approximate mimetic representations of the real world, likes images and sounds).

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Prim

### B.3 A Data Set Example

For purposes of this appendix, let us start with representation. Here is an easy-to-understand Greenfield, MA, the telephone prefixes are 772. readers: In the USA, local telephone numbers are conventionally represented in the form ###-### (### for geographic blocks.) Suppose also that the first assigned of the three. The suffix portions might equal distribution. The data set we are interested in is "telephone numbers currently in active use." On why this might be interesting for programmatic specify that herein.

Initially, the data set we are interested in comes in the following representation: a multicolumn report (perhaps the result of a query or compilation process). The first few lines

=====

772-7628

772-8601

772-0113

773-4319

774-3920

772-0893

773-1134

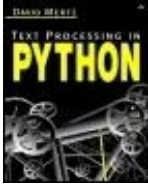
772-4930

772-9390

[ . . . ]

---

**Team-Fly**



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Primer

---

### B.4 Whitespace Compression

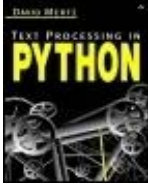
Whitespace compression can be characterized most generally as "removing what we are not interested in." Even though this technique is technically a lossy-compression technique, it is still useful for many types of data representations we find in the real world. For example, even though HTML is far more readable in a text editor if indentation and vertical spacing is added, none of this "whitespace" should make any difference to how the HTML document is rendered by a Web browser. If you happen to know that an HTML document is destined only for a Web browser (or for a robot/spider), then it might be a good idea

to take out all the whitespace to make it transmit faster and occupy less space in storage. What we remove in whitespace compression never really had any functional purpose to start with.

In the case of our example in this article, it is possible to remove quite a bit from the described report. The row of "=" across the top adds nothing functional, nor do the "-" within numbers, nor the spaces between them. These are all useful for a person reading the original report, but do not matter once we think of it as data. What we remove is not precisely whitespace in traditional terms, but the intent is the same.

Whitespace compression is extremely "cheap" to perform. It is just a matter of reading a stream of data and excluding a few specific values from the output stream. In many cases, no "decompression" step is involved at all. But even where we would wish to re-create something close to the original somewhere down the data stream, it should require little in terms of CPU or memory. What we reproduce may or may

not be exactly what we started with, depending on just what rules and constraints were involved in the original. An HTML page typed by a human in a text editor will probably have spacing that is idiosyncratic. Then again, automated tools often produce "reasonable" indentation and spacing of HTML. In the case of the rigid report format in our example, there is no reason that the original representation could not be precisely produced by a "decompressing formatter" down the data stream.



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Primer

### B.5 Run-Length Encoding

Run-length encoding (RLE) is the simplest widely used lossless-compression technique. Like whitespace compression, it is "cheap" especially to decode. The idea behind it is that many data representations consist largely of strings of repeated bytes. Our example report is one such data representation. It begins with a string of repeated "=", and has strings of spaces scattered through it. Rather than represent each character with its own byte, RLE will (sometimes or always) have an iteration count followed by the character to be repeated.

If repeated bytes are predominant within

the expected data representation, it might be adequate and efficient to always have the algorithm specify one or more bytes of iteration count, followed by one character. However, if one-length character strings occur, these strings will require two (or more) bytes to encode them; that is, 00000001 01011000 might be the output bit stream required for just one ASCII "X" of the input stream. Then again, a hundred "X" in a row would be output as 01100100 01011000, which is quite good.

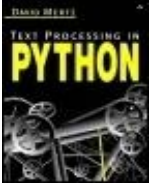
What is frequently done in RLE variants is to selectively use bytes to indicate iterator counts and otherwise just have bytes represent themselves. At least one byte-value has to be reserved to do this, but that can be escaped in the output, if needed. For example, in our example telephone-number report, we know that everything in the input stream is plain ASCII characters. Specifically, they all have bit one of their ASCII value as 0. We could use this first ASCII bit to indicate that an iterator count was being represented rather than representing a regular character. The next seven bits of the iterator byte could be



used for the iterator count, and the next byte could represent the character to be repeated. So, for example, we could represent the string "YXXXXXXXX" as:

"Y"	Iter(8)	"X"
01001111	10001000	01011000

This example does not show how to escape iterator byte-values, nor does it allow iteration of more than 127 occurrences of a character. Variations on RLE deal with issues such as these, if needed.



## B.6 Huffman Encoding

Huffman encoding looks at the symbol table of whole data set. The compression is achieved by finding the "weights" of each symbol in the data set. Some symbols occur more frequently than others, so Huffman encoding suggests that the frequent symbols need not be encoded using as many bits as the less-frequent symbols. There are variations on Huffman-style encoding, but the original (and frequent) variation involves looking for the most common symbol and encoding it using just one bit, say 1. If you encounter a 0, you know you're on the way to encoding a long variable length symbol.

Let's imagine we apply Huffman encoding to our local phone-book example (assume we have already whitespace-compressed the report). We

might get:

Encoding	Symbol
1	7
010	2
011	3
00000	4
00001	5
00010	6
00011	8
00100	9
00101	0
00111	1

Our initial symbol set of digits could already be straightforwardly encoded (with no-compression as 4-bit sequences (nibbles). The Huffman encoding given will use up to 5-bits for the worst case symbols, which is obviously worse than the nibble encoding. However, our best case will use only *1* bit, and we know that our best case is also the most frequent case, by having scanned the data set. So we might encode a particular phone number like:

772 7628 --> 1 1 010 1 00010 010 000

The nibble encoding would take 28-bits to represent a phone number; in this particular case, our encoding takes 19-bits. I introduced spaces into the example above for clarity; you can see that they are not necessary to unpack the encoding, since the encoding table will determine whether we have reached the end of an encoded symbol (but you have to keep track of your place in the bits).

Huffman encoding is still fairly cheap to decode cycle-wise. But it requires a table lookup, so it cannot be quite as cheap as RLE, however. The encoding side of Huffman is fairly expensive, though; the whole data set has to be scanned and a frequency table built up. In some cases a "shortcut" is appropriate with Huffman coding. Standard Huffman coding applies to a particular data set being encoded, with the set-specific symbol table prepended to the output data stream. However, if the whole type of data encoded not just the single data set has the same regularities, we can opt for a global Huffman table. If we have such a global Huffman table, we can hard-code the lookups into our executables which makes both compression and decompression quite a bit cheaper (except for the initial global sampling and hard-coding). For

example, if we know our data set would be English-language prose, letter-frequency tables are well known and quite consistent across data sets.

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Primer

---

### B.7 Lempel Ziv-Compression

Probably the most significant lossless-compression explained here is LZ78, but LZ77 and other variants. LZ78 is to encode a streaming byte sequence using. When compressing a bit stream, the LZ table is filled with blank slots. Various size tables are used, but for the number example above, let's suppose that we use a table of size 10, for example, although much too small for most other applications. We fill ten slots with our alphabet (digits). As new bytes are added that grabs the longest sequence possible, then adds it to the sequence. In the worst case, we are using 5-bits per byte, we'll wind up getting to use 5-bits for multiple bytes. A real machine might do this (a table slot is noted with

```
7 --> Lookup: 7 found          --> nothing
7 --> Lookup: 77 not found    --> add '7'
2 --> Lookup: 72 not found    --> add '2'
```

```
7 --> Lookup: 27 not found --> add '
6 --> Lookup: 76 not found --> add '
2 --> Lookup: 62 not found --> add '
8 --> Lookup: 28 not found --> add '
```

So far, we've got nothing out of it, but let's con

```
7 --> Lookup: 87 not found --> add
7 --> Lookup: 77 found --> noth
2 --> Lookup: 772 not found --> add
8 --> Lookup: 28 found --> noth
6 --> Lookup: 286 not found --> add
...
```

The steps should suffice to see the pattern. We but notice that we've already managed to use s symbols with one output in each case. We've al 772 in slot 18, which would prove useful later i

What LZ78 does is fill up one symbol table with it, and start a new one. In this regard, 32 entri since that will get cleared before a lot of reuse symbol table is easy to illustrate.

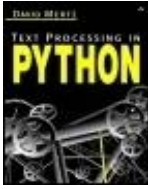
In typical data sets, Lempel-Ziv variants achiev Huffman or RLE. On the other hand, Lempel-Ziv use large tables in memory. Most real-life comp

of Lempel-Ziv and Huffman techniques.

---

**Team-Fly**





Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Primer

---

### B.8 Solving the Right Problem

Just as choosing the right algorithm can often create orders-of-magnitude improvements over even heavily optimized wrong algorithms, choosing the right data representation is often even more important than compression methods (which are always a sort of post hoc optimization of desired features). The simple data set example used in this appendix is a perfect case where reconceptualizing the problem would actually be a much better approach than using *any* of the compression techniques illustrated.

Think again about what our data

represents. It is not a very general collection of data, and the rigid a priori constraints allow us to reformulate our whole problem. What we have is a maximum of 30,000 telephone numbers (7720000 through 7749999), some of which are active, and others of which are not. We do not have a "duty," as it were, to produce a full representation of each telephone number that is active, but simply to indicate the binary fact that it *is* active. Thinking of the problem this way, we can simply allocate 30,000 bits of memory and storage, and have each bit say "yes" or "no" to the presence of one telephone number. The ordering of the bits in the bit-array can be simple ascending order from the lowest to the highest telephone number in the range.

This bit-array solution is the best in almost every respect. It allocates exactly 3750 bytes to represent the data set; the various compression techniques will use a varying amount of storage depending both on the number of telephone numbers in the set and the efficiency of the compression. But if 10,000 of the 30,000 possible telephone

numbers are active, and even a very efficient compression technique requires several bytes per telephone number, then the bit-array is an order-of-magnitude better. In terms of CPU demands, the bit-array is not only better than any of the discussed compression methods, it is also quite likely to be better than the naive noncompression method of listing all the numbers as strings. Stepping through a bit-array and incrementing a "current-telephone-number" counter can be done quite efficiently and mostly within the on-chip cache of a modern CPU.

The lesson to be learned from this very simple example is certainly not that every problem has some magic shortcut (like this one does). A lot of problems genuinely require significant memory, bandwidth, storage, and CPU resources, and in many of those cases compression techniques can help ease or shift those burdens. But a more moderate lesson could be suggested: Before compression techniques are employed, it is a good idea to make sure that one's starting conceptualization of the data representation is a good one.

---

**Team-Fly**

◀ Previous

Next ▶

[Top](#)

## B.9 A Custom Text Compressor

Most styles of compression require a decompressor to be useful with a source document. Many (de)compressors only use only the needed bytes of a compressed or decompressed documents even insert recovery or bookkeeping bytes into documents (rather than from the very beginning). compressed documents or strings look like plain text. Nonetheless, even streaming decompressors recover the plaintext content of a compressed document.

An excellent example of a streaming (de)compressor is `gzip`. Although not entirely transparent, you can compress or decompress with an explicit call to a (de)compression function using the `gzip` module's like interface, but it is also easy to operate on a `cStringIO.StringIO()`. For example:

```
>>> from gzip import GzipFile
>>> from cStringIO import StringIO
```

```

>>> sio = StringIO()
>>> writer = GzipFile(None, 'wb', 9,
>>> writer.write('Mary had a little
>>> writer.write('its fleece as whit
>>> writer.close()
>>> sio.getvalue()[ :20]
'\x1f\x8b\x08\x00k\xc1\x9c<\x02\xff'
>>> reader = GzipFile(None, 'rb', 9,
>>> reader.read()[ :20]
'Mary had a little la'
>>> reader.seek(30)
>>> reader.read()
'ece as white as snow\n'

```

One thing this example shows is that the underlying process is stateful. Although the file-like API hides the decompression process is also stateful in its decompression sequence in the compressed text. You cannot seek to the middle of the compressed text without a knowledge of the entire text.

A different approach to compression can have significant savings for language textual sources. A group of researchers at MIT developed "word-based Huffman compression." The general idea is to use whole words as the symbol set for a Huffman tree. For natural languages, a limited number of (various frequency, and savings result if such words are

general, such reduced representation is common. Word-based Huffman takes the additional step of re-mapping, as with other Huffman variants).

A special quality of word-based Huffman compression is that the compressed form can be searched. This quality makes it useful. Instead, if one is searching for words directly, one merely precompresses the search terms, then uses them against an in-memory string or against a precompressed target will be *faster* than one would use snippets similar to:

```
small_text = word_Huffman_compress(k)
search_term = "Foobar"
coded_term = word_Huffman_compress(search_term)
offset = small_text.find(coded_term)
coded_context = small_text[offset-10:offset+10]
plain_context = word_Huffman_expand(coded_context)
```

A sophisticated implementation of word-based Huffman compression sizes than does *zlib*. For simplicity, this implementation focuses on the goal of clarity and brevity over a number of features.

The presented module *word-huffman* uses a fixed-size symbol table. This number of bytes can be selected

to a generous 2 million entries). The module also separates the document from the actual compression/decompression. The same symbol table for various documents get encoded using the same symbol table based on a set of canonical documents. In this way, symbol table generation can happen just once, and the symbol table is transmitted along with each compressed document, treating the document being processed current as canonical (thereby somewhat improving compression).

In the algorithm utilized by *word-huffman*, only the lower 128 ASCII characters represent their original sequence. The lower sequence that is not in the symbol table is represented by a high-bit character, which would not benefit from encoding. Any high-bit character is escaped by being preceded by an 0xFF byte, using two bytes; this technique is clearly only useful for binary files. Moreover, only character values 0x00 *always* signals a literal high-bit character in the

The *word\_huffman* algorithm is not entirely static. A character in a compressed text can be expanded without a symbol table required. Any low-bit character always literally represents a character. It might be either an escaped literal, a first byte of a symbol table entry. In the worst case, where a character is a look back two bytes from an arbitrary position in the document. Normally, only one byte lookback is necessary. Characters are separated from each other in the uncompressed document (whitespace), so parsing compressed entries is straightforward.



## word\_huffman.py

```
wordchars = '-_ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ'

def normalize_text(txt):
    "Convert non-word characters to
    trans = [' '] * 256
    for c in wordchars: trans[ord(c)] = c
    return txt.translate(''.join(chr(i) for i in trans))

def build_histogram(txt, hist={}):
    "Incrementally build a histogram
    for word in txt.split():
        hist[word] = hist.get(word, 0) + 1
    return hist

def optimal_Nbyte(hist, entrylen=2):
    "Build optimal word list for non-
    slots = 127**entrylen
    words = []
    for word, count in hist.items():
        gain = count * (len(word) - entrylen)
        if gain > 0: words.append((word, gain))
    words.sort()
```

```

words.reverse()
return [w[1] for w in words[:slc

def tables_from_words(words):
    "Create symbol tables for compression"
    # Determine ACTUAL best symbol table entrylen
    if len(words) < 128: entrylen = 1
    elif len(words) <= 16129: entrylen = 2
    else: entrylen = 3 # assume < 2^24
    comp_table = {}
    # Escape hihat characters
    for hihat_char in map(chr, range(0x10000)):
        comp_table[hihat_char] = hihat_char
    # Literal low-bit characters
    for lowbit_char in map(chr, range(0x100)):
        comp_table[lowbit_char] = lowbit_char
    # Add word entries
    for word, index in zip(words, range(len(words))):
        comp_table[word] = symbol(index, len(words))
    # Reverse dictionary for expansion
    exp_table = {}
    for key, val in comp_table.items():
        exp_table[val] = key
    return (comp_table, exp_table, len(words))

```

```

def symbol(index, entrylen):
    "Determine actual symbol from wc
    if entrylen == 1:
        return chr(128+index)
    if entrylen == 2:
        byte1, byte2 = divmod(index, 128)
        return chr(128+byte1)+chr(128+byte2)
    if entrylen == 3:
        byte1, rem = divmod(index, 128)
        byte2, byte3 = divmod(rem, 128)
        return chr(128+byte1)+chr(128+byte2)+chr(128+byte3)
    raise ValueError, "symbol byte 1"

```

```

def word_Huffman_compress(text, comp_table):
    "Compress text based on word-to-code mapping
    comp_text = []
    maybe_entry = []
    for c in text+chr(0):    # force NUL
        if c in wordchars:
            maybe_entry.append(c)
        else:
            word = ''.join(maybe_entry)
            comp_text.append(comp_table[word])
            maybe_entry = []

```

```
        comp_text.append(comp_text[0])
    return ''.join(comp_text[:-1])
```

```
def word_Huffman_expand(text, exp_table):
    """Expand text based on symbol-to-exp_text"""
    exp_text = []
    offset = 0
    end = len(text)
    while offset < end:
        c = text[offset]
        if ord(c) == 255:    # escape
            exp_text.append(text[offset])
            offset += 2
        elif ord(c) >= 128: # symbol
            symbol = text[offset:offset+1]
            exp_text.append(exp_table[symbol])
            offset += entrylen[symbol]
        else:
            exp_text.append(c)
            offset += 1
    return ''.join(exp_text)
```

```
def Huffman_find(pat, comp_text, comp_table):
    """Find a (plaintext) substring in compressed text
    comp_pat = word_Huffman_compress(pat, comp_table)
    return comp_text.find(comp_pat)
```

```

        return comp_text.find(comp_pat)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    import sys, glob
    big_text = []
    for fpat in sys.argv[1:]:
        for fname in glob.glob(fpat):
            big_text.append(open(fname).read())
    big_text = ''.join(big_text)
    hist = build_histogram(normalize)
    for entrylen in (1, 2, 3):
        comp_words = optimal_Nbyte(hist)
        comp_table, exp_table, entrylen = Huffman_build(comp_words)
        comp_text = word_Huffman_encode(big_text, comp_table)
        exp_text = word_Huffman_encode(big_text, exp_table)
        print "Nominal/actual symbol lengths: %i/%i" % (
            entrylen, entrylen)
        print "Compression ratio: %i" % (
            ((100*len(comp_text))/len(exp_text)))
        if big_text == exp_text:
            print "*** Compression successful"
        else:
            print "*** Failure in compression"
            # Just for fun, here's a search for 'Foobar'
            pos = Huffman_find('Foobar', comp_table)

```

The *word\_huffman* module, while simple and fast, is the basis for a fleshed-out variant. The compressed size is comparatively modest (about 50-60 percent of the size of the original text) given that locality of decompression of subsegments is nearly no disadvantage to this transformation for most texts. It is much quicker, basically in direct proportion to the length of the text.

One likely improvement would be to add run-length encoding (for non-alpha characters); doing so would lose no generality. The algorithm is designed around, and in typical applications, no significant additional compression. Moreover, a transformation is that transformed documents are not searchable by word-based techniques (i.e., cumulatively). In other words, documents with *word-huffman* if you intend to use search tools.

More aggressive improvements might be obtained by adding more table entries and/or by claiming some additional space (and escaping literals in the original text). Your results might vary somewhat depending upon the nature of the texts.

Search capabilities might also be generalized but are not. In the referenced research article below, the author's expression searching against word-based Huffman implementation allows certain straightforward techniques (if literal words occur within them) for searching a

caveats and restrictions apply. Overcoming most of  
Python's underlying regular expression engine,

---

**Team-Fly**

## Appendix B. A Data Compression Prim

---

### B.10 References

A good place to turn for additional theoretical and practical information on compression is at the <comp.compression> FAQ:

<<http://www.faqs.org/faqs/compression-faq/>>

A research article on word-based Huffman encoding inspired my simple example of word-based compression. The article "Fast and Flexible Word Searching on Compressed Text," by Edleno Silva de Moura, G. Navarro, Nivio Ziviani, and Ricardo Baeza-Yates can be found at:

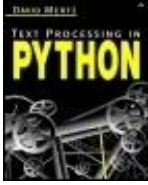
<<http://citeseer.nj.nec.com/silvademoura00fast>>



Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

Table of Contents

---

# Appendix C. Understanding Unicode

Section C.1. Some Background on Characters

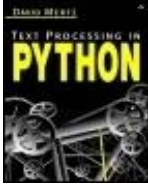
Section C.2. What Is Unicode?

Section C.3. Encodings

Section C.4. Declarations

Section C.5. Finding Codepoints

Section C.6. Resources



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Appendix C. Understanding Unicode

### C.1 Some Background on Characters

Before we see what Unicode is, it makes sense to step back slightly to think about just what it means to store "characters" in digital files. Anyone who uses a tool like a text editor usually just thinks of what they are doing as entering some characters—numbers, letters, punctuation, and so on. But behind the scene a little bit more is going on. "Characters" that are stored on digital media must be stored as sequences of ones and zeros, and some encoding and decoding must happen to make these ones and zeros into characters we see on a screen or type in with a

keyboard.

Sometime around the 1960s, a few decisions were made about just what ones and zeros (bits) would represent characters. One important choice that most modern computer users give no thought to was the decision to use 8-bit bytes on nearly all computer platforms. In other words, bytes have 256 possible values. Within these 8-bit bytes, a consensus was reached to represent one character in each byte. So at that point, computers needed a particular *encoding* of characters into byte values; there were 256 "slots" available, but just which character would go in each slot? The most popular encoding developed was Bob Bemers' American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII), which is now specified in exciting standards like ISO-14962-1997 and ANSI-X3.4-1986(R1997). But other options, like IBM's mainframe EBCDIC, linger on, even now.

ASCII itself is of somewhat limited extent. Only the values of the lower-order 7-bits of each byte might contain ASCII-encoded characters. The top 7-bits worth of

positions (128 of them) are "reserved" for other uses (back to this). So, for example, a byte that contains "01000001" *might* be an ASCII encoding of the letter "A", but a byte containing "11000001" cannot be an ASCII encoding of anything. Of course, a given byte may or may not *actually* represent a character; if it is part of a text file, it probably does, but if it is part of object code, a compressed archive, or other binary data, ASCII decoding is misleading. It depends on context.

The reserved top 7-bits in common 8-bit bytes have been used for a number of things in a character-encoding context. On traditional textual terminals (and printers, etc.) it has been common to allow switching between *codepages* on terminals to allow display of a variety of national-language characters (and special characters like box-drawing borders), depending on the needs of a user. In the world of Internet communications, something very similar to the codepage system exists with the various ISO-8859-\* encodings. What all these systems do is assign a set of characters to the 128 slots that ASCII

reserves for other uses. These might be accented Roman characters (used in many Western European languages) or they might be non-Roman character sets like Greek, Cyrillic, Hebrew, or Arabic (or in the future, Thai and Hindi). By using the right codepage, 8-bit bytes can be made quite suitable for encoding reasonable sized (phonetic) alphabets.

Codepages and ISO-8859-\* encodings, however, have some definite limitations. For one thing, a terminal can only display one codepage at a given time, and a document with an ISO-8859-\* encoding can only contain one character set. Documents that need to contain text in multiple languages are not possible to represent by these encodings. A second issue is equally important: Many ideographic and pictographic character sets have far more than 128 or 256 characters in them (the former is all we would have in the codepage system, the latter if we used the whole byte and discarded the ASCII part). It is simply not possible to encode languages like Chinese, Japanese, and Korean in 8-bit bytes. Systems like ISO-

2022-JP-1 and codepage 943 allow larger character sets to be represented using two or more bytes for each character. But even when using these language-specific multibyte encodings, the problem of mixing languages is still present.

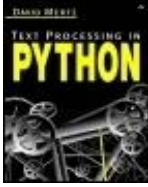
---

**Team-Fly**

◀ Previous

Next ▶

[Top](#)



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

[Table of Contents](#)

## Appendix C. Understanding Unicode

### C.2 What Is Unicode?

Unicode solves the problems of previous character-encoding schemes by providing a unique code number for *every* character needed, worldwide and across languages. Over time, more characters are being added, but the allocation of available ranges for future uses has already been planned out, so room exists for new characters. In Unicode-encoded documents, no ambiguity exists about how a given character should display (for example, should byte value 0x89 appear as e-umlaut, as in codepage 850, or as the per-mil mark, as in codepage 1004?). Furthermore, by giving each character its



own code, there is no problem or ambiguity in creating multilingual documents that utilize multiple character sets at the same time. Or rather, these documents actually utilize the single (very large) character set of Unicode itself.

Unicode is managed by the Unicode Consortium (see Resources), a nonprofit group with corporate, institutional, and individual members. Originally, Unicode was planned as a 16-bit specification. However, this original plan failed to leave enough room for national variations on related (but distinct) ideographs across East Asian languages (Chinese, Japanese, and Korean), nor for specialized alphabets used in mathematics and the scholarship of historical languages.

As a result, the code space of Unicode is currently 32-bits (and anticipated to remain fairly sparsely populated, given the 4 billion allowed characters).

## Appendix C. Understanding Unicode

---

### C.3 Encodings

A full 32-bits of encoding space leaves plenty of room to want to represent, but it has its own problems. For each character we want to encode, that makes for rather verbose streams). Furthermore, these verbose files are not suitable for legacy tools. As a solution to this, Unicode is using "Transformation Formats" (abbreviated as UTF-\*) which use rather clever techniques to encode characters. The most common situation being the use of the encoding name. In addition, the use of special characters is designed in such a way as to be from an available encoding, one that simply uses all

The design of UTF-8 is such that US-ASCII characters encode themselves. For example, the English letter "e" encodes both ASCII and in UTF-8. However, the non-English Unicode character OxOOEB, is encoded with the the UTF-16 representation of every character is

sometimes 4 bytes). UTF-16 has the rather strange letters "e" and "e-umlaut" as 0x65 0x00 and 0x65 0x00 0x00 0x00. The odd value for the e-umlaut in UTF-8 comes from the fact that the encoded UTF-8 character is allowed to be in the range 0x80-0xFF, which causes confusion. So the UTF-8 scheme uses some bit tricks to ensure that a character using up to 6 bytes. But the byte values are arranged in such a manner as not to allow confusion if you read a file nonsequentially).

Let's look at another example, just to see it laid out. The example is encoded in several ways. The view presented is from a hex-mode file viewer. This way, it is easy to see the underlying hexadecimal values each byte contains.

## Hex view of several character string encodings

```
----- Encoding = us-ascii
55 6E 69 63 6F 64 65 20 20 20 20 20
----- Encoding = utf-8
55 6E 69 63 6F 64 65 20 20 20 20 20
----- Encoding = utf-16
FF FE 55 00 6E 00 69 00 63 00 6F 00
```

## Appendix C. Understanding Unicode

---

### C.4 Declarations

We have seen how Unicode characters are actually used by applications. How applications know to use a particular decoding method is another question. How applications are alerted to a Unicode encoding in a stream in question.

Normal text files do not have any special headers to explicitly specify type. However, some operating systems like BeOS, Windows and Linux only in a more limited way use extended attributes to files; increasingly, MIME headers are used as extended attributes. If this happens to be the case, the information such as:

```
Content-Type: text/plain; charset=UTF-8
```

Nonetheless, having MIME headers attached to files is not sufficient. Fortunately, the actual byte sequences in Unicode files can be handled by a Unicode-aware application, absent contrary indications.

given file is encoded with UTF-8. A non-Unicode application will find a file that contains a mixture of ASCII and multibyte UTF-8 encodings). All the ASCII-range characters they were ASCII encoded. If any multibyte UTF-8 characters appear as non-ASCII bytes and should be treated as such by the application. This may result in nonprocessing of the file, pretty much the best we could expect from a legacy application that does not know how to deal with the extended character set.

For UTF-16 encoded files, a special convention is used to mark the file. One of the sequences 0xFF 0xFE or 0xFE 0xFF is used as a choice of which header specifies the endianness. Most modern platforms are little-endian and will use 0xFF 0xFE. The presence of a legacy file beginning with these bytes was used as a reliable indicator for UTF-16 encoding. With UTF-16, ASCII characters will appear every other byte, and, of course, extended characters will produce non-ASCII (4 byte) representations. But a legacy tool that doesn't know how to do the right thing with UTF-16 encoded files will have trouble.

Many communications protocols and more recent standards have an explicit encoding specification. For example, an HTTP server can return a header such as the following to a client:

```
HTTP/1.1 200 OK
Content-Type: text/html; charset=UTF-8
```

Similarly, an NNTP, SMTP/POP3 message can contain a header that makes explicit the encoding to follow (most commonly text/html, however; or at least we can hope).

HTML and XML documents can contain tags that make the encoding explicit. An HTML document can provide a hint

```
<META HTTP-EQUIV="Content-Type" CONTENT="text/html; charset=UTF-8">
```

However, a META tag should properly take lower precedence than an HTTP header (in a situation where both are part of the communication). If an HTTP header does not exist, the META tag can be used.

In XML, the actual document declaration should be

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8" standalone="yes" />
```

Other formats and protocols may provide explicit means.

## Appendix C. Understanding Unicode

---

### C.5 Finding Codepoints

Each Unicode character is identified by a unique character codepoints on official Unicode Web site. One way of characters is by generating an HTML page which below does this:

#### `mk_unicode_chart.py`

```
# Create an HTML chart of Unicode characters
import sys
head = '<html><head><title>Unicode C
      '<META HTTP-EQUIV="Content-Type"
      'CONTENT="text/html; charset=
      '</head><body>\n<h1>Unicode C
foot = '</body></html>'
```

```

fp = sys.stdout
fp.write(head)
num_blocks = 32 # Up to 256 in theory
for block in range(0,256*num_blocks,
    fp.write('\n\n<h2>Range %5d-%5d<
    start = unichr(block).encode('utf
    fp.write('\n<pre>      ')
    for col in range(16): fp.write(s
    fp.write('</pre>')
    for offset in range(0,256,16):
        fp.write('\n<pre>')
        fp.write('+'+str(offset).rju
        line = ' '.join([unichr(n+k
        fp.write(line.encode('UTF-8'
        fp.write('</pre>')
fp.write(foot)
fp.close()

```

Exactly what you see when looking at the gene browser and OS platform the page is viewed or factors. Generally, any character that cannot be appear as some sort of square, dot, or question generally accurate. Once a character is visually generated with the *unicodedata* module:

```
>>> import unicodedata
```



```
>>> unicodedata.name(unichr(1488))  
'HEBREW LETTER ALEF'  
>>> unicodedata.category(unichr(1488))  
'Lo'  
>>> unicodedata.bidirectional(unichr(1488))  
'R'
```

A variant here would be to include the information generated by the `unicodedata` module, although such a listing is not shown in the example above.

---

**Team-Fly**



## C.6 Resources

More-or-less definitive information on all matters can be found at:

<<http://www.unicode.org/>>

The Unicode Consortium:

<<http://www.unicode.org/unicode/consortium>

Unicode Technical Report #17Character Encoding

<<http://www.unicode.org/unicode/reports/tr1>

A brief history of ASCII:

<<http://www.bobbemer.com/ASCII.HTM>>

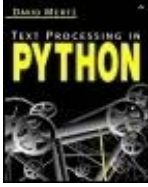
---

**Team-Fly**

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in PythonBy David Mertz

Table of Contents

## Appendix D. A State Machine for Ad

This book was written entirely in plaintext editor "smart ASCII." In spirit and appearance, smart ASCII was developed on email and Usenet. In fact, I have a number of years to produce articles, tutorials, and additional conventions in the earlier smart ASCII that made almost all the individual typographic toolchain only came to exist through many hours by other developers.

The printed version of this book used tools I wrote for frontmatter, and endmatter, and then to add a number of custom  $\LaTeX$  macros are included in the people lets me convert  $\LaTeX$  source into the PDF printed copies.

For information on the smart ASCII format, see this book, chiefly in [Chapter 4](#). You may also download site at <<http://gnosis.cx/TPiP/>>, along with a sample used. Readers might also be interested in a format in spirit, but both somewhat "heavier" and more semiofficial status in the Python community since for information see:

<<http://docutils.sourceforge.net/rst.html>>

In this appendix, I include the full source code text of this book into an HTML document. I believe this is a demonstration of the design and structure of a program. In this structure, `book2html.py` uses a line-oriented strategy to map appropriate document elements. Under this approach, the program part, determined by the context of the lines that it processes, makes decisions on how to categorize each line with a set of a collection of regular expression patterns, the block of text is converted to HTML output. In principle, it would not be difficult to implement the steps involved are modular.

The Web site for this book has a collection of utilities for processing text. I have adapted the skeleton to deal with variations in the input. The overlap between all of them. Using this utility is

```
% book2html.py "Text Processing in E
```

The title is optional, and you may pipe STDIN a file to the program. In HTML, I decided it would be nice to colorize source code. The support module:

## **colorize.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/python
import keyword, token, tokenize, sys
from cStringIO import StringIO
```

```

PLAIN = '%s'
BOLD  = '<b>%s</b>'
CBOLD = '<font color="%s"><b>%s</b><
_KEYWORD = token.NT_OFFSET+1
_TEXT    = token.NT_OFFSET+2
COLORS   = { token.NUMBER:      'black',
              token.OP:         'dark',
              token.STRING:     'green',
              tokenize.COMMENT: 'dark',
              token.NAME:       None,
              token.ERRORTOKEN: 'red',
              _KEYWORD:         'blue',
              _TEXT:            'black'

```

```

class ParsePython:
    "Colorize python source"
    def __init__(self, raw):
        self.inp = StringIO(raw.expandtabs())
    def toHTML(self):
        "Parse and send the colored source"
        raw = self.inp.getvalue()
        self.out = StringIO()
        self.lines = [0,0] # start with 0 lines
        self.lines += [i+1 for i in range(len(raw.splitlines()))]

```

```

self.lines += [len(row)]
self.pos = 0
try:
    tokenize.tokenize(self.i
    return self.out.getvalue
except tokenize.TokenError,
    msg, ln = ex [0], ex [1] [
    sys.stderr.write("ERROR:
                                (msg, r
                                return raw
def __call__(self, toktype, toktex
    "Token handler"
    # calculate new positions
    oldpos = self.pos
    newpos = self.lines[srow] +
    self.pos = newpos + len(tokt
    if toktype in [token.NEWLINE
        self.out.write('\n')
        return
    if newpos > oldpos:          # se
        self.out.write(self.inp.
    if toktype in [token.INDENT,
        self.pos = newpos      # sk
        return
    if token.LPAR <= toktype and

```



```

        toktype = token.OP    # m
    elif toktype == token.NAME a
        toktype = _KEYWORD
    color = COLORS.get(toktype,
    if toktext:                # se
        txt = Detag(toktext)
        if color is None:      txt
        elif color=='black':  txt
        else:                  txt
        self.out.write(txt)

Detag = lambda s: \
    s.replace('&','&amp;').replace('

if __name__=='__main__':
    parsed = ParsePython(sys.stdin.r
    print '<pre>'
    print parsed.toHTML()
    print '</pre>'

```

The module *colorize* contains its own self-test c  
own. The main module consists of:

**book2html.py**

```
#!/usr/bin/python
"""Convert ASCII book source files f

Usage: python book2html.py [title] <
"""

__author__=["David Mertz (mertz@gnos
__version__="November 2002"

from __future__ import generators
import sys, re, string, time
from colorize import ParsePython
from cgi import escape

#-- Define some HTML boilerplate
html_open =\
"""<!DOCTYPE HTML PUBLIC "-//IETF//I
<html>
<head>
<title>%s</title>
<style>
    .code-sample {background-color:#EE
                    width:90%%; margin-l
    .module       {color : darkblue}
    .libfunc       {color : darkgreen}
</style>
```

```

</head>
<body>
"""
html_title = "Automatically Generate
html_close = "</body></html>"
code_block = \
"""<table class="code-sample"><tr><t
<tr><td><pre>%s</pre></td></tr>
</table>"""
#-- End of boilerplate

#-- State constants
for s in ("BLANK CHAPTER SECTION SUE
          "MODNAME PYSHELL CODESAMP
          "SUBBODY TERM DEF RULE VEF
          exec "%s = '%s'" % (s,s)
markup = {CHAPTER:'h1', SECTION:'h2'
          BODY:'p', QUOTE:'blockquote'
          DEF:'blockquote'}
divs = {RULE:'hr', VERTSPC:'br'}

class Regexen:
    def __init__(self):
        # blank line is empty, space
        self.blank = re.compile("

```

```
self.chapter      = re.compile('
self.section      = re.compile('
self.subsect      = re.compile('
self.subsub       = re.compile('
self.modline      = re.compile('
self.pyshell      = re.compile('
self.codesamp     = re.compile('
self.numlist      = re.compile('
self.body         = re.compile('
self.quote        = re.compile('
self.subbody      = re.compile('
self.rule         = re.compile('
self.vertspc      = re.compile('
```

```
def Make_Blocks(fpin=sys.stdin, r=Re
    #-- Initialize the globals
    global state, blocks, laststate
    state, laststate = BLANK, BLANK
    blocks = [[BLANK]]
    #-- Break the file into relevant
    for line in fpin.xreadlines():
        line = line.rstrip()
        #-- for "one-line states" ju
        if r.blank.match(line):
            if inState(PYSHELL):
```

```

        else:
elif r.rule.match(line):
elif r.vertspc.match(line):
elif r.chapter.match(line):
elif r.section.match(line):
elif r.subsect.match(line):
elif r.subsub.match(line):
elif r.modline.match(line):
elif r.numlist.match(line):
elif r.pyshell.match(line):
    if not inState(PYSHELL):
elif r.codesamp.match(line):
#-- now the multi-line state
elif r.body.match(line):
    if not inState(BODY):
elif r.quote.match(line):
    if inState(MODLINE):
        elif r.blank.match(line)
        elif not inState(QUOTE):
#-- now the "multi-line stat
elif inState(MODLINE, PYSHEI
    "stay in this state unti
    "...or other one-line pr
elif r.subbody.match(line):
    "Sub-body is tricky: it

```

```

        "PYSHELL, CODESAMP, NUMI
    if inState(BODY):
    elif inState(BLANK):
        if laststate==DEF:
    elif inState(DEF, CODESA
        pass
    else:
        raise ValueError, \
            "unexpected input
    if inState(MODLINE, RULE, VE
    elif r.blank.match(line): pa
    else: blocks[-1].append(line
return LookBack(blocks)

```

```

def LookBack(blocks):
    types = [f [0] for f in blocks]
    for i in range(len(types)-1):
        this, next = types[i:i+2]
        if (this,next)==(BODY,DEF):
            blocks[i][0] = TERM
    return blocks

```

```

def newState(name):
    global state, laststate, blocks
    if name not in (BLANK, MODLINE):

```

```

        blocks.append([name])
    laststate = state
    state = name

def instate(*names) :
    return state in names

def Process_Blocks(blocks, fpout=sys
fpout.write(html_open % title)
for block in blocks:          # Ma
    typ, lines = block[0], block
    tag = markup.get(typ, None)
    div = divs.get(typ, None)
    if tag is not None:
        map(fpout.write, wrap_ht
    elif div is not None:
        fpout.write('<%s />\n' %
    elif typ in (PYSHELL, CODESA
        fpout.write(fixcode('\n'
    elif typ in (MODNAME,):
        mod = '<hr/><h3 class="n
        fpout.write(mod)
    elif typ in (TERM,):
        terms = '<br />\n'.join(
        fpout.write('<h4 class="

```

```

        else:
            sys.stderr.write(typ+'\r\n')
        fpout.write(html_close)

#-- Functions for start of block-type
def wrap_html(lines, tag):
    txt = '\n'.join(lines)
    for para in txt.split('\n\n'):
        if para: yield '<%s>%s</%s>\n' % (tag, URLify(para))

def fixcode(block, style=CODESAMP):
    block = LeftMargin(block)
    # Pull out title if available
    title = 'Code Sample'
    if style==CODESAMP:
        re_title = re.compile('^#\*?')
        if_title = re_title.match(block)
        if if_title:
            title = if_title.group(1)
            block = re_title.sub("", block)
    # Decide if it is Python code
    firstline = block[:block.find('\n')]
    if re.search(r'\.py_?|[Pp]ython|python|pythc'):
        # Has .py, py_, Python/pythc

```



```

        block = ParsePython(block.rs
    return code_block % (Typogra
# elif the-will-and-the-way-is-t
else:
    return code_block % (Typogra

```

```

def LeftMargin(txt):
    "Remove as many leading spaces as
    for l in range(12,-1,-1):
        re_lead = '(?sm)'+ ' '*1+'\S'
        if re.match(re_lead, txt): k
    txt = re.sub('(?sm)^\'+ ' '*1, "",
    return txt

```

```

def URLify(txt):
    # Conv special IMG URL's: Alt Te
    # (don't actually try quite as h
    txt = re.sub('(?sm){(.*?):\s*(ht
        '\1<
    return txt

```

```

def Typography(txt):

```

```

rc = re.compile      # cut down l
MS = re.M | re.S
# [module] names
r = rc(r"\"([\\s'/">]|^)\[(.*?)
txt = r.sub('\\1<i class="module
# *strongly emphasize* words
r = rc(r"\"([\\s'/" ]|^)\*(.*?)\
txt = r.sub('\\1<strong>\\2</str
# -emphasize- words
r = rc(r"\"([\\s'/" ]|^)-(.+?)- (
txt = r.sub('\\1<em>\\2</em>\\3'
# _Book Title_ citations
r = rc(r"\"([\\s'/" ]|^)_(.*)_ (
txt = r.sub('\\1<cite>\\2</cite>
# 'Function()' names
r = rc(r"\"([\\s'/" ]|^)'(.*)' (
txt = r.sub("\\1<code>\\2</code>
# 'library. func()' names
r = rc(r"\"([\\s'/" ]|^)'(.*)' (
txt = r.sub('\\1<i clas      s="li
return txt

```

```

if __name__ == '__main__':
    blocks = Make_Blocks()
    if len(sys.argv) > 1:

```

```
        Process_Blocks(blocks, title=sys  
else:  
        Process_Blocks(blocks)
```

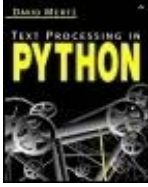
---

**Team-Fly**

Team-Fly

◀ Previous

Next ▶



Text Processing in Python By David Mertz

Table of Contents

---

## **Appendix E. Glossary**

## Asymmetrical Encryption

Encryption using a pair of keys: the first encrypts, the second decrypts. In the most common protocol, the encryption key may be widely revealed, but the decryption key must remain secret. You publish your encryption or "public" key, which anyone can use to encrypt a message. The person who receives the message uses their "private" key to decrypt it. Of course, the private key cannot access the message. See the list of cryptographic capabilities.

## Big-O Notation, Complexity

Big-O notation is a way of describing the growth rate of an algorithm. Often such complexity is denoted by an expression on "n" following in parentheses, such as  $O(n^2)$ . The letter "O" is often in a special typeface for the "O". The "O" stands for "order" of complexity.

The insight behind big-O notation is that many algorithms have a calculation time that can be expressed as a function of the size of the data set or domain at issue. For the most part, the time is constant startup times and even speed multiplied by the underlying complexity. For example, suppose

that takes 100 seconds to initialize some data and 160 seconds to perform the main calculation. If you save the initialization time, your runtime will be 260 seconds; saving that 100 seconds might seem worthwhile, if possible. However, if you have many objects, you are looking at 1,100 seconds in the minor component. Moreover, you might think that reducing  $(N^2)$  seconds to only  $2 \cdot (N^2)$  seconds is a small saving in a programming language. Once you consider that you have to calculate for  $N=100$ , even the multiplier is significant. In particular if you had a better algorithm that took 50,000 seconds (bigger multiplier), you would be a lot better off.

In noting complexity orders, constants and lower-order terms are omitted, leaving only the dominant factor. Complexity orders are:

$O(1)$	constant
$O(\log(n))$	logarithmic
$O((\log(n))^c)$	polylogarithmic
$O(n)$	linear
$O(n \cdot \log(n))$	frequent in sorting
$O(n^2)$	quadratic
$O(n^c)$	polynomial
$O(c^n)$	exponential

## **Birthday Paradox**

The name "birthday paradox" comes from the fact that in a room with just 23 people the probability of two of them sharing a birthday is about 50 percent. A naive human might think that since there are 365 days in a year, it should instead take something like 365 people to have a 50 percent likelihood.

In a broader sense the probability of collision outcomes are possible, reaches 50 percent when the number of items are collected. This is a concern when you have a large number of selections, and the likelihood to consist of only distinct items is low.

## **Cryptographic Hash**

A hash with a strong enough noncollision property should not produce a false message yielding the same hash value as the original message. See [Section 2.2.4](#) for a discussion of cryptographic hash functions.

## **Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC32)**

Based on mod 2 polynomial operations, CRC32 is a "fingerprint" of a set of data.



See also [[Hash](#)]

## **Digital Signatures**

A means of proving the authenticity of a message. In public key encryption, digital signatures involve two keys: a private key secret, but a published validation key can be used. The signing key is used to authenticate a message. See also discussion of cryptographic capabilities.

## **Hash**

A short value that is used as a "fingerprint" of a data set. It should be unlikely that two data sets will yield the same hash value. Hashes can be used to check for data errors, by comparing the hash value (mismatch suggests data error). See also noncollision properties to be used cryptographically.

## **Idempotent Function**

The property that applying a function to its result yields the same result.

value. That is, if and only if  $F$  is idempotent  
In a nod to Chaos Theory, we can observe that  
finite repetitions of composition with  $F$  is idempotent  
attractor that is, if  $G$  is idempotent for  $G = \text{lan}$   
interesting fact is completely unnecessary to  
book.

## Immutable

Literally, "cannot be changed." Some data collections, like numbers and strings, in Python consist of a set of items that do not change over the life of the object. In contrast, lists and dictionaries can continue to be the same object even as their membership changes. Since you generally access objects by index positions, it is sometimes easy to confuse a variable that can be used at different times to point to different objects. For example, a pattern with tuples looks like this:

```
>>> tup = (1, 2, 3)
>>> id(tup)
248684
>>> tup = tup + (4, 5, 6)
>>> tup
(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6)
```

```
>>> id(tup)
912076
```

Even though the name `tup` is re-bound during the program, the object it points to remains the same. Moreover, creating a new tuple later produces the same identity:

```
>>> tup2 = (1, 2, 3)
>>> id(tup2)
248684
```

Immutable objects are particularly useful as they continue to hash the same way over the program's lifetime. It is not a stricter constraint than immutability; it is necessary for an immutable object itself to be (recursively) immutable and hashable.

## Mutable

Literally, "can be changed." Data collection classes like lists and arrays from the *array* module are mutable. Their identity stays the same, even as their membership changes. They are suitable as dictionary keys, however, if they are used to hold *records* of a data collection, where each record has *fields* within it. The insight underlying

record contained different field data, it would be possible to add individual self-identical records can be added to the collection, depending on outside events and

## **Public-key Encryption**

See [[Asymmetrical Encryption](#)]

## **Referential Transparency**

The property of a function or block construct that returns the same value every time it is called with the same arguments. Functions are referentially transparent, by default. Functions whose results depend on global state, external context, or other *referentially opaque* values are not.

## **Shared-key Encryption**

See [[Symmetrical Encryption](#)]

## **Structured Text Database**

A text file that is used to encode multiple records. Each record is composed of the same fields. Records and fields are referred to as rows and columns, respectively. A structured text database is a collection of such files.

format that contains little or no explicit mark are delimited files and fixed-width files, both and elsewhere. Most of the time, structured oriented, with one conceptual record per line indentation are used to indicate dependent s

## **Symmetrical Encryption**

Encryption using a single "key" that must be [Section 2.2.4](#) for a discussion of cryptograph