



Real Python Part 1: Introduction to Python

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Whether you're new to programming or a professional code monkey looking to dive into a new language, this book will teach you all of the practical Python that you need to get started on projects on your own.

Real Python emphasizes real-world programming techniques, which are illustrated through interesting, useful examples. No matter what your ultimate goals may be, if you work with computer at all, you will soon be finding endless ways to improve your life by automating tasks and solving problems through Python programs that you create.

Python is open-source freeware, meaning you can download it for free and use it for any purpose. It also has a great support community that has built a number of additional free tools. Need to work with PDF documents in Python? There's a free package for that. Want to collect data from webpages? No need to start from scratch!

Python was built to be easier to use than other programming languages. It's usually much easier to read Python code and MUCH faster to write code in Python than in other languages.

For instance, here's some simple code written in C, another commonly used programming language:

```
1 #include <stdio.h>
2
3 int main ()
4
5     printf ("Hello, world\n");
```

All the program does is print "Hello, world" on the screen. That was a lot of work to print one phrase! Here's the same code in Python:

```
1 print "Hello, world"
```

Simple, right? Easy, faster, more readable.

At the same time, Python has all the functionality of other languages and more. You might be surprised how many professional products are built on Python code: Gmail, Google Maps, YouTube,

reddit, Spotify, turntable.fm, Yahoo! Groups, and the list goes on... And if it's powerful enough for both NASA and the NSA, it's good enough for us.

Why this book?

There are tons of books and tutorials out there for learning Python already. However, most of the resources out generally have two main problems:

1. They aren't practical.
2. They aren't interesting.

Most books are so preoccupied with covering every last possible variation of every command that it's easy to get lost in the details. In the end, most of them end up looking more like the [Python documentation pages](#). This is great as reference material, but it's a horrible way to learn a programming language. Not only do you spend most of your time learning things you'll never use, but it isn't any fun!

This book is built on the 80/20 principle. We will cover the commands and techniques used in the vast majority of cases and focus on how to program real-world solutions to problems that ordinary people actually want to solve.

This way, I guarantee that you will:

- Learn useful techniques much faster
- Spend less time struggling with unimportant complications
- Find more practical uses for Python in your own life
- Have more fun in the process!

If you want to become a serious, professional Python programmer, this book won't be enough by itself - but it will still be the best starting point. Once you've mastered the material in this book, you will have gained a strong enough foundation that venturing out into more advanced territory on your own will be a breeze.

So dive in! Learn to program in a widely used, free language that can do more than you ever thought was possible.

How to use this book

For the most part, you should approach the topics in the first half of this book in the same order as they are presented. This is less true of the second half, which covers a number of mostly non-overlapping topics, although the chapters are generally increasing in difficulty throughout. If you are a more experienced programmer, then you may find yourself heading toward the back of the book right away - but don't neglect getting a strong foundation in the basics first!

Each chapter section is followed by review exercises to help you make sure that you've mastered all the topics covered. There are also a number of assignments, which are more involved and usually require you to tie together a number of different concepts from previous chapters. The practice files that accompany this course also include solution scripts to the assignments as well as some of the trickier exercises - but to get the most out of them, you should try your best to solve the assignment problems on your own before looking at the example solutions.

If you get stuck, you can always ask for help on the [RealPython.com](https://realpython.com) members' forum; it's likely that someone else has already experienced the same difficulty that you're encountering and might be able to guide you along.

This book does move quickly, however, so if you're completely new to programming, you may want to supplement the first few chapters with additional practice. I highly recommend working through the beginning Python lessons available for free at the [Codecademy](https://www.codecademy.com) site while you make your way through the beginning of this material as the best way to make sure that you have all the basics down.

Finally, if you have any questions or feedback about the course, you're always welcome to [contact me](#) directly.

License

This e-book is copyrighted and licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution- NonCommercial-NoDerivs 3.0 Unported License](#). This means that you are welcome to share this book and use it for any non-commercial purposes so long as the entire book remains intact and unaltered. That being said, if you have received this copy for free and have found it helpful, I would very much appreciate if you [purchased](#) a copy of your own.

The example Python scripts associated with this book should be considered open content. This means that anyone is welcome to use any portion of the code for any purpose.

Conventions

NOTE: Since this is the Alpha release, we do not have all the conventions in place. We are working on it. Patience.

Formatting

1. Code blocks will be used to present example code.

```
1 print "Hello world!"
```

2. Terminal commands follow the Unix format:

```
1 $ python hello_world.py
```

(dollar signs are not part of the command)

3. *Italic text* will be used to denote a file name:

hello-world.py.

Bold text will be used to denote a new or important term:

Important term: This is an example of what an important term should look like.

NOTES, WARNINGS, and SEE ALSO boxes appear as follows:

1. Notes:

NOTE: This is a note filled in with bacon ipsum text. Bacon ipsum dolor sit amet t-bone flank sirloin, shankle salami swine drumstick capicola doner porchetta bresaola short loin. Rump ham hock bresaola chuck flank. Prosciutto beef ribs kielbasa pork belly chicken tri-tip pork t-bone hamburger bresaola meatball. Prosciutto pork belly tri-tip

pancetta spare ribs salami porchetta strip steak rump beef filet mignon turducken tail pork chop. Shankle turducken spare ribs jerky ribeye.

2. Warnings:

WARNING: This is a warning also filled in with bacon ipsum. Bacon ipsum dolor sit amet t-bone flank sirloin, shankle salami swine drumstick capicola doner porchetta bresaola short loin. Rump ham hock bresaola chuck flank. Prosciutto beef ribs kielbasa

pork belly chicken tri-tip pork t-bone hamburger bresaola meatball. Prosciutto pork belly tri-tip pancetta spare ribs salami, porchetta strip steak rump beef filet mignon turducken tail pork chop. Shankle turducken spare ribs jerky ribeye.

3. See Also:

SEE ALSO: This is a see also box with more tasty ipsum. Bacon ipsum dolor sit amet t-bone flank sirloin, shankle salami swine drumstick capicola doner porchetta bresaola short loin. Rump ham hock bresaola chuck flank. Prosciutto beef ribs kielbasa pork belly chicken tri-tip pork t-bone hamburger bresaola meatball. Prosciutto pork belly tri-tip pancetta spare ribs salami, porchetta strip steak rump beef filet mignon turducken tail pork chop. Shankle turducken spare ribs jerky ribeye.

Errata

I welcome ideas, suggestions, feedback, and the occasional rant. Did you find a topic confusing? Or did you find an error in the text or code? Did I omit a topic you would love to know more about. Whatever the reason, good or bad, please send in your feedback.

You can find my contact information on the Real Python [website](#). Or submit an issue on the Real Python official support [repository](#). Thank you!

NOTE: The code found in this course has been tested in Mac OS X v. 10.8, Windows XP, Windows 7, and Linux Mint 14.

Chapter 2

Getting Started

Download Python

Before we can do anything, you have to download Python. Even if you already have Python on your computer, make sure that you have the correct version: 2.7 is the version used in this book and by most of the rest of the world.

NOTE: There's a newer version, Python 3.4x, but it can't run code that was created with previous versions of Python (including some useful and important [packages](#) that haven't been updated). Since most of the code you'll see elsewhere will be from Python 2.7x, you should learn that first. The two versions are still very similar, and it will take you very little time to get used to the minor changes in Python 3 after you've mastered Python

2. If you really want to get a head start on learning Python 3, however, this book will point out all the relevant differences; just know that you will still need to use Python 2 for some things until Python 3 support is offered.

Mac users: You already have a version of Python installed by default, but it's not quite the same as the standard installation. You should still download *Python 2.7.6* as directed below. Otherwise, you might run into problems later when trying to install some additional functionality in Python or running code that involves graphics windows.

Linux users: You might already have Python 2.7.6 installed by default. Open your Terminal application and type `python version` to find out. If you have 2.7.1 or 2.7.2, you should go ahead and update to the latest version.

If you need to, go to <http://www.python.org/download/> to download Python 2.7.6 for your operating system and install the program.

For further assistance, please refer to Appendix A for a basic tutorial on installing Python.

Open IDLE

We'll be using IDLE (Interactive DeveLopment Environment) to write our Python code. IDLE is a simple editing program that comes automatically installed with Python on Windows and Mac, and it will make our lives much easier while we're coding. You could write Python scripts in any program from a basic text editor to a very complex development environment (and many professional coders use [more advanced setups](#)), but IDLE is simple to use and will easily provide all the functionality we need. I personally use a more advanced text editor called [Sublime Text](#) for most projects.

Windows: Go to your start menu and click on "IDLE (Python GUI)" from the "Python 2.7" program folder to open IDLE. You can also type "IDLE" into the search bar.

OSX: Go to your Applications folder and click on "IDLE" from the "Python 2.7" folder to start running IDLE. Alternatively, you can type "IDLE" (without quotes) into your Terminal window to launch IDLE.

Linux: I recommend that you install IDLE to follow along with this course. You could use [Vim](#) or [Emacs](#), but they will not have the same built-in debugging features. To install IDLE with admin privileges:

- On Ubuntu/Debian, type: `sudo apt-get install idle`
- On Fedora/Red Hat/RHEL/CentOS, type: `sudo yum install python-tools`
- On SUSE, you can search for IDLE via "install software" through YaST.

Opening IDLE, you will see a brief description of Python, followed by a prompt:

```
>>>
```

We're ready to program!

Write a Python script

The window we have open at the moment is IDLE's interactive window; usually this window will just show us results when we run programs that we've written, but we can also enter Python code into this window directly. Go ahead and try typing some basic math into the interactive window at the prompt - when you hit enter, it should evaluate your calculation, display the result and prompt you for more input:

```
1 >>> 1+1
2 2
3 >>>
```

Let's try out some actual code. The standard program to display "Hello, world" on the screen is just that simple in Python. Tell the interactive window to print the phrase by using the print command like so:

```
1 >>> print "Hello, world"
2 Hello, world
3 >>>
```

NOTE: If you want to get to previous lines you've typed into the interactive window without typing them out again or copying and pasting, you can use the pair of shortcut keys ALT+P (or on a Mac, CTRL+P). Each time you hit ALT+P, IDLE will fill in the previous line of code for you. You can then type ALT+N (OS X:CTRL+N) to cycle back to the next most recent line of code.

Normally we will want to run more than one line of code at a time and save our work so that we can return to it later. To do this, we need to create a new script.

From the menu bar, choose "File -> New Window" to generate a blank script. You should rearrange this window and your interactive results window so that you can see them both at the same time.

Type the same line of code as before, but put it in your new script:

```
1 print "Hello, world"
```

WARNING: If you just copy and paste from the interactive window into the script, make sure you never include the ">>>" part of the line. That's just the window asking for your input; it isn't part of the actual code.

In order to run this script, we need to save it first. Choose "File -> Save As . . .", name the file "hello_world.py" (without the quotation marks) and save it somewhere you'll be able to find it later. The ".py" extension lets IDLE know that it's a Python script.

NOTE: Notice that `print` and “Hello, world” appear in different colors to let you know that `print` is a command and “Hello, world” is a string of characters. If you save the script as something other than a “.py” file (or if you don’t include the “.py” extension, this coloring will disappear and everything will turn black, letting you know that the file is no longer recognized as a Python script.

Now that the script has been saved, all we have to do in order to run the program is to select “Run -> Run Module” from the script window (or hit F5), and we’ll see the result appear in the interactive results window just like it did before:

```
1 >>>
2 Hello, world
3 >>>
```

NOTE: The biggest difference between Python 2 and Python 3 is the `print` command. In Python 3, you put parentheses after the `print` statement instead of a space; for instance, instead of just `print "Hello, world"`, the previous code in Python 3 would look like:

```
1 print("Hello, world")
```

If you want to get used to using this version in Python 2, you can add the following line to the top of every script >you write:

```
1 from __future__ import print_function
```

(That’s **future** with two underscores on each side.) As long as your Python 2 script starts with that line, you can > then use `print()` instead of `print`, just like in Python 3.

To open and edit a program later on, just open up IDLE again and select “File -> Open...”, then browse to and select the script to open it in a new script window.

Double-clicking on a “.py” script will run that script, usually closing the window once the script is done running (before you can even see what happened). If you instead want to edit the script in

IDLE, you can usually right-click (OS X: control-click) on the file and choose to “Edit with IDLE” to open the script.

Linux users: Read [this overview](#) first (especially section 2.2.2) if you want to be able to run Python scripts outside of the editor.

NOTE: You might see something like the following line in the interactive window when you run or re-run a script: `>>> ===== RESTART`
`=====`

This is just IDLE's way of letting you know that everything after this line is the result of the new script that you are just about to run. Otherwise, if you ran one script after another (or one script again after itself), it might not be clear what output belongs to which run of which script.

Screw things up

Everybody makes mistakes - especially while programming. In case you haven't made any mistakes yet, let's get a head start on that and mess something up on purpose to see what happens.

Using IDLE, there are two main types of errors you'll experience. The most common is a syntax error, which usually means that you've typed something incorrectly.

Let's try changing the contents of the script to:

```
1 print "Hello, world
```

Here we've just removed the ending quotation mark, which is of course a mistake - now Python won't be able to tell where the string of text ends. Save your script and try running it. What happens?

...You can't run it! IDLE is smart enough to realize there's an error in your code, and it stops you from even trying to run the buggy program. In this case, it says: "EOL while scanning string literal."

EOL stands for "End Of Line", meaning that Python got all the way to the end of the line and never found the end of your string of text.

IDLE even highlights the place where the error occurred using a different color and moves your cursor to the location of the error. Handy!

The other sort of error that you'll experience is the type that IDLE can't catch for you until your code is already running. Try changing the code in your script to:

```
1 print Hello, world
```

Now that we've entirely removed the quotation marks from the phrase. Notice how the text changes

color when we do that? IDLE is letting us know that this is no longer a string of text that we will be printing, but something else. What is our code doing now? Well, save the script and try to run it ...

The interactive window will pop up with ugly red text that looks something like this:

```
1 >>>
```

Traceback (most recent call last):

```
1 File "[path to your script]\hello world.py", line 1, in <module>
2
3 print Hello, world
4
5 NameError: name 'Hello' is not defined
6
7 >>>
```

So what happened? Python is telling us a few things:

- An error occurred - specifically, Python calls it a NameError

- The error happened on line 1 of the script
- The line that generated the error was: `print Hello, world`
- The specific error was: name 'Hello' is not defined

This is called a run-time error since it only occurs once the programming is already running. Since we didn't put quotes around `Hello, world`, Python didn't know that this was text we wanted to print. Instead, it thought we were referring to two variables that we wanted to print. The first variable it tried to print was something named "Hello" - but since we hadn't defined a variable named "Hello", our program crashed.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that IDLE won't let you run because it has a syntax error
2. Write a script that will only crash your program once it is already running because it has a run-time error

Store a variable

Let's try writing a different version of the previous script. Here we'll use a variable to store our text before printing the text to the screen:

```
1 phrase = "Hello, world"
2
3 print phrase
```

Notice the difference in where the quotation marks go from our previous script. We are creating a variable named `phrase` and assigning it the value of the string of text "Hello, world". We then print the `phrase` to the screen. Try saving this script and running these two lines; you should see the same output as before:

```
1 >>>
2
3 Hello, world
4
5 >>>
```

Notice that in our script we didn't say:

```
1 print "phrase"
```

Using quotes here would just print the word "phrase" instead of printing the contents of the variable named `phrase`.

NOTE: Phrases that appear in quotation marks are called strings. We call them strings because they're just that - strings of characters. A string is one of the most basic building blocks of any programming language, and we'll use strings a lot over the next few chapters.

We also didn't type our code like this:

```
1 Phrase = "Hello, world"
2
3 print phrase
```

Can you spot the difference? In this example, the first line defines the variable `Phrase` with a capital "P" at the beginning, but the second line prints out the variable `phrase`.

WARNING: Since Python is case-sensitive, the variables `Phrase` and `phrase` are entirely different things. Likewise, commands start with lowercase letters; we can tell Python to print, but it wouldn't know how to Print. Keep this important distinction in mind!

When you run into trouble with the sample code, be sure to double-check that every character in your code (often including spaces) exactly matches the examples. Computers don't have any common sense to interpret what you meant to say, so being almost correct still won't get a computer to do the right thing!

Review exercises:

1. Using the interactive window, display some text on the screen by using `print`
2. Using the interactive window, display a string of text by saving the string to a variable, then printing the contents of that variable
3. Do each of the first two exercises again by first saving your code in a script and then running the script

Chapter 3

Interlude: Leave yourself helpful notes

As you start to write more complicated scripts, you'll start to find yourself going back to parts of your code after you've written them and thinking, "what the heck was that supposed to do"

To avoid these moments, you can leave yourself notes in your code; they don't affect the way the script runs at all, but they help to document what's supposed to be happening. These notes are referred to as comments, and in Python you start a comment with a pound (#) sign. Our first script could have looked like this:

```
1 # This is my first script
2
3 phrase = "Hello, world."
4
5 print phrase # this line displays "Hello, world"
```

The first line doesn't do anything, because it starts with a #. This tells Python to ignore the line completely because it's just a note for you.


Likewise, Python ignores the comment on the last line; it will still print phrase, but everything starting with the # is simply a comment.

Of course, you can still use a # symbol inside of a string. For instance, Python won't mistake the following for the start of a comment:

```
1 print "#1"
```

If you have a lot to say, you can also create comments that span over multiple lines by using a series of three single quotes (') or three double quotes (""") without any spaces between them. Once you do that, everything after the ' or "" becomes a comment until you close the comment with a matching ' or """. For instance, if you were feeling excessively verbose, our first script could have looked like this:

```
1 """ This is my first script.
2
3 It prints the phrase "Hello, world."
```

```
4 
5 The comments are longer than the script """
6
7 phrase = "Hello, world."
8
9 print phrase
10
11 """ The line above displays "Hello, world" """
```

The first three lines are now all one comment, since they fall between pairs of `"""`. You can't add a multi-line comment at the end of a line of code like with the `#` version, which is why the last comment is on its own separate line. (We'll see why in the next chapter.)

Besides leaving yourself notes, another common use of comments is to “comment out code” while you're testing parts of a script to temporarily stop that part of the code from running. In other words, adding a `#` at the beginning of a line of code is an easy way to make sure that you don't actually use

that line, even though you might want to keep it and use it later.

Chapter 4

Fundamentals: Strings and Methods

Learn to speak in Python

As we've already seen, you write strings in Python by surrounding them with quotes. You can use single quotes or double quotes, as long as you're consistent for any one string. All of the following lines create string variables (called string literals because we've literally written out exactly how they look):

```
phrase = 'Hello, world.'  
myString = "We're #1!"  
stringNumber = "1234"  
conversation = 'I said, "Put it over by the llama."'
```

Strings can include any characters - letters, numbers and symbols. You can see the benefit of using either single or double quotes in the last string example; since we used single quotes, we didn't have any trouble putting double quotes inside the string. (There are other ways to do this, but we'll get to those later in the chapter.)

We can also create really long strings that take up multiple lines by using three single quotes (or three double quotes), like this:

```
1 longString = ```This is a  
2 string that spans across multiple lines```  
3  
4 longString = """This is a new string  
5 that spans across two lines"""
```

Here we assigned one value to the variable `longString`, then we overwrote that value with a new string literal. Try putting this in a script and then print the variable `longString`; you'll see that it displays the string on two separate lines. You can also see now why you can't have multi-line comments appear on the same line as actual code; Python wouldn't be able to tell the difference between these and actual string variables!

One last thing about strings: if you want to write out a really long string, but you don't want it to appear on multiple lines, you can use a backslash like this when writing it out:

```
1 myLongString ="Here's a string that I want to \  
2 write across multiple lines since it is long."
```

Normally Python would get to the end of the first line and get angry with you because you hadn't closed the string with a matching single quote. But because there's a backslash at the end, you can just keep writing the same string on the next line. This is different from the last example since the actual string isn't stored on multiple lines this time, therefore the string gets displayed on a single line without the break:

```
1 >>> print myLongString  
2  
3 Here's a string that I want to write across multiple lines since it is long.  
4  
5 >>>
```

WARNING: As we've already discussed, Python is case-sensitive. By convention, Python's built-in functions and methods use exclusively lower-case. Since a single variable name can't include any spaces or dashes, when programmers want to give descriptive names to variables, one way of making them easily readable is to use camel-Case (i.e., `myLongString`), so called because of the upper-case "humps" in the middle of terms. We'll mostly stick to camelCase in this course, but another popular method is to separate words using underscores (i.e., `my_long_string`).

Review exercises:

1. print a string that uses double quotation marks inside the string
2. print a string that uses an apostrophe (single quote) inside the string
3. print a string that spans across multiple lines
4. print a one-line string that you have written out on multiple lines

Mess around with your words

Python has some built-in functionality that we can use to modify our strings or get more information about them. For instance, there's a "length" function (abbreviated as "len" in Python) that can tell you the length of all sorts of things, including strings. Try typing these lines into the interactive window:

```
1 >>> myString = "abc"
2 >>> lengthOfString = len(myString)
3 >>> print lengthOfString
4 3
5 >>>
```

First we created a string named `myString`. Then we used the `len()` function on `myString` to calculate its length, which we store in the new variable we named `lengthOfString`. We have to give the `len()` function some input for its calculation, which we do by placing `myString` after it in the parentheses - you'll see more on exactly how this works later. The length of 'abc' is just the total number of characters in it, 3, which we then print to the screen.

We can combine strings together as well:

```
1 >>> string1 = "abra"
2 >>> string2 = "cadabra"
3 >>> magicString = string1 + string2
4 >>> print magicString
5 abracadabra
6 >>>
```

~~Or even like this, without creating any new variables:~~

```
1 >>> print "abra"+"ca"+"dabra"
2 abracadabra
3 >>>
```

In programming, when we add strings together like this, we say that we concatenate them.

NOTE: You'll see a lot of bold terms throughout the first few chapters of this book. Don't worry about memorizing all of them if they're unfamiliar! You don't need any fancy jargon to program well, but it's good to be aware of the correct terminology. Programmers

~~tend to throw around technical terms a lot; not only does it allow for more precise communication, but it helps make simple concepts sound more impressive.~~

When we want to combine many strings at once, we can also use commas to separate them. This will automatically add spaces between the strings, like so:

```
1 >>> print "abra", "ca", "dabra"
2 abra ca dabra
3 >>>
```

Of course, the commas have to go outside of the quotation marks, since otherwise the commas would become part of the actual strings themselves.

Since a string is just a sequence of characters, we should be able to access each character individually as well. We can do this by using square brackets after the string, like this:

```
1 >>> flavor = "birthday cake"
2 >>> print flavor[3]
3 t
4 >>>
```

Wait, but “t” is the fourth character! Well, not in the programming world. In Python (and most other programming languages), we start counting at 0. So in this case, “b” is the “zeroth” character of the string “birthday cake”. This makes “i” the first character, “r” the second, and “t” the third.

If we wanted to display what we would normally tend to think of as the “first” character, we would actually need to print the 0th character:

```
1 >>> print flavor[0]
2 b
3 >>>
```

Be careful when you’re using: - parentheses: () - square brackets: [] - curly braces: { }

These all mean different things to Python, so you can never switch one for another. We’ll see more examples of when each one is used (and we haven’t seen {} yet), but keep in mind that they’re all used differently.

The number that we assigned to each character’s position is called the index or subscript number, and Python thinks of the string like this:

Character:	b	i	r	t	h	d	a	y
Index / Subscript #:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We can get a particular section out of the string as well, by using square brackets and specifying the range of characters that we want. We do this by putting a colon between the two subscript numbers, like so:

```
1 >>> flavor = "birthday cake"
2 >>> print flavor[0:3]
3 bir
4 >>>
```

Here we told Python to show us only the first three characters of our string, starting at the 0th character and going up until (but not including) the 3rd character. The number before the colon tells Python the first character we want to include, while the number after the colon says that we want to stop just before that character.

If we use the colon in the brackets but omit one of the numbers in a range, Python will assume that we meant to go all the way to the end of the string in that direction:

```
1 >>> flavor = "birthday cake"
2 >>> print flavor[:5]
3 birth
4 >>> print flavor[5:]
5 day cake
6 >>> print flavor[:]
7 birthday cake
8 >>>
```

The way we're using brackets after the string is referred to as subscripting or indexing since it uses the index numbers of the string's characters.

NOTE: Python strings are immutable, meaning that they can't be changed once you've created them. For instance, see what happens when you try to assign a new letter to one particular character of a string:

```
myString = "goal"

myString[0] = "f" # this won't work!
```

Instead, we would have to create an entirely new string (although we can still give myString that new value):

```
myString = "goal"

myString = "f" + myString[1:]
```

In the first example, we were trying to change part of myString and keep the rest of it unchanged, which doesn't work. In the second example, we created a new string by adding two strings together, one of which was a part of myString; then we took that new string and completely reassigned myString to this new value.

Review exercises:

1. Create a string and print its length using the len() function
2. Create two strings, concatenate them (add them next to each other) and print the combination of the two strings
3. Create two string variables, then print one of them after the other (with a space added in between) using a comma in your print statement
4. print the string "zing" by using subscripting and index numbers on the string "bazinga" to specify the correct range of characters

Use objects and methods

The Python programming language is an example of Object-Oriented Programming (OOP), which means that we store our information in objects. In Python, a string is an example of an object. Strings are very simple objects - they only hold one piece of information (their value) - but a single object can be very complex. Objects can even hold other objects inside of them. This helps to give structure and organization to our programming.

For instance, if we wanted to model a car, we would (hypothetically) create a Car object that holds lots of descriptive information about the car, called its attributes. It would have a color attribute, a model attribute, etc., and each of these attributes would hold one piece of descriptive information about the car. It would also include different objects like Tires, Doors, and an Engine that all have their own attributes as well.

Different objects also have different capabilities, called methods. For instance, our Car object might have a `drive()` method and a `park()` method. Since these methods belong to the car, we use them with “dot notation” by putting them next to the object and after a period, like this:

```
car.park()
```

Methods are followed by parentheses, because sometimes methods use input. For instance, if we wanted to drive the car object a distance of 50, we would place that input of 50 in the parentheses of the “drive” method:

```
car.drive(50)
```

There are certain methods that belong to string objects as well. For instance, there is a string method called `upper()` that creates an upper-case version of the string. (Likewise, there is a corresponding method `lower()` that creates a lower-case version of a string.) Let’s give it a try in the interactive window:

```
1 >>> loudVoice = "Can you hear me yet?"
2
3 >>> print loudVoice.upper()
4
5 CAN YOU HEAR ME YET?
6
7 >>>
```

We created a string `loudVoice`, then we called its `upper()` method to return the upper-case version of the string, which we print to the screen.

NOTE: Methods are just functions that belong to objects. We already saw an example of a general-purpose function, the `len()` function, which can be used to tell us the length of many different types of objects, including strings. This is why we use the length function differently, by only saying: `len(loudVoice)`

Meanwhile, we use dot notation to call methods that belong to an object, like when we call the `upper()` method that belongs to the string `loudVoice`: `loudVoice.upper()`

Let's make things more interactive by introducing one more general function. We're going to get some input from the user of our program by using the function `raw_input()`. The input that we pass to this function is the text that we want it to display as a prompt; what the function actually does is to receive additional input from the user. Try running the following script:

```
1 userInput =raw_input("Hey, what's up? ")
2
3 print "You said:", userInput
```

NOTE: Python 3 note: The `raw_input()` function has been renamed to just `input()` in Python 3. There is an `input()` function in Python 2 as well, but it actually works differently (and its equivalent doesn't exist in Python 3).

When you run this, instead of the program ending and taking you back to the `>>>` prompt, you'll just see:

```
1 >>>
2
3 Hey, what 's up?
```

...with a blinking cursor. It's waiting for you to answer! Enter a response, and it will store that answer in the `userInput` string and display it back:

```
1 >>>
2
3 Hey, what's up? Mind your own business.
4
5 You said: Mind your own business.
6
7 >>>
```

Now we'll combine the function `raw_input()` with the string method `upper()` in a script to modify the user's input:

```
1 response = raw_input("What should I shout? ")
2
3 response = response.upper()
4
5 print "Well, if you insist...", response
```

Calling `response.upper()` didn't change anything about our response string. The `upper()` method only returned the upper-case version of the string to us, and it was up to us to do something with it. That's why we had to set `response = response.upper()` in order to reassign the value of the string `response` to its own upper-case equivalent.

In IDLE, if you want to see all the methods can apply to a particular kind of object, you can type that object out followed by a period and then hit CTRL+SPACE. For instance, first define a string object in the interactive window:

```
>>> myString = "kerfuffle"
```

Now type the name of your string in again, followed by a period (without hitting enter):

```
>>> myString.
```

When you hit CTRL+SPACE, you'll see a list of method options that you can scroll through with the arrow keys. Strings have lots of methods!

A related shortcut in IDLE is the ability to fill in text automatically without having to type in long names by hitting TAB. For instance, if you only type in "myString.u" and then hit the TAB key, IDLE will automatically fill in "myString.upper" because there is only one method belonging to myString that begins with a "u". In fact, this even works with variable names; try typing in just the first few letters of "myString" and, assuming you don't have any other names already defined that share those first letters, IDLE will automatically complete the name "myString" for you when you hit the TAB key.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that takes input from the user and displays that input back
2. Use CTRL+SPACE to view all the methods of a string object, then write a script that returns the lower-case version of a string

Assignment: Pick apart your user's input

Write a script named “first_letter.py” that first prompts the user for input by using the string: Tell me your password:

The script should then determine the first letter of the user's input, convert that letter to upper-case, and display it back. As an example, if the user input was “no” then the program should respond like this: The first letter you entered was: N

For now, it's okay if your program crashes when the user enters nothing as input (just hitting ENTER instead). We'll find out a couple ways you could deal with this situation in chapter 5.

Chapter 5

Fundamentals: Working with Strings

Mix and match different objects

We've seen that string objects can hold any characters, including numbers. However, don't confuse string "numbers" with actual numbers. For instance, try this bit of code out in the interactive window:

```
1 >>> myNumber = "2"
2 >>> print myNumber + myNumber
3 22
4 >>>
```

We can add strings together, but we're just concatenating them - we're not actually adding the two quantities together. Python will even let us "multiply" strings as well:

```
1 >>> myNumber = "12"
2 >>> print myNumber * 3
3 121212
4 >>>
```

If we want to change a string object into a number, there are two general functions we commonly use: `int()` and `float()`.

`int()` stands for "integer" and converts objects into whole numbers, while `float()` stands for "floating-point number" and converts objects into numbers that have decimal points. For instance,

we could change the string `myNumber` into an integer or a "float" like so:

```
1 >>> myNumber = "12"
2 >>> print int(myNumber)
3 12
4 >>> print float(myNumber)
5 12.0
6 >>>
```

Notice how the second version added a decimal point, because the floating-point number has more precision (more decimal places). For this reason, we couldn't change a string that looks like a floating-point number into an integer because we would have to lose everything after the decimal:

```
1 >>> myNumber = "12.0"
2
3 >>> print int(myNumber)
4 Traceback (most recent call last):
5   File "<pyshell#1>", line 1, in <module>
6     print int(myNumber)
7 ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10: '12.0'
8 >>>
```

Even though the extra 0 after the decimal place doesn't actually add any value to our number, Python is telling us that we can't just change 12.0 into 12 - because we might lose part of the number.

If you want to turn a number into a string, of course there's a function for that, too - the `str()` function.

One place where this becomes important is when we want to add string and numbers together. For instance, we can't just concatenate the two different types of objects like this:

```
1 >>> print "1" + 1
2 Traceback (most recent call last):
3   File "<pyshell#1>", line 1, in <module>
4     print "1" + 1
5 TypeError: cannot concatenate 'str' and 'int' objects
6 >>>
```

Python doesn't know how to add different types of objects together - we could have meant the answer to be "2" or "11" depending on whether we had strings or integers. If we wanted to put the two numbers side-by-side as one string, we would have to convert the integer into a string:

```
1 >>> print "1" + str(1)
2 11
3 >>>
```

"Integer" and "string" are called types of objects. Always keep in mind that you might get unexpected results if you mix types incorrectly or if you use one type of object when you really meant to use another.

Review exercises:

1. Create a string object that stores an integer as its value, then convert that string into an actual integer object using `int()`; test that your new object is really a number by multiplying it by another number and displaying the result
2. Repeat the previous exercise, but use a floating-point number and `float()`

3. Create a string object and an integer object, then display them side-by-side with a single print statement by using the `str()` function

Streamline your print statements

Suppose we have a string object, `name = "Zaphod"`, and two integer objects, `numHeads = 2` and `numArms = 3`. We want to display them in the following line: Zaphod has 2 heads and 3 arms

We've already seen two ways of doing this. The first would involve using commas to insert spaces between each piece of our statement:

```
1 print name, "has", str(numHeads), "heads and", str(numArms), "arms"
```

Another way we could do this is by concatenating the strings with the `+` operator:

```
1 print name+" has "+str(numHeads)+" heads and "+str(numArms)+" arms"
```

I didn't use spaces around all the `+` signs just so that the two expressions would line up, but it's pretty difficult to read either way. Trying to keep track of what goes inside or outside of the quotes can be a huge pain, which is why there's a third way of combining strings together: using the `string.format()` method.

The simplest version of the `format()` method would look like this for our example:

```
1 print "{} has {} heads and {} arms".format(name, numHeads, numArms)
```

The pairs of empty curly braces (`{}` without any space in between the two) serve as place-holders for the variables that we want to place inside the string. We then pass these variables into our string as inputs of the string's `format()` method, in order. The really great part about this technique is that we didn't even have to change our integers into string types first - the `format()` method did that for us automatically.

NOTE: Python 3 note: The `.format()` should go inside of the parentheses in Python 3 `print()` statements since the `format()` is being applied to the string itself, not to the result of using the `print()` function.

Although it's less frequently used, we can also use index numbers inside the curly braces to do the same thing:

```
1 print "{0} has {1} heads and {2} arms".format(name, numHeads, numArms)
```

Here we've inserted `name` into the `{0}` place-holder because it is the 0th input listed, and so on. Since we numbered our place-holders, we don't even have to provide the inputs in the same order. For instance, this line would also do the exact same thing:

```
1 print "{2} has {1} heads and {0} arms".format(numArms, numHeads, name)
```

This style of formatting can be helpful if you want to repeat an input multiple times within a string, i.e.:

```
1 >>> print "{0} has {0} heads and {0} arms".format(name)
2 Zaphod has Zaphod heads and Zaphod arms.
3 >>>
```

Finally, if we didn't want to create three separate objects ahead of time, one last way of using `format()` would be to name and assign new objects inside the `format()` method, like so:

```
1 print "{name} has {numHeads} heads and {numArms} arms".format(name="Zaphod",
2 numHeads=2, numArms=3)
```

These input variables don't necessarily have to be listed in the same order since we've called on each of them by name inside the string.

NOTE: There is also another way to print formatted strings: using the `%` operator. You might see this in code that you find elsewhere, and you can read about how it works [here](#) if you're curious, but just be aware that this style is being phased out completely in Python 3 (and the "new" `format()` style works just fine in Python 2.7), so there's not much point in learning to master this outdated method.

Review exercises:

1. Create a "float" object (a decimal number) named `weight` that holds the value 0.2, and create a string object named `animal` that holds the value "newt", then use these objects to print the following line without using the `format()` string method: 0.2 kg is the weight of the newt.
2. Display the same line using `format()` and empty `{}` place-holders
3. Display the same line using `{}` place-holders that use the index numbers of the inputs provided to the `format()` method
4. Display the same line by creating new string and float objects inside of the `format()` method

Find a string in a string

One of the most useful string methods is `find()`. As its name implies, we can use this method to find the location of one string in another string. We use dot notation because this method belongs to a string, and the input we supply in parentheses is the string we're searching for:

```
1 >>> phrase = "the surprise is in here somewhere"
2 >>> print phrase.find("surprise")
3 4
4 >>>
```

We're searching for the location of the string "surprise" in our phrase string. The value that `find()` returns is the index of the first occurrence of that string. In this case, "surprise" starts at the 4th character into the phrase (remember to start counting at 0), so we displayed 4.

If `find()` doesn't find the string we're looking for, it will return -1 instead:

```
1 >>> phrase = "the surprise is in here somewhere"
2 >>> print phrase.find("ejafjallajokull")
3 -1
4 >>>
```

We can even call string methods on a string literal directly, so in this case we didn't even need to create a new string object:

```
1 >>> print "the surprise is in here somewhere".find("surprise")
2 4
3 >>>
```

Keep in mind that this matching is done exactly, character by character. If we had tried to find "SURPRISE", we would have gotten a -1.

The part of the string we are searching for (or any part of a string) is called a substring.

If a substring appears more than once in our string, `find()` will just return the first appearance, starting from the beginning of the string. For instance, try out:

```
1 >>> "I put a string in your string".find("string")
2 8
3 >>>
```

Keep in mind that we still can't mix object types; `find()` will only accept a string as its input. If we were looking for an integer inside in a string, we would still have to put that integer value in a string of its own:

```
1 >>> "My number is 555-555-5555".find("5")
2 13
3 >>>
```

A similar string method is `replace()`, which will replace all occurrences of one substring with a different string. For instance, let's replace every instance of "the truth" with the string "lies" in the following:

```
1 >>> myStory = "I'm telling you the truth; he spoke nothing but the truth!"
2 >>> print myStory.replace("the truth", "lies")
3 I'm telling you lies; he spoke nothing but lies!
4 >>>
```

Keep in mind that calling `replace()` did not actually change `myStory`; in order to affect this string, we would still have to reassign it to a new value, as in:

```
1 >>> myStory = myStory.replace("the truth", "lies")
2 >>>
```

Review exercises:

1. In one line, display the result of trying to find() the substring "a" in the string "AAA"; the result should be -1
2. Create a string object that contains the value "version 2.0"; find() the first occurrence of the number 2.0 inside of this string by first creating a "float" object that stores the value 2.0 as a floating-point number, then converting that object to a string using the `str()` function
3. Write and test a script that accepts user input using `raw_input()`, then displays the result of trying to find() a particular letter in that input

Assignment: Turn your user into a l33t h4xor

Write a script “translate.py” that asks the user for some input with the following prompt: Enter some text:

You should then use the `replace()` method to convert the text entered by the user into “leetspeak” by making the following changes to lower-case letters:

- The letter: a becomes: 4
- The letter: b becomes: 8
- The letter: e becomes: 3
- The letter: l becomes: 1
- The letter: o becomes: 0
- The letter: s becomes: 5
- The letter: t becomes: 7

Your program should then display the resulting output. A sample run of the program, with the user input in bold, is shown below:

```
1 >>> Enter some text: I like to eat eggs and spam.  
2  
3 I 1ik3 70 347 3gg5 4nd 5p4m.  
4  
5 >>>
```

Chapter 6

Fundamentals: Functions and Loops

Do futuristic arithmetic

We already did some basic math using IDLE's interactive window. For instance, we saw that we could evaluate simple expressions just by typing them in at the prompt, which would display the answer:

```
1 >>> 6 * (1+6)
2 42
3 >>>
```

However, just putting that line into a script:

```
1 6 * (1+6)
```

would be useless since we haven't actually told the program to do anything. If we want to display the result from a program, we have to rely on the print command again.

Go ahead and open a new script, save it as "arithmetic.py" and try displaying the results of some basic calculations:

```
1 print "1 + 1 =", 1 + 1
2 print "2 * (2 + 3) =", 2 * (2+3)
3 print "1.2 / 0.3 =", 1.2 / 0.3
4 print "5 / 2 =", 5 / 2
```

Here we've used a single print statement on each line to combined two pieces of information by separating the values with a comma. The results of the numerical expressions on the right will automatically be calculated when we display it.

All of the spaces we included above were entirely optional, but they help to makes things easier to read.

When you save and run this script, it displays the results of your print commands as follows:

```

1 >>>
2 1 + 1 = 2
3 2 * (2 + 3) = 10
4 1.2 / 0.3 = 4.0
5 5 / 2 = 2
6 >>>

```

Wait a second... $5 / 2 = 2$... for a computer, that doesn't sound very accurate

Unfortunately, the mathematics aficionados (read: uber-nerds) who developed Python made division a little counter intuitive at the cost of being technically correct. Since we're dividing two integers (i.e., whole numbers), Python is doing integer division and ignoring the remainder.

Since this is an annoying quirk that we usually don't want, we have to change how Python treats division by adding this bizarre line once at the very beginning of our script:

```

1 from __future__ import division

```

That's `__future__` with double underscore characters (two `_`'s on each side). I promise that this is the least sensible line of code I will ever have you write. Just remember to add it to the top of any script where you might want to divide one integer by another, and all will be well. Coincidentally, "normal" division by default is one of the few useful changes in Python 3, hence why we need to import this functionality "from the future" - in other words, $5 / 2$ will give the expected result by default in Python 3.

If you really wanted to do integer division, just use the `//` operator instead.

For instance: $5 // 2 = 2$

This only applies to the `//` operator. The `**` operator is something different entirely, and actually calculates one number raised to the power of another number. For instance, $5 ** 2 = 25$.

Now that we've imported the ability to divide integers correctly, we can run a script like this:

```

1 from __future__ import division
2
3 print "1/2 =", 1/2

```

And we'll get the expected result of $1/2 = 0.5$ instead of 0.

However, notice that if we try to evaluate $1/2$ in the interactive window, we still get 0 as our answer

even after running our new script. This is because we haven't actually added this new "division" functionality to the interactive window. But we can always do that separately as well.

```

1 >>> from __future__ import division
2 >>> 1/2
3 0.5
4 >>>

```

And now our interactive window will also divide numbers the way we would expect.

Review exercises:

1. In a script, print the result of dividing one integer by a second, larger integer; this is integer division
2. Import division from the “future” into the same script, then save and rerun the script; compare these results to the previous version

Assignment: Perform calculations on user input

Write a script *exponent.py* that receives two numbers from the user and displays the result of taking the first number to the power of the second number. A sample run of the program should look like this (with example input that has been provided by the user included below):

```
1 >>>
2 Enter a base: 1.2
3 Enter an exponent: 3
4 1.2 to the power of 3 = 1.728
5 >>>
```

Keep the following in mind:

1. In Python, xy is calculated by using the expression `x ** y`
2. Before you can do anything with the user's input, you will have to store the results of both calls to `raw_input()` in new objects
3. The `raw_input()` function returns a string object, so you will need to convert the user's input into numbers in order to do arithmetic on them
4. You should use the string `format()` method to print the result
5. You can assume that the user will enter actual numbers as input

Create your own functions

One of the main benefits of programming in Python is the ease with which different parts and pieces of code can be put together in new ways. Think of it like building with Lego bricks instead of having to craft everything by hand each time you start a project.

The Lego brick of programming is called a function. A function is basically a miniature program; it accepts input and produces output. We've already seen some examples of functions such as the `find()` string method - when called on a string, it takes some input and returns the location of that input within the string as its output.

We could create our own function that takes a number as its input and produces the square of that number as its output. In Python, this would look like:

```
1 def square(number):  
2  
3     sqr_num = number * number  
4  
5     return sqr_num
```

The `def` is short for “define” and lets Python know that we are about to define a new function. In this case, we called the function `square` and gave it one input variable (the part in parentheses) named `number`. A function's input is called an argument of the function, and a function can take more than one argument.

The first line within our function multiplies `number` by itself and stores the result in a new variable named `sqr_num`. Then the last line of our function returns the value of `sqr_num`, which is the output of our function.

If you just type these three lines into a script, save it and run it, nothing will happen. The function doesn't do anything by itself.

However, now we can use the function later on from the main section of the script. For instance, try running this script:

```
1 def square(number):  
2     sqr_num = number **2  
3     return sqr_num  
4  
5 input_num = 5  
6 output_num = square(input_num)  
7  
8 print output_num
```

By saying `output_num = square(input_num)`, we are calling up the function `square` and providing this function with the input variable `input_num`, which in this case has a value of 5. Our function then calculates 52 and returns the value of the variable `sqr_num`, which gets stored in our new variable `output_num`.

NOTE: Notice the colon and the indentation after we defined our function. These aren't optional. This is how Python knows that we are still inside of the function. As soon as Python sees a line that isn't indented, that's the end of the function. Every line inside the function must be indented.

You can define many functions in one script, and functions can even refer to each other. However, it's important that a function has been defined before you try to use it. For instance, try running this code instead:

```
1 input_num = 5
2
3 output_num = square(input_num)
4
5 print output_num
6
7 def square(number):
8     sqr_num = number * number
9     return sqr_num
```

Here we've just reordered the two parts of our script so that the main section comes before the function. The problem here is that Python runs through our code from the top to the bottom - so when we call the square function on the second line, Python has no idea what we mean yet because we don't actually define the square function until later on in the script, and it hasn't gotten there yet. Instead we see an error:

```
1 NameError: name 'square' is not defined
```

To create a function that uses more than one input, all we need to do is separate each argument of the function with a comma. For instance, the following function takes two arguments as input and returns the difference, subtracting the second number from the first:

```
1 def returnDifference(num1, num2):
2     return num1 - num2
```

To call this function, we need to supply it with two inputs:

```
1 print returnDifference(3, 5)
```

This line will call our new returnDifference() function, then display the result of -2 that the function returns.

NOTE: Once a function returns a value with the return command, the function is done running; if any code appears inside the function after the return statement, it will never be run because the function has already returned its final result.

One last helpful thing about functions is that Python allows you to add special comments called docstrings. A docstring serves as documentation, helping to explain what a function does and how to use it. They're completely optional, but can be helpful if there's any chance that you'll either share your code with someone else or if you ever come back to your code later, once you've forgotten what it's supposed to do - which is why you should leave comments in the first place. A docstring looks just like a multi-line comment with three quotation marks, but it has to come at the very beginning of a function, right after the first definition line:

```
1 def returnDifference(n1, n2):  
2     """Return the difference between two numbers.  
3     Subtracts n2 from n1."""  
4     return n1 - n2
```

The benefit of this (besides leaving a helpful comment in the code) is that we can now use the `help()` function to get information about this function. Assuming we defined this function by typing it in the interactive window or we already ran a script where it was defined, we can now type `help(returnDifference)` and see:

```
1 >>> help(returnDifference)  
2 Help on function returnDifference in module __main__:  
3 returnDifference(n1, n2)  
4     Return the difference between two numbers.  
5     Subtracts n2 from n1.  
6 >>>
```

Of course, you can also call `help()` on the many other Python functions we'll see to get a quick reference on how they are used.

Review exercise:

1. Write a `cube()` function that takes a number and multiplies that number by itself twice over, returning the new value; test the function by displaying the result of calling your `cube()` function on a few different numbers
2. Write a function `multiply()` that takes two numbers as inputs and multiplies them together, returning the result; test your function by saving the result of `multiply(2, 5)` in a new integer object and printing that integer's value

Assignment: Convert temperatures

Write a script “temperature.py” that includes two functions. One function takes a Celsius temperature as its input, converts that number into the equivalent Fahrenheit temperature and returns that value. The second function takes a Fahrenheit temperature and returns the equivalent Celsius temperature. Test your functions by passing input values to them and printing the output results.

For testing your functions, example output should look like:

```
1 72 degrees F = 22.2222222222 degrees C
2 37 degrees C = 98.6 degrees F
```

In case you didn't want to spend a minute searching the web or doing algebra (the horror), the relevant conversion formulas are:

1. $F = C * 9/5 + 32$
2. $C = (F - 32) * 5/9$

Run in circles

One major benefit of computers is that we can make them do the same exact thing over and over again, and they rarely complain or get tired. The easiest way to program your computer to repeat itself is with a loop.

There are two kinds of loops in Python: for loops and while loops. The basic idea behind any kind of loop is to run a section of code repeatedly as long as a specific statement (called the test condition) is true. For instance, try running this script that uses a while loop:

```
1 n = 1
2 while (n < 5):
3     print "n =", n
4     n = n + 1
5 print "Loop finished "
```

Here we create a variable `n` and assign it a value of 1. Then we start the while loop, which is organized in a similar way to how we defined a function. The statement that we are testing comes in parentheses after the while command; in this case we want to know if the statement `n < 5` is true or false. Since `1 < 5`, the statement is true and we enter into the loop after the colon.

NOTE: Notice the indentation on the lines after the colon. Just like when we defined a function, this spacing is important. The colon and indenting let Python know that the next lines are inside the while loop. As soon as Python sees a line that isn't indented, that line and the rest of the code after it will be considered outside of the loop.

Once we've entered the loop, we print the value of the variable `n`, then we add 1 to its value. Now `n` is 2, and we go back to test our while statement. This is still true, since `2 < 5`, so we run through the next two lines of code again... And we keep on with this pattern while the statement `n < 5` is true.

As soon as this statement becomes false, we're completely done with the loop; we jump straight to the end and continue on with the rest of the script, in this case printing out "Loop finished"

Go ahead and test out different variations of this code - and try to guess what your output will be before you run each script. Just be careful: it's easy to create what's called an infinite loop; if you test a statement that's always going to be true, you will never break out of the loop, and your code will just keep running forever.

NOTE: It's important to be consistent with indentation, too. Notice how you can hit tab and backspace to change indentation, and IDLE automatically inserts four space characters. That's because you can't mix tabs and spaces as indentation. Although IDLE won't let you make this mistake, if you were to open your script in a different text editor and replace some of the space indentation with tabs, Python would get confused - even though the spacing looks the same to you (You could use tab characters everywhere as indentation - or even use a different number of space characters - as long as you always use the same type of indentation for a particular section of indented text.)

The second type of loop, a for loop, is slightly different in Python. We typically use for loops in Python in order to loop over every individual item in a set of similar things - these things could be numbers, variables, lines from an input file, etc.

For instance, the following code does the exact same thing as our previous script by using a for loop to repeatedly run code for a range of numbers:

```
1 for n in range(1, 5):  
2     print "n =", n  
3 print "Loop finished "
```

Here we are using the range() function, which is a function that is built into Python, to return a list of numbers. The range() function takes two input values, a starting number and a stopping number. So in the first line, we create a variable n equal to 1, then we run through the code inside of our loop for n = 1.

We then run through the loop again for n = 2, etc., all the way through our range of numbers. Once we get to the end of the range, we jump out of the loop. Yes, it's slightly counter-intuitive, but in Python a range(x, y) starts at x but ends right before y.

” When we use a for loop, we don't need to define the variable we'll be looping over first. This is because the for loop reassigns a new value to the variable each time we run through the loop. In the above example, we assigned the value 1 to the object n as soon as we started the loop. This is different from a while loop, where the first thing we do is to test some condition - which is why we need to have given a value to any variable that appears in the while loop before we enter the loop.

Play around with some variations of this script to make sure you understand how the for loop is structured. Again, be sure to use the exact same syntax, including the in keyword, the colon, and the proper indentation inside the loop.

Don't just copy and paste the sample code into a script - type it out yourself Not only will that help you learn the concepts, but the proper indentation won't copy over correctly anyway...

As long as we indent the code correctly, we can even put loops inside loops Try this out:

```
1 for n in range(1, 4):  
2     for j in ["a", "b", "c"]:  
3         print "n =", n, "and j =", j
```

Here j is looping over a list of strings; we'll see how lists work in a later chapter, but this example is only to show that you don't have to use the range() function with a for loop. Since the j loop is inside the n loop, we run through the entire j loop (j = "a", j = "b", j = "c") for each value that gets assigned to n in the outer loop.

We will use for loops in future chapters as an easy way to loop over all the items stored in many different types of objects - for instance, all the lines in a file.

NOTE: Once your code is running in the interactive window, sometimes you might accidentally end up entering a loop that takes much longer than you expected. If that's the

case (or if your code seems “frozen” because of anything else that’s taking longer than expected), you can usually break out of the code by typing CTRL+C in the interactive window. This should immediately stop the rest of your script from running and take you back to a prompt in the interactive window.

If that doesn’t seem to have any effect (because you somehow managed to freeze the IDLE window), you can usually type

CTRL+Q to quit out of IDLE entirely, much like “End Task” in Windows or “Force Quit” on a Mac.

Review exercises:

1. Write a for loop that prints out the integers 2 through 10, each on a new line, by using the range() function
2. Use a while loop that prints out the integers 2 through 10

(Hint: you’ll need to create a new integer first; there’s no good reason to use a while loop instead of a for loop in this case, but it’s good practice...)

3. Write a function doubles() that takes one number as its input and doubles that number three times using a loop, displaying each result on a separate line; test your function by calling doubles(2) to display 4, 8, and 16

Assignment: Track your investments

Write a script "invest.py" that will track the growing amount of an investment over time. This script includes an `invest()` function that takes three inputs: the initial investment amount, the annual compounding rate, and the total number of years to invest. So, the first line of the function will look like this:

```
1 def invest(amount, rate, time):
```

The function then prints out the amount of the investment for every year of the time period.

In the main body of the script (after defining the function), use the following code to test your function: `invest(100, .05, 8)`

```
1 invest(2000, .025, 5)
```

Running this test code should produce the following output exactly:

```
1 principal amount: $100
2 annual rate of return: 0.05
3 year 1: $105.0
4 year 2: $110.25
5 year 3: $115.7625
6 year 4: $121.550625
7 year 5: $127.62815625
8 year 6: $134.009564063
9 year 7: $140.710042266
10 year 8: $147.745544379
11 principal amount: $2000
12 annual rate of return: 0.025
13 year 1: $2050.0
14 year 2: $2101.25
15 year 3: $2153.78125
16 year 4: $2207.62578125
17 year 5: $2262.81642578
```

Hint: Although functions usually return output values, this is entirely optional in Python. Functions themselves can print output directly as well. You can print as much as you like from inside a function, and the function will continue running until you reach its end.

Some additional pointers if you're stuck: 1. You will need to use a `for` loop over a range that's based on the function's time input. 2. Within your loop, you will need to reassign a new value to the amount every year based on how it grows at $1 + \text{rate}$. 3. Remember that you need to use either the `format()` method or `str()` to convert numbers to strings first if you want to print both strings and numbers in a single statement. 4. Using the `print` statement by itself (or `print()` in Python 3) will print a blank line.

Chapter 7

Interlude: Debug your code

You've probably already discovered how easy it is to make mistakes that IDLE can't automatically catch for you. As your code becomes longer and more complicated, it can become a lot more difficult to track down the sources of these errors.

When we learned about syntax and run-time errors, I actually left out a third, most difficult type of error that you've probably already experienced: the logic error. Logic errors occur when you've written a program that, as far as your computer is concerned, is a completely "valid" program that it has no trouble running - but the program doesn't do what you intended it to do because you made a mistake somewhere.

Programmers use debuggers to help get these bugs out of their programs (we're clever with names like that), and there's already a simple debugger built into IDLE that you should learn to use - before you need to use it.

NOTE: Although debugging is the least glamorous and most boring part of programming, learning to make good use of a debugger can save you a lot of time in the end. We all make mistakes; it's a good idea to learn how to find and fix them.

From the file menu of the interactive window of IDLE (not in a script window), click on Debug -> Debugger to open the Debug Control window.

Notice how the interactive window now shows [DEBUG ON] at the prompt to let you know that the debugger is open. We have a few main options available to us, all of which will be explained shortly: Go, Step, Over, Out, and Quit.

Keep both the debugger window and the interactive window open, but let's also start a new script so that we can see how the debugger works:

```
1 for i in range(1,4):  
2  
3     j = i*2  
4  
5     print "i is", i, "and j is", j
```


If you run this script while you have the debugger open, you'll notice that it doesn't get very far. Actually, it pauses before running anything at all, and the "Stack" window at the top of the debugger says:

```
>>> '__main__'.<module>(), line 1: for i in range(1,4):
```

All this is telling us is that line 1 (which contains the code "for i in range(1,4):") is about to be run. The beginning of the "Stack" line in the debugger refers to the fact that we're currently in the "main" section of the script - for instance, as opposed to being in a function definition before the main block of code has been reached.

The debugger allows us to step through the code line by line, keeping track of all our variables as we go. So, let's go ahead and click once on "Step" in the debugger in order to do that. Watch carefully what happens to the debugger window when you do that...

Now the "Stack" window in the debugger says that we're about to run line 2 of the code, which means that line 1 has been executed. Below that, the "Globals and Locals" window includes a new variable `i` that's been assigned the value 1. This is because the for loop in the first line of our code created this integer `i` and gave it that starting value. (There are also a few internal system variables listed above it, but we can ignore those.)

Continue hitting the "Step" button to walk through your code line by line, watching what happens in the debugger window. You can track the growing values of `i` and `j` as you loop through the for statement, and output is displayed in the interactive window as usual when the print statements are run.

Usually, we only want to debug a particular section of the code, so spending all day clicking the "Step" button is less than ideal. This is the idea behind setting a breakpoint.

Breakpoints tell the debugger when to start pausing your code. They don't actually break anything; they're more like "hang on a second, let me take a look at things first" points.

Let's learn to use breakpoints by working with the following example code, which isn't quite doing what we want it to do yet:

```
1 def addUnderscores(word):
2
3     new_word = ""
4
5     for i in range(0, len(word)):
6
7         new_word = word[i] + "_"
8
9     return new_word
10
11 phrase = "hello "
```



```
print addUnderscores(phrase)
```

What we meant for the function `addUnderscores()` to do was to add underscores around every character in the word passed to it, so that we could give it the input “hello” and it would return the output:

```
1 _h_e_l_l_o_ _
```

Instead, all we see right now is:

It might already be obvious to you what our error was, but let’s use the debugger to work through the problem. We know that the problem is occurring somewhere inside in the function - specifically, within the for loop, since we said that `new_word` should start with a “_” but it clearly doesn’t. So let’s put a breakpoint at the start of the for loop so that we can trace out exactly what’s happening inside.

To set a breakpoint on a line, right-click (Mac: control-click) on that line and select “Set Breakpoint”, which should highlight the line to let you know that the breakpoint is active.

Now we can run the script with the debugger open. It will still pause on the very first line it sees (which is defining the function), but we can select “Go” to run through the code normally. This will save the function in Python’s memory, save the variable phrase as “hello”, call up our function from the print statement... and then pause at our breakpoint, right before entering the for loop.

At this point, we see that we have two local variables defined (they’re “local” because they belong to the function). As expected, we have `new_word`, which is a string with just the underscore character, and we have `word`, the variable we passed to the function, with “hello” as its contents.

Click “Step” once and you’ll see that we’ve entered the for loop. The counter we’re using, `i`, has been given its first value of 0.

Click “Step” one more time, and it might become clearer what’s happening in our code. The variable `new_word` has taken on the value “h_”... It got rid of our first underscore character already. If you click “Step” a few more times, you’ll see that `new_word` gets set to “e_”, then “l_”, etc. We’ve been overwriting the contents of `new_word` instead of adding to it, and so we correct the line to:

```
1 new_word = new_word + word[i] + "_"
```

Of course, the debugger couldn’t tell us exactly how to fix the problem, but it helped us identify where the problem occurred and what exactly the unexpected behavior was.

You can remove a breakpoint at any time by right-clicking (Mac: control-clicking) and selecting “Clear Breakpoint”.

In the debugger, “Quit” does just that - immediately quits out of the program entirely, regardless of where you were in the script. The option “Over” is sort of a combination of “Step” and “Go” - it will step over a function or loop. In other words, if you’re about to “Step” into a function with the debugger, you can still run that function’s code without having to “Step” all the way through each line of it - “Over” will take you directly to the end result of running that function. Likewise, if you’re already inside of a function, “Out” will take you directly to the end result of that function.

NOTE: When trying to reopen the debugger, you might see this error: You can only toggle the debugger when idle

It's most likely because you closed out of the debugger while your script was still running. Always be sure to hit "Go" or "Quit" when you're finished with a debugging session instead of just closing the debugger, or you might have trouble reopening it. The IDLE debugger isn't the most carefully crafted piece of software - sometimes you'll just have to exit out of IDLE and reopen your script to make this error go away.

Debugging can be tricky and time-consuming, but sometimes it's the only reliable way to fix errors that you've overlooked. However, before turning to the debugger, in some cases you can just use print statements to your advantage to figure out your mistakes much more easily.

The easiest way to do this is to print out the contents of variables at specific points throughout your script. If your code breaks at some point, you can also print out the contents of variables using the interactive window to compare how they appear to how you thought they should look at that point.

For instance, in the previous example we could have added the statement "print new_word" inside of our for loop. Then when we run the script, we'd be able to see how new_word actually grows (or in this case, how it doesn't grow properly). Just be careful when using print statements this way, especially inside of loops - if you don't plan out the process well, it's easy to end up displaying thousands of lines that aren't informative and only end up slowing down or freezing your program.

Or you could always try [rubber ducking](#).

Chapter 8

Fundamentals: Conditional logic

Compare values

Computers understand our world in binary, breaking every problem down into 0's and 1's. In order to make comparisons between values, we have to learn how to communicate in this “1 or 0” language using boolean logic. “Boolean” refers to anything that can only take on one of two values: “true” or “false.”

To help make this more intuitive, Python has two special keywords that are conveniently named `True` and `False`. The capitalization is important - these keywords are not ordinary variables or strings, but are essentially synonyms for 1 and 0, respectively. Try doing some arithmetic in the interactive window using `True` and `False` inside of your expressions, and you'll see that they behave just like 1 and 0:

```
1 >>> 42 * True + False
2 42
3 >>> False * 2 - 3
4 -3
5 >>> True + 0.2 / True
6 1.2
7 >>>
```

Before we can evaluate expressions to determine whether or not they are `True` or `False`, we need a way to compare values to each other. We use a standard set of symbols (called boolean comparators)

to do this, and most of them are probably already familiar to you:

`a > b` —> a greater than b

`a < b` —> a less than b

`a >= b` —> a greater than or equal to b

`a <= b` —> a less than or equal to b

`a != b` —> a not equal to b

`a == b` → a equal to b

The last two symbols might require some explanation. The symbol “!=” is a sort of shortcut notation for saying “not equal to.” Try it out on a few expressions, like these:

```
1
2 >>> 1 != 2
3
4 True
5
6 >>> 1 != 1
7
8 False
9
10 >>>
```

In the first case, since 1 does not equal 2, we see the result True. Then, in the second example, 1 does equal 1, so our test expression “1 != 1” returns False.

When we want to test if a equals b, we can’t just use the expression “a = b” because in programming, that would mean we want to assign the value of b to a. We use the symbol “==” as a test expression when we want to see if a is equal to b. For instance, take a look at the two versions of “equals” here:

```
1 >>> a = 1
2
3 >>> b = 2
4
5 >>> a == b
6
7 False
8
9 >>> a = b
10
11 >>> a == b
12
13 True
14
15 >>>
```

First we assigned a and b two different values. When we check whether they are equal by using the “a == b” expression, we get the result False. Then, we reassign a the value of b by saying a = b. Now, since a and b are both equal to 2, we can test this relationship again by saying “a == b” (which is more of a question that we’re asking), which returns the result of True. Likewise, we could ask:

```
1 >>> a != b
2
3 False
4
```

```
5 >>>
```

It's True that `2 == 2`. So the opposite expression, `a != b`, is False. In other words, it's not True that 2 does not equal 2.

We can compare strings in the same way that we compare numbers. Saying that one word is "less than" another doesn't really mean anything, but we can test whether two strings are the same by using the `==` or `!=` comparators:

```
1 >>> "dog" == "cat"
2
3 False
4
5 >>> "dog" == "dog"
6
7 True
8
9 >>> "dog" != "cat"
10
11 True
12
13 >>>
```

Keep in mind that two strings have to have exactly the same value them to be equal. For instance, if one string has an extra space character at the end or if the two strings have different capitalization, comparing whether or not they are equal will return False.

Review exercises:

1. Figure out what the result will be (True or False) when evaluating the following expressions, then type them into the interactive window to check your answers:

```
1 1 <= 1
2
3 1 != 1
4
5 1 != 2
6
7 "good" != "bad"
8
9 "good" != "Good"
10
11 123 == "123"
```

Add some logic

Python also has special keywords (called logical operators) for comparing two expressions, which are: and, or, and not. These keywords work much the same way as we use them in English.

Let's start with the and keyword. Saying "and" means that both statements must be true. For instance, take the following two simple phrases (and assume they're both true):

1. cats have four legs
2. cats have tails

If we use these phrases in combination, the phrase "cats have four legs and cats have tails" is true, of course. If we negate both of these phrases, "cats do not have four legs and cats do not have tails" is false. But even if we make one of these phrases false, the combination also becomes false: "cats have four legs and cats do not have tails" is a false phrase. Likewise, "cats do not have four legs and cats have tails" is still false.

Let's try this same concept out in Python by using some numerical expressions:

```
1 >>> 1 < 2 and 3 < 4 # both are True
2
3 True
4
5 >>> 2 < 1 and 4 < 3 # both are False
6
7 False
8
9 >>> 1 < 2 and 4 < 3 # second statement is False
10
11 False
12
13 >>> 2 < 1 and 3 < 4 # first statement is False
14
15 False
16
17 >>>
```

1. $1 < 2$ and $3 < 4$: both statements are True, so the combination is also True
2. $2 < 1$ and $4 < 3$: both statements are False, so their combination is also False
3. $1 < 2$ and $4 < 3$: the first statement ($1 < 2$) is True, while the second statement ($4 < 3$) is False; since both statements have to be True, combining them with the and keyword gives us False
4. $2 < 1$ and $3 < 4$: the first statement ($2 < 1$) is False, while the second statement ($3 < 4$) is True; again, since both statements have to be True, combining them with the and keyword gives us False

We can summarize these results as follows:

Combination using **and** —> Result

1. True **and** True —> True
2. True **and** False —> False
3. False **and** True —> False
4. False **and** False —> False

It might seem counter-intuitive that “True and False” is False, but think back to how we use this term in English; the following phrase, taken in its entirety, is of course false: “cats have tails and the moon is made of cheese.”

The or keyword means that at least one value must be true. When we say the word “or” in everyday conversation, sometimes we mean an “exclusive or” - this means that only the first option or the second option can be true. We use an “exclusive or” when we say a phrase such as, “I can stay or I can go.” I can’t do both - only one of these options can be true.

However, in programming we use an “inclusive or” since we also want to include the possibility that both values are true. For instance, if we said the phrase, “we can have ice cream or we can have cake,” we also want the possibility of ice cream and cake, so we use an “inclusive or” to mean “either ice cream, or cake, or both ice cream and cake.”

Again, we can try this concept out in Python by using some numerical expressions:

```
1 >>> 1 < 2 or 3 < 4 # both are True
2
3 True
4
5 >>> 2 < 1 or 4 < 3 # both are False
6
7 False
8
9 >>> 1 < 2 or 4 < 3 # second statement is False
10
11 True
12
13 >>> 2 < 1 or 3 < 4 # first statement is False
14
15 True
16
17 >>>
```

If any part of our expression is True, even if both parts are True, the result will also be True. We can summarize these results as follows:

Combination using **or** —> Result

1. True **and** True —> True

2. True **and** False → True
3. False **and** True → True
4. False **and** False → False

We can also combine the “and” and “or” keywords using parentheses to create more complicated statements to evaluate, such as the following:

```
1 >>> False or (False and True)
2
3 False
4
5 >>> True and (False or True)
6
7 True
8
9 >>>
```

Finally, as you would expect, the not keyword simply reverses the truth of a single statement:

Effect of using **not** → Result

1. **not** True → False
2. **not** False → True

Using parentheses for grouping statements together, we can combine these keywords with True and False to create more complex expressions. For instance:

```
1 >>> (not False) or True
2
3 True
4
5 >>> False or (not False)
6
7 True
8
9 >>>
```

We can now combine these keywords with the boolean comparators that we learned in the previous section to compare much more complicated expressions. For instance, here’s a somewhat more involved example:

```
1 True and not (1 != 1)
```

We can break this statement down by starting on the far right side, as follows:

1. We know that `1 == 1` is True, therefore...

2. `1 != 1` is False, therefore... `not (1 != 1)` can be simplified to `not (False)`
3. `not False` is True
4. Now we can use this partial result to solve the full expression...
5. `True and not (1 != 1)` can be simplified to `True and True`
6. `True and True` evaluates to be True

When working through complicated expressions, the best strategy is to start with the most complicated part (or parts) of the expression and build outward from there. For instance, try evaluating this example:

1. `("A" != "A") or not (2 >= 3)`

We can break this expression down into two sections, then combine them:


1. We'll start with the expression on the left side of the "or" keyword
2. We know that `"A" == "A"` is True, therefore...
3. `"A" != "A"` is False, and the left side of our expression is False
4. Now on the right side of the "or", `2 >= 3` is False, therefore... `not (2 >= 3)` is True
5. So our entire expression simplifies to False or True
6. False or True evaluates to be True

Note that we didn't have to use parentheses to express either of these examples. However, it's usually best to include parentheses as long as they help to make a statement more easily readable.

NOTE: You should feel very comfortable using various combinations of these keywords and boolean comparisons. Play around in the interactive window, creating more complicated expressions and trying to figure out what the answer will be before checking yourself, until you are confident that you can decipher boolean logic.

Review exercises:

1. Figure out what the result will be (True or False) when evaluating the following expressions, then type them into the interactive window to check your answers:

```
1 
2 (1 <= 1) and (1 != 1)
3 not (1 != 2)
4
5 ("good" != "bad") or False
6
7 ("good" != "Good") and not (1 == 1)
```

Control the flow of your program

So far, we haven't really let our programs make any decisions on their own - we've been supplying a series of instructions, which our scripts follow in a specific order regardless of the inputs received.

However, now that we have precise ways to compare values to each other, we can start to build logic into our programs; this will let our code "decide" to go in one direction or another based on the results of our comparisons.

We can do this by using if statements to test when certain conditions are True. Here's a simple example of an if statement:

```
1 if 2 + 2 == 4:
2     print "2 and 2 is 4"
3     print "Arithmetic works."
```

Just like when we created for and while loops, when we use an if statement, we have a test condition and an indented block of text that will run or not based on the results of that test condition. Here, our test condition (which comes after the if keyword) is $2 + 2 == 4$. Since this expression is True, our if statement evaluates to be True and all of the code inside of our if statement is run, displaying the two lines. We happened to use two print statements, but we could really put any code inside the if statement.

If our test condition had been False (for instance, $2 + 2 != 4$), nothing would have been displayed because our program would have jumped past all of the code inside this "if block" after finding that the if statement was False.

There are two other related keywords that we can use in combination with the if keyword: else and elif. We can add an else statement after an if statement like so:

```
1 if 2 + 2 == 4:
2     print "2 and 2 is 4"
3     print "Arithmetic works."
4 else:
5     print "2 and 2 is not 4"
6     print "Big Brother wins."
```

The else statement doesn't have a test condition of its own because it is a "catch-all" block of code; our else is just a synonym for "otherwise." So if the test condition of the if statement had been False, the two lines inside of the else block would have run instead. However, since our test condition ($2 + 2 == 4$) is True, the section of code inside the else block is not run.

The elif keyword is short for "else if" and can be used to add more possible options after an if statement. For instance, we could combine an if, and elif, and an else in a single script like this:

```
1 num = 15
2
3 if num < 10:
4     print "number is less than 10"
```

```
5 elif num > 10:
6     print "number is greater than 10"
7 else:
8     print "number is equal to 10"
```

After creating an integer object named `num` with a value of 15, we first test whether or not our `num` is less than 10; since this condition is `False`, we jump over the first print statement without running it. We land at the `elif` statement, which (because the test condition of the `if` statement was `False`) offers us an alternative test; since `15 > 10`, this condition is `True`, and we display the second print statement's text. Since one of our test conditions was `True`, we skip over the `else` statement entirely; if both the `if` and the `elif` had been `False`, however, we would have displayed the last line in the `else` statement.

This is called branching because we are deciding which “branch” of the code to go down; we have given our code different paths to take based on the results of the test conditions. Try running the script above and changing `num` to be a few different values to make sure you understand how `if`, `elif`

and `else` are working together.

You can also try getting rid of the `else` block entirely; we don't have to give our code a path to go down, so it's completely acceptable if we skip over the entire set of `if/elif` statements without taking any action. For instance, get rid of the last two lines in the script above and try running it again with `num = 10`.

It's important to note that `elif` can only be used after an `if` statement and that `else` can only be used at the end of a set of `if/elif` statements (or after a single `if`), since using one of these keywords without an `if` wouldn't make any sense. Likewise, if we want to do two separate tests in a row, we should use two separate `if` statements.

For instance, try out this short script:

```
1 if 1 < 2:
2     print "1 is less than 2"
3 elif 3 < 4:
4     print "3 is less than 4"
5 else:
6     print "Who moved my cheese?"
```

The first test condition (`1 < 2`) is `True`, so we print the first line inside the `if` block. Since we already saw one `True` statement, however, the program doesn't even bother to check whether the `elif` or the `else` blocks should be run; these are only alternative options. So, even though it's `True` that 3 is less than 4, we only ever run the first print statement.

Just like with `for` and `while` loops, we can nest `if` statements inside of each other to create more complicated paths:

```
1 want_cake = "yes"
2 have_cake = "no"
3
4 if want_cake == "yes":
```

```

5     print "We want cake..."
6     if have_cake == "no":
7         print "But we don't have any cake"
8     elif have_cake == "yes":
9         print "And it's our lucky day"
10
11 else:
    print "The cake is a lie."

```

In this example, first we check if we want cake - and since we do, we enter the first if block. After displaying our desire for cake, we enter the inside set of if/elif statements. We check and display that we don't have any cake. If it had been the case that have_cake was "yes" then it would have been our lucky day. On the other hand, if have_cake had been any value other than "yes" or "no" then we wouldn't have displayed a second line at all, since we used "elif" rather than "else". If (for whatever twisted reason) we had set the value of want_cake to anything other than "yes", we would have jumped down to the bottom "else" and only displayed the last print statement.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that prompts the user to enter a word using the raw_input() function, stores that input in a string object, and then displays whether the length of that string is less than 5 characters, greater than 5 characters, or equal to 5 characters by using a set of if, elif and else statements.

Assignment: Find the factors of a number

1. Write a script “factors.py” that includes a function to find all of the integers that divide evenly into an integer provided by the user. A sample run of the program should look like this (with the user’s input highlighted in bold):

```
1 >>>
2 Enter a positive integer: 12
3 1 is a divisor of 12
4 2 is a divisor of 12
5 3 is a divisor of 12
6 4 is a divisor of 12
7 6 is a divisor of 12
8 12 is a divisor of 12
9 >>>
```

You should use the % operator to check divisibility. This is called the “modulus operator” and is represented by a percent symbol in Python. It returns the remainder of any division. For instance, 3 goes into 16 a total of 5 times with a remainder of 1, therefore 16 % 3 returns 1. Meanwhile, since 15 is divisible by 3, 15 % 3 returns 0.

Also keep in mind that raw_input() returns a string, so you will need to convert this value to an integer before using it in any calculations.

There are two main keywords that help to control the flow of programs in Python: break and continue. These keywords can be used in combination with for and while loops and with if statements to allow us more control over where we are in a loop.

Let’s start with break, which does just that: it allows you to break out of a loop. If we wanted to break out of a for loop at a particular point, our script might look like this:

```
1 for i in range(0, 4):
2     if i == 2:
3         break
4     print i
5 print "Finished with i = ", str(i)
```

Without the if statement that includes the break command, our code would normally just print out the following output:

```
1 >>>
2 Finished with i = 3
3 >>>
```

Instead, each time we run through the loop, we are checking whether i == 2. When this is True, we break out of the loop; this means that we quit the for loop entirely as soon as we reach the break keyword. Therefore, this code will only display:

Here, our program attempted to find “X” in the string phrase, and would break out of the for loop if it had. Since we never broke out of the loop, however, we reached the else statement and displayed that “X” wasn’t found. If you try running the same program on the phrase “it marks Xthe spot” or some other string that includes an “X”, however, there will be no output at all because the block of code in the else will not be run.

Likewise, an “else” placed after a while loop will always be run unless the while loop has been exited using a break statement. For instance, try out the following script:

```
1 tries = 0
2
3 while tries < 3:
4     password = raw_input("Password: ")
5     if password == "I<3Bieber":
6         break
7     else:
8         tries = tries + 1
9
10 else:
11     print "Suspicious activity. The authorities have been alerted."
```

Here, we’ve given the user three chances to enter the correct password. If the password matches, we break out of the loop. Otherwise (the first else), we add one to the “tries” counter. The second “else” block belongs to the loop (hence why it’s less indented than the first “else”), and will only be run if we don’t break out of the loop. So when the user enters a correct password, we do not run the last line of code, but if we exit the loop because the test condition was no longer True (i.e., the user tried three incorrect passwords), then it’s time to alert the authorities.

A commonly used shortcut in Python is the “+=” operator, which is shorthand for saying “increase a number by some amount”. For instance, in our last code xample above, instead of the line: `tries = tries + 1` We could have done the exact same thing (adding 1 to tries) by saying: `tries += 1`

In fact, this works with the other basic operators as well; -= means “decrease”, *= means “multiply by”, and /= means “divide by”.

For instance, if we wanted to change the variable tries from its original value to that value multiplied by 3, we could shorten the statement to say: `tries *= 3`

Review exercises:

1. Use a break statement to write a script that prompts the users for input repeatedly, only ending when the user types “q” or “Q” to quit the program; a common way of creating an infinite loop is to write “while True:”
2. Combine a for loop over a range() of numbers with the continue keyword to print every number from 1 through 50 except for multiples of 3; you will need to use the % operator.

Recover from errors

You've probably already written lots of scripts that generated errors in Python. Run-time errors (so-called because they happen once a program is already running) are called exceptions. Congratulations - you've made the code do something exceptional

There are different types of exceptions that occur when different rules are broken. For instance, try to get the value of "1 / 0" at the interactive window, and you'll see a `ZeroDivisionError` exception. Here's another example of an exception, a `ValueError`, that occurs when we try (and fail) to turn a string into an integer:

```
1 >>> int("not a number")
2 Traceback (most recent call last):
3   File "<pyshell#1>", line 1, in <module>
4     int("not a number")
5 ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10: 'not a number'
6 >>>
```

The name of the exception is displayed on the last line, followed by a description of the specific problem that occurred.

When we can predict that a certain type of exception might occur, we might not be able to prevent the error, but there are ways that we can recover from the problem more gracefully than having our program break and display lots of angry red text.

In order to stop our code from breaking because of a particular exception, we use a `try/except` pair, as in the following:

```
1 try:
2     number = int(raw_input("Enter an integer: "))
3 except ValueError:
4     print "That was not an integer."
```

The first thing that happens in a `try/except` pair is that everything inside of the "try" block is run normally. If no error occurs, the code skips over the "except" block and continues running normally. Since we said "except `ValueError`", however, if the program encounters a `ValueError` (when the user enters something that isn't an integer), we jump down to the "except" block and run everything there. This avoids Python's automatic error display and doesn't break the script since we have "caught" the `ValueError`.

If a different kind of exception had occurred, then the program still would have broken; we only handled one type of exception (a `ValueError`) with our "except" block.

A single "except" block can handle multiple types of exceptions by separating the exception names with commas and putting the list of names in parentheses:

```
1 from __future__ import division
2
3 def divide(num1, num2):
```

```

4     try:
5         print num1 / num2
6     except (TypeError, ZeroDivisionError):
7         print "encountered a problem"

```

This isn't used very frequently since we usually want our code to react specifically to each type of exception differently. In this case, we created a `divide()` function that tries to divide two numbers. If one or both of the numbers aren't actually numbers, a `TypeError` exception will occur because we can't use something that isn't a number for division. And if we provide 0 as the second number, a `ZeroDivisionError` will occur since we can't divide by zero. Both of these exceptions will be caught by our `except` block, which will just let the user know that we "encountered a problem" and continue on with anything else that might be left in our script outside of the `try/except` pair.

More "except" error handling blocks can be added after the first "except" to catch different types of exceptions, like so:

```

1 try:
2     number = int(raw_input("Enter an non-zero integer: "))
3     print "10 / {} = {}".format(number, 10.0/number)
4 except ValueError:
5     print "You did not enter an integer."
6 except ZeroDivisionError:
7     print "You cannot enter 0."

```

Here, we might have encountered two different types of errors. First, the user might not have input an integer; when we try to convert the string input using `int()`, we raise an exception and jump to the "except `ValueError`:" block, displaying the problem. Likewise, we could have tried to divide 10 by the user-supplied number and, if the user gave us an input of 0, we would have ended up with a `ZeroDivisionError` exception; instead, we jump to the second "except" block and display this problem to the user.

A list of Python's built-in exceptions can be found [here](#). It's usually easiest to figure out the name of an exception by purposefully causing the error to occur yourself, although you should then read the documentation on that particular type of exception to make sure that your code will actually handle all of the errors that you expect and (just as importantly) that your program will still break if it encounters a different, unexpected type of exception.

We can also use an "except" block by itself without naming specific exceptions to catch:

```

1 try: # do lots of hazardous things that might break
2 except:
3     print "The user must have screwed something up."

```

However, this is dangerous to do and is usually not a good idea at all. It's easy to hide a poorly written section of code behind a "try/except" and think that everything was working fine, only to discover later that you were silencing all sorts of unexpected problems that should never have occurred.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that repeatedly asks the user to input an integer, displaying a message to “try again” by catching the ValueError that is raised if the user did not enter an integer; once the user enters an integer, the program should display the number back to the user and end without crashing

Simulate events and calculate probabilities

You'll probably find the assignments in this section to be fairly difficult, especially if you're not very mathematically inclined. At the very least, I encourage you to read through this section for the information and try the assignments out - if they're too tricky for now, move on and come back to them later.

We will be running a simple simulation known as a [Monte Carlo](#) experiment. In order to do this, we need to add a real-world "element of chance" to our code. Python has built-in functionality for just that purpose, and it's suitably called the random module.

A module is just a collection of related functions. For now, all we will need from the random module is the randint() function. Calling randint(x, y) on two integers x and y returns a random (evenly distributed) integer that will have a value between x and y - including both x and y, unlike the range() function.

We can import this function into our program like so:

```
1 from random import randint
```

Now we can use the randint() function in our code:

```
1 print randint(0, 1)
```

If you try this within the interactive window, you should see something like this:

```
1 >>> from random import randint
2 >>> print randint(0, 1)
3 0
4 >>>
```

Of course, because the output is random, you have a 50% chance of getting a 1 instead.

Okay, let's take everything we've learned so far and put it all together to solve a real problem. We'll start with a basic probability question by simulating the outcome of an event.

Let's say we flip a fair coin (50/50 chance of heads or tails), and we keep flipping it until we get it to land on heads. If we keep doing this, we'll end up with a bunch of individual trials that might include getting heads on the first flip, tails on one flip and heads on the second, or even occasionally tails, tails, tails, tails and finally heads. On average, what's our expected ratio of heads to tails for an individual trial

To get an accurate idea of the long-term outcome, we'll need to do this lots of times - so let's use a for loop:

```
1 for trials in range(0, 10000):
```

We can use the randint() function to simulate a 50/50 coin toss by considering 0 to represent "tails" and 1 to be a "heads" flip. The logic of the problem is that we will continue to toss the coin as long as

we get tails, which sounds like a while loop:

```
1 while randint(0, 1) == 0:
```

Now all we have to do is keep track of our counts of heads and tails. Since we only want the average,

we can sum them all up over all our trials, so our full script ends up looking like the following:

```
1 from __future__ import division
2 from random import randint
3
4 heads = 0
5 tails = 0
6
7 for trial in range(0, 10000):
8     while randint(0, 1) == 0:
9         tails = tails + 1
10        heads = heads + 1
11
12 print "heads / tails = ", heads/tails
```

Each time we toss tails, we add one to our total tails tally. Then we go back to the top of our while loop and generate a new random number to test. Once it's not true that `randint(0, 1) == 0`, this means that we must have tossed heads, so we exit out of the while loop (because the test condition isn't true that time) and add one to the total heads tally.

Finally, we just print out the result of our heads-to-tails ratio. If you use a large enough sample size and try this out a few times, you should be able to figure out (if you hadn't already) that the ratio approaches 1:1.

Of course, you probably could have calculated this answer faster just by working out the actual probabilities, but this same method can be applied to much more complicated scenarios. For instance, one popular application of this sort of Monte Carlo simulation is to predict the outcome of an election based on current polling percentages.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that uses the `randint()` function to simulate the toss of a die, returning a random number between 1 and 6
2. Write a script that simulates 10,000 throws of dice and displays the average number resulting from these tosses

Assignment: Simulate an election

Write a script “election.py” that will simulate an election between two candidates, A and B. One of the candidates wins the overall election by a majority based on the outcomes of three regional elections. (In other words, a candidate wins the overall election by winning at least two regional elections.) Candidate A has the following odds:

- 87% chance of winning region 1
- 65% chance of winning region 2
- 17% chance of winning region 3

Import and use the `random()` function from the `random` module to simulate events based on probabilities; this function doesn’t take any arguments (meaning you don’t pass it any input variables) and returns a random value somewhere between 0 and 1.

Simulate 10,000 such elections, then (based on the average results) display the probability that Candidate A will win and the probability that Candidate B will win.

If you want to check your work without looking at the sample script, the answer is in this footnote.

Hint: To do this, you’ll probably need to use a for loop with a lot of if/else statements to check the results of each regional election.

Assignment: Simulate a coin toss experiment

Write a script “coin_toss.py” that uses coin toss simulations to determine the answer to this slightly more complex probability puzzle:

I keep flipping a fair coin until I've seen it land on both heads and tails at least once each - in other words, after I flip the coin the first time, I continue to flip it until I get a different result. On average, how many times will I have to flip the coin total. Again, the actual probability could be worked out, but the point here is to simulate the event using randint(). To get the expected average number of tosses, you should set a variable trials = 10000 and a variable flip = 0, then add 1 to your flips variable every time a coin toss is made. Then you can print flips / trials at the end of the code to see what the average number of flips was.

This one is tricky to structure correctly. Try writing out the logic before you start coding. Some additional pointers if you're stuck:

1. You will need to use a for loop over a range of trials.
2. For each trial, first you should check the outcome of the first flip.
3. Make sure you add the first flip to the total number of flips.
4. After the first toss, you'll need another loop to keep flipping while you get the same result as the first flip.

If you just want to check whether or not your final answer is correct without looking at the sample code, [click here](#).

Chapter 9

Fundamentals: Lists and Dictionaries

Make and update lists

Lists are extremely useful - in life and in Python. There are so many things that naturally lend themselves to being put into lists that it's often a very intuitive way to store and order data. In Python, a list is a type of object (just like a string or an integer), except a list object is able to hold other objects inside of it. We create a list by simply listing all the items we want in list, separated by commas, and enclosing everything inside square brackets. These are all examples of simple list objects:

```
1 colors = ["red", "green", "burnt sienna", "blue"]
2 scores = [10, 8, 9, -2, 9]
3 myList = ["one", 2, 3.0]
```

The first object, colors, holds a list of four strings. Our scores list holds five integers. And the last object, myList, holds three different objects - a string, an integer and a floating-point number. Since we usually want to track a set of similar items, it's not very common to see a list that holds different types of objects like our last example, but it's possible.

Getting a single item out of a list is as easy as getting a single character out of a string - in fact, it's the exact same process of referring to the item by its index number:

```
1 >>> colors = ["red", "green", "burnt sienna", "blue"]
2 >>> print colors[2]
3 burnt sienna
4 >>>
```

Remember, since we start counting at 0 in Python, we asked for colors[2] in order to get what we think of as the third object in the list. We can also get a range of objects from a list in the same way that we got substrings out of strings:

```
1 >>> colors = ["red", "green", "burnt sienna", "blue"]
2 >>> print colors
3 ['red', 'green', 'burnt sienna', 'blue']
```



```
4 >>> print colors[0:2]
5 ['red', 'green']
6 >>>
```

First we printed the entire list of colors, which displayed almost exactly the same way as we typed it in originally. Then we printed the objects in the list within the range [0:2] - this includes the objects at positions 0 and 1, which are returned as a smaller list. (We can tell they're still in a list because of the square brackets.)

Unlike strings, lists are mutable objects, meaning that we can change individual items within a list. For instance:

```
1 >>> colors = ["red", "green", "burnt sienna", "blue"]
2 >>> colors[0] = "burgundy"
3 >>> colors[3] = "electric indigo"
4 >>> print colors
5 ['burgundy', 'green', 'burnt sienna', 'electric indigo']
6 >>>
```

Since we can change the items in lists, we can also create new lists and add objects to them, item by item. We create an empty list using an empty pair of square brackets, and we can add an object to the list using the `append()` method of the list:

```
1 >>> animals = []
2 >>> animals.append("lion")
3 >>> animals.append("tiger")
4 >>> animals.append("frumious Bandersnatch")
5 >>> print animals
6 ['lion', 'tiger', 'frumious Bandersnatch']
7 >>>
```

Likewise, we can remove objects from the list using the `remove()` method of the list:

```
1 >>> animals.remove("lion")
2 >>> animals.remove("tiger")
3 >>> print animals
4 ['frumious Bandersnatch']
5 >>>
```

We can also use the list's `index()` method to get the index number of a particular item in a list in order to determine its position. For instance:

```
1 >>> colors = ["red", "green", "burnt sienna", "blue"]
2 >>> print colors.index("burnt sienna")
3 2
4 >>>
```

Copying one list into another list, however, is somewhat unintuitive. You can't just reassign one list object to another list object, because you'll get this (possibly surprising) result:

```
1 >>> animals = ["lion", "tiger", "frumious Bandersnatch"]
2 >>> large_cats = animals
3 >>> large_cats.append("Tigger")
4 >>> print animals
5 ['lion', 'tiger', 'frumious Bandersnatch', 'Tigger']
6 >>>
```

We tried to assign the strings in the list `animals` to the list `large_cats`, then we added another string into `large_cats`. But when we display the contents of `animals`, we see that we've changed our original list - even though we meant to assign in the other direction, giving `large_cats` the values in `animals`.

This is a quirk of object-oriented programming, but it's by design; when we say "`large_cats = animals`", we make the lists `large_cats` and `animals` both refer to the same object. When we created our first list, the name `animals` was only a way to point us to a list object - in other words, the name `animals` is just a way to reference the actual list object that is somewhere in the computer's memory. Instead of copying all the contents of the list object, saying "`large_cats = animals`" assigns the same object reference to `large_cats`; both of our list names now refer to the same object, and any changes made to one will affect the other since both names point to the same object.

If we actually wanted to copy the contents of one list object into a new list object, we have to retrieve all the individual items from the list and copy them over individually. We don't have to use a loop to do this, however; we can simply say:

```
1 large_cats = animals[:]
```

The "`[:]`" is the same technique that we used to retrieve a subset of the list over some range, but since we didn't specify an index number on either side of the colon, we grabbed everything from the first item through the last item.

Keep in mind that because lists are mutable, there is no need to reassign a list to itself when we use one of its methods. In other words, we only need to say `animals.append("jubjub")` to add the `jubjub` to the `animals` list. If we had said `animals = animals.append("jubjub")`, we would have saved the result returned by the `append()` method (which is nothing) into `animals`, wiping out our list entirely.

This is true of all the methods that belong to mutable objects. For instance, lists also have a `sort()` method that sorts all of the items in ascending order (usually alphabetical or numerical, depending on the objects in the list); all we have to say if we want to sort the `animals` list is `animals.sort()`, which alphabetizes the list:

```
1 >>> animals.sort()
2 >>> print animals
3 ['frumious Bandersnatch', 'jubjub', 'lion', 'tiger', 'Tigger']
4 >>>
```

If we had instead assigned the value returned by the `sort()` method to our list, we would have lost the list entirely:

```
1 >>> animals = animals.sort()
2 >>> print animals
3 None
4 >>>
```

Since lists can hold any objects, we can even put lists inside of lists. We sometimes make a “list of lists” in order to create a simple matrix. To do this, we simply nest one set of square brackets inside of another, like so:

```
1 >>> two_by_two = [[1, 2], [3, 4]]
```

We have a single list with two objects in it, both of which are also lists of two objects each. We now have to stack the index values we want in order to reach a particular item, for instance:

```
1 >>> two_by_two[1][0]
2 3
3 >>>
```

Since saying `two_by_two[1]` by itself would return the list `[3, 4]`, we then had to specify an additional index in order to get a single number out of this sub-list.

A list is just a sequence of objects, so nested lists don’t have to be symmetrical:

```
1 >>> list = ["I heard you like lists", ["so I put a list", "in your list"]]
2 >>> print list
3 ['I heard you like lists', ['so I put a list', 'in your list']]
4 >>>
```

Finally, if we want to create a list from a single string, we can use the `string split()` method as an easy way of splitting one string up into individual list items by providing the character (or characters) occurring between these items. For instance, if we had a single string of grocery items, each separated by commas and spaces, we could turn them into a list of items like so:

```
1 >>> groceries = "eggs, spam, pop rocks, cheese"
2 >>> groceryList = groceries.split(", ")
3 >>> print groceryList
4 ['eggs', 'spam', 'pop rocks', 'cheese']
5 >>>
```

Review exercises:

1. Create a list named `desserts` that holds the two string values “ice cream” and “cookies”
2. Sort the `desserts` in alphabetical order, then display the contents of the list

3. Display the index number of “ice cream” in the desserts list
4. Copy the contents of the desserts list into a new list object named food
5. Add the strings “broccoli” and “turnips” to the food list
6. Display the contents of both lists to make sure that “broccoli” and “turnips” haven’t been added to desserts
7. Remove “cookies” from the food list
8. Display the first two items in the food list by specifying an index range
9. Create a list named breakfast that holds three strings, each with the value of “cookies”, by splitting up the string “cookies, cookies, cookies”

Assignment: Wax poetic

Write a script “poetry.py” that will generate a poem based on randomly chosen words and a pre-determined structure. When you are done, you will be able to generate poetic masterpieces such as the following in mere milliseconds:

```
1 A furry horse
2
3 A furry horse curdles within the fragrant mango
4 extravagantly, the horse slurps
5 the mango meows beneath a balding extrovert
```

All of the poems will have this same general structure, inspired by [Clifford Pickover](#):

```
1 {A/An} {adjective1} {noun1}
2
3 {A/An} {adjective1} {noun1} {verb1} {preposition1} the {adjective2} {noun2}
4 {adverb1}, the {noun1} {verb2}
5 the {noun2} {verb3} {preposition2} a {adjective3} {noun3}
```

Your script should include a function `makePoem()` that returns a multi-line string representing a complete poem. The main section of the code should simply print `makePoem()` to display a single poem. In order to get there, use the following steps as a guide:

1. First, you'll need a vocabulary from which to create the poem. Create several lists, each containing words pertaining to one part of speech (more or less); i.e., create separate lists for nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions. You will need to include at least three different nouns, three verbs, three adjectives, two prepositions and one adverb. You can use the sample word lists below, but feel free to add your own:

```
1 Nouns: "fossil", "horse", "aardvark", "judge", "chef", "mango",
      "extrovert", "gorilla"
2 Verbs: "kicks", "jingles", "bounces", "slurps", "meows", "explodes",
      "curdles"
3 Adjectives: "furry", "balding", "incredulous", "fragrant", "exuberant",
      "glistening"
4 Prepositions: "against", "after", "into", "beneath", "upon", "for", "in",
      "like", "over", "within"
5 Adverbs: "curiously", "extravagantly", "tantalizingly", "furiously",
      "sensuously"
```

2. Choose random words from the appropriate list using the `random.choice()` function, storing each choice in a new string. Select three nouns, three verbs, three adjectives, one adverb, and two prepositions. Make sure that none of the words are repeated. (Hint: Use a while loop to repeat the selection process until you get a new word.)

3. Plug the words you selected into the structure above to create a poem string by using the `format()` string method
4. Bonus: Make sure that the “A” in the title and the first line is adjusted to become an “An” automatically if the first adjective begins with a vowel.

Make permanent lists

Tuples are very close cousins of the list object. The only real difference between lists and tuples is that tuple objects are immutable - they can't be changed at all once they have been created. Tuples can hold any list of objects, and they even look nearly identical to lists, except that we use parentheses instead of square brackets to create them:

```
1 >>> myTuple = ("you'll", "never", "change", "me")
2 >>> print myTuple
3 ("you'll", 'never', 'change', 'me')
4 >>>
```

Since tuples are immutable, they don't have methods like `append()` and `sort()`. However, we can reference the objects in tuples using index numbers in the same way as we did with lists:

```
1 >>> myTuple[2]
2 'change'
3 >>> myTuple.index("me")
4 3
5 >>>
```

You probably won't create your own tuples very frequently, although we'll see some instances later on when they become necessary. One place where we tend to see tuples is when a function returns multiple values; in this case, we wouldn't want to accidentally change anything about those values or their ordering, so the function provides them to us as a “permanent” list.

Parentheses are actually optional when we are creating a tuple; we can also just list out a set of objects to assign to a new object, and Python will assume by default that we mean to create a tuple:

```
1 >>> coordinates = 4.21, 9.29
2 >>> print coordinates
3 (4.21, 9.29)
4 >>>
```

This process is called tuple packing because we are “packing” a number of objects into a single immutable tuple object. If we were to receive the above coordinates tuple from a function and we then want to retrieve the individual values from this tuple, we can perform the reverse process, suitably called tuple unpacking:

```
1 >>> x, y = coordinates
2 >>> print x
3 4.21
4 >>> print y
5 9.29
6 >>>
```

We assigned both new variables to the tuple coordinates, separating the names with commas, and Python automatically knew how to hand out the items in the tuple. In fact, we can always make multiple assignments in a single line by separating the names with commas, whether or not we use a tuple:

```
1 >>> str1, str2, str3 = "a", "b", "c"
2 >>> print str1
3 a
4 >>> print str2
5 b
6 >>> print str3
7 c
8 >>>
```

This works because Python is basically doing tuple packing and tuple unpacking on its own in the background. However, we don't use this very frequently because it usually only makes code harder to read and more difficult to update when changes are needed.

Review exercises:

1. Create a tuple named `cardinal_nums` that holds the strings "first", "second" and "third" in order
2. Display the string at position 2 in `cardinal_nums` by using an index number
3. Copy the tuple values into three new strings named `pos1`, `pos2` and `pos3` in a single line of code by using tuple unpacking, then print those string values

Store relationships in dictionaries

One of the most useful structures in Python is a dictionary. Like lists and tuples, dictionaries are used as a way to store a collection of objects. However, the order of the objects in a dictionary is unimportant. Instead, dictionaries hold information in pairs of data, called key-value pairs. Every key in a dictionary is associated with a single value. Let's take a look at an example in which we create a dictionary that represents entries in a phonebook:

```
1 >>> phonebook = {"Jenny": "867-5309", "Mike Jones": "281-330-8004", "Destiny":  
2 "900-783-3369"}  
3 >>> print phonebook  
4 {'Mike Jones': '281-330-8004', 'Jenny': '867-5309', 'Destiny': '900-783-3369'}  
5 >>>
```

The keys in our example phonebook are names of people. Keys are joined to their values with colons, where each value is a phone number. The key-value pairs are each separated by commas, just like the items in a list or tuple. While lists use square brackets and tuples use parentheses, dictionaries are enclosed in curly braces, {}. Just as with empty lists, we could have created an empty dictionary by using only a pair of curly braces.

Notice how, when we displayed the contents of the dictionary we had just created, the key-value pairs appeared in a different order. Python sorts the contents of the dictionary in a way that makes it very fast to get information out of the dictionary (by a process called [hashing](#)), but this ordering changes randomly every time the contents of the dictionary change.

Instead of the order of the items, what we really care about is which value belongs to which key. This is a very natural way to represent many different types of information. For instance, I probably don't

care which number I happen to put into my phonebook first; I only want to know which number belongs to which person. We can retrieve this information the same way as we did with lists, using square brackets, except that we specify a key instead of an index number:

```
1 >>> phonebook["Jenny"]  
2 '867-5309'  
3 >>>
```

We can add entries to a dictionary by specifying the new key in square brackets and assigning it a value:

```
1 >>> phonebook["Obama"] = "202-456-1414"  
2 >>> print phonebook  
3 {'Mike Jones': '281-330-8004', 'Obama': '202-456-1414', 'Jenny': '867-5309',  
4 'Destiny': '900-783-3369'}  
5 >>>
```

We're not allowed to have duplicate keys in a Python dictionary; in other words, each key can only be assigned a single value. This is because having duplicate keys would make it impossible to identify

which key we mean when we're trying to find the key's associated value. If a key is given a new value, Python just overwrites the old value. For instance, perhaps Jenny got a new number:

```
1 >>> phonebook["Jenny"] = "555-0199"
2 >>> print phonebook
3 {'Mike Jones': '281-330-8004', 'Obama': '202-456-1414', 'Jenny': '555-0199',
4  'Destiny': '900-783-3369'}
5 >>>
```

To remove an individual key-value pair from a dictionary, we use the `del()` function (short for delete):

```
1 >>> del(phonebook["Destiny"])
2 >>> print phonebook
3 {'Mike Jones': '281-330-8004', 'Obama': '202-456-1414', 'Jenny': '555-0199'}
4 >>>
```

Often we will want to loop over all of the keys in a dictionary. We can get all of the keys out of a dictionary in the form of a list by using the `keys()` method:

```
1 >>> print phonebook.keys()
2 ['Mike Jones', 'Jenny', 'Obama']
3 >>>
```

If we wanted to do something specific with each of the dictionary's keys, though, what's usually even easier to do is to use a for loop to get each key individually. Saying "for x in dictionary" automatically gives us each key in the dictionary. We can then use the variable name in our for loop to get each corresponding value out of our dictionary:

```
1 >>>
2 for contactName in phonebook:
3     print contactName, phonebook[contactName]
4
5 Mike Jones 281-330-8004
6 Jenny 555-0199
7 Obama 202-456-1414
8 >>>
```

We can also use the `in` keyword to check whether or not a particular key exists in a dictionary:

```
1 >>> "Jenny" in phonebook
2 True
3 >>> "Santa" in phonebook
4 False
5 >>>
```

This expression ("x in dictionary") is usually used in an if statement, for instance before deciding whether or not to try to get the corresponding value for that key. This is important because it's an

error to attempt to get a value for a key that doesn't exist in a dictionary:

```
1 >>> phonebook["Santa"]
2 Traceback (most recent call last):
3   File "<pyshell#1>", line 1,
4   in <module>
5     phonebook["Santa"]
6 KeyError: 'Santa'
7 >>>
```

If we do want to access a dictionary's keys in their sorted order, we can use Python's `sorted()` function to loop over the keys alphabetically:

```
1 >>>
2 for contactName in sorted(phonebook):
3     print contactName, phonebook[contactName]
4
5 Jenny 555-0199
6 Mike Jones 281-330-8004
7 Obama 202-456-1414
8 >>>
```

Keep in mind that `sorted()` doesn't re-sort the order of the actual dictionary; Python has to keep the apparently haphazard ordering of keys in the dictionary in order to be able to access the dictionary keys quickly using its own complicated [hash function](#).

Dictionaries are very flexible and can hold a wide variety of information beyond the strings that we've experimented with here. Although it's usually the case, dictionaries don't even have to hold keys or values that are all same types of objects. Dictionary values can be anything, while keys must be immutable objects. For instance, we could have added a key to our phonebook that was an integer object. However, we couldn't have added a list as a key, since that list could be modified while it's in the dictionary, breaking the overall structure of the dictionary.

Dictionary values can even be other dictionaries, which is more common than it probably sounds. For instance, we could imagine a more complicated phonebook in which every key is a unique contact name that is associated with a dictionary of its own; these individual contact dictionaries could then include keys describing the phone number ("home", "work", custom supplied type, etc.) that are each associated with a "phone number" value. This is much like creating a list of lists:

```
1 >>> contacts = {"Jenny": {"cell": "555-0199", "home": "867-5309"}, "Mike
2 Jones": {"home": "281-330-8004"}, "Destiny": {"work": "900-783-3369"}}
3 >>> print contacts
4 {'Mike Jones': {'home': '281-330-8004'}, 'Jenny': {'cell': '555-0199', 'home':
5 '867-5309'}, 'Destiny': {'work': '900-783-3369'}}
6 >>> print contacts["Jenny"]
7 {'cell': '555-0199', 'home': '867-5309'}
8 >>> print contacts["Jenny"]["cell"]
9 555-0199
```

10 >>>

When we wanted to retrieve a specific value inside the dictionary-value associated with the key for Jenny, we had to say `contacts["Jenny"]["cell"]`. This is because saying `contacts["Jenny"]` now returns the dictionary of numbers for Jenny, from which we have to specify a key for a specific type of phone number.

Finally, there are two alternative ways to create dictionaries that can come in useful in certain specific contexts. You shouldn't worry about learning the details of how to use them right now, but just be aware that they are a possibility.

When you want to use keys that are strings that only include letters and numbers (i.e., strings that could stand for variable names), you can use `dict()` to create a dictionary like so:

```
1 >>> simpleDictionary = dict(string1="value1", string2=2, string3=3.0)
2 >>> print simpleDictionary
3 {'string2': 2, 'string3': 3.0, 'string1': 'value1'}
4 >>>
```

Here we created a new dictionary named `simpleDictionary` that has three string keys, but without putting quotes around the key names this time because Python knows to expect strings when we use `dict()` in this way. We'll see an example of this use of `dict()` later in the course.

The second way to use `dict()` involves providing a list of key-value pairs represented as tuples, like so:

```
1 >>> simpleDictionary = dict([("string1", "value1"), ("string2", 2),
2 ("string3", 3.0)])
3 >>> print simpleDictionary
4 {'string2': 2, 'string3': 3.0, 'string1': 'value1'}
5 >>>
```

Within `dict()`, we include a list (the square brackets), and separated by commas inside that list are tuples (in the pairs of parentheses) that hold each of our key-value pairs. In this case, we aren't limited to simple string keys; we can again assign any sort of keys we want as long as they are all the same type of object.

NOTE: Keep in mind that, even though dictionaries might seem more complicated to use, their main advantage is that they are very fast. When you're working with long lists of data, repeatedly cycling through an entire list to find a single piece of information can take a long time; by contrast, looking up the information associated with a dictionary key is almost instantaneous. If you ever find yourself wanting to create multiple lists where items match up across lists based on their ordering, you should probably be using a dictionary instead

Review exercises:

1. Create an empty dictionary named birthdays
2. Enter the following data into the dictionary:

```
1 'Luke Skywalker': '5/24/19'  
2 'Obi-Wan Kenobi': '3/11/57'  
3 'Darth Vader': '4/1/41'
```

3. Write if statements that test to check if 'Yoda' and 'Darth Vader' exist as keys in the dictionary, then enter each of them with birthday value 'unknown' if their name does not exist as a key
4. Display all the key-value pairs in the dictionary, one per line with a space between the name and the birthday, by looping over the dictionary's keys
5. Delete 'Darth Vader' from the dictionary
6. Bonus: Make the same dictionary by using dict() and passing in the initial values when you first create the dictionary

Chapter 10

File Input and Output

Read and write simple files

So far, we've allowed the user to type input into our program and displayed output on the screen. But what if we want to work with a lot of data? It's time to learn how to use Python to work with files.

To read or write “raw” text files (i.e., the sort of file that you could use in a basic text editor because it contains no formatting or extra information), we use the general-purpose `open()` function. When we `open()` a file, the first thing we have to determine is if we want to read from it or write to it. Let's start by creating a new text file and writing some data into it:

```
1 myOutputFile = open("hello.txt", "w")
```

We passed two pieces of information (called arguments) to the `open()` function. The first argument was a string that represents the actual name of the file we want to create: `hello.txt`. The second argument specifies our purpose for opening the file; in this case, we said “w” because we want to write to the file.

The `open()` function returns a File object that has been saved in the variable `myOutputFile`. Let's write a line of text into the file with the `writelines()` method. Our full script should look like this:

```
1 myOutputFile = open("hello.txt", "w")
2
3 myOutputFile.writelines("This is my first file.")
4
5 myOutputFile.close()
```

Make sure you know where you are saving this script before you run it; since we didn't specify a directory path for the file, right now `hello.txt` will be created in the same folder as the script.

NOTE: You should always use the `close()` method to close any file that you have `open()` once you're completely done with the file. Python will eventually close any open files

when you exit the program, but not closing files yourself can still cause surprising problems. This is because Python often buffers file output, meaning that it might save a bunch of commands you've written (without running them right away), then run them all in a big batch later on to make the process run faster. This could result in something like the following unwanted situation: you write output to a file, then open that file up in a text editor to view the output, but since you didn't `close()` the file in Python (and IDLE is still running), the file is completely blank even though Python is planning to write output to the file before it is closed.

After running this script, you should see a new file named `hello.txt` appear in the same folder as your script; open the output file up yourself to check that it contains the line we wrote.

The `writelines()` method can also take a list of lines to be written all at once. The “lines” will be written one after the other without a new line, so we have to specify the special newline character “`\n`” if we actually want the lines to appear on separate lines. Let's modify the script to write a couple lines from a list:

```
1 myOutputFile = open("hello.txt", "w")
2
3 linesToWrite = ["This is my file.", "\n There are many like it,",
4                 "\nbut this one is mine."]
5
6 myOutputFile.writelines(linesToWrite)
7
8 myOutputFile.close()
```

Without deleting the previous `hello.txt` file, try running this version of the script, then check the contents of the file. This is an important lesson that's easy to forget:

WARNING: As soon as you `open()` a file in “w” (write) mode, if the file already exists then the file's current contents are completely deleted. It's a common mistake to accidentally overwrite or delete the contents of an important file this way.

If we want to add information to a file instead of overwriting its contents, we can use the “a” mode to append to the end of the file. The rest of the process is identical to writing in “w” mode; the only difference is that we start writing at the end of the file. Again, if we want the new output to appear on a new line, we have to specify the “`\n`” character to move to a new line. Let's append one additional

line onto our current file `hello.txt`:

```
1 myOutputFile = open("hello.txt", "a")
2
3 nextLine = ["\nNON SEQUITUR"]
4
5 myOutputFile.writelines(nextLine)
6
7 myOutputFile.close()
```

Now that we have a file written, let's read the data from it. You can probably guess how this goes by now:

```
1 myInputFile = open("hello.txt", "r")
2
3 print myInputFile.readlines()
4
5 myInputFile.close()
```

This time, we used the "r" mode to read input from the file. We then used the `readlines()` method to return every line of the file, which are displayed like so:

```
1 >>>
2
3 ['This is my file.\n', 'There are many like it,\n', 'but this one is mine.',
4  'NON SEQUITUR']
5 >>>
```

The output is returned in the form of a list, and all of the line breaks were visible to us as printed newline characters. One common way of working with a file in its entirety is to use a for loop:

```
1 myInputFile = open("hello.txt", "r")
2
3 for line in myInputFile.readlines():
4
5     print line,
6
7 myInputFile.close()
```

NOTE: Notice how we ended our print statement with a comma; this is because any print statement will usually add a new line to the end of the line of output. The extra comma stops the print statement from adding this automatic `\n` so that the next print statement will continue to display on the same line. Since our file already has new line characters, adding extra new lines would have made the file output display incorrectly, with a blank line appearing in between each actual line of the file.

In Python 3, you can remove the automatic `\n` (or change it to something different) by specifying the "end" parameter of the `print()` function like so:

```
1 print(line, end="")
```

In this case, we supplied empty quotes to get rid of the line break, but we could have put (for instance) an extra line break after every line by passing `end="\n\n"` to the `print()` function.

We can also read lines from the file one at a time using the `readline()` method. Python will keep track of where we are in the file for as long as we have it open, returning the next available line in the file each time `readline()` is called:

```
1 myInputFile = open("hello.txt", "r")
2
3 line = myInputFile.readline()
4
5 while line != "":
6
7     print line,
8
9     line = myInputFile.readline()
10
11 myInputFile.close()
```

There is an additional shortcut that can be helpful in organizing code when working with files: using Python's `with` keyword. Using “with” to read our file, we could say:

```
1 with open("hello.txt", "r") as myInputFile:
2
3     for line in myInputFile.readlines():
4
5         print line,
```

Compare this code carefully to the two previous examples. When we say “with X as Y” we are defining the variable Y to be the result of running X. This begins a block of code where we can use our new variable as usual (in this case, `myInputFile`). The added benefit with using the `with` keyword is that we no longer have to worry about closing the file; once our “with” block is finished, this clean-up work will be managed for us automatically.

In fact, we can name multiple variables in a `with` statement if we want to open multiple files at once. For instance, if we wanted to read `hello.txt` in and write its contents out into a new file `hi.txt` line-by-line, we could simply say:

```
1 with open("hello.txt", "r") as myInput, open("hi.txt", "w") as myOutput:
2
3     for line in myInput.readlines():
4
5         myOutput.write(line)
```

This will take care of all the clean-up work for us, closing both files once we exit the block of code inside the `with` statement. (Of course, practically speaking there's an easier way to accomplish this particular task; the [shutil module](#) includes many helpful functions including `copy()`, which can be used to copy an entire file into a new location.)

The rest of the material in this section is conceptually more complicated and usually isn't necessary for most basic file reading/writing tasks. Feel free to skim this remaining material for now and come

back to it if you ever find that you need to read or write to a file in a way that involve specific parts of lines rather than taking entire lines from a file one by one.

If we want to visit a specific part of the file, we can use the `seek()` method to jump a particular number of characters into the file. For instance:

```
1 myInputFile = open("hello.txt", "r")
2
3 print "Line 0 (first line):", myInputFile.readline()
4
5 myInputFile.seek(0) # jump back to beginning
6
7 print "Line 0 again:", myInputFile.readline()
8
9 print "Line 1:", myInputFile.readline()
10
11 myInputFile.seek(8) # jump to character at index 8
12
13 print "Line 0 (starting at 9th character):", myInputFile.readline()
14
15 myInputFile.seek(10, 1) # relative jump forward 10 characters
16
17 print "Line 1 (starting at 11th character):", myInputFile.readline()
18
19 myInputFile.close()
```

Run this script, then follow along with the output as you read the description, since it's not the most intuitive method to use. When we provide a single number to `seek()`, it will go to the character in the file with that index number, regardless of where we currently are in the file. Thus, `seek(0)` always gets us back to the beginning of the file, and `seek(8)` will always place us at the character at index position 8, regardless of what we have done previously. When we provide a second argument of "1" to `seek()`, as in the last example, we are moving forward (or backward, if we use a negative number) relative to where we currently are in the file. In this case, after we displayed line 0 starting at its 9th character, we were currently at the beginning of line 1. Calling `seek(10, 1)` then moved us 10 characters ahead in line 1. Clearly, this sort of seeking behavior is only useful in very specific cases

Although it's less commonly used, it is possible to open a file for both reading and writing. You may have already guessed why this is usually not a good idea, though; it's typically very difficult to keep track of where you are in a particular file using `seek()` in order to decide which pieces you want to

read or write. We can specify the mode "r+" to allow for both reading and writing, or "a+" to both read and append to an existing file. Since writing or appending will change the characters in the file, however, you will need to perform a new `seek()` whenever switching modes from writing to reading.

Review exercises:

1. Read in the raw text file "poem.txt" from the chapter 7 practice files and display each line by looping over them individually, then close the file; we'll discuss using file paths in the next

section, but for now you can save your script in the same folder as the text file

2. Repeat the previous exercise using the `with` keyword so that the file is closed automatically after you're done looping through the lines
3. Write a text file "output.txt" that contains the same lines as "poem.txt" by opening both files at the same time (in different modes) and copying the original file over line-by-line; do this using a loop and closing both files, then repeat this exercise using the `with` keyword
4. Re-open "output.txt" and append an additional line of your choice to the end of the file on a new line

Use more complicated folder structures

Chances are that you don't want to limit yourself to using the same folder as your script for all your files all the time. In order to get access to different directories, we can just add them to the file name to specify a full path. For instance, we could have pointed our script to the following fictitious path:

```
1 myInputFile = open("C:/My Documents/useless text files/hello.txt", "r")
```

Notice how we used only forward slashes in the path - not backslashes. This method of substituting forward slashes works fine even in Windows, where the operating system's default is to use backslashes to separate directories. We do this to avoid the "escape character" problem where Python would have treated a backslash and the character following it as a pair of special characters instead of reading them along with the rest of the string normally. The backslash is called an "[escape character (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Escape_character)]" because it lets Python know that the backslash and the character following it should be read as a pair to represent a different character. For instance,

"\n" would be interpreted as a newline character and "\t" represents a "tab" character. Another way to get around this problem is to put a lowercase "r" just before a string, without a space, like so:

```
1 myName = r"C:\My Documents\useless text files\hello.txt"
```

This creates a "raw" string that is read in exactly as it is typed, meaning that backslashes are only ever read as actual backslash characters and won't be combined with any other characters to create special characters.

In order to do anything more advanced with file structures, we need to rely on a built-in set of Python code called the `os` module, which gives us access to various functions related to the operating system. So the first thing that we will need to do is import `os` into our code.

If you are used to working in the command line, the `os` module gives you much of the same basic functionality that will probably already be somewhat familiar - for instance, the `rmdir()` function to delete a directory and the `mkdir()` function to create a new directory.

Soon we'll see how to manipulate and interact with the included example files in various ways. Although there are a number of different ways to set your scripts up correctly for accessing files, for simplicity we will do the following: whenever we need to write a script that makes use of an example file in the course folder, we will start with something like the following code:

```
1 import os
2
3 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials"
```

You should replace the string that gets assigned to the variable `path` with a string that actually represents the location at which you've saved the main course materials folder (which is named "Real Python/Course materials" by default, but might not be saved directly onto your C: drive). This way, you will only ever have to specify which folders inside of the course folder you want to access instead

of typing it out each time you want to access a sample file. We will then join this path to the rest of each file location using the `os.path.join()` function, as we'll see below.

For instance, if you wanted to display the full contents of the example text file named "example.txt" in the chapter 7 practice files folder, the sample code would look like the following:

```
1 import os
2
3 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files"
4
5 inputFileName = os.path.join(myPath, "example.txt")
6
7 with open(inputFileName, "r") as myInputFile:
8
9     for line in myInputFile.readlines():
10
11         print line,
```

Again, the string on the second line that represents the path to the Practice files folder might need to be changed if you saved the course files in a different location.

Notice how we used `os.path.join()` as a way of adding the full file path onto the main directory by passing the two parts of the path as arguments to this function. This just combines the two strings together, making sure that the right number of slashes is included in between the two parts. Instead of using `os.path.join()`, we could have simply added (concatenated) the string path to the rest of the file path by using a plus sign and adding an extra forward slash between the two strings like this:

```
1 inputFileName = myPath + "/example.txt"
```


However, `os.path.join()` comes with the added benefit of Python automatically adding any slashes between the two path strings necessary to create a valid path. This is why it's a good idea to get into the habit of using this function to join path names together; sometimes we will retrieve part of a path names through our code and not know ahead of time if it includes an extra slash or not, and in these cases `os.path.join()` will be a necessity.

NOTE: If you're using Python 3.4+, you also have the option to work with object-oriented paths using [pathlib](#).

Let's start modifying files using a basic practical example: we want to rename every .GIF file in a particular folder to be a .JPG file of the same name. In order to get a list of the files in the folder, we can use the `os.listdir()` function, which returns a list of file names found in the provided directory. We can use the string method `endswith()` to check the file extension of each file name. Finally, we'll use `os.rename()` to rename each file:

```
1 import os
2
3 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files/images"
```

```

4 
5 # get a list of all files and folders
6
7 fileNamesList = os.listdir(myPath)
8
9 # loop over every file in the main folder
10 for fileName in fileNamesList:
11
12     if fileName.lower().endswith(".gif"): # extension matches a GIF file
13
14         print'Converting "{}" to JPG...'.format(fileName)
15
16         # get full path name and change the ".gif" to ".jpg"
17
18         fullFileName = os.path.join(myPath, fileName)
19
20         newFileName = fullFileName[0:len(fullFileName)-4] + ".jpg"
21
22         os.rename(fullFileName, newFileName)
23

```

Since `endswith()` is case-sensitive, we had to convert `fileName` to lowercase using the `lower()` method; since this method returns a string as well, we just stacked one method on top of another in the same line. We used subscripting to replace the file extension in the line `newFileName = fullFileName[0:len(fullFileName)-4]` by trimming the last four characters (the “.gif”) off of the full file name, then we added the new “.jpg” extension instead. Our `os.rename()` function took two arguments, the first being the full original file name and the second being the new file name.

A more efficient way of performing this same task would be to import and use the `glob` module, which serves the purpose of helping to match patterns in file names. The `glob.glob()` function takes a string that uses “wildcard” characters, then returns a list of all possible matches. In this case, if we provide the file name pattern “*.gif” then we will be able to find any file names that match the “.gif” extension at the end:

```

1 import glob
2
3 import os
4
5 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files/images"
6
7 possibleFiles = os.path.join(myPath, "*.gif")
8
9 for fileName in glob.glob(possibleFiles):
10
11     print'Converting "{}" to JPG...'.format(fileName)
12
13     fullFileName = os.path.join(myPath, fileName)

```

```

14
15     newFileName = fullFileName[0:len(fullFileName)-4] + ".jpg"
16
17     os.rename(fullFileName, newFileName)

```

By providing a string with the full file path and a “*”, we were able to return a glob list of all possible GIF images in that particular directory. We can also use glob() to search through subfolders - for instance, if we wanted to search for all of the PNG files that are in folders inside of our images folder, we could search using the string pattern:

```

1  import glob
2
3  import os
4
5  myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files/images"
6
7  possibleFiles = os.path.join(myPath, "*/*.png")
8
9  for fileName in glob.glob(possibleFiles):
10
11      print fileName

```

Adding the string “*/*.png” to the path means that we are searching for any files ending in “.png” that are inside of folders that can have any name (the first “*”). Since we used the forward slash to separate the last folder, however, we will only be searching in subfolders of the “images” directory.

NOTE: When you print file paths generated by Python, you may notice that some of them include backslashes. In fact, Python is automatically adding two backslashes everywhere, but only the second backslash of each pair is displayed. This is because the first backslash is still acting as an “escape” character, then the second backslash tells Python that we do in fact want just a backslash character. We could also have specified our own paths this way, for instance: myPath = “C:\Real Python\Course materials\Chapter 7\Practice files\images” display the string correctly (try it out), if we ever use the string in a way that causes Python to reinterpret each of the backslashes in the file path as a double backslash, we’ll end up with an invalid path full of doubled double backslashes. This is why it’s a good idea to stick with using either forward slashes or “raw” strings for path names.

Another special pattern-matching character that can be included in a glob pattern is a “ ” to stand for any one single character; for instance, searching for anything matching “.gif” would only return GIF files that have a name that is two characters long. We can also include ranges to search over by putting them in square brackets; the pattern “[0-9]” will match any single number from 0 through 9, and the pattern “[a-z]” will match any single letter. For instance, if we wanted to search for any GIF files that have the name “image” followed specifically by two digits, we could pass the pattern “image[0-9][0-9].gif” to glob.

Keep in mind that `listdir()` returns a list of all files and folders in a given folder. Therefore, if we had wanted to affect every file in the image folder, then we would want to be careful not to affect folder names as well. We can check this easily by using either `os.path.isfile()` or `os.path.isdir()`, both of which return `True` or `False`. For instance, if we wanted to add the string “folder” to the end of each folder name inside the images folder but not affect any of the files in images, we could do the following:

```
1 import os
2
3 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files/images"
4
5 filesAndFolders = os.listdir(myPath)
6
7 for folderName in filesAndFolders:
8
9     fullPath = os.path.join(myPath, folderName)
10
11     if os.path.isdir(fullPath):
12
13         os.rename(fullPath, fullPath + " folder")
```

To rename a folder (or file), we simply passed the original full path string and the new full path string to the `os.rename()` function. Here we used `os.path.isdir()` to decide whether `folderName` is actually a folder or not; in this case it’s either a valid path to a folder or a valid path to a file, but passing any string that isn’t a valid folder path to `os.path.isdir()` will return `False`. Another related function that can be especially useful for deciding whether or not a particular file needs to be created for the first time is `os.path.exists()`, which returns `True` or `False` depending on whether the file or folder specified already exists or not.

Sometimes we need to deal with more complicated folder structures - for instance, if we wanted to get all the files in all subfolders of a particular folder. For this, we can use `os.walk()`. This function will return all the possible combinations of (folder, subfolders, file names) as tuples that represent the paths to reach every file anywhere in a named root folder. For instance, if we wanted to display every file within the “images” folder and any of its subfolders, we could do the following:

```
1 import os
2
3 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files/images"
4
5 for currentFolder, subfolders, fileNames in os.walk(myPath):
6
7     for fileName in fileNames:
8
9         print os.path.join(currentFolder, fileName)
```

The call to `os.walk()` created an object that Python could loop over, each time returning a different tuple that includes (1) a particular folder, (2) a list of the subfolders within that folder, and (3) a

list of files within that folder. We used tuple unpacking in the outer for loop in order to get every possible combination of (currentFolder, subfolders, fileNames) to loop over, where currentFolder might actually represent the images folder or a subfolder of images. In this case, we don't care about any of the results from subfolders since looping through each of the fileNames and joining them to currentFolder will give us the full path to every file.

Although we've covered the most common cases, there are many additional functions belonging to both the [os module](#) and the [os.path module](#) that can be used in various ways for accessing and modifying files and folders. In the assignment below, we'll practice a couple more of these functions: deleting files and folders by passing them to the `os.remove()` function and getting the size of a file in bytes by passing it to the `os.path.getsize()` function.

Review exercises:

1. Display the full paths of all of the files and folders in the images folder by using `os.listdir()`
2. Display the full paths of any PNG files in the images folder by using `glob.glob()`
3. Rename any PNG files in the images folder and its subfolders to be JPG files by using `os.walk()`; in case you mess things up beyond repair, there is a copy of the images folder in the backup folder
4. Make sure that your last script worked by using `os.path.exists()` to check that the files "png file - not a gif.jpg" and "/additional files/one last image.jpg" now exists (by providing `os.path.exists()` with the full path to each of these files)

Assignment: Use pattern matching to delete files

Write a script `"remove_files.py"` that will look in the chapter 7 practices files folder named “little pics” as well all of its subfolders. The script should use `os.remove()` to delete any JPG file found in any of these folders if the file is less than 2 Kb (2,000 bytes) in size.

You can supply the `os.path.getsize()` function with a full file path to return the file’s size in bytes. Check the contents of the folders before running your script to make sure that you delete the correct files; you should only end up removing the files named “to be deleted.jpg” and “definitely has to go.jpg” - although you should only use the file extensions and file sizes to determine this.

If you mess up and delete the wrong files, there is a folder named “backup” that contains an exact copy of the “little pics” folder and all its contents so that you can copy these contents back and try again.

Read and write CSV data

The types of files we have to deal with in our everyday lives are usually more complicated than plain text files. If we want to be able to modify the contents of these files (rather than just copy, rename or delete them), we will need more complex systems for being able to read this information.

One common way of storing text data is in CSV files. “CSV” stands for Comma- Separated Value, because each entry in a row of data is usually separated from other entries by a comma. For example, the contents of the file named “wonka.csv” in the chapter 7 practice materials folder look like this:

```
1 First name,Last name,Reward
2 Charlie,Bucket,"golden ticket, chocolate factory"
3 Veruca,Salt,squirrel revolution
4 Violet,Beauregarde,fruit chew
```

We have three columns of variables: First name, Last name, and Reward. Each line represents another row of data, including the first row, which is a “header” row that tells us what each entry represents. Our entries have to appear in the same order for each row, with each entry separated from others by commas. Notice how “golden ticket, chocolate factory” is in quotes - this is because it contains a comma, but this comma isn’t meant to separate one entry from another. There is no set standard for how to write out CSV files, but this particular file was created with Microsoft Excel, which added the quotation marks around the entry containing a comma.

NOTE: If you open the “wonka.csv” practice file, it will most likely be opened automatically by Excel, OpenOffice Calc, LibreOffice Calc, or a similar program; all of these programs have the ability to read and write CSV data, which is one reason why this format is so useful. As long as you don’t need to track characteristics of a data file such as formatting and colors, it’s usually easiest to export data to a CSV file before working with the data in Python; the CSV can always be opened in the appropriate program and re-saved as the proper format again later. CSV files can also be useful for importing or exporting data from systems such as SQL databases that we will learn about in chapter 9.

Python has a built-in csv module that makes it nearly as easy to read and write CSV files as any other sort of text file. Let’s start with a basic example and read in our wonka.csv file, then display its contents:

```
1 import csv
2
3 import os
4
5 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files"
6
7 with open(os.path.join(myPath, "wonka.csv"), "rb") as myFile:
8
9     myFileReader = csv.reader(myFile)
```

```

10
11     for row in myFileReader:
12
13         print row

```

We opened a file just as we’ve done before, but this time we chose “rb” mode, which stands for read binary. The additional “binary” part is important here, because CSV files (despite their appearance) aren’t saved in the same way as raw text files. (Specifically, on Windows we will end up saving extra newline characters after every line if we only specify “r” mode.) In Python 3, you should still use “r” mode instead of “rb” for reading CSV files.

We then created a CSV file reader using `csv.reader()` and passed it the file. Notice that we had to pass the actual opened file object to `csv.reader()`, not just the file name. From there, we can easily loop over the rows of data in this CSV reader object, which are each displayed as a list of strings:

```

1 >>>
2 ['First name', 'Last name', 'Reward']
3 ['Charlie', 'Bucket', 'golden ticket, chocolate factory']
4 ['Veruca', 'Salt', 'squirrel revolution']
5 ['Violet', 'Beauregarde', 'fruit chew']
6 >>>

```

Much like with `readline()` versus `readlines()`, there is also a `next()` method that gets only the next row of data from a CSV reader object. This method is usually used as a simple method of skipping over a row of “header” data; for instance, if we wanted to read in and store all the information except the first line of our CSV file, we could add the line `next(myFileReader)` after opening the CSV file to skip over the first line, then loop through the remaining rows as usual.

If we know what fields to expect from the CSV ahead of time, we can even unpack them from each row into new variables in a single step:

```

1 import csv
2
3 import os
4
5 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files"
6
7 with open(os.path.join(myPath, "wonka.csv"), "rb") as myFile:
8
9     myFileReader = csv.reader(myFile)
10     next(myFileReader)
11
12     for firstName, lastName, reward in myFileReader:
13
14         print("{} {} got: {}".format(firstName, lastName, reward))
15

```

After skipping the first header row with the `next()` function, we assigned the three values in each row to the three separate strings `firstName`, `lastName` and `reward`, which we then used inside of the `for` loop, generating this output:

```
1 >>>
2 ['First name', 'Last name', 'Reward']
3 Charlie Bucket got: golden ticket, chocolate factory
4 Veruca Salt got: squirrel revolution
5 Violet Beauregarde got: fruit chew
6 >>>
```

The first line of this output was generated by the call to the `next()` function rather than a print statement of ours.

The commas in CSV files are called delimiters because they are the character used to separate different pieces of the data. Sometimes a CSV file will use a different character as a delimiter, especially if there are a lot of commas already contained in the data. For instance, let's read in the file "tabbed wonka.csv", which uses tabs instead of commas to separate entries and looks like this:

```
1 First name Last name Reward
2 Charlie Bucket golden ticket, chocolate factory
3 Veruca Salt squirrel revolution
4 Violet Beauregarde fruit chew
```

We can read files like this using the `csv` module just as easily as before, but we need to specify what character has been used as the delimiter:

```
1 import csv
2
3 import os
4
5 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files"
6
7 with open(os.path.join(myPath, "tabbed wonka.csv"), "rb") as myFile:
8
9     myFileReader = csv.reader(myFile, delimiter="\t")
10
11     next(myFileReader)
12
13
14     for row in myFileReader:
15         print row
```

Here we used the special character `"\t"` to mean the "tab" character and assigned it to the argument `delimiter` when we created `myFileReader`.

Writing CSV files is accomplished using the `csv.writer()` method in much the same way. Just as rows of data read from CSV files appeared as lists of strings, we first need to structure the rows we want

to write as lists of strings:

```
1 import csv
2
3 import os
4
5 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files/Output"
6
7 with open(os.path.join(myPath, "movies.csv"), "wb") as myFile:
8
9     myFileWriter = csv.writer(myFile)
10
11     myFileWriter.writerow(["Movie", "Rating"])
12
13     myFileWriter.writerow(["Rebel Without a Cause", "3"])
14
15     myFileWriter.writerow(["Monty Python's Life of Brian", "5"])
16
17     myFileWriter.writerow(["Santa Claus Conquers the Martians", "0"])
```

We opened a new file in “wb” mode this time so that we could write binary data. (Again, with Python 3 you should stick to writing out CSVs in “w” mode.) We then wrote out individual rows to the CSV file writer object using its `writerow()` method. We also could have used the `writerows()` method, which takes a list of rows, to write all the rows in a single line:

```
1 import csv
2
3 import os
4
5 myPath = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 7/Practice files/Output"
6
7 myRatings = [ ["Movie", "Rating"],
8
9               ["Rebel Without a Cause", "3"],
10
11              ["Monty Python's Life of Brian", "5"],
12
13              ["Santa Claus Conquers the Martians", "0"] ]
14
15 with open(os.path.join(myPath, "movies.csv"), "wb") as myFile:
16
17     myFileWriter = csv.writer(myFile)
18
19     myFileWriter.writerows(myRatings)
```

If we wanted to export data created by a Python script to (for instance) an Excel workbook file, although it’s possible to do this directly, it’s usually sufficient and much easier to create a CSV file that

we can then open later in Excel and, if needed, convert to the desired format. There are a number of special modules that have been designed for interacting with Microsoft Excel documents (although they all have their own limitations), including [xlrd](#) and [xlwt](#) for reading and writing basic Excel files, [openpyxl](#) for manipulating Excel 2007 files, and [XlsxWriter](#) for creating .xlsx files from scratch.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that reads in the data from the CSV file “pastimes.csv” located in the chapter 7 practice files folder, skipping over the header row
2. Display each row of data (except for the header row) as a list of strings
3. Add code to your script to determine whether or not the second entry in each row (the “Favorite Pastime”) converted to lower-case includes the word “fighting” using the string methods `find()` and `lower()`
4. Use the list `append()` method to add a third column of data to each row that takes the value “Combat” if the word “fighting” is found and takes the value “Other” if neither word appears
5. Write out a new CSV file “categorized pastimes.csv” to the Output folder with the updated data that includes a new header row with the fields “Name”, “Favorite Pastime”, and “Type of Pastime”

Assignment: Create a high scores list from CSV data

Write a script “high_scores.py” that will read in a CSV file of users’ scores display the highest score for each person. The file you will read in is named “scores.csv” and is located in the chapter 7 practice files folder. You should store the high scores as values in a dictionary with the associated names as dictionary keys. This way, as you read in each row of data, if the name already has a score associated with it in the dictionary, you can compare these two scores and decide whether or not to replace the “current” high score in the dictionary.

Use the sorted() function on the dictionary’s keys in order to display an ordered list of high scores, which should match this output:

```
1 Empiro 23
2 L33tH4x 42
3 LLCoolDave 27
4 MaxxT 25
5 Misha46 25
6 0_0 22
7 johnsmith 30
8 red 12
9 tom123 26
```


Chapter 11

Interlude: Install Packages

The remaining half of this course relies on functionality found in various toolkits that are not packaged with Python by default. There are [over 39,000](#) of these “extra” packages registered with Python and available for download. Although all of the add-on features that we’ll cover are widely used and freely available, you will first need to download and install each of these packages in order to be able to import new functionality into your own code.

Python “packages” and “toolkits” are usually just another way of referring to a module or set of modules that can be imported into other Python code, although sometimes these modules rely on other code outside of Python, which is why it can sometimes be tricky to get everything installed correctly.

NOTE: The best way to install most Python packages is through [pip](#), although pip itself can be tricky to install on some configurations. If you’re using Python 3.4+, you already have pip installed by default and can use it right away to [install new packages](#) with no extra hassle!

Some Python packages (especially for Windows) offer automated installers that you can download and run without an extra hassle. Usually in Linux, installing a Python package is only a matter of searching for the correct package name (e.g., in the [Debian](#) package directory), then running the command:

```
1 sudo apt-get python-package-name
```

However, eventually you will come across a Python package that is not as simple to install for your particular operating system. For this reason, I recommend that you install a tool called `easy_install` now, before you want to use a difficult-to-install package. Ironically, `easy_install` can be difficult to install. But once it’s set up properly, your future with Python will be much more hassle-free.

Before installing anything, you first need to make sure that your operating system can find Python; this way, you’ll be able to run Python scripts outside of IDLE.

Windows: On your desktop, right-click on My Computer and click Properties. Click on the Advanced tab, then click on Environmental Variables. Click to highlight the Pathvariable, then click Edit. You

can now edit the system directories listed; each of these folders is separated from the previous folder by a comma. DO NOT delete any of the current paths. Go to the very end of this string and (assuming you installed Python into the default directory) add the two Python paths as follows, starting with a semicolon to separate the new paths from the previous entries in your PATH variable:

```
1 ;C:\\Python27\\;C:\\Python27\\Scripts
```

OS X: You should be fine as long as you've separately downloaded the correct version of Python 2.7.3 and are not relying on the built-in OS X version of Python. Type `python` into your Terminal to make sure it is recognized and loads as version 2.7.3 (see below).

Linux: You should be fine. Type `python` into your Terminal to make sure it is recognized and loads as version 2.7.3 (see below).

Double-check that Python is recognized by your system by opening a new command prompt (Windows) or Terminal (OS X and Linux) window and simply typing the name `python` as a command. Once you hit enter, Python should load just the same way as if you were in the IDLE interactive window, giving you a `>>>` prompt as usual. You can exit out of Python in this window by typing `exit()`.

Now that your operating system knows how to access Python, you can get `easy_install` installed and set up:

Windows: Download and run the script [ez_setup.py](#); you may need to copy the code into a new script manually.

OS X: If you have XCode installed, you may already have a version of `easy_install` as well. If not, download the EGG file available [here](#) into your user home directory, then install it by typing the following command into your Terminal:

```
1 sh setuptools-0.6c11-py2.7.egg
```

Debian/Linux: Use the following command to install `easy_install`:

```
1 sudo apt-get install python-setuptools
```

RPM-based operating systems should download and install the RPM file [here](#).

You can now (generally) install most packages by typing `easy_install package_name` at the command prompt (for Windows) or `sudo easy_install package_name` at the Terminal (for non-Windows).

Since `easy_install` isn't always that easy to install, there is an alternative.

You don't need to go through the following process in detail yet, but refer back to this section as needed if you have difficulty installing a package

Most packages will come with a `setup.py` script that will help you to install them into Python. If this is the case, you can follow these steps to install the package:

Windows:

1. Download the .zip file for the package and unzip it into a folder in your user directory (i.e., “C:\Users\yourname”)
2. Double-check that there is a script named setup.py in the package folder
3. Open up a command prompt (which should display “C:\Users\yourname>”) and type the command cd followed by the package folder name; for instance, if you wanted to install a package in the folder named “beautifulsoup4-4.1.0” then you would enter: cd beautifulsoup4-4.1.0
4. To install the package, enter the command: python setup.py install

Non-Windows:

1. Download the .tar.gz file for the package and decompress it into a folder in your users directory (i.e., “/home/yourname”)
2. Double-check that there is a script named setup.py in the package folder
3. In Terminal, type the command cd followed by the package folder name; for instance, if you wanted to install a package in the folder named “beautifulsoup4-4.1.0” then you would enter: cd beautifulsoup4-4.1.0
4. To install the package, enter the command: sudo python setup.py install

If all else fails, you can always download (and unzip) the entire set of files for a given package and copy its folder into the same directory as the script where it is used. Since the package files will be in the same current location as the script, you will be able to find and import them automatically.

Of course, there are a number of problems with this approach - mainly, the package may take up a lot of memory if it's large, and you'll have to copy the entire library over into a new directory every time you write a script in a new folder. If it's a small package (and the license allows you to copy the entire set of source files), however, one benefit is that you can then send this entire folder, complete with your script and the needed library files, to someone else, who would then be able to run your script without having to install the package as well. Despite this minor possible convenience, this approach should usually only be used as a last-ditch effort if all other proper attempts to install a package have failed.

Chapter 12

Interact with PDF files

Read and write PDFs

PDF files have become a sort of necessary evil these days. Despite their frequent use, PDFs are some of the most difficult files to work with in terms of making modifications, combining files, and especially for extracting text information.

Fortunately, there are a few options in Python for working specifically with PDF files. None of these options are perfect solutions, but often you can use Python to completely automate or at least ease some of the pain of performing certain tasks using PDFs.

The most frequently used package for working with PDF files in Python is named `pyPdf` and can be found [here](#). You will need to download and install this package before continuing with the chapter.

NOTE Python 3 note: I highly recommend that you stick with Python 2.7 for this chapter; there is an unofficial version of `pyPdf` renamed `PyPDF2` available [here](#) that supports Python 3, but it's still in development. At the time of this writing, it does not have the same full functionality of `pyPdf` and lacks documentation.

Windows: Download and run the automated installer ([pyPdf-1.13.win32.exe](#)).

OS X: if you have `easy_install` installed, you can type the following command into your Terminal to install `pyPdf`: `sudo easy_install pypdf`

Otherwise, you will need to download and unzip the [.tar.gz](#) file and install the module using the `setup.py` script as explained in the section on installing packages.

Debian/Linux: Just type the command: `sudo apt-get install python-pypdf`

The `pyPdf` package includes a `PdfFileReader` and a `PdfFileWriter`; just like when performing other types of file input/output, reading and writing are two entirely separate processes.

First, let's get started by reading in some basic information from a sample PDF file, the first couple chapters of Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice* via [Project Gutenberg](#):

```

1 import os
2
3 from pyPdf import PdfFileReader
4
5 path = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 8/Practice files"
6
7 inputFileName = os.path.join(path, "Pride and Prejudice.pdf")
8
9 inputFile = PdfFileReader(file(inputFileName, "rb"))
10
11 print "Number of pages:", inputFile.getNumPages()
12
13 print "Title:", inputFile.getDocumentInfo().title

```

We created a PdfFileReader object named inputFile by passing a file() object with “rb” (read binary) mode and giving the full path of the file. The additional “binary” part is necessary for reading PDF files because we aren’t just reading basic text data. PDFs include much more complicated information, and saying “rb” here instead of just “r” tells Python that we might encounter and have to interpret characters that can’t be represented as standard readable text.

We can then return the number of pages included in the PDF input file. We also have access to certain attributes through the getDocumentInfo() method; in fact, if we display the result of simply calling this method, we will see a dictionary with all of the available document info:

```

1 >>> print inputFile.getDocumentInfo()
2
3 {'/CreationDate': u'D:20110812174208', '/Author': u'Chuck', '/Producer':
4 u'Microsoft® Office Word 2007', '/Creator': u'Microsoft® Office Word 2007',
5 '/ModDate': u'D:20110812174208', '/Title': u'Pride and Prejudice, by Jane
6 Austen'}
7
8 >>>

```

We can also retrieve individual pages from the PDF document using the getPage() method and specifying the index number of the page (as always, starting at 0). However, since PDF pages include much more than simple text, displaying the text data on a PDF page is more involved. Fortunately, pyPdf has made the process of parsing out text somewhat easier, and we can use the extractText() method on each page:

```

1 >>> print inputFile.getPage(0).extractText()
2
3 The Project Gutenberg EBook of Pride and Prejudice, by Jane Austen This eBook
4 is for the use of anyone anywhere at no cost and with almost no
5 restrictions whatsoever. You may copy it, give it away or re-use it under the
6 terms of the Project Gutenberg License included with this eBook or online at
7 www.gutenberg.org
8 Title: Pride and Prejudice Author: Jane Austen Release

```

```

6 Date: August 26, 2008 [EBook #1342] [Last updated: August 11, 2011] Language:
7 English Character set encoding: ASCII *** START OF THIS PROJECT GUTENBERG
8 EBOOK PRIDE AND PREJUDICE *** Produced by Anonymous Volunteers, and David
9 Widger PRIDE AND PREJUDICE By Jane Austen Contents
10
11 >>>

```

Formatting standards in PDFs are inconsistent at best, and it's usually necessary to take a look at the PDF files you want to use on a case-by-case basis. In this instance, notice how we don't actually see newline characters in the output; instead, it appears that new lines are being represented as multiple spaces in the text extracted by pyPdf. We can use this knowledge to write out a roughly formatted version of the book to a plain text file (for instance, if we only had the PDF available and wanted to make it readable on an untalented mobile device):

```

1 import os
2
3 from pyPdf import PdfFileReader
4
5 path = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 8/Practice files"
6
7 inputFileName = os.path.join(path, "Pride and Prejudice.pdf")
8
9 inputFile = PdfFileReader(file(inputFileName, "rb"))
10
11 outputFileName = os.path.join(path, "Output/Pride and Prejudice.txt")
12
13 outputFile = open(outputFileName, "w")
14
15 title = inputFile.getDocumentInfo().title # get the file title
16
17 totalPages = inputFile.getNumPages() # get the total page count
18
19 outputFile.write(title + "\n")
20
21 outputFile.write("Number of pages: {}\n\n".format(totalPages))
22
23 for pageNum in range(0, totalPages):
24
25     text = inputFile.getPage(pageNum).extractText()
26
27     text = text.replace("  ", "\n")
28
29     outputFile.write(text)
30
31 outputFile.close()

```

Since we're writing out basic text, we chose the plain "w" mode and created a file "book.txt" in the

“Output” folder. Meanwhile, we still use “rb” mode to read data from the PDF file since, before we can extract the plain text from each page, we are in fact reading much more complicated data. We loop over every page number in the PDF file, extracting the text from that page. Since we know that newlines will show up as additional spaces, we can approximate better formatting by replacing every instance of double spaces (“ ”) with a newline character.

You may find that a PDF document includes unusual characters that cannot be written into a plain text file - for instance, a trademark symbol. These characters are not in the [ASCII](#) character set, meaning that they can’t be represented using any of the 128 standard computer characters. Because of this, your code will not be able to write out a raw text file in “w” mode. Usually the way to get around this is by using the `encode()` method, like so: `text = text.encode("utf-8")`

If we have a string `text` that has unusual characters in it, this line will allow us to change how each character is represented (using [UTF-8 encoding](#)) so that we can now store these symbols in a raw text file. These unusual characters might not appear the same way as in the original file, since the text file has a much more limited set of characters available, but if you do not change the encoding then you will not be able to output the text at all.

(If you really want to get a handle on text encoding and what’s really happening, take a look at [this talk](#). Note that in Python 3, strings are unicode by default.)

Instead of extracting text, we might want to modify the PDF file itself, saving out a new version of the PDF. We’ll see more examples of why and how this might occur in the next section, but for now create the simplest “modified” file by saving out only a section of the original file. Here we copy over the first three pages of the PDF (not including the cover page) into a new PDF file:

```
1 import os
2
3 from pyPdf import PdfFileReader, PdfFileWriter
4
5 path = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 8/Practice files"
6
7 inputFileName = os.path.join(path, "Pride and Prejudice.pdf")
8
9 inputFile = PdfFileReader(file(inputFileName, "rb"))
10
11 outputPDF = PdfFileWriter()
12
13 for pageNum in range(1, 4):
14     outputPDF.addPage(inputFile.getPage(pageNum))
15
16 outputFileName = os.path.join(path, "Output/portion.pdf")
17
18 outputFile = file(outputFileName, "wb")
19
20 outputPDF.write(outputFile)
21
22
23 outputFile.close()
```

We imported both PdfFileReader and PdfFileWriter from pyPdf so that we can write out a PDF file of our own. PdfFileWriter doesn't take any arguments, which might be surprising; we can start adding PDF pages to our outputPDF before we've specified what file it will become. However, in order to save the output to an actual PDF file, at the end of our code we create an outputFile as usual and then call `outputPDF.write(outputFile)` in order to write the PDF contents into this file.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that opens the file named "The Whistling Gypsy.pdf" from the Chapter 8 practice files, then displays the title, author, and total number of pages in the file
2. Extract the full contents of "The Whistling Gypsy.pdf" into a .TXT file; you will need to encode the text as UTF-8 before you can output it
3. Save a new version of "The Whistling Gypsy.pdf" that does not include the cover page into the Output folder

Manipulate PDF files

Often the reason we want to modify a PDF file is more complicated than just saving a portion of the file. We might want to rotate some pages, crop pages, or even merge information from different pages together. When manually editing the files in Adobe Acrobat isn't a practical or feasible solution, we can automate any of these tasks using pyPdf.

Let's start with a surprisingly common problem: rotated PDF pages. Go ahead and open up the file "ugly.pdf" in the "Chapter 8/Practice files/" folder. You'll see that it's a lovely PDF file of Hans Christian Andersen's The Ugly Duckling, except that every odd-numbered page is rotated counter-clockwise by ninety degrees. This is simple enough to correct by using the rotateClockwise() method on every other PDF page and specifying the number of to rotate:

```
1 import os
2
3 from pyPdf import PdfFileReader, PdfFileWriter
4
5 path = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 8/Practice files"
6
7 inputFileName = os.path.join(path, "ugly.pdf")
8
9 inputFile = PdfFileReader(file(inputFileName, "rb"))
10
11 outputPDF = PdfFileWriter()
12
13 for pageNum in range(0, inputFile.getNumPages()):
14     page = inputFile.getPage(pageNum)
15
16     if pageNum % 2 == 0:
17         page.rotateClockwise(90)
18
19     outputPDF.addPage(page)
20
21 outputFileName = os.path.join(path, "Output/The Conformed Duckling.pdf")
22
23 outputFile = file(outputFileName, "wb")
24
25 outputPDF.write(outputFile)
26
27 outputFile.close()
```

Another useful feature of pyPdf is the ability to crop pages, which in turn will allow us to split up PDF pages into multiple parts or save out partial sections of pages. For instance, open up the file "half and half.pdf" from the chapter 8 practice files folder to see an example of where this might be useful. This time, we have a PDF that's presented in two "frames" per page, which again is not an ideal layout

in many situations. In order to split these pages up, we will have to refer to the MediaBox belonging to each PDF page, which is a rectangle representing the boundaries of the page. Let's take a look at the MediaBox of a PDF page in the interactive window to get an idea of what it looks like:

```
1 >>> from pyPdf import PdfFileReader
2
3 >>> inputFile = PdfFileReader(file("C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter
4 8/Practice files/half and half.pdf", "rb"))
5
6 >>> page = inputFile.getPage(0)
7
8 >>> print page.mediaBox
9
10 RectangleObject([0, 0, 792, 612])
11
12 >>>
```

A mediaBox is a type of object called a RectangleObject. Consequently, we can get the coordinates of the rectangle's corners:

```
1 >>> print page.mediaBox.lowerLeft
2
3 (0, 0)
4
5 >>> print page.mediaBox.lowerRight
6
7 (792, 0)
8
9 >>> print page.mediaBox.upperRight
10
11 (792, 612)
12
13 >>> print page.mediaBox.upperRight[0]
14
15 792.0
16
17 >>> print page.mediaBox.upperRight[1]
18
19 612.0
20
21 >>>
```

These locations are returned to us as tuples that include the x and y coordinate pairs. Notice how we didn't include parentheses anywhere because mediaBox and its corners are unchangeable attributes, not methods of the PDF page.

We will have to do a little math in order to crop each of our PDF pages. Basically, we need to set the corners of each half-page so that we crop out the side of the page that we don't want. To do this, we

divide the width of the landscape page into two halves; we set the right corner of the left-side page to be half of the total width, and we set the left corner of the right-side page to start halfway across the width of the page.

Since we have to crop the half-pages in order to write them out to our new PDF file, we will also have to create a copy of each page. This is because the PDF pages are mutable objects; if we change something about a page, we also change the same things about any variable that references that object. This is exactly the same problem that we ran into when having to copy an entire list into a new list before making changes. In this case, we import the built-in copy module, which creates and returns a copy of an object by using the `copy.copy()` function. (In fact, this function works just as well for making copies of entire lists instead of the shorthand `list2 = list1[:]` notation.)

This is tricky code, so take a while to work through it and play with different variations of the copying and cropping to make sure you understand the underlying math:

```
1 import os
2
3 import copy
4 from pyPdf import PdfFileReader, PdfFileWriter
5
6 path = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 8/Practice files"
7
8 inputFileName = os.path.join(path, "half and half.pdf")
9
10 inputFile = PdfFileReader(file(inputFileName, "rb"))
11
12 outputPDF = PdfFileWriter()
13
14 for pageNum in range(0, inputFile.getNumPages()):
15     pageLeft = inputFile.getPage(pageNum)
16
17     pageRight = copy.copy(pageLeft)
18
19     upperRight = pageLeft.mediaBox.upperRight # get original page corner
20
21     # crop and add left-side page
22
23     pageLeft.mediaBox.upperRight = (upperRight[0]/2, upperRight[1])
24
25     outputPDF.addPage(pageLeft)
26
27     # crop and add right-side page
28
29     pageRight.mediaBox.upperLeft = (upperRight[0]/2, upperRight[1])
30
31     outputPDF.addPage(pageRight)
```

```

34
35 outputFileName = os.path.join(path, "Output/The Little Mermaid.pdf")
36
37 outputFile = file(outputFileName, "wb")
38
39 outputPDF.write(outputFile)
40
41 outputFile.close()

```

NOTE: PDF files are a bit unusual in how they save page orientation. Depending on how the PDF was originally created, it might be the case that your axes are switched - for instance, a standard “portrait” document that’s been converted into a landscape PDF might have the x-axis represented vertically while the y-axis is horizontal. Likewise, the corners would all be rotated by 90 degrees; the upperLeft corner would appear on the upper right or the lower left, depending on the file’s rotation. Especially if you’re working with a landscape PDF file, it’s best to do some initial testing to make sure that you are using the correct corners and axes.

Beyond manipulating an already existing PDF, we can also add our own information by merging one PDF page with another. For instance, perhaps we want to automatically add a header or a watermark to every page in a file. I’ve saved an image with a transparent background into a one-page PDF file for this purpose, which we can use as a watermark, combining this image with every page in a PDF file by using the `mergePage()` method:

```

1 import os
2
3 from pyPdf import PdfFileReader, PdfFileWriter
4
5 path = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 8/Practice files"
6
7 inputFileName = os.path.join(path, "The Emperor.pdf")
8
9 inputFile = PdfFileReader(file(inputFileName, "rb"))
10
11 outputPDF = PdfFileWriter()
12
13 watermarkFileName = os.path.join(path, "top secret.pdf")
14
15 watermarkFile = PdfFileReader(file(watermarkFileName, "rb"))
16
17 for pageNum in range(0, inputFile.getNumPages()):
18
19     page = inputFile.getPage(pageNum)
20
21     page.mergePage(watermarkFile.getPage(0)) # add watermark image
22

```

```

23     outputPDF.addPage(page)
24
25     outputPDF.encrypt("good2Bking") # add a password to the PDF file
26
27     outputFileName = os.path.join(path, "Output/New Suit.pdf")
28
29     outputFile = file(outputFileName, "wb")
30
31     outputPDF.write(outputFile)
32
33     outputFile.close()

```

While we were securing the file, notice that we also added basic encryption by supplying the password “good2Bking” through the PdfFileWriter’s `encrypt()` method. If you know the password used to protect a PDF file, there is also a matching `decrypt()` method to decrypt an input file that is password protected; this can be incredibly useful as an automation tool if you have many identically encrypted PDFs and don’t want to have to type out a password each time you open one of the files.

Although `pyPdf` is one of the best and most frequently relied-upon packages for interacting with PDFs in Python, it does have some weaknesses. For instance, there is no way to generate your own PDF files from scratch; instead, you must start with at least a template document. For PDF generation in particular, I suggest researching the [ReportLab](#) toolkit, which is also free and open-source. Another popular choice for manipulation of existing PDF files in Python is [PDFMiner](#), which offers slightly different functionality from `pyPdf`.

There is also a [PyPDF2](#) in the works that aims to handle more difficult PDF files and make some PDF manipulation tasks even easier than in `pyPdf`. However, as of this writing (March 2014) there is not yet any documentation available on how to use it.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that opens the file named “Walrus.pdf” from the Chapter 8 practice files; you will need to decrypt the file using the password `IamtheWalrus`
2. Rotate every page in this input file counter-clockwise by 90 degrees
3. Split each page in half vertically, such that every column appears on its own separate page, and output the results as a new PDF file in the Output folder

Assignment: Add a cover sheet to a PDF file

Write a script `"cover_the_emperor.py"` that appends the chapter 8 practice file named `"The Emperor.pdf"` to the end of the chapter 8 practice file named `"Emperor cover sheet.pdf"` and outputs the full resulting PDF to the file `"The Covered Emperor.pdf"` in the chapter 8 practice files Output folder.

Chapter 13

SQL database connections

Communicate with databases using SQLite

If you're interested in this chapter, I'm assuming that you have at least a basic knowledge of SQL and the concept of querying a database. If not, you might want to take a moment to read through [this article](#) introducing databases and browse through [these lessons](#) introducing basic SQL code.

There are many different variations of SQL, and some are suited to certain purposes better than others. The simplest, most lightweight version of SQL is [SQLite](#), which runs directly on your machine and comes bundled with Python automatically.

SQLite is usually used within applications for small internal storage tasks, but it can also be useful for testing SQL code before setting an application up to use a larger database.

In order to communicate with SQLite, we need to import the module and connect to a database:

```
1 import sqlite3
2
3 connection = sqlite3.connect("test_database.db")
```

Here we've created a new database named test_database.db, but connecting to an existing database works exactly the same way. Now we need a way to communicate across the connection:

```
1 c = connection.cursor()
```

This line creates a Cursor object, which will let us execute commands on the SQL database and return the results. We'll be using the cursor a lot, so we can just call it c for short. Now we easily execute regular SQL statements on the database through the cursor like so:

```
1 c.execute("CREATE TABLE People(FirstName TEXT, LastName TEXT, Age INT)")
```

This line creates a new table named People and inserts three new columns into the table: text to store each person's FirstName, another text field to store the LastName, and an integer to store Age. We can insert data into this new table like this:

```
1 c.execute("INSERT INTO People VALUES('Ron', 'Obvious', 42)")
2
3 connection.commit()
```

Here we've inserted a new row, with a Firstname of Ron, a LastName of Obvious, and an Age equal to 42. In the second line, we had to commit the change we made to the table to say that we really meant to change the table's contents - otherwise our change wouldn't actually be saved.

NOTE: We used double quotation marks in the string above, with single quotes denoting strings inside of the SQL statement. Although Python doesn't differentiate between using single and double quotes, some versions of SQL (including SQLite) only allow strings to be enclosed in single quotation marks, so it's important not to switch these around.

At this point, you could close and restart IDLE completely, and if you then reconnect to test_database.db, your People table will still exist there, storing Ron Obvious and his Age; this is why SQLite can be useful for internal storage for those times when it makes sense to structure your data as a database of tables rather than writing output to individual files. The most common example of this is to store information about users of an application.

NOTE: If you just want to create a one-time-use database while you're testing code or playing around with table structures, you can use the special name :memory: to create the database in temporary RAM like so:

```
connection = sqlite3.connect(':memory:')
```

If we want to delete the People table, it's as easy as executing a DROP TABLE statement:

```
1 c.execute("DROP TABLE IF EXISTS People")
```

(Here we also checked if the table exists before trying to drop it, which is usually a good idea; it helps to avoid errors if we happened to try deleting a table that's already been deleted or never actually existed in the first place.)

Once we're done with a database connection, we should close() the connection; just like closing files, this pushes any changes out to the database and frees up any resources currently in memory that are no longer needed. You close the database connection in the same way as with files:

```
1 connection.close()
```

When working with a database connection, it's also a good idea to use the with keyword to simplify your code (and your life), similar to how we used with to open files:

```
1 with sqlite3.connect("test_database.db") as connection:
2
3     # perform any SQL operations using connection here
```


Besides making your code more compact, this will benefit you in a few important ways. Firstly, you no longer need to `commit()` changes you make; they're automatically saved. Using `with` also helps with handling potential errors and freeing up resources that are no longer needed, much like how we can open (and automatically close) files using the `with` keyword. Keep in mind, however, that you will still need to `commit()` a change if you want to see the result of that change immediately (before closing the connection); we'll see an example of this later in the section.

If you want to run more than one line of SQL code at a time, there are a couple possible options. One simple option is to use the `executescript()` method and give it a string that represents a full script; although lines of SQL code will be separated by semicolons, it's common to pass a multi-line string for readability. Our full code might look like so:

```
1 import sqlite3
2
3 with sqlite3.connect('test_database.db') as connection:
4
5     c = connection.cursor()
6
7     c.executescript("""
8
9         DROP TABLE IF EXISTS People;
10
11         CREATE TABLE People(FirstName TEXT, LastName TEXT, Age INT);
12
13         INSERT INTO People VALUES('Ron', 'Obvious', '42');
14
15     """)
```

We can also execute many similar statements by using the `executemany()` method and supplying a tuple of tuples, where each inner tuple supplies the information for a single command. For instance, if we have a lot of people's information to insert into our `People` table, we could save this information in the following tuple of tuples:

```
1 peopleValues = (
2
3     ('Ron', 'Obvious', 42),
4
5     ('Luigi', 'Vercotti', 43),
6
7     ('Arthur', 'Belling', 28)
```

We could then insert all of these people at once (after preparing our connection and our `People` table) by using the single line:

```
1 c.executemany("INSERT INTO People VALUES(?, ?, ?)", peopleValues)
```

Here, the question marks act as place-holders for the tuples in `peopleValues`; this is called a param-

terized statement. The difference between parameterized and non-parameterized code is very similar to how we can write out strings by concatenating many parts together versus using the `string format()` method to insert specific pieces into a string after creating it.

For security reasons, especially when you need to interact with a SQL table based on user-supplied input, you should always use parameterized SQL statements. This is because the user could potentially supply a value that looks like SQL code and causes your SQL statement to behave in unexpected ways. This is called a “SQL injection” attack and, even if you aren’t dealing with a [malicious user](#), it can happen completely by accident.

For instance, suppose we want to insert a person into our `People` table based on user-supplied information. We might initially try something like the following (assuming we already have our `People` table set up):

```
1 import sqlite3
2
3 # get person data from user
4
5 firstName = raw_input("Enter your first name: ")
6
7 lastName = raw_input("Enter your last name: ")
8
9 age = int(raw_input("Enter your age: "))
10
11 # execute insert statement for supplied person data
12
13 with sqlite3.connect('test_database.db') as connection:
14
15     c = connection.cursor()
16
17     line = "INSERT INTO People Values('"+ firstName + "', '"+ lastName +
18
19         " ', "+ str(age) + " )"
20
21     c.execute(line)
```

Notice how we had to change `age` into an integer to make sure that it was a valid age, but then we had to change it back into a string in order to concatenate it with the rest of the line; this is because we created the line by adding a bunch of strings together, including using single quotation marks to

denote strings within our string. If you’re still not clear how this works, try inserting a person into the table and then print `line` to see how the full line of SQL code looks.

But what if the user’s name included an apostrophe? Try adding Flannery O’Connor to the table, and you’ll see that she breaks the code; this is because the apostrophe gets mixed up with the single quotes in the line, making it appear that the SQL code ends earlier than expected.

In this case, our code only causes an error (which is bad) instead of corrupting the entire table (which would be very bad), but there are many other hard-to-predict cases that can break SQL tables when

not parameterizing your statements. To avoid this, we should have used place-holders in our SQL code and inserted the person data as a tuple:

```
1 import sqlite3
2
3 # get person data from user and insert into a tuple
4
5 firstName = raw_input("Enter your first name: ")
6
7 lastName = raw_input("Enter your last name: ")
8
9 age = int(raw_input("Enter your age: "))
10
11 personData = (firstName, lastName, age)
12
13 # execute insert statement for supplied person data
14
15 with sqlite3.connect('test_database.db') as connection:
16
17     c = connection.cursor()
18
19     c.execute("INSERT INTO People VALUES(?, ?, ?)", personData)
```

We can also update the content of a row by using a SQL UPDATE statement. For instance, if we wanted to change the Age associated with someone already in our People table, we could say the following (for a cursor within a connection):

```
1 c.execute("UPDATE People SET Age=? WHERE FirstName=? AND LastName=?",
2
3           (45, 'Luigi', 'Vercotti'))
```

Of course, inserting and updating information in a database isn't all that helpful if we can't fetch that information back out. Just like with `readline()` and `readlines()` when reading files, there are two available options; we can either retrieve all the results of a SQL query, using `fetchall()`, or retrieve a single result at a time, using `fetchone()`. First, let's insert some people into a table and then ask SQL to retrieve information from some of them:

```
1 import sqlite3
2
3 peopleValues = (
4
5     ('Ron', 'Obvious', 42),
6
7     ('Luigi', 'Vercotti', 43),
8
9     ('Arthur', 'Belling', 28)
10
```

```

11 with sqlite3.connect('test_database.db') as connection:
12
13     c = connection.cursor()
14
15     c.execute("DROP TABLE IF EXISTS People")
16
17     c.execute("CREATE TABLE People(FirstName TEXT, LastName TEXT, Age INT)")
18
19     c.executemany("INSERT INTO People VALUES(?, ?, ?)", peopleValues)
20
21     # select all first and last names from people over age 30
22
23     c.execute("SELECT FirstName, LastName FROM People WHERE Age > 30")
24
25     for row in c.fetchall():
26
27         print row

```

We executed a SELECT statement that returned the first and last names of all people over the age of 30, then called `fetchall()` on our cursor to retrieve the results of this query, which are stored as a list of tuples. Looping over the rows in this list to view the individual tuples, we see:

```

1 >>>
2
3 (u'Ron', u'Obvious')
4
5 (u'Luigi', u'Vercotti')
6
7 >>>

```

The “u” before each string stands for [unicode](#) (as opposed to [ASCII](#)) and basically means that the string might contain complicated characters that can’t be represented by the usual basic set of characters we normally see in English text.

NOTE: Python 3 note: You won’t see the “u” before the strings in Python 3, because strings in Python 3 are always stored as unicode by default. In order to get this same functionality in Python 2, you can include the following line at the beginning of your script: `from __future__ import unicode_literals`

If we wanted to loop over our result rows one at a time instead of fetching them all at once, we would usually use a loop such as the following:

```

1 c.execute("SELECT FirstName, LastName FROM People WHERE Age > 30")
2
3 while True:
4

```

```

5     row = c.fetchone()
6
7     if row is None:
8
9         break
10
11     print row

```

This checks each time whether our `fetchone()` returned another row from the cursor, displaying the row if so and breaking out of the loop once we run out of results.

The `None` keyword is the way that Python represents the absence of any value for an object. When we wanted to compare a string to a missing value, we used empty quotes to check that the string object had no information inside: `stringName == ""`

When we want to compare other objects to missing values to see if those objects hold any information, we compare them to `None`, like so: `objectName is None`

This comparison will return `True` if `objectName` exists but is empty and `False` if `objectName` holds any value.

Review exercises:

1. Create a database table in RAM named Roster that includes the fields 'Name', 'Species' and 'IQ'
2. Populate your new table with the following values:

```

1 Jean-Baptiste Zorg,    Human,    122
2 Korben Dallas,      Meat Popsicle,  100
3 Ak'not,      Mangalore,    -5

```

3. Update the Species of Korben Dallas to be Human
4. Display the names and IQs of everyone in the table who is classified as Human

Use other SQL variants

If you have a particular type of SQL database that you'd like to access through Python, most of the basic syntax is likely to be identical to what you just learned for SQLite. However, you'll need to install an additional package in order to interact with your database since SQLite is the only built-in option. There are many SQL variants and corresponding Python packages available. A few of the most commonly used and reliable open-source alternatives are:

1. The [pyodbc](#) module allows connections to most types of databases.
2. Specifically for use with [PostgreSQL](#): [Psycopg](#) is one of the most frequently used package to interface between Python and PostgreSQL. A Windows version, [win-psycopg](#), is also available.
3. Specifically for use with [MySQL](#): [MySQLdb](#) offers MySQL support for Python. Windows users might want to try the [myPySQL](#) extension instead, made specifically for Windows.

One difference from SQLite (besides the actual syntax of the SQL code, which changes slightly with every different flavor of SQL) is that when you connect to any other SQL database, you'll need to supply the user and password (as well as your host, if the database is hosted on an external server). Check the documentation for the particular package you want to use to figure out the exact syntax for how to make a database connection.

Chapter 14

Interacting with the web

Scrape and parse text from websites

Given the hundreds of millions of websites out there, chances are that you might at some point be interested in gathering data from a webpage - or perhaps from thousands of webpages. In this chapter we will explore various options for interacting with and gathering data from the Internet through Python.

Collecting data from websites using an automated process is known as web scraping. Some websites explicitly forbid users from scraping their data with automated tools like the ones we will create. Websites do this for either of two possible reasons:

1. The site has a good reason to protect its data; for instance, Google Maps will not allow you to request too many results too quickly
2. Making many repeated requests to a website's server may use up bandwidth, slowing down the website for other users and potentially overloading the server such that the website stops responding entirely

You should always check a website's acceptable use policy before scraping its data to see if accessing the website by using automated tools is a violation of its terms of use. Legally, web scraping against the wishes of a website is very much a [gray area](#), but I just want to make it clear that [the following techniques may be illegal](#) when used on websites that prohibit web scraping.

The primary language of information on the Internet is HTML (HyperText Markup Language), which is how most webpages are displayed in browsers. For instance, if you browse to a particular website and choose to "view page source" in your browser, you will most likely be presented with HTML code underlying that webpage; this is the information that your browser receives and translates into the page you actually see.

If you are not familiar with the basics of HTML tags, you should take a little while to read through the first dozen chapters of a brief overview of [HTML](#). None of the HTML used in this chapter will be very complicated, but having a solid understanding of HTML elements is an important prerequisite for developing good techniques for web scraping.

Let's start by grabbing all of the HTML code from a single webpage. We'll take a [very simple page](#) that's been set up just for practice:

```
1 from urllib2 import urlopen
2
3 # Python 3: from urllib.request import urlopen
4
5 myAddress = "http://RealPython.com/practice/aphrodite.html"
6
7 htmlPage = urlopen(myAddress)
8
9 htmlText = htmlPage.read()
10
11 # Python 3: htmlText = htmlPage.read().decode('utf-8')
12
13 print htmlText
```

This displays the following result for us, which represents the full HTML of the page just as a web browser would see it:

```
1 >>>
2
3 <html>
4
5 <head>
6
7 <title>Profile: Aphrodite</title>
8
9 </head>
10
11 <body bgcolor="yellow">
12
13 <center>
14
15 <br><br>
16
17 
18
19 <h2>Name: Aphrodite</h2>
20
21 <br><br>
22
23 Favorite animal: Dove
24
25 <br><br>
26
27 Favorite color: Red
28
```



```

29 <br><br>
30
31 Hometown: Mount Olympus
32
33 </center>
34
35 </body>
36
37 </html>
38
39 >>>

```

Calling `urlopen()` will cause the following error if Python cannot connect to the Internet: `URLError: <urlopen error [Errno 11001] getaddrinfo failed>`

If you provide an invalid web address that can't be found, you will see the following error, which is equivalent to the "404" page that a browser would load: `HTTPError: HTTP Error 404: Not Found`

Now we can scrape specific information from the webpage using text parsing, i.e., looking through the full string of text and grabbing only the pieces that are relevant to us. For instance, if we wanted to get the title of the webpage (in this case, "Profile: Aphrodite"), we could use the string `find()` method to search through the text of the HTML for the `<title>` tags and parse out the actual title using index numbers:

```

1 from urllib2 import urlopen
2
3 # Python 3: from urllib.request import urlopen
4
5 myAddress = "http://RealPython.com/practice/aphrodite.html"
6 htmlPage = urlopen(myAddress)
7
8 htmlText = htmlPage.read()
9
10 # Python 3: htmlText = htmlPage.read().decode('utf-8')
11
12 startTag = "<title>"
13
14 endTag = "</title>"
15
16
17 startIndex = htmlText.find(startTag) + len(startTag)
18
19 endIndex = htmlText.find(endTag)
20
21 print htmlText[startIndex:endIndex]

```

Running this script correctly displays the HTML code limited to only the text in the title:

```

1 >>>
2
3 Profile: Aphrodite
4
5 >>>

```

Of course, this worked for a very simple example, but HTML in the real world can be much more complicated and far less predictable. For a small taste of the “expectations versus reality” of text parsing, visit poseidon.html and view the HTML source code. It looks like the same layout as before, but let’s try running the same script as before on `myAddress = "http://RealPython.com practice/poseidon.html"`:

```

1 >>>
2
3 <head>
4
5 <title >Profile: Poseidon
6
7 >>>

```

We didn’t manage to find the beginning of the `<title>` tag correctly this time because there was a space before the closing “>”, like so: `<title >`. Instead, our `find()` method returned -1 (because the exact string `<title>` wasn’t found anywhere) and then added the length of the tag string, making us think that the beginning of the title was six characters into the HTML code.

Because these sorts of problems can occur in countless unpredictable ways, a more reliable alternative than using `find()` is to use regular expressions. [Regular expressions](#) (shortened to “regex” in

Python) are strings that can be used to determine whether or not text matches a particular pattern. Regular expressions are not particular to Python; they are a general programming concept that can be used with a wide variety of programming languages. Regular expressions use a language all of their own that is notoriously difficult to learn but incredibly useful once mastered. Although a full overview of regular expressions is outside the scope of this book, I’ll cover just a few couple examples to get started.

Python allows us to use regular expressions through the `re` module. Just as Python uses the backslash character as an “escape character” for representing special characters that can’t simply be typed into strings, regular expressions use a number of different “special” characters (called meta-characters) that are interpreted as ways to signify different types of patterns. For instance, the asterisk character,

“*”, stands for “zero or more” of whatever came just before the asterisk. Let’s see this in an example, where we use the `re.findall()` function to find any text within a string that matches a given regular expression. The first argument we pass to `re.findall()` is the regular expression that we want to match, and the second argument is the string to test:

```

1 >>> import re
2
3 >>> re.findall("ab*c", "ac")
4

```

```

5 ['ac']
6
7 >>> re.findall("ab*c", "abcd")
8
9 ['abc']
10
11 >>> re.findall("ab*c", "acc")
12
13 ['ac']
14
15 >>> re.findall("ab*c", "abcac")
16
17 ['abc', 'ac']
18
19 >>> re.findall("ab*c", "abdc")
20
21 >>>

```

Our regular expression, “ab*c”, matches any part of the string that begins with an “a”, ends with a “c”, and has zero or more of “b” in between the two. This function returns a list of all matches. Note that this is case-sensitive; if we wanted to match this pattern regardless of upper-case or lower-case differences, we could pass a third argument with the value `re.IGNORECASE`, which is a specific variable stored in the `re` module:

```

1 >>> re.findall("ab*c", "ABC")
2
3 >>> re.findall("ab*c", "ABC", re.IGNORECASE)
4
5 ['ABC']
6
7 >>>

```

We can use a period to stand for any single character in a regular expression. For instance, we could find all the strings that contains the letters “a” and “c” separated by a single character as follows:

```

1 >>> re.findall("a.c", "abc")
2
3 ['abc']
4
5 >>> re.findall("a.c", "abbc")
6
7 >>> re.findall("a.c", "ac")
8
9 >>> re.findall("a.c", "acc")
10
11 ['acc']
12

```

```
13 >>>
```

Therefore, putting the term “.” inside of a regular expression stands for any character being repeated any number of times. For instance, if we wanted to find every string inside of a particular string that starts with the letter “a” and ends with the letter “c”, regardless of what occurs in between these two letters, we could say:

```
1 >>> re.findall("a.*c", "abc")
2
3 ['abc']
4
5 >>> re.findall("a.*c", "abbc")
6
7 ['abbc']
8
9 >>> re.findall("a.*c", "ac")
10
11 ['ac']
12
13 >>> re.findall("a.*c", "acc")
14
15 ['acc']
16
17 >>>
```

Usually we will want to use the `re.search()` function to search for a particular pattern inside a string. This function is somewhat more complicated because it returns an object called a `MatchObject` that stores different “groups” of data; this is because there might be matches inside of other matches, and `re.search()` wants to return every possible result. The details of `MatchObject` are irrelevant here, but for our purposes, calling the `group()` method on a `MatchObject` will return the first and most inclusive result, which most instances is all we care to find. For instance:

```
1 >>> matchResults = re.search("ab*c", "ABC", re.IGNORECASE)
2
3 >>> print matchResults.group()
4
5 ABC
6
7 >>>
```

There is one more `re` function that will come in handy when parsing out text. The `sub()` function, which is short for “substitute,” allows us to replace text in a string that matches a regular expression with new text (much like the `string.replace()` method). The arguments passed to `re.sub()` are the regular expression, followed by the replacement text, then followed by the string. For instance:

```
1 >>> myString = "Everything is <replaced> if it's in <tags>."
```

```

3 >>> myString = re.sub("<.*>", "ELEPHANTS", myString)
4
5 >>> print myString
6
7 Everything is ELEPHANTS.
8
9 >>>

```

Perhaps that wasn't quite what we expected to happen... We found and replaced everything in between the first "<" and last ">", which ended up being most of the string. This is because Python's regular expressions are greedy, meaning that they try to find the longest possible match when characters like "<" are used. *Instead, we should have used the non-greedy matching pattern "<?>"*, which works the same way as "<.*>" except that it tries to match the shortest possible string of text:

```

1 >>> myString = "Everything is <replaced> if it's in <tags>."
2
3 >>> myString = re.sub("<.*?>", "ELEPHANTS", myString)
4
5 >>> print myString
6
7 Everything is ELEPHANTS if it's in ELEPHANTS.
8
9 >>>

```

Armed with all this knowledge, let's now try to parse out the title from [dionysus.html](http://RealPython.com/practice/dionysus.html), which includes this rather carelessly written line of HTML:

```

1 <TITLE >Profile: Dionysus</title />

```

Our find() method would have a difficult time dealing with the inconsistencies here, but with the clever use of regular expressions, we will be able to handle this code easily:

```

1 import re
2
3 from urllib2 import urlopen
4
5 # Python 3: from urllib.request import urlopen
6
7 myAddress = "http://RealPython.com/practice/dionysus.html"
8
9 htmlPage = urlopen(myAddress)
10
11 htmlText = htmlPage.read()
12
13 # Python 3: htmlText = htmlPage.read().decode('utf-8')
14
15 matchResults = re.search("<title .*?>.*</title .*?>", htmlText, re.IGNORECASE)

```

```

16
17 title = matchResults.group()
18
19 title = re.sub("<.*?>", "", title) # remove HTML tags
20
21 print title

```

Let's take the first regular expression we used and break it down into three parts:

1. `<title .*>` - First we check for the opening tag, where there must be a space after the word "title" and the tag must be closed, but any characters can appear in the rest of the tag; we use the non-greedy `"*?"` because we want the first closing `">"` to match the tag's end
2. `.*` - Any characters can appear in between the `<title>` tags
3. `</title .*>` - This expression is the same as the first part, except that we also require the forward slash before "title" because this is a closing HTML tag

Likewise, we then use the non-greedy `"*?"` placed inside of an HTML tag to match any HTML tags and remove them from the parsed-out title.

Regular expressions are an incredibly powerful tool when used correctly. We've only scratched the surface of their potential here, although you're encouraged to take some time to study the very thorough [Python Regular Expression HOWTO](#) document.

NOTE: web scraping in practice can be very tedious work. Beyond the fact that no two websites are organized the same way, usually webpages are messy and inconsistent in their formatting. This leads to a lot of time spent handling unexpected exceptions to every rule, which is less than ideal when you want to automate a task.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that grabs the full HTML from the page [dionysus.html](#)
2. Use the string `find()` method to display the text following "Name:" and "Favorite Color:" (not including any leading spaces or trailing HTML tags that might appear on the same line)
3. Repeat the previous exercise using regular expressions; the end of each pattern should be a `"<"` (i.e., the start of an HTML tag) or a newline character, and you should remove any extra spaces or newline characters from the resulting text using the string `strip()` method

Use an HTML parser to scrape websites

Although regular expressions are great for pattern matching in general, sometimes it's easier to use an HTML parser that is designed specifically for piecing apart HTML pages. There are a number of Python tools written for this purpose, but the most popular (and easiest to learn) is named BeautifulSoup.

To set up BeautifulSoup for Windows or OS X, if you have `easy_install` set up then you can type the following command into your command prompt or Terminal: `easy_install beautifulsoup4`

Otherwise, download the compressed [.tar.gz](#) file, unzip it, then install BeautifulSoup using the `setup.py` script from the command line or Terminal as described in the chapter on installing packages.

For Debian/Linux, just type: `sudo apt-get install python-bs4`

Once you have BeautifulSoup installed, you can now import the `bs4` module and pass a string of HTML to BeautifulSoup to begin parsing:

```
1 from bs4 import BeautifulSoup
2
3 from urllib2 import urlopen # Py 3: use urllib.request
4
5 myAddress = "http://RealPython.com/practice/dionysus.html"
6
7 htmlPage = urlopen(myAddress)
8
9 htmlText = htmlPage.read() # Py 3: decode
10
11 mySoup = BeautifulSoup(htmlText)
```

From here, we can parse data out of `mySoup` in various useful ways depending on what information we want. For instance, BeautifulSoup includes a `get_text()` method for extracting just the text from a document, removing any HTML tags automatically:

```
1 >>> print mySoup.get_text()
2
3 Profile: Dionysus
4
5 Name: Dionysus
6
7 Hometown: Mount Olympus
8
9 Favorite animal: Leopard
10
11 Favorite Color: Wine
12
13 >>>
```

There are a lot of extra blank lines left, but these can always be taken out using the `stringreplace()` method. If we only want to get specific text from an HTML document, using BeautifulSoup to extract the text first and then using `find()` is sometimes easier than working with regular expressions.

However, sometimes the HTML tags are actually the elements that point out the data we want to retrieve. For instance, perhaps we want to retrieve links for all the images on the page, which will appear in `` HTML tags. In this case, we can use the `find_all()` method to return a list of all instances of that particular tag:

```
1 >>> print mySoup.find_all("img")
2
3 [, <br><br>
4
5 Hometown: Mount Olympus
6
7 <br><br>
8
9 Favorite animal: Leopard <br>
10 <br>
11
12 Favorite Color: Wine
13
14 </br></br></br></br></br></br></br></img>]
15
16 >>>
17
```

This wasn't exactly what we expected to see, but it happens quite often in the real world; the first element of the list, ``, is a "self-closing" HTML image tag that doesn't require a closing `` tag. Unfortunately, whoever wrote the sloppy HTML for this page never added a closing forward slash to the second HTML image tag, ``, and didn't include a `` tag either. So BeautifulSoup ended up grabbing a fair amount of HTML after the image tag as well before inserting a `` on its own to correct the HTML.

Fortunately, this still doesn't have much bearing on how we can parse information out of the image tags with BeautifulSoup. This is because these HTML tags are stored as Tag objects, and we can easily extract certain information out of each Tag. In our example, assume for simplicity that we know to expect two images in our list so that we can pull two Tag objects out of the list:

```
1 >>> image1, image2 = mySoup.find_all("img")
2
3 >>>
```

We now have two Tag objects, `image1` and `image2`. These Tag objects each have a `name`, which is just the type of HTML tag that to which they correspond:

```
1 >>> print image1.name
2
```



```
3 img
4
5 >>>
```

These Tag objects also have various attributes, which can be accessed in the same way as a dictionary. The HTML tag `` has a single attribute “src” that takes on the value “dionysus.jpg” (much like a key: value pair in a dictionary). Likewise, an HTML tag such as `` would have two attributes, a “href” attribute that is assigned the value “http://RealPython.com” and a “target” attribute that has the value “_blank”.

We can therefore pull the image source (the link that we wanted to parse) out of each image tag using standard dictionary notation to get the value that the “src” attribute of the image has been assigned:

```
1 >>> print image1["src"]
2
3 dionysus.jpg
4
5 >>> print image2["src"]
6
7 grapes.png
8
9 >>>
```

Even though the second image tag had a lot of extra HTML code associated with it, we could still pull out the value of the image “src” without any trouble because of the way BeautifulSoup organizes HTML tags into Tag objects.

In fact, if we only want to grab a particular tag, we can identify it by the corresponding name of the Tag object in our soup:

```
1 >>> print mySoup.title
2
3 <title>Profile: Dionysus</title>
4
5 >>>
```

Notice how the HTML `<title>` tags have automatically been cleaned up by BeautifulSoup. Furthermore, if we want to extract only the string of text out of the `<title>` tags (without including the tags themselves), we can use the string attribute stored by the title:

```
1 >>> print mySoup.title.string
2
3 Profile: Dionysus
4
5 >>>
```

We can even search for specific kinds of tags whose attributes match certain values. For instance, if we wanted to find all of the `` tags that had a `src` attribute equal to the value “`dionysus.jpg`”, we could provide the following additional argument to the `find_all()` method:

```
1 >>> mySoup.find_all("img", src="dionysus.jpg")
2
3 []
4
5 >>>
```

In this case, the example is somewhat arbitrary since we only returned a list that contained a single image tag, but we will use this technique in a later section in order to help us find a specific HTML tag buried in a vast sea of other HTML tags.

Although Beautiful Soup is still used frequently today, the code is no longer being maintained and updated by its creator. A similar toolkit, [lxml](#), is somewhat trickier to get started using, but offers all of the same functionality as Beautiful Soup and more. Once you are comfortable with the basics of Beautiful Soup, you should move on to learning how to use `lxml` for more complicated HTML parsing tasks.

NOTE: HTML parsers like Beautiful Soup can (and often do) save a lot of time and effort when it comes to locating specific data in webpages. However, sometimes HTML is so poorly written and disorganized that even a sophisticated parser like Beautiful Soup doesn’t really know how to interpret the HTML tags properly. In this case, you’re often left to your own devices (namely, `find()` and `regex`) to try to piece out the information you need.

Review exercises:

1. Write a script that grabs the full HTML from the page [profiles.html](#)
2. Parse out a list of all the links on the page using Beautiful Soup by looking for HTML tags with the name “a” and retrieving the value taken on by the “href” attribute of each tag
3. Get the HTML from each of the pages in the list by adding the full path to the file name, and display the text (without HTML tags) on each page using Beautiful Soup’s `get_text()` method

Interact with HTML forms

We usually retrieve information from the Internet by sending requests for webpages. A module like `urllib2` serves us well for this purpose, since it offers a very simple way of returning the HTML from individual webpages. Sometimes, however, we need to send information back to a page - for instance, submitting our information on a login form. For this, we need an actual browser. There are a number of web browsers built for Python, and one of the most popular and easiest to use is in a module called `mechanize`. (Unfortunately, `mechanize` is not supported in Python 3; an alternative is the newer `lxml`, although it doesn't have all the same functionality and it's more difficult to get started using.)

Essentially, `mechanize` is an alternative to `urllib2` that can do all of the same things but has much more added functionality that will allow us to talk back to webpages.

Windows: If you have `easy_install` set up, you can type "`easy_install mechanize`" into your command prompt. Otherwise, download the [.zip](#) file, decompress it, and install the package by running the `setup.py` script from the command line as described in the section on installing packages.

OSX: If you have `easy_install` set up, you can type "`sudo easy_install mechanize`" into your Terminal. Otherwise, download the [.tar.gz](#) file, decompress it, and install the package by running the `setup.py` script from your Terminal as described in the section on installing packages.

Debian/Linux: As usual: `sudo apt-get install python-mechanize`

You may need to close and restart your IDLE session for `mechanize` to load and be recognized after it's been installed.

Getting `mechanize` to create a new `Browser` object and use it to open a webpage is as easy as saying:

```
1 import mechanize
2
3 myBrowser = mechanize.Browser()
4
5 myBrowser.open("http://RealPython.com/practice/aphrodite.html")
```

We now have various information that the website returned to us stored in our `mechanize` browser as a "response" which we can return by calling the `response()` method. This response also has various methods that help us piece out information returned from the website:

```
1 >>> print myBrowser.response().geturl()
2
3 http://www.RealPython.com/practice/aphrodite.html
4
5 >>> print myBrowser.response().get_data()
6
7 <html>
8
9 <head>
10
11 <title>Profile: Aphrodite</title>
```

```

12
13 </head>
14
15 <body bgcolor="yellow">
16
17 <center>
18 <br><br>
19
20
21 
22
23 <h2>Name: Aphrodite</h2>
24
25 <br><br>
26
27 Favorite animal: Dove
28
29 <br><br>
30
31 Favorite color: Red
32
33 <br><br>
34
35 Hometown: Mount Olympus
36
37 </center>
38
39 </body>
40
41 </html>
42
43 >>>

```

Here we used the `geturl()` method to return the URL (i.e., the full address) of the webpage and the `get_data()` method to return the actual HTML code in the same way that we used `read()` with `urllib2`. We could then use Beautiful Soup or regular expressions to parse out the information we want from the string returned by the `get_data()` method.

But what if we have to submit information to the website? For instance, what if the information we want is behind a login page such as `[login.php (http://www.realpython.com/practice/login.php)]`? If we are trying to do things automatically, then we will need a way to automate the login process as well.

First, let's take a look at the HTML response provided by `login.php`:

```

1 import mechanize
2
3 myBrowser = mechanize.Browser()

```

```

4
5 myBrowser.open("http://RealPython.com/practice/login.php")
6
7 myResponse = myBrowser.response()
8
9 print myResponse.get_data()

```

This returns the following form (which you should take a look at in a regular browser as well to see how it appears):

```

1 >>>
2
3 <html>
4
5 <head>
6
7 <title>Log In</title>
8
9 </head>
10
11 <body bgcolor="yellow">
12
13 <center>
14
15 <br><br>
16
17 <h2>Please log in to access Mount Olympus:</h2>
18
19 <br><br>
20
21 <form name="login" action="login.php" method="post">
22
23 Username: <input type="text" name="user"><br>
24
25 Password: <input type="password" name="pwd"><br><br>
26
27 <input type="submit" value="Submit">
28
29 </form>
30
31 </center>
32
33 </body>
34
35 </html>
36
37 >>>

```

The code we see is HTML, but the page itself is written in another language called PHP. In this case, the PHP is creating the HTML that we see based on the information we provide. For instance, try logging into the page with an incorrect username and password, and you will see that the same page now includes a line of text to let you know: “Wrong username or password!” However, if you provide the correct login information (username of “zeus” and password of “ThunderDude”), you will be redirected to the [profiles.html](#) page.

For our purposes, the important section of HTML code is the login form, i.e., everything inside the `<form>` tags. We can see that there is a submission `<form>` named “login” that includes two `<input>` tags, one named “user” and the other named “pwd”. The third `<input>` is the actual “Submit” button. Now that we know the underlying structure of the form, we can return to mechanize to automate the login process.

```
1 import mechanize
2
3 myBrowser = mechanize.Browser()
4
5 myBrowser.open("http://RealPython.com/practice/login.php")
6
7 # select the form and fill in its fields
8
9 myBrowser.select_form("login")
10
11 myBrowser["user"] = "zeus"
12
13 myBrowser["pwd"] = "ThunderDude"
14
15 myResponse = myBrowser.submit() # submit form
16
17 print myResponse.geturl() # make sure we were redirected
```

We used the browser’s `select_form()` method to select the form, passing in the name “login” that we discovered by reading the HTML of the page. Once we had that form selected in the browser, we could then assign values to the different fields the same way we would assign dictionary values; we passed the value “zeus” to the field named “user” and the value “ThunderDude” to the field named “pwd”; once again, we knew what to call these fields by reading the “name” attribute assigned within each `<input>` HTML tag.

Once we filled in the form, we could submit this information to the webpage by using the browser’s `submit()` method, which returns a response in the same way that calling `open()` on a webpage would do. We displayed the URL of this response to make sure that our login submission worked; if we had provided an incorrect username or password then we would have been sent back to [login.php](#), but we see that we were successfully redirected to [profiles.html](#) as planned.

NOTE: We are always being encouraged to use long passwords with many different types of characters in them, and now you know the main reason: automated scripts like the one we just designed can be used by hackers to “brute force” logins by rapidly

trying to log in with many different usernames and passwords until they find a working combination. Besides this being highly illegal, almost all websites these days (including my practice form) will lock you out and report your IP address if they see you making too many failed requests, so don't try it!

We were able to retrieve the webpage form by name because mechanize includes its own HTML parser. We can use this parser through various browser methods as well to easily obtain other types of HTML elements. The `links()` method will return all the links appearing on the browser's current page as Link objects, which we can then loop over to obtain their addresses. For instance, if our browser is still on the [profiles.html](#) page, we could say:

```
1 >>>
2
3 for link in myBrowser.links():
4
5     print"Address:", link.absolute_url
6
7     print"Text:", link.text
8
9 Address: http://RealPython.com/practice/aphrodite.html
10
11 Text: Aphrodite
12
13 Address: http://RealPython.com/practice/poseidon.html
14
15 Text: Poseidon
16
17 Address: http://RealPython.com/practice/dionysus.html
18
19 Text: Dionysus
20
21 >>>
```

Each Link object has a number of attributes, including an `absolute_url` attribute that represents the address of the webpage (i.e., the “href” value) and a `text` attribute that represents the actual text that appears as a link on the webpage.

The mechanize browser provides many other methods to offer us the full functionality of a standard web browser. For instance, the browser's `back()` method simply takes us back one page, similar to hitting the “Back” button in an ordinary browser. We can also “click” on links in a page to follow them using the browser's `follow_link()` method.

Let's follow each of the links on the [profiles.html](#) page using the browser's `follow_link()` and `back()` methods, displaying the title of each webpage we visit by using the browser's `title()` method:

```
1 import mechanize
2
3 myBrowser = mechanize.Browser()
```

```

4 myBrowser.open("http://RealPython.com/practice/profiles.html")
5
6 for nextLink in myBrowser.links(): # follow each link on profiles.html
7
8     myBrowser.follow_link(nextLink)
9
10    print"Page title:", myBrowser.title() # display current page title
11
12    myBrowser.back() # return to profiles.html
13
14
15 print "Page title:", myBrowser.title() # back to profiles.html

```

By using the `follow_link()` method to open links, we avoid the trouble of having to add the rest of the URL path to each link. For instance, the first link on the page simply links to a page named “aphrodite.html” without including the rest of the URL; this is a relative URL, and mechanize wouldn’t know how to load this webpage if we passed it to the `open()` method. To open() this address, we would have to create an absolute URL by adding the rest of the web address, i.e., “http://RealPython.com/practice/aphrodite.html”.

The `follow_link()` method takes care of this problem for us since the Link objects all store absolute URL paths. Of course, in this case it still may have been more sensible to open() each of these links directly since this wouldn’t require loading as many pages. However, sometimes we need the ability to move back and forth between pages.

But how did our code do? The output appears as follows:

```

1 >>>
2
3 Page title: Profile: Aphrodite
4
5 Page title: Profile: Poseidon
6
7 Page title: Profile: Dionysus</title /> </head> <body bgcolor="yellow">
8 <center> <br><br>  <h2>Name: Dionysus</h2> <br><br> Hometown: Mount Olympus <br><br> Favorite animal:
10 Leopard <br> <br> Favorite Color: Wine </center> </body> </html>
11
12 Page title: All Profiles
13
14 >>>

```

Unfortunately, mechanize’s HTML parser couldn’t find the closing title tag for Dionysus because of the errant forward slash at the end, and we ended up gathering the rest of the page. When one parsing method fails us (in this case, the mechanize browser’s `title()` method) because of poorly written HTML, the best course of action is to turn to another parsing method - in this case, creating a BeautifulSoup object and extracting the webpage’s title from it. For instance:


```

1 import mechanize
2
3 from bs4 import BeautifulSoup
4
5 myBrowser = mechanize.Browser()
6
7 htmlPage = myBrowser.open("http://www.RealPython.com/practice/dionysus.html")
8
9 htmlText = htmlPage.get_data()
10
11 mySoup = BeautifulSoup(htmlText)
12
13 print mySoup.title.string

```

Notice that we didn't have to revisit using urllib2 since mechanize already provides the functionality of opening webpages and retrieving their HTML for us.

Review exercises:

1. Use mechanize to provide the correct username "zeus" and password "ThunderDude" to the login page submission form located at: <http://RealPython.com/practice/login.php>
2. Using BeautifulSoup, display the title of the current page to determine that you have been redirected to [profiles.html](#)
3. Use mechanize to return to [login.php](#) by going "back" to the previous page
4. Provide an incorrect username and password to the login form, then search the HTML of the returned webpage for the text "Wrong username or password!" to determine that the login process failed

Interact with websites in real-time

Sometimes we want to be able to fetch real-time data from a website that offers continually updated information. In the dark days before you learned Python programming, you would have been forced to sit in front of a browser, clicking the “Refresh” button to reload the page each time you want to check if updated content is available. Instead, we can easily automate this process using the `reload()` method of the mechanize browser.

As an example, let’s create a script that periodically checks Yahoo! Finance for a current stock quote for the “YHOO” symbol. The first step with any web scraping task is to figure out exactly what information we’re seeking. In this case, the webpage URL is <http://finance.yahoo.com/q?s=yhoo>. Currently, the stock price (as I see it) is 40.01, and so we view the page’s HTML source code and search for this number. Fortunately, it only occurs once in the code:

```
<span class="time_rtq_ticker"><span id="yfs_l84_yhoo">15.72</span></span>
```

Next, we check that the tag `` also only occurs once in the webpage, since we will need a way to uniquely identify the location of the current price. If this is the only `` tag with an `id` attribute equal to “yfs_l84_yhoo”, then we know we’ll be able to find it on the webpage later and extract the information we need from this particular pair of `` tags.

We’re in luck (this is the only `` tag with this `id`), so we can use mechanize and BeautifulSoup to find and display the current price, like so:

```
1 import mechanize
2
3 from bs4 import BeautifulSoup
4
5 myBrowser = mechanize.Browser()
6
7 htmlPage = myBrowser.open("http://finance.yahoo.com/q?s=yhoo")
8
9 htmlText = htmlPage.get_data()
10
11 mySoup = BeautifulSoup(htmlText)
12
13 # return a list of all the <span> tags where the id is 'yfs_l84_yhoo'
14
15 myTags = mySoup.find_all("span", id="yfs_l84_yhoo")
16
17 # take the BeautifulSoup string out of the first (and only) <span> tag
18
19 myPrice = myTags[0].string
20
21 print "The current price of YHOO is: {}".format(myPrice)
```

We needed to use `format()` to print the price because `myPrice` is not just an ordinary string; it’s actu-

ally a more complex BeautifulSoup string that has other information associated with it, and BeautifulSoup would try to display this other information as well if we had only said `print myPrice`.

Now, in order to repeatedly get the newest stock quote available, we'll need to create a loop that either uses the `reload()` method or loads the page in the browser each time. But first, we should check the Yahoo! Finance [terms of use](#) to make sure that this isn't in violation of their acceptable use policy. The terms state that we should not "use the Yahoo! Finance Modules in a manner that exceeds reasonable request volume [or] constitutes excessive or abusive usage," which seems reasonable enough. Of course, reasonable and excessive are entirely subjective terms, but the general rules of Internet etiquette suggest that you don't ask for more data than you need. Sometimes, the amount of data you "need" for a particular use might still be considered excessive, but following this rule is a good place to start.

In our case, an infinite loop that grabs stock quotes as quickly as possible is definitely more than we need, especially since it appears that Yahoo! only updates its stock quotes once per minute. Since we'll only be using this script to make a few webpage requests as a test, let's wait one minute in between each request. We can pause the functioning of a script by passing a number of seconds to the `sleep()` method of Python's `time` module, like so:

```
1 from time import sleep
2
3 print "I'm about to wait for five seconds..."
4
5 sleep(5)
6
7 print "Done waiting!"
```

Although we won't explore them here, Python's `time` module also includes various ways to get the current time in case we wished to add a "time stamp" to each price. Using the `sleep()` method, we can now repeatedly obtain real-time stock quotes:

```
1 from time import sleep
2
3 import mechanize
4
5 from bs4 import BeautifulSoup
6
7 # create a Browser object
8
9 myBrowser = mechanize.Browser()
10
11 # obtain 1 stock quote per minute for the next 3 minutes
12
13 for i in range(0, 3):
14
15     htmlPage = myBrowser.open("http://finance.yahoo.com/q?s=yhoo")
16
17     htmlText = htmlPage.get_data()
```

```

18     mySoup = BeautifulSoup(htmlText)
19
20
21     myTags = mySoup.find_all("span", id="yfs_l84_yhoo")
22
23
24     myPrice = myTags[0].string
25     print"The current price of YHOO is: {}".format(myPrice)
26
27     if i<2: # wait a minute if this isn't the last request
28
29         sleep(60)

```

If we had originally loaded the page once outside of the loop so that myBrowser already pointed to that URL, we also could have them called myBrowser.reload() instead of re-loading the page each time in order to refresh the page. This can mainly be useful when you want a piece of code to refresh a current page without having to worry about what the original URL of the page was.

Review exercises:

1. Repeat the example in this section to scrape YHOO stock quotes, but additionally include the current time of the quote as obtained from the Yahoo! Finance webpage; this time can be taken from part of a string inside another span tag that appears shortly after the actual stock price in the webpage's HTML

Chapter 15

Scientific computing and graphing

Use NumPy for matrix manipulation

If you are a scientist, an engineer, or the sort of person who couldn't survive a week without using MATLAB, chances are high that you will want to make use of the NumPy and SciPy packages to increase your Python coding abilities. Even if you don't fall into one of those categories, these tools can still be quite useful. This section will introduce you to a Python package that lets you store and manipulate matrices of data, and the next section will introduce an additional package that makes it possible to visualize data through endless varieties of graphs and charts.

The main package for scientific computing in Python is NumPy; there are a number of additional specialized packages, but most of these are based on the functionality offered by NumPy. To install NumPy, download the latest version [here for 32-bit Windows](#) or [here for 32-bit Mac](#), then run the automated installer. If you have a 64-bit system (including OS X 10.6 or later), you'll need to install an unofficial 64-bit release of SciPy (which includes Numpy), available [here](#) or [here](#). Debian/Ubuntu users can get NumPy by typing: `sudo apt-get install python-numpy`

Among many other possibilities, NumPy primarily offers an easy way to manipulate data stored in many dimensions. For instance, we usually think of a two-dimensional list as a “matrix” or a “table” that could be created by forming a “list of lists” in Python:

```
1 >>> matrix = [[1,2,3], [4,5,6], [7,8,9]]
2 >>> print matrix
3 [[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]]
4 >>>
```

We could then refer to the numbers at various row/column locations using index numbers. For instance:

```
1 >>> matrix[0][1]
2 2
3 >>>
```

Things get much more complicated, however, if we want to do anything more complicated with this two-dimensional list. For instance, what if we wanted to multiply every entry in our matrix by 2? That would require looping over every entry in every list inside the main list.

Let's create this same list using NumPy:

```
1 >>> from numpy import array
2 >>> matrix = array([[1,2,3], [4,5,6], [7,8,9]])
3 >>> print matrix
4 [[1 2 3]
5  [4 5 6]
6  [7 8 9]]
7 >>> matrix[0][1]
8 2
9 >>> matrix[0,1]
10 2
11 >>>
```

In this case, our matrix is referred to as a two-dimensional array. An array is different from a list because it can only hold similar entries (for instance, all numbers) whereas we could throw any sort of objects together into a list. However, there are many more ways we can create and control NumPy arrays.

NOTE: In NumPy, each dimension in an array is called an axis. Our example array has two axes. The total number of dimensions or axes is called the “rank” of a matrix, but these are really all terms for describing the same thing; just keep in mind that NumPy often refers to the term “axis” to mean a dimension of an array.

Another benefit, as we can already see, is that NumPy automatically knows to display our two-dimensional (“two axis”) array in two dimensions so that we can easily read its contents. We also have two options for accessing an entry, either by the usual indexing or by specifying the index number for each axis, separated by commas.

Remember to include the main set of square brackets when creating a NumPy array; even though the `array()` has parentheses, including square brackets is necessary when you want to type out the array entries directly. For instance, this is correct: `matrix = array([[1,2], [3,4]])`

Meanwhile, this would be INCORRECT because it is missing outer brackets: `matrix = array([1,2], [3,4])`

We have to type out the array this way because we could also have given a different input to create the `array()` - for instance, we could have supplied a list that is already enclosed in its own set of square brackets:

```
1 list = [[1,2], [3,4]]
2 matrix = array(list)
```

In this case, including the square brackets around `list` would be nonsensical.

Now, multiplying every entry in our matrix is as simple as working with an actual matrix:

```

1 >>> print matrix*2
2 [[ 2  4  6]
3  [ 8 10 12]
4  [14 16 18]]
5 >>>

```

NOTE: Even if you have no interest in using matrices for scientific computing, you still might find it helpful at some point to store information in a NumPy array because of its many helpful properties. For instance, perhaps you are designing a game and need an easy way to store, view and manipulate a grid of values with rows and columns. Rather than creating a list of lists or some other complicated structure, using a NumPy array is a simple way to store your two-dimensional data.

We can just as easily perform arithmetic using multi-dimensional arrays as well:

```

1 >>> secondMatrix = array([[5,4,3], [7,6,5], [9,8,7]])
2
3 >>> print secondMatrix - matrix
4 [[ 4  2  0]
5  [ 3  1 -1]
6  [ 2  0 -2]]
7 >>>

```

If you want to perform matrix multiplication, using the standard * symbol will perform basic multiplication by matching corresponding entries:

```

1 >>> print secondMatrix * matrix
2 [[ 5  8  9]
3  [28 30 30]
4  [63 64 63]]
5 >>>

```

To calculate an actual matrix dot product, we need to import and use the dot() function:

```

1 >>> from numpy import dot
2
3 >>> print dot(secondMatrix, matrix)
4 [[ 42  54  66]
5  [ 66  84 102]
6  [ 90 114 138]]
7
8 >>>

```

Two matrices can also be stacked vertically using vstack() or horizontally using hstack() if their axis sizes match:

```

1 >>> from numpy import vstack, hstack
2
3 >>> print vstack([matrix, secondMatrix]) # add secondMatrix below matrix
4
5 [[1 2 3]
6  [4 5 6]
7  [7 8 9]
8  [5 4 3]
9  [7 6 5]
10 [9 8 7]]
11
12 >>> print hstack([matrix, secondMatrix]) # add secondMatrix next to matrix
13
14 [[1 2 3 5 4 3]
15  [4 5 6 7 6 5]
16  [7 8 9 9 8 7]]
17
18 >>>

```

For basic linear algebra purposes, a few of the most commonly used NumPy array properties are also shown here briefly, as they are all fairly self-explanatory:

```

1 >>> print matrix.shape # a tuple of the axis lengths (3 x 3)
2 (3, 3)
3 >>> print matrix.diagonal() # array of the main diagonal entries
4 [1 5 9]
5 >>> print matrix.flatten() # a flat array of all entries
6 [1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9]
7 >>> print matrix.transpose() # mirror-image along the diagonal
8 [[1 4 7]
9  [2 5 8]
10 [3 6 9]]
11 >>> print matrix.min() # the minimum entry
12 1
13 >>> print matrix.max() # the maximum entry
14 9
15 >>> print matrix.mean() # the average value of all entries
16 5.0
17 >>> print matrix.sum() # the total of all entries
18 45
19 >>>

```

NOTE: If you're using Python 3.4, you already have some basic statistics functionality [built in](#) by default. However, this won't help out much with more advanced matrix manipulation!

We can also reshape arrays with the `reshape()` function to shift entries around:

```
1 >>> print matrix.reshape(9,1)
2 [[1]
3  [2]
4  [3]
5  [4]
6  [5]
7  [6]
8  [7]
9  [8]
10 [9]]
11 >>>
```

Of course, the total size of the reshaped array must match the original array's size. For instance, we couldn't have said `matrix.reshape(2,5)` because there would have been one extra entry created with

nothing left to fill it.

The `reshape()` function can be particularly helpful in combination with `arange()`, which is NumPy's equivalent to `range()` except that a NumPy array is returned. For instance, instead of typing out our sequential list of numbers into a matrix, we could have imported `arange()` and then reshaped the sequence into a two-dimensional matrix:

```
1 >>> from numpy import arange
2 >>> matrix = arange(1,10) # an array of numbers 1 through 9
3 >>> print matrix
4 [1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9]
5 >>> matrix = matrix.reshape(3,3)
6
7 >>> print matrix
8 [[1 2 3]
9  [4 5 6]
10 [7 8 9]]
>>>
```

Again, just like with `range()`, using `arange(1,10)` will return the numbers 1 through 9 because we stop just before getting to the last number in the range.

We have been working entirely with two-dimensional arrays since they are both the most commonly used and the easiest to grasp. However, just as we can create a “list of lists of lists”, NumPy allows us to create arrays of higher dimensions as well. For instance, we could create a simple three dimensional array with the following:

```
1 >>> array3d = array([[[1,2],[3,4]], [[5,6],[7,8]], [[9,10],[11,12]]])
2 >>> print array3d
3 [[[ 1  2]
4  [ 3  4]]
5
6  [[ 5  6]
```

```

7   [ 7  8]]
8
9   [[ 9 10]
10  [11 12]]]
11 >>>

```

An easier and safer way to create this particular array would be to reshape() an arange():

```

1 >>> array3d = arange(1,13)
2 >>> array3d = array3d.reshape(3,2,2)
3 >>>

```

Even if a multi-dimensional array doesn't use a sequential list of numbers, sometimes it's easier to create the flat, one-dimensional list of entries and then reshape() the array into the desired shape instead of struggling with many nested sets of square brackets.

NumPy also has its own set of random functionality, which is particularly useful for creating multi-dimensional arrays of random numbers. For instance, we can easily create a 3x3 matrix of random numbers like so:

```

1 >>> from numpy import random
2 >>> print random.random([3,3])
3 [[ 0.738695  0.52153367 0.58619601]
4  [ 0.38232677 0.15941573 0.66080916]
5  [ 0.61752779 0.60236187 0.5914662 ]]
6 >>>

```

NumPy offers much more functionality than the basics shown here, although everything covered should be sufficient for most tasks involving basic array storage and manipulation. For an incredibly thorough and mathematical introduction, see the [Guide to NumPy](#). There is also a good but incomplete [Tentative NumPy Tutorial](#) available and a NumPy “work in progress” [User Guide](#).

For scientists and engineers, another indispensable tool is SciPy, which works on top of NumPy to offer a mind-numbingly vast set of tools for data manipulation and visualization. SciPy is a very powerful and very extensive collection of functions and algorithms that are too advanced to cover in an introductory course, but it's worth researching if you have a particular advanced topic already in mind. Some of the tools available include functionality for tasks involving optimization, integration, statistical tests, signal processing, Fourier transforms, image processing and more. For a thorough introduction to additional functionality available in SciPy, there is a [draft reference guide](#) that covers most major topics. SciPy is available for download [here](#) for 32-bit and [here](#) for 64-bit machines.

Review exercises:

1. Create a 3 x 3 NumPy array named firstMatrix that includes the numbers 3 through 11 by using arange() and reshape()
2. Display the minimum, maximum and mean of all entries in firstMatrix

3. Square every entry in `firstMatrix` using the `**` operator, and save the results in an array named `secondMatrix`
4. Use `vstack()` to stack `firstMatrix` on top of `secondMatrix` and save the results in an array named `thirdMatrix`
5. Use `dot()` to calculate the dot product of `thirdMatrix` by `firstMatrix`
6. Reshape `thirdMatrix` into an array of dimensions $3 \times 3 \times 2$

Use matplotlib for plotting graphs

The matplotlib library works with NumPy to provide tools for creating a wide variety of two-dimensional figures for visualizing data. If you have ever created graphs in MATLAB, matplotlib in many ways directly recreates this experience within Python. Figures can then be exported to various formats in order to save out pictures or documents.

You will first need to download and install both NumPy (see the previous section) and matplotlib. Windows and OS X users can download an automated matplotlib installer [here](#). Debian/Linux users can get matplotlib by typing the command: `sudo apt-get install python-matplotlib`

There are a few modules included in the matplotlib package, but we will only work with the basic plotting module, pyplot. We can import this functionality as follows:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
```

This part of the code might take a little time to run - there is a lot of code being imported with this line! We decided to rename pyplot to the name “plt” to save a little space and effort since we’ll be typing it a lot. Plotting a simple graph is in fact quite simple to do.

Try out this short script:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 plt.plot([1,2,3,4,5], [2,4,6,8,10])
3 plt.show()
```

We created a plot, supplying a list of x-coordinate points and a matching list of y-coordinate points. When we call `plt.show()`, a new window appears, displaying a graph of our five (x,y) points. Our interactive window is essentially locked while this plot window is open, and we can only end the script and return to a new prompt in the interactive window once we’ve closed the graph.

NOTE: We’ll stick to using scripts to plot rather than typing commands into the interactive window. Using Windows, you should also have no problems copying this code line-by-line into the interactive window. However, newer versions of OS X have difficulty responding to `show()`. Meanwhile, IDLE in Linux can correctly show() a plot from an interactive window, but then IDLE will need to be restarted. We’ll discuss other options and alternatives for displaying and interacting with plots at the end of this section.

When plotting, we don’t even have to specify the horizontal axis points; if we don’t include any, matplotlib will assume that we want to graph our y values against sequential x axis increasing by one!

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 plt.plot([2,4,6,8,10])
3 plt.show()
```

However, this isn’t exactly the same graph because, as always, Python begins counting at 0 instead of 1, which is what we now see for the horizontal axis values as well.

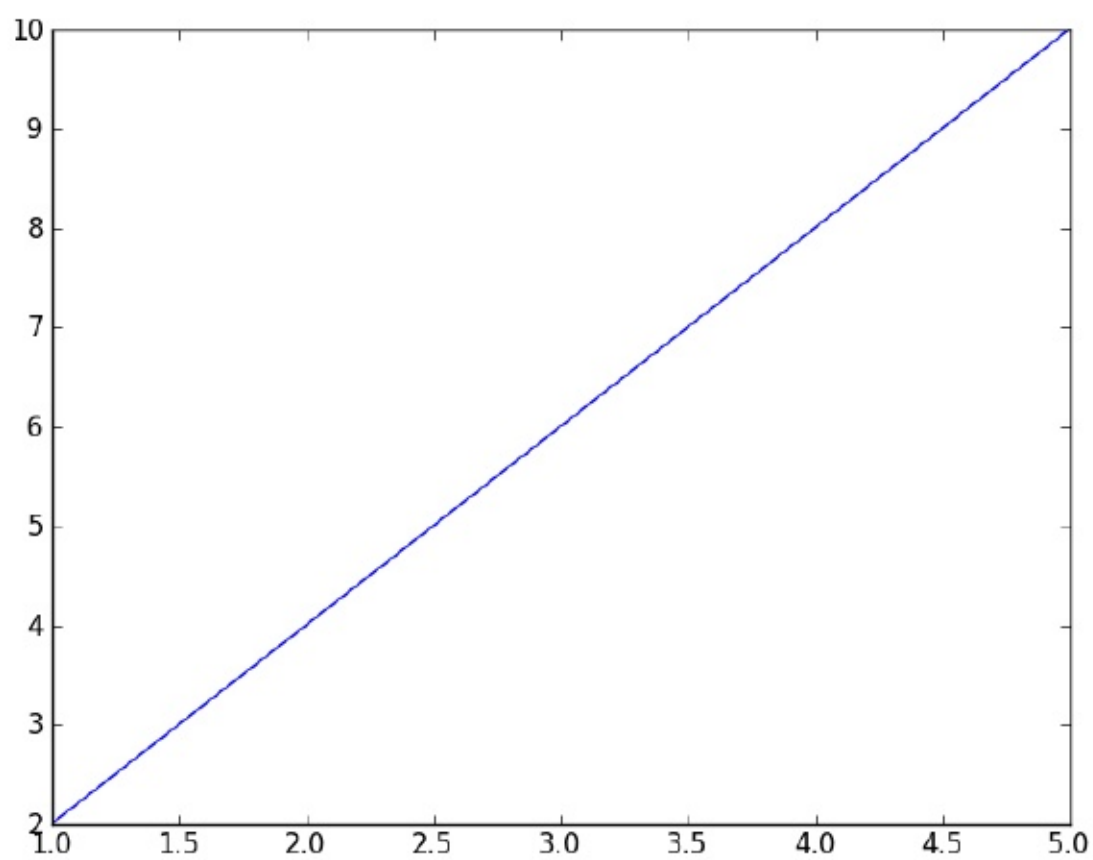


Figure 15.1: ine_1_to_5

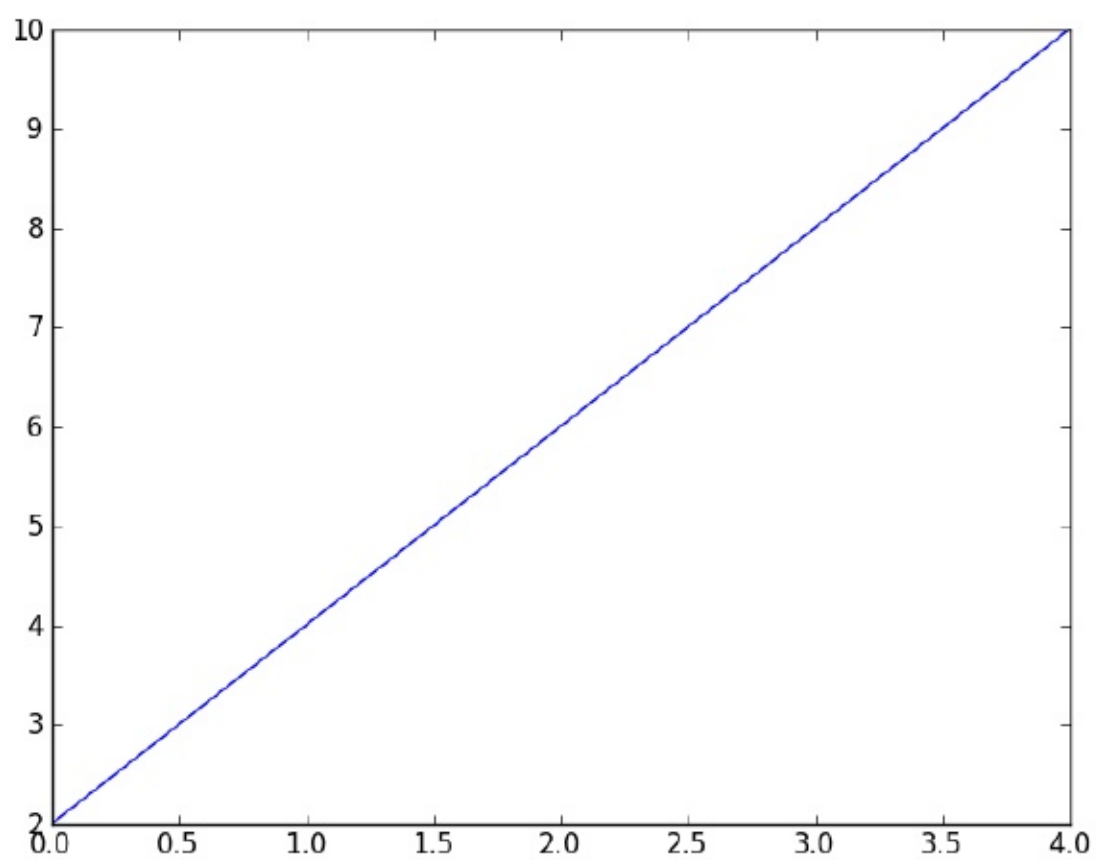


Figure 15.2: line_o_to_4

There is an optional “formatting” argument that can be inserted into `plot()` after specifying the points to be plotted. This argument specifies the color and style of lines or points to draw. Unfortunately, the standard is borrowed from MATLAB and (compared to most Python) the formatting is not very intuitive to read or remember. The default value is “solid blue line”, which would be represented by the format string “b-”. If we wanted to plot green circular dots connected by solid lines instead, we would use the format string “g-o” like so:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 plt.plot([2,4,6,8,10], "g-o")
3 plt.show()
```

Figure 15.3: styled_line

For reference, the full list of possible formatting combinations can be found [here](#).

Plotting wouldn’t be very convenient if we had to organize everything into lists ourselves first; matplotlib works with NumPy to accept arrays as well. (Even if you can get away with using a basic list, it’s a good idea to stick with arrays in case you later discover that you do need to modify the numbers in some way.) For instance, to create our previous graph, we could use `arange()` to return an array of the same numbers:

```

1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 plt.plot(arange(2,12,2), "g-o")
4 plt.show() # displays the same graph as the previous example

```

Here, we used the optional third argument of `arange()`, which specifies the step. The step is the amount by which to increase each subsequent number, so saying `arange(2,12,2)` gives us an array of numbers beginning at 2, increasing by 2 every step, and ending before 12. (In fact, this third step argument works exactly the same way for the built-in `range()` function as well.)

To plot multiple sets of points, we add them to `plot()` as additional arguments:

```

1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 xPoints = arange(1,21)
4 baseline = arange(0,20)
5 plt.plot(xPoints, baseline**2, "g-o", xPoints, baseline, "r-^")
6 plt.show()

```

This isn't a very pretty graph, though. Fortunately, there are plenty of things we can do to improve the layout and formatting. First of all, let's change the axes so that our points don't go off the corners of the graph:

```

1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 xPoints = arange(1,21)
4 baseline = arange(0,20)
5 plt.plot(xPoints, baseline**2, "g-o", xPoints, baseline, "r-^")
6 plt.axis([0, 21, 0, 400])
7 plt.show()

```

We define the boundaries of the displayed axes with a list of the four points in the order [min X, max X, min Y, max Y] - in this case, we increased the maximum value that the x-axis extended from 20 to 21 so that the last two points don't appear halfway off the graph.

Now we're starting to get somewhere useful, but nothing is labeled yet. Let's add a title, a legend and some titles for the axes:

```

1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 xPoints = arange(1,21)
4 baseline = arange(0,20)
5 plt.plot(xPoints, baseline**2, "g-o", xPoints, baseline, "r-^")
6 plt.axis([0, 21, 0, 400])
7 plt.title("Amount of Python learned over time")
8 plt.xlabel("Days")
9 plt.ylabel("Standardized knowledge index score")

```

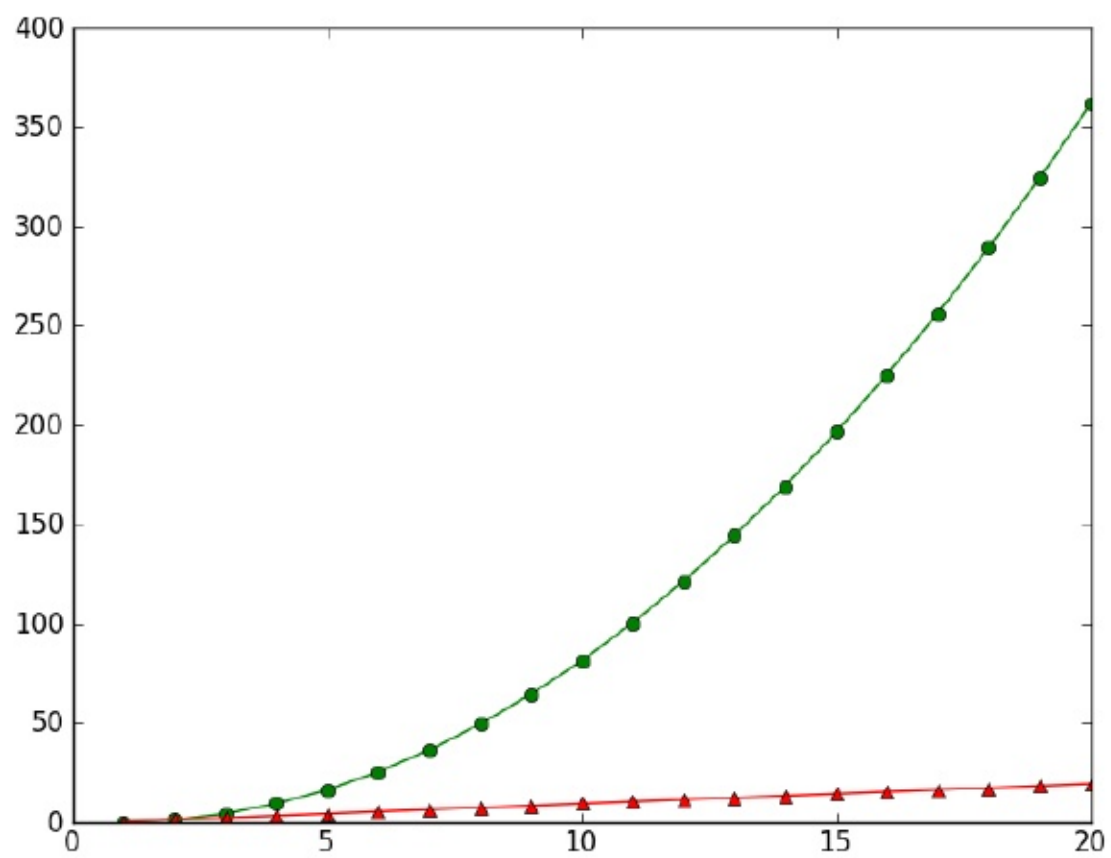



Figure 15.4: two_lines_runoff.png

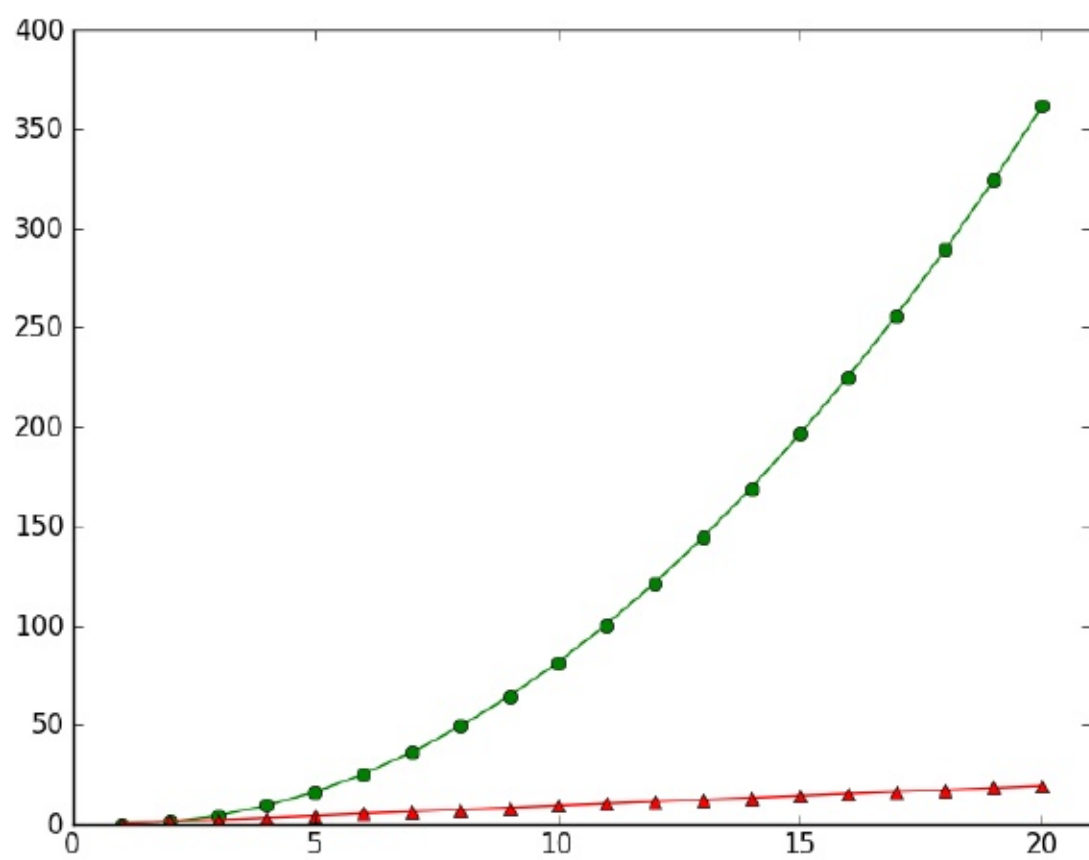


Figure 15.5: two_lines_shifted

```
10 plt.legend(("Real Python", "Other course"), loc=2)
11 plt.show()
```

Figure 15.6: two_lines_legend

There are many more complicated ways to create a legend, but the simplest is to supply a tuple that lists the labels to be applied to all the plotted points in order. We specified `loc=2` in the legend because we want the legend to appear in the top left corner, while the default is for the legend to appear in the top right corner. Unless you're making graphs very frequently, it's near impossible to remember the particular detail that `loc=2` corresponds to the top left corner along with so many other cryptic formatting details; the best thing to do in this situation is to search the web for a relevant term like "matplotlib legend". In this case, you'll quickly be directed to the [matplotlib legend guide](#) that offers, among many other details, a table providing legend location codes.

Another frequently used type of plot in basic data visualization is a bar chart. Let's start with a very simple example of a bar chart, which uses the `bar()` plotting function:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 plt.bar(arange(0,10), arange(1,21,2))
```

```
4 plt.show()
```

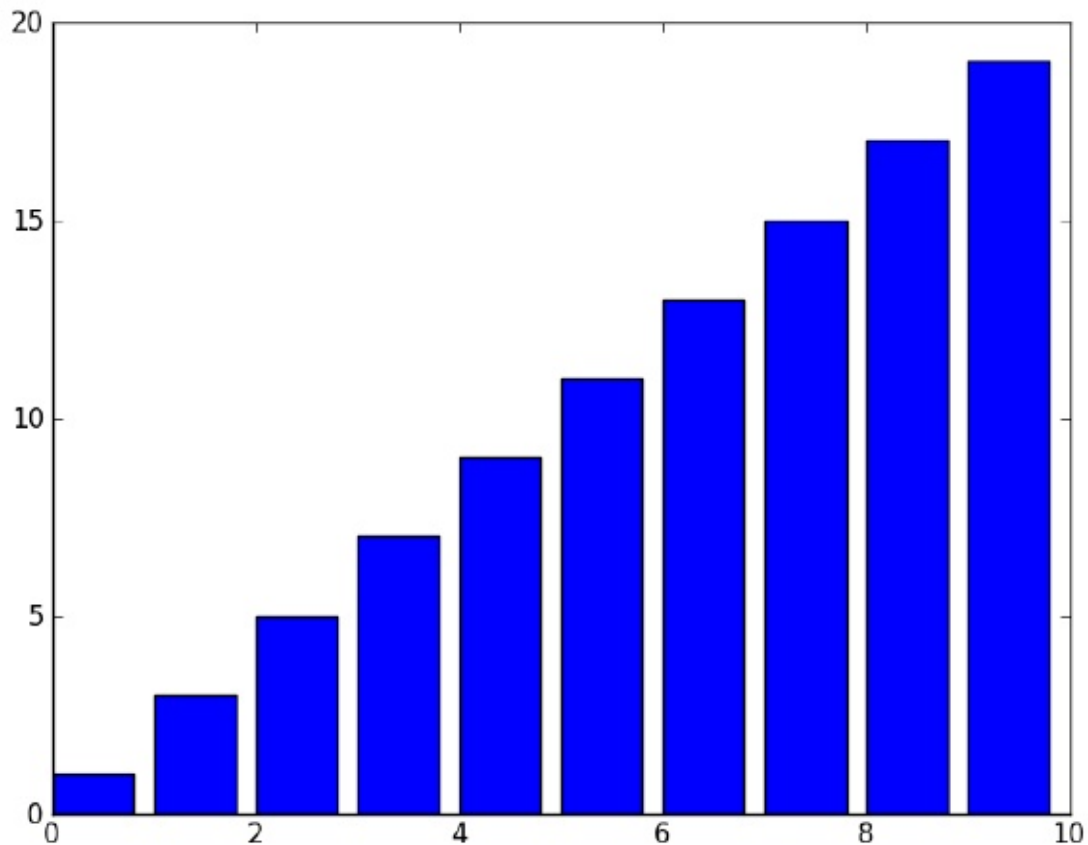


Figure 15.7: basicBars

The first argument takes a list or an array of the x-axis locations for each bar's left edge; in this case, we placed the left sides of our bars along the numbers from 0 through 9. The second argument of `bar()` is a list or an array of the ordered bar values; here we supplied the odd numbers 1 through 19 for our bar heights. The bars automatically have widths of 1, although this can also be changed by setting the optional `width` argument:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 plt.bar(arange(0,10), arange(1,21,2), width=.5)
4 plt.show()
```

Often we will want to compare two or more sets of bars on a single plot. To do this, we have to space them out along the x-axis so that each set of bars appears next to each other. We can multiply `arange()` by some factor in order to leave space, since in this case we care more about placing our bars in the correct order rather than specifying where on the x-axis they go:

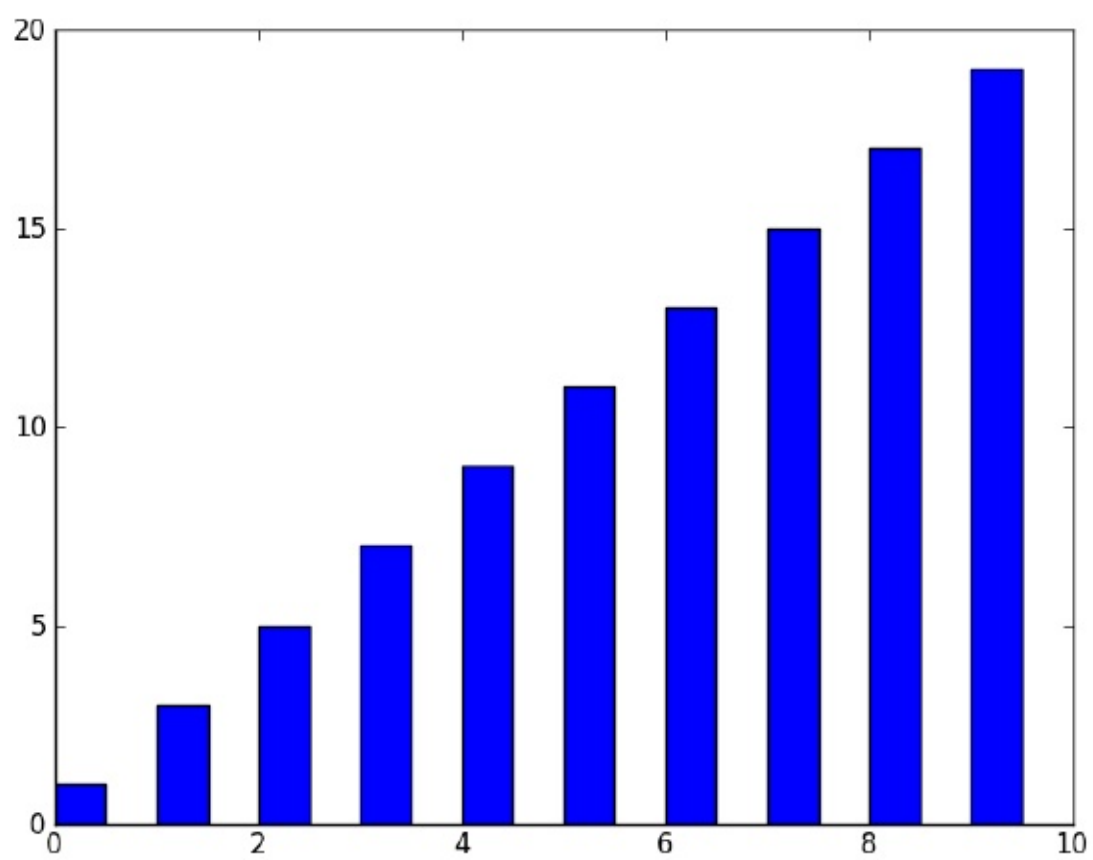


Figure 15.8: bar_chart_spread

```

1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 plt.bar(arange(0,10)*2, arange(1,21,2))
4 plt.bar(arange(0,10)*2 + 1, arange(1,31,3), color="red")
5 plt.show()

```

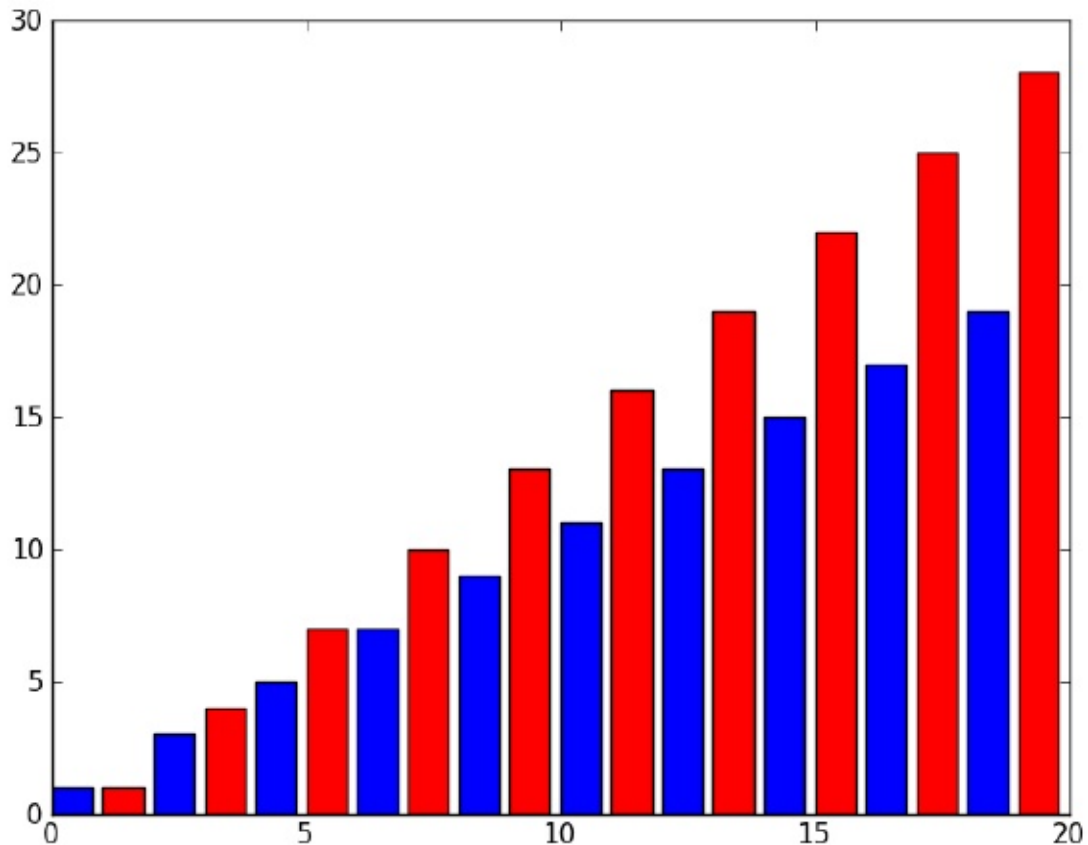


Figure 15.9: doubleBarsFat

For the x-axis of the first set of bars, we supplied the even numbers 0 through 18 by multiplying every number in our `arange()` by 2. This allows us to leave some space for the second set of bars, which we place along each of the even numbers 1 through 19.

However, the automatic numbering provided along the x-axis is meaningless now. We can change this by giving locations to label along the x-axis with the `xticks()` function. While we're at it, let's also space out each pair of bars, leaving a blank space between each grouping so that the pairs are more apparent:

```

1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 plt.bar(arange(0,10)*3, arange(1,21,2))

```

```

4 plt.bar(arange(0,10)*3 + 1, arange(1,31,3), color="red")
5 plt.xticks(arange(0,10)*3 + 1, arange(1,11), fontsize=20)
6 plt.show()

```

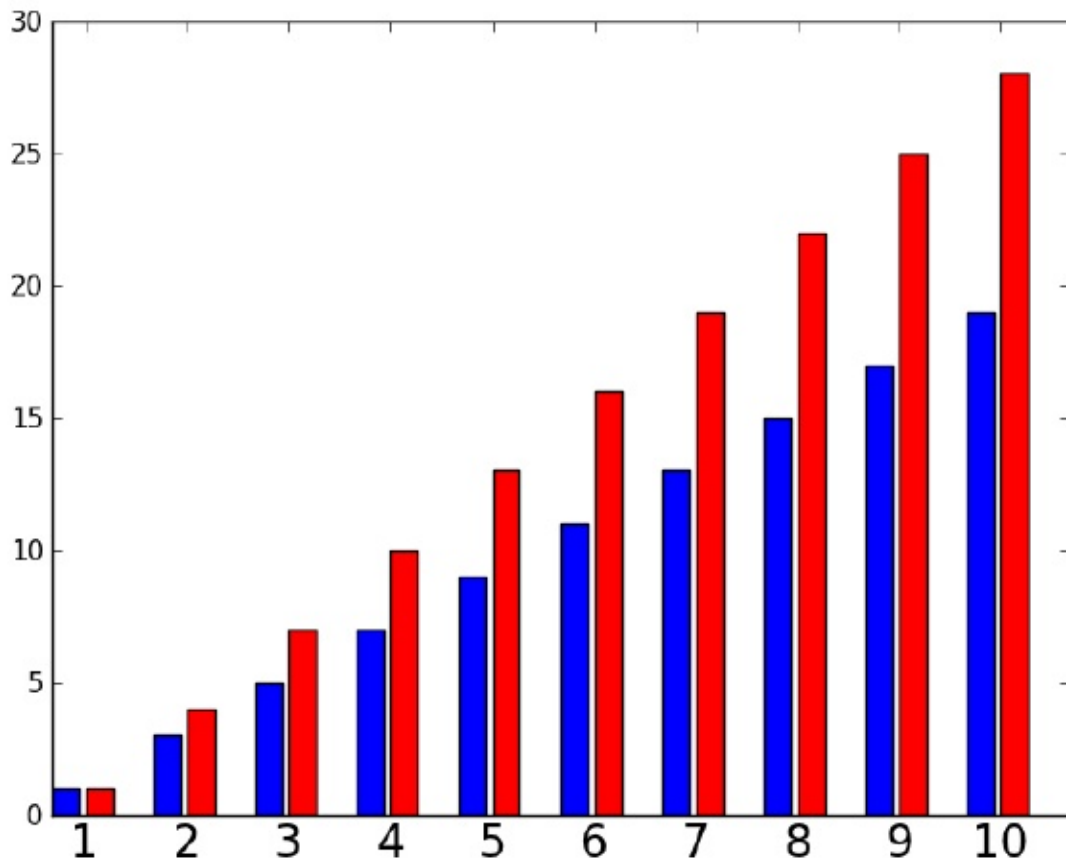


Figure 15.10: double_bars_spread

Since we wanted to show the x-axis labels in between each of our pairs of bars, we specified the left side of the second (red) set of bars as the position to show the label. We then gave the numbers 1 through 10 as the actual labels to display; we could just as easily have used a list of strings as labels as well. Finally, we also specified a larger font size for better readability.

~~Again, we can also add axis labels, a graph title, a legend, etc. in the same way as with any other plot:~~

```

1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import arange
3 plt.bar(arange(0,10)*3, arange(1,21,2))
4 plt.bar(arange(0,10)*3 + 1, arange(1,31,3), color="red")
5 plt.xticks(arange(0,10)*3 + 1, arange(1,11), fontsize=20)
6 plt.title("Coffee consumption due to sleep deprivation")
7 plt.xlabel("Group number")

```

```
8 plt.ylabel("Cups of coffee consumed")
9 plt.legend(("Control group", "Test group"), loc=2)
10 plt.show()
```

Figure 15.11: double_bars_labeled

Another commonly used type of graph is the histogram, which is notoriously difficult to create in other programs like Microsoft Excel. We can make simple histograms very easily using matplotlib with the `hist()` function, which we supply with a list (or array) of values and the number of bins to use. For instance, we can create a histogram of 10,000 normally distributed (Gaussian) random numbers binned across 20 possible bars with the following, which uses NumPy's `random.randn()` function to generate an array of normal random numbers:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import random
3 plt.hist(random.randn(10000), 20)
4 plt.show()
```

Often we want to add some text to a graph or chart. There are a number of ways to do this, but

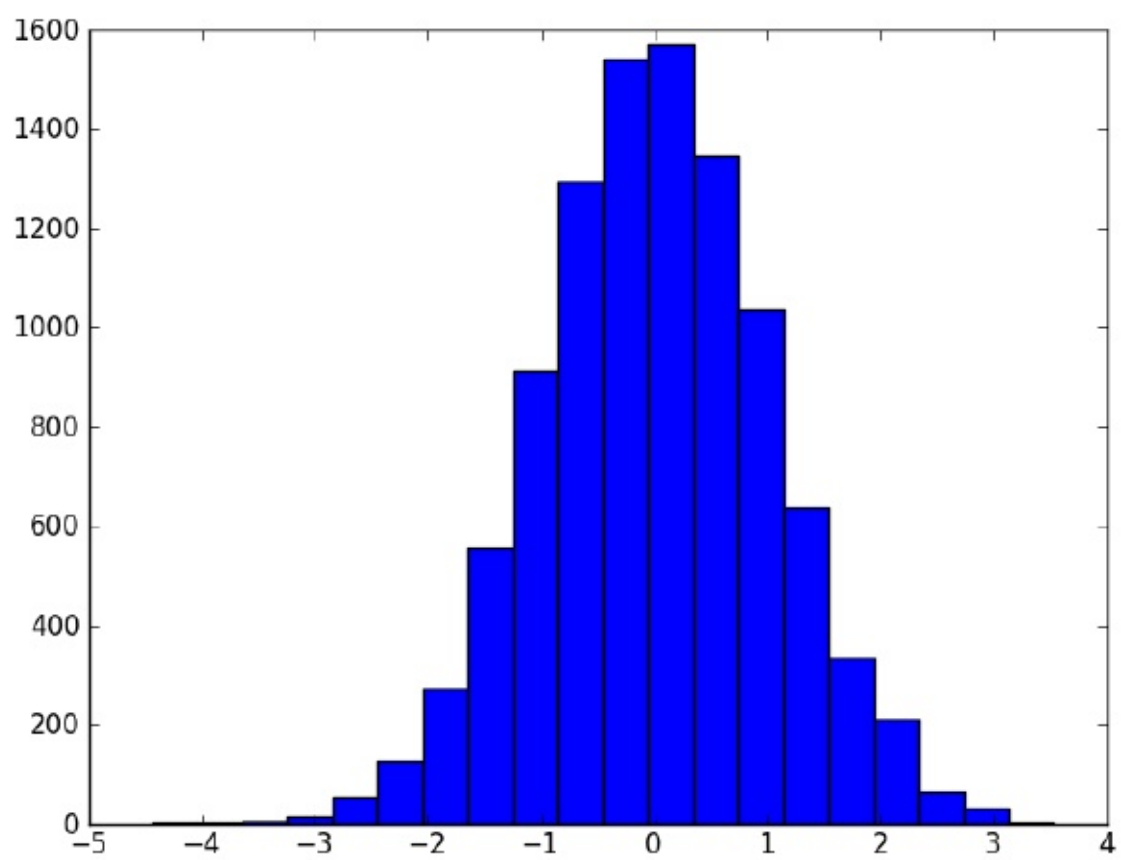


Figure 15.12: histogram

adding graph annotations is a very detailed topic that can quickly become case-specific. For one short example, let's point out the expected average value on our histogram, complete with an arrow:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import random
3 plt.hist(random.randn(10000), 20)
4 plt.annotate("expected mean", xy=(0, 0), xytext=(0, 300), ha="center",
5 arrowprops=dict(facecolor='black'), fontsize=20)
6 plt.show()
```

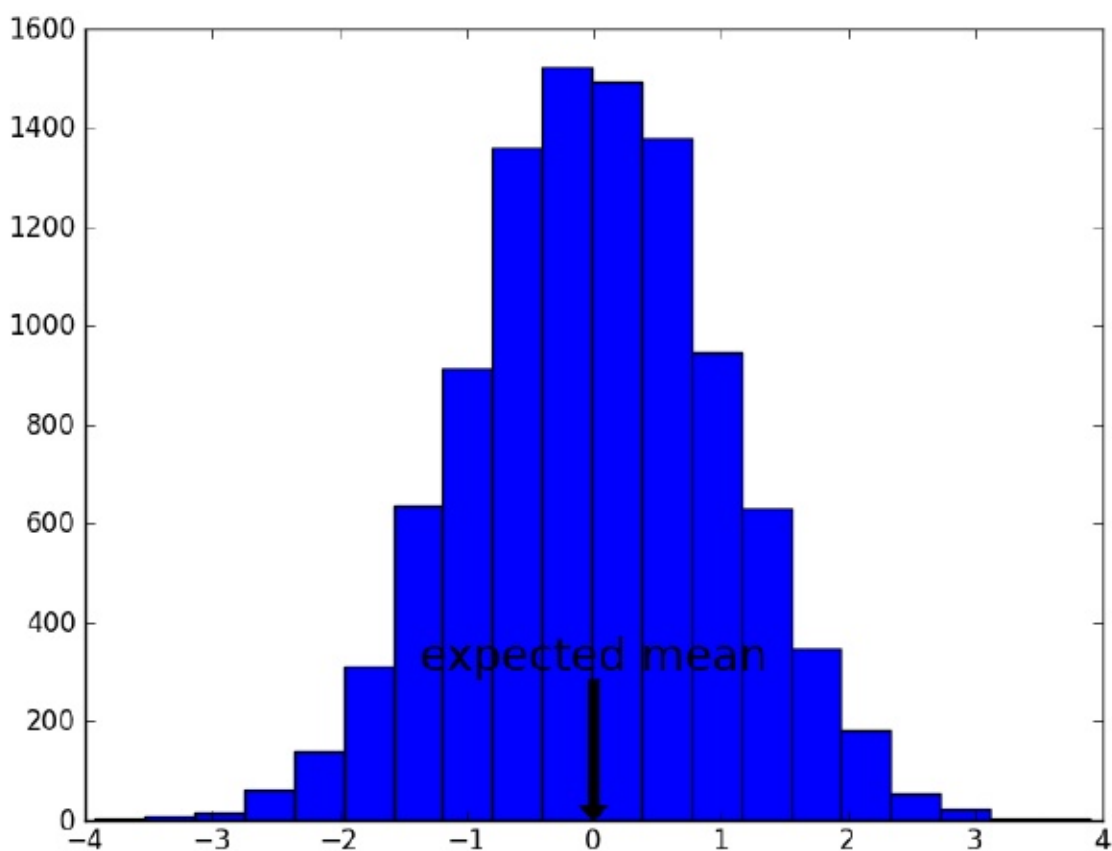


Figure 15.13: histogram_labeled

When we call `annotate()`, first we provide the string of text that we want to appear. This is followed by the location to be annotated (i.e., where the arrow points) and the location of the text. We optionally say that the text should be centered in terms of horizontal alignment using `ha="center"`, and then we add an “arrow prop” that will point from the text (centered at the point `xytext`) to the annotation point (centered at the point `xy`). This arrow takes a dictionary of definitions, although we only provide one - namely that the arrow should be colored black. Finally, we specify a large font size of 20.

We can even include mathematical expressions in our text by using a writing style called TeX markup language. This will be familiar to you if you've ever used LaTeX, although a brief introduction for use in matplotlib can be found [here](#). As a simple example, let's make our annotation a little more scientific by adding the symbol $\hat{\mu}$ with a "hat" over-line to show the predicted mean value:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2 from numpy import random
3 plt.hist(random.randn(10000), 20)
4 plt.annotate(r"$\hat{\mu} = 0$", xy=(0, 0), xytext=(0, 300), ha="center",
5 arrowprops=dict(facecolor='black'), fontsize=20)
6 plt.show()
```

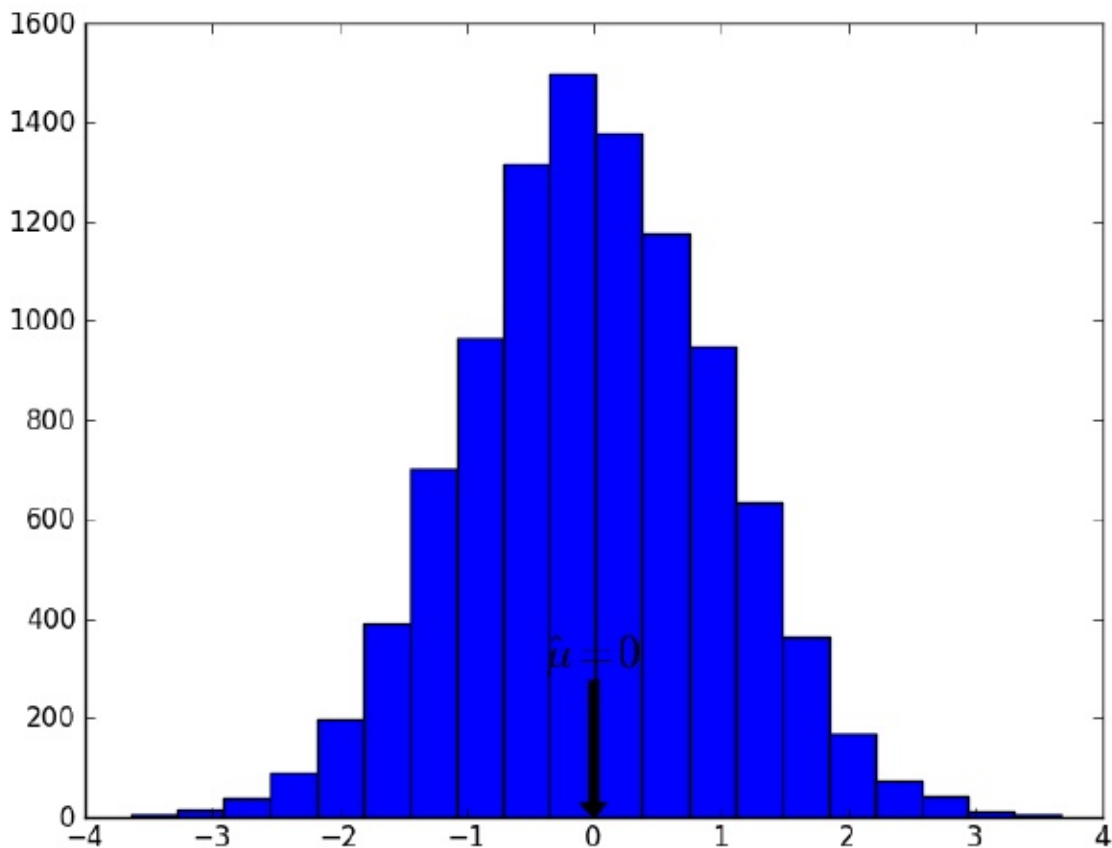


Figure 15.14: histogram_with_mu

The text expression is prefaced with an “r” to let Python know that it’s a “raw” string, meaning that the backslashes should not be interpreted as special characters. Then the full TeX string is enclosed in dollar signs. Again, a full overview of TeX expressions is beyond the scope of this course, but it’s usually a fairly simple matter to find a similar example to what you want to create and then modify it to suit your needs.

Once we have a chart created, chances are that we'll want to be able to save it somewhere. It turns out that this process is even easier than writing other kinds of files, because matplotlib allows us to save PNG images, SVG images, PDF documents and PostScript files by simply specifying the type of file to use and then calling the `savefig()` function. For instance, instead of displaying out histogram on the screen, let's save it out as both a PNG image and a PDF file to our chapter 11 output folder:

```
1 from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2
3 from numpy import random
4
5 plt.hist(random.randn(10000), 20)
6
7 path = "C:/Real Python/Course materials/Chapter 11/Practice files/Output/"
8
9 plt.savefig(path+"histogram.png")
10
11 plt.savefig(path+"histogram.pdf")
```

NOTE: When using pyplot, if you want to both save a figure and display it on the screen, make sure that you save it first before displaying it! Because `show()` pauses your code and because closing the display window destroys the graph, trying to save the figure after calling `show()` will only result in an empty file.

Finally, when you're initially tweaking the layout and formatting of a particular graph, you might want to change parts of the graph without re- running an entire script to re-display the graph. Unfortunately, on some systems matplotlib doesn't work well with IDLE when it comes to creating an interactive process, but there are a couple options available if you do want this functionality. One simple work-around is simply to save out a script specifically to create the graph, then continually modify and rerun this script. Another possibility is to install the [IPython](#) package, which creates an "interactive" version of Python that will allow you to work with a graphics window that's already open. A simpler but less user-friendly solution is to run Python from the Windows command line or Mac/Linux Terminal (see the Interlude: Install Packages section for instructions on how to do this). In either case, you will then be able to turn on matplotlib's "interactive mode" for a given plot using the `ion()` function, like so:

```
1 >>> from matplotlib import pyplot as plt
2
3 >>> plt.ion()
4
5 >>>
```

You can then create a plot as usual, without having to call the `show()` function to display it, and then make changes to the plot while it is still being displayed by typing commands into the interactive window.

Although we've covered the most commonly used basics for creating plots, the functionality offered in matplotlib is [incredibly extensive](#). If you have an idea in mind for a particular type of data visualization, no matter how complex, the best way to get started is usually to browse the [matplotlib gallery](#) for something that looks similar and then make the necessary modifications to the example code.

Review exercises:

1. Recreate all the graphs shown in this section by writing your own scripts without referring to the provided code
2. It is a [well-documented fact](#) that the number of pirates in the world is correlated with a rise in global temperatures. Write a script “pirates.py” that visually examines this relationship:
 - Read in the file “pirates.csv” from the Chapter 11 practice files folder.
 - Create a line graph of the average world temperature in degrees Celsius as a function of the number of pirates in the world, i.e., graph Pirates along the x-axis and Temperature along the y-axis.
 - Add a graph title and label your graph's axes.
 - Save the resulting graph out as a PNG image file.
 - Bonus: Label each point on the graph with the appropriate Year; you should do this “programmatically” by looping through the actual data points rather than specifying the individual position of each annotation.

Chapter 16

Graphical User Interface

Add GUI elements with EasyGUI

We’ve made a few pretty pictures with matplotlib and manipulated some files, but otherwise we have limited ourselves to programs that are generally invisible and occasionally spit out text. While this might be good enough for most purposes, there are some programs that could really benefit from letting the user “point and click” - say, a script you wrote to rename a folder’s worth of files that your technologically impaired friend now wants to use. For this, we need to design a graphical user interface (referred to as a GUI and pronounced “gooey” - really).

When we talk about GUIs, we usually mean a full GUI application where everything about the program happens inside a window full of visual elements (as opposed to a text-based program). Designing good GUI applications can be incredibly difficult because there are so many moving parts

to manage; all the pieces of an application constantly have to be listening to each other and to the user, and you have to keep updating all the visual elements so that the user only sees the most recent version of everything.

Instead of diving right into the complicated world of making GUI applications, let’s first add some individual GUI elements to our code. That way, we can still improve the experience for the person using our program without having to spend endless hours designing and coding it.

We’ll start out in GUI programming with a module named EasyGUI. First, you’ll need to download this package:

Windows: If you have easy_install set up, then you can install the package by typing “easy_install easygui” at a command prompt. Otherwise, [download](#) the compressed .zip file, unzip it, and install the package by running Python on setup.py from the command prompt as described in the installation section.

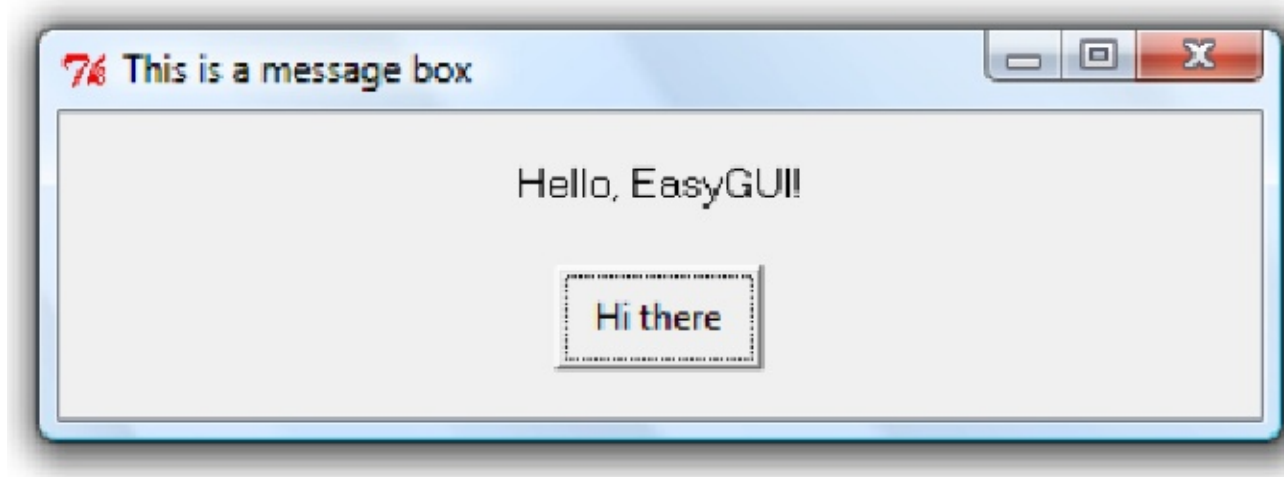
OS X: If you have easy_install set up, then you can install the package by typing “sudo easy_install easygui” into the Terminal. Otherwise, [download](#) the compressed .tar.gz file, decompress it, then install the package by running Python on setup.py from Terminal as described in the installation section.

Debian/Linux: `sudo apt-get install python-easygui`

EasyGUI is different from other GUI modules because it doesn't rely on events. Most GUI applications are event-driven, meaning that the flow of the program depends on actions taken by the user; this is usually what makes GUI programming so complicated, because any object that might change in response to the user has to "listen" for different "events" to occur. By contrast, EasyGUI is structured linearly like any function; at some point in our code, we display some visual element on the screen, use it to take input from the user, then return that user's input to our code and proceed as usual.

Let's start by importing the functionality from EasyGUI into the interactive window and displaying a simple message box:

```
1 >>> from easygui import *  
2 >>> msgbox("Hello, EasyGUI!", "This is a message box", "Hi there")
```



'Hi there' >>>

When you run the second line of code, something like the window above should have appeared.

On Mac, it will look more like this:

And in Ubuntu:

If nothing appears, see the box below. For the sake of the majority, I'll be sticking to screenshots from a Windows GUI perspective only.

We used the `msgbox()` to generate a new box that includes a message, a window title, and button text that we provided, in that order. (The default value for the button text would be "OK" if we hadn't provided a third argument.) When the user clicks the button, EasyGUI returns the value of the button's text, and we're back to the interactive prompt.

NOTE: EasyGUI uses a toolkit called Tkinter, which we will get to use in the next section. IDLE uses Tkinter to run as well. You might run into problems with freezing windows, etc., because of disagreements between the new windows you create and the IDLE window itself. If you think this might be happening, you can always try running your code or script by running Python from the command prompt (Windows) or Terminal (Mac/Linux).



Figure 16.1: message_box_mac

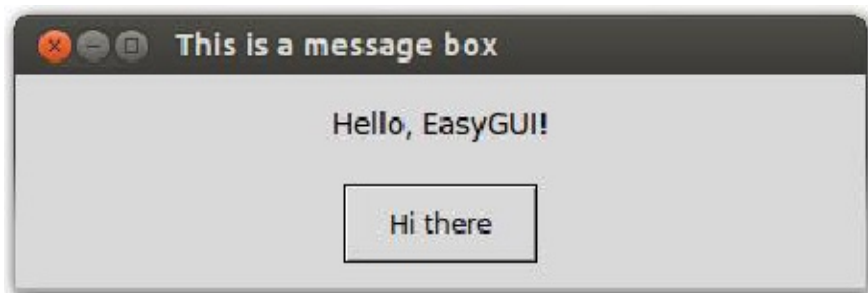
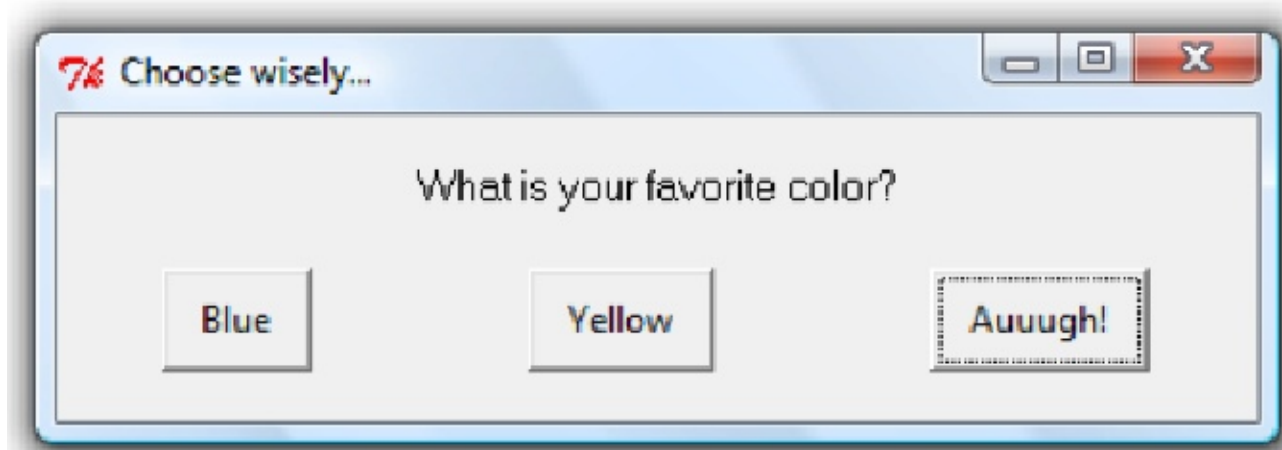


Figure 16.2: message_box_ubuntu

Notice that when we ran the previous code, clicking the button returned the value that was in the button text back to the interactive window. In this case, returning the text of the button clicked by the user wasn't that informative, but we can also provide more than one choice by using a `buttonbox()` and providing a tuple of button values:

```
1 >>> choices = ("Blue", "Yellow", "Auuugh!")
2 >>> buttonbox("What is your favorite color?", "Choose wisely...", choices)
```



```
'Auuugh!' >>>
```

Now we were able to tell that our user chose “Auuugh!” as the favorite color, and we could set that return value equal to a variable to be used later in our code.

There are a number of other ways to receive input from the user through easyGUI to suit your needs. For starters, try out the following lines a few times each and see what values they return based on the

different choices you select:

```
1 >>> choices = ("Blue", "Yellow", "Auuugh!") # tuple of choices
2
3 >>> title = "Choose wisely..." # window title
4
5 >>> indexbox("What is your favorite color?", title, choices)
6
7 >>> choicebox("What is your favorite color?", title, choices)
8
9 >>> multchoicebox("What are your favorite colors?", title, choices)
10
11 >>> enterbox("What is your favorite color?", title)
12
13 >>> passwordbox("What is your favorite color? (I won't tell.)", title)
14
15 >>> textbox("Please describe your favorite color:")
```

Another useful feature provided by EasyGUI is a simple way for the user to select a file through a standard file dialog box:

```
>>> fileopenbox("message", "title", "*.txt")
```

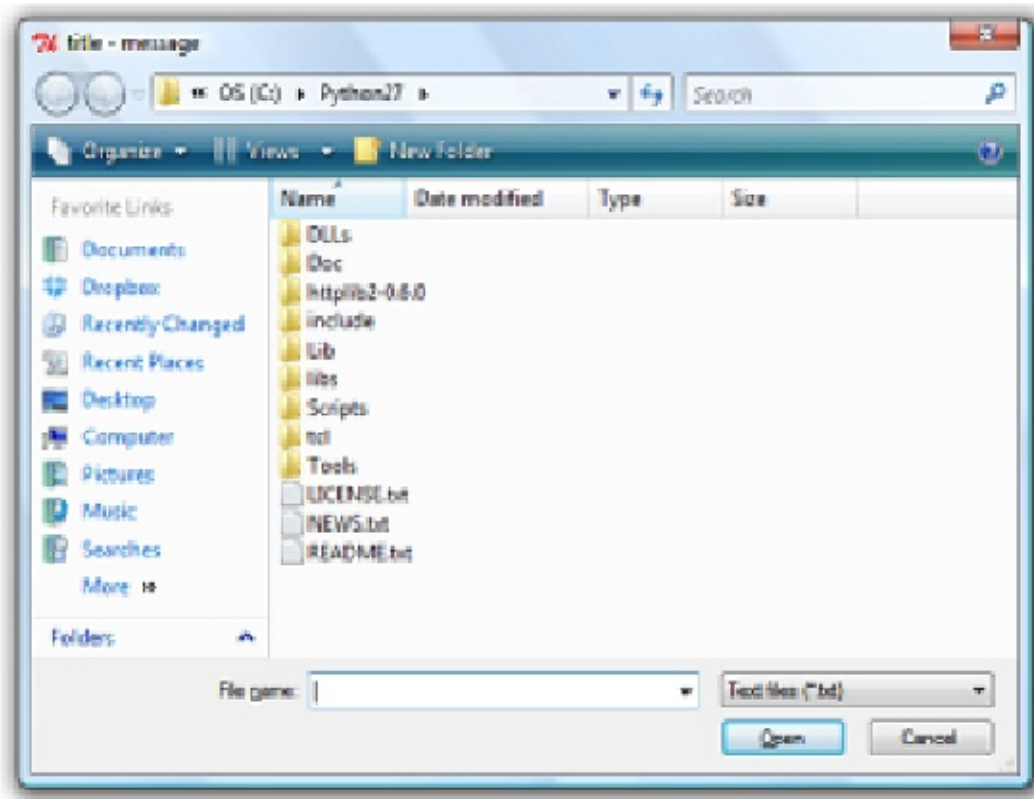


Figure 16.3: open_dialog

The third argument we passed to `fileopenbox()` was the type of file we want the user to open, which we specify as a string by using a wildcard symbol followed by the name of the file extension. This automatically filters the viewable files to those that match the “.txt” extension, although the user still has the option to change this box to “All files (.)” and select any type of file.

Notice how we still provided a “message” and a “title” even though they both appeared in the title bar; typically you will just want to pass an empty string to one of these, since a single title is enough. If we look up the easyGUI documentation to find out the names of the variables used by the function `fileopenbox()`, we can also provide only specific arguments by directly assigning values to the variable names, like so:

```
>>> fileopenbox(title="Open a file...", default="*.txt")
```

Within a “file open” dialog box, try typing in the name of a file that doesn’t exist and opening it; the dialog box won’t let you! This is one less thing that we have to worry about programming into our code. The user can still hit cancel, in which case `None` is returned to represent a lack of any object. (See the call-out box at the very end of section 9.1 for a more complete explanation of the `None` keyword.) Otherwise, `fileopenbox()` gives us a string representing the full path to the selected file. Keep in mind that we aren’t actually opening this file in any way; we’re simply presenting the user with the ability to select a file for opening, but the rest of the code is still up to us.

There is also a `diropenbox()` function for letting the user choose a folder rather than an individual file; in this case, the optional third argument can tell the dialog box which directory to have open by default.

Finally, there is a `filesavebox()` that works similarly to `fileopenbox()` except that it allows the user to select a file to be “saved” rather than opened. This dialog box also confirms that the user wants to overwrite the file if the chosen name is the same as a file that already exists. Again, no actual saving of files is happening - that’s still up to us to program once we receive the file name from `easyGUI`.

In practice, one of the most difficult problems when it comes to letting the user select files is what to do if the user cancels out of the window when you need to have selected a file. One simple solution is to display the dialog in a loop until the user finally does select a file, but that’s not very nice - after all, maybe your user had a change of heart and really doesn’t want to run whatever code comes next.


Instead, you should plan to handle rejection gracefully. Depending on what exactly you’re asking of the user, most of the time you should use `exit()` to end the program without a fuss when the user cancels. (If you’re running the script in `IDLE`, `exit()` will also close the current interactive window.

It’s very thorough.)

Let’s get some practice with how to handle file dialogs by writing a simple, usable program. We will guide the user (with GUI elements) through the process of opening a PDF file, rotating its pages in some way, and then saving the rotated file as a new PDF:

```
1 from easygui import *
2
3 from pyPdf import PdfFileReader, PdfFileWriter
4
5 # let the user choose an input file
6
7 inputFileName = fileopenbox("", "Select a PDF to rotate...", "*.pdf")
8
9 if inputFileName == None: # exit on "Cancel"
10
11     exit()
12
13 # let the user choose an amount of rotation
14
15 rotateChoices = (90, 180, 270)
16
17 message = "Rotate the PDF clockwise by how many degrees?"
18
19 degrees = buttonbox(message, "Choose rotation...", rotateChoices)
20
21 # let the user choose an output file
22
23 outputFileName = filesavebox("", "Save the rotated PDF as...", "*.pdf")
24
25 while inputFileName == outputFileName: # cannot use same file as input
26
```

```

27  msgbox("Cannot overwrite original file!", "Please choose another file...")
28
29     outputFileName = filesavebox("", "Save the rotated PDF as...", "*.pdf")
30
31 if outputFileName == None:
32
33     exit() # exit on "Cancel"
34
35 # read in file, perform rotation and save out new file
36
37 inputFile = PdfFileReader(file(inputFileName, "rb"))
38
39 outputPDF = PdfFileWriter()
40
41 for pageNum in range(0, inputFile.getNumPages()):
42
43     page = inputFile.getPage(pageNum)
44
45     page = page.rotateClockwise(int(degrees))
46
47     outputPDF.addPage(page)
48
49 outputFile = file(outputFileName, "wb")
50
51 outputPDF.write(outputFile)
52
53 outputFile.close()

```

Besides the use of `exit()`, you should already be familiar with all the code in this script. The tricky part is the logic - i.e., how to put all the different pieces together to create a seamless experience for the user. For longer programs, it can be helpful to draw out diagrams by hand using boxes and arrows to represent how we want the user to experience the different parts of our program; it's a good idea to do this even before you start writing any code at all. Let's represent how this script works in an outline form in terms of what we display to the user:

1. Let the user select an input file
2. If the user canceled the "open file" dialog (None was returned), exit the program
3. Let the user select a rotation amount
 - [No alternative choice here; the user must click a button]
4. Let the user select an output file
5. If the user tries to save a file with the same name as the input file:
 - Alert the user of the problem with a message box

- Return to step 4

6. If the user canceled the “save file” dialog (None was returned), exit the program

The final steps are the hardest to plan out. After step 4, since we already know (from step 2) that the input file isn't None, we can check whether the output file and input file match before checking for the canceled dialog. Then, based on the return value from the dialog, we can check for whether or not the user canceled the dialog box after the fact.

Review exercises:

1. Recreate the three different GUI elements pictured in this section by writing your own scripts without referring to the provided code
2. Save each of the values returned from these GUI elements into new variables, then print each of them
3. Test out `indexbox()`, `choicebox()`, `multichoicebox()`, `enterbox()`, `passwordbox()` and `textbox()` to see what GUI elements they produce; you can use the `help()` function to read more about each function in the interactive window - for instance, type `import easygui` then `help(easygui.indexbox)`

Assignment: Use GUI elements to help a user modify files

Write a script `"partial_PDF.py"` that extract a specific range of pages from a PDF file based on file names and a page range supplied by the user. The program should run as follows:

1. Let the user choose a file using a fileopenbox
2. Let the user choose a beginning page to select using an enterbox
3. If the user enters invalid input, use a msgbox to let the user know that there was a problem, then ask for a beginning page again using an enterbox
4. Let the user choose an ending page using another enterbox
5. If the user enters an invalid ending page, use a msgbox to let the user know that there was a problem, then ask for a beginning page again using an enterbox
6. Let the user choose an output file name using a savefilebox
7. If the user chooses the same file as the input file, let the user know the problem using a msgbox, then ask again for a file name using a savefilebox
8. Output the new file as a section of the input file based on the user- supplied page range. The user should be able to supply "1" to mean the first page of the document. There are a number of potential issues that your script should be able to handle. These include:
 - If the user cancels out of a box, the program should exit without any errors
 - Check that pages supplied are valid numbers; you can use the string method `isdigit()` to check whether or not a string is a valid positive integer. (The `isdigit()` method will return false for the string "0" as well.)
 - Check that the page range itself is valid (i.e., the end to the start)

Create GUI application with Tkinter

For many basic tasks where GUI elements are needed one at a time, EasyGUI can save a lot of effort compared to creating an entire GUI program. If you do want to build a complete GUI application with many interacting elements, it will take significantly more code (and time spent programming), but this section will help get you started.

There are [alot](#) of different tools available for GUI application design in Python. The simplest and most commonly used framework is the Tkinter module, which comes with Python by default. (In fact, easyGUI is really just a simplified way of accessing Tkinter in small, manageable pieces.) There are more advanced toolkits that can be used to produce more complicated (and eventually better-looking) GUIs, and we will touch on these at the end of the chapter. However, Tkinter is still the module of choice for many GUI projects because it is so lightweight and relatively easy to use for simple tasks compared to other toolkits. In fact, IDLE itself uses Tkinter!

NOTE: As mentioned in the last section, because IDLE is also built with Tkinter, you might encounter difficulties when running your own GUI programs within IDLE. If you find that the GUI window you are trying to create is unexpectedly freezing or appears to be making IDLE misbehave in some unexpected way, try running your script in Python via your command prompt (Windows) or Terminal (Mac/Linux) to check if IDLE is the real culprit.

GUI applications exist as windows, which are just the application boxes you're used to using everywhere, each one with its own title, minimize button, close button, and usually the ability to be resized. Within a window we can have one or more frames that contain the actual content; the frames help to separate the window's content into different sections. Frames, and all the different objects inside of them (menus, text labels, buttons, etc.) are all called widgets.

Let's start with a window that only contains a single widget. In this case, we'll use a Label to show a single string of text:

```
1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: module renamed to tkinter (lower-case 't')
2
3 myApplication = Tk() # create a new window
4
5 greeting = Label(text="Hello, Tkinter") # create a text label
6
7 greeting.pack() # add the label to the window
8
9 myApplication.mainloop() # run the application
```

This is already significantly more complicated than easyGUI! First, we had to import functionality from the Tkinter module. Then we created a new Tkinter window by calling Tk() and made a Label object containing some text. To actually add the Label to our app window and make it visible, we had to call the pack() method on the Label, which “packs” it into the window. Finally, we called the mainloop() method to make our myApplication window and its contents visible and begin the

processing of running the GUI application. Although it can't do anything interesting yet, it does function; the application can be resized, minimized, and closed.

If you run this script, a window should appear that will look something like one of the following, depending on your operating system.

Windows:

Mac:

Ubuntu:

Again, for the sake of the majority, I'll stick to displaying only the resulting Windows application version for the remainder of this section.

Usually, the layout of even a very basic complete GUI application will be much more complicated than our last example. Although it may look intimidating when starting out, keep in mind that all of the initial work is helpful to make it much easier once we want to add additional features to the application. A more typical setup for a (still blank) GUI application might look something more like this:

```
1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 # define the GUI application
4
5 class App(Frame):
6
7     def __init__(self, master):
8
9         Frame.__init__(self, master)
10
11 # create the application window
12
```



```

13 window = Tk()
14
15 window.geometry("400x200") # default window size
16
17 myApplication = App(window)
18
19 myApplication.master.title("I made a window!")
20
21 myApplication.mainloop() # start the application

```

Although this type of setup is necessary for expanding GUI applications to more complex functionality, the code involved is beyond the scope of this brief introduction. Instead, we will restrict ourselves to a simpler setup that is still completely functional but less efficient for building advanced user interfaces.

Let's start with a simple window again, but this time add a single frame into it. We'll set a default window size, and the one frame will take up the entire window. We can then add widgets to the frame as well, such as a Label with text. This time, we'll specify background (`bg`) and foreground (`fg`) colors for the Label text as well as a font:

```

1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 window = Tk()
4
5 window.title("Here's a window")
6
7 window.geometry("250x100") # default window size
8
9 myFrame = Frame()
10
11 myFrame.pack()
12
13 labelText = Label(myFrame, text="I've been framed!",
14
15                    bg="red", fg="yellow", font="Arial")
16
17 labelText.pack()
18
19 window.mainloop()

```

The result is very similar to our first window, since the frame itself isn't a visible object:

When we created the label, we had to assign the label to the frame by passing the name of our frame (`myFrame`) as the first argument of this `Label` widget. This is important to do because we're otherwise packing the label into the window, and anything we do to modify the frame's formatting won't be applied to widgets that don't specifically name the frame to which they belong. The frame is called the parent widget of the label since the label is placed inside of it. This becomes especially important

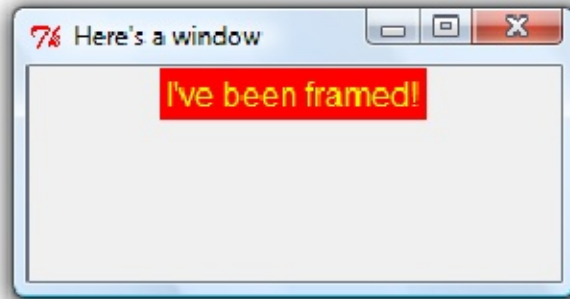


Figure 16.4: framed

once we have multiple frames and have to tell Tkinter which widgets will appear in which frames.

There are a few different ways we can organizing the packing of widgets into a frame. For instance, running the same script as above but packing our label with `labelText.pack(fill=X)` will make the label

span across the entire width of the frame. Widgets stack vertically on top of each other by default, but we can pack them side by side as well:

```

1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 window = Tk()
4
5 myFrame = Frame()
6
7 myFrame.pack()
8
9 # a bar to span across the entire top
10
11 labelText1 = Label(myFrame, text="top bar", bg="red")
12
13 labelText1.pack(fill=X)
14
15 # three side-by-side labels
16
17 labelLeft = Label(myFrame, text="left", bg="yellow")
18
19 labelLeft.pack(side=LEFT) # place label to the left of the next widget
20
21 labelMid = Label(myFrame, text="middle", bg="green")
22
23 labelMid.pack(side=LEFT) # place label to the left of the next widget
24
25 labelRight = Label(myFrame, text="right", bg="blue")
26
27 labelRight.pack()
28
29 window.mainloop()

```



Figure 16.5: multicolored_frames

It can quickly get difficult to figure out how to arrange things using `pack()`, but there are two other options available as well for getting your widgets organized. The `place()` method can be used to place a widget in an exact location within a frame based on specific `x` and `y` coordinates, where the point `(0, 0)` is the upper left corner of the frame. At the same time, we can also specify each widget's width and height in pixels. For instance, let's `place()` a couple buttons in a frame:

```
1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 window = Tk()
4
5 window.geometry("200x200") # default window size
6
7 myFrame = Frame()
8
9 myFrame.pack()
10
11 button1 = Button(myFrame, text="I'm at (100, 150)")
12
13 button1.place(x=100, y=150)
14
15 button2 = Button(myFrame, text="I'm at (0, 0)")
16
17 button2.place(x=0, y=0, width=100, height=50)
18
19 window.mainloop()
```

First we set a specific window size, which is 200 pixels wide and 200 pixels tall. We created `button1` using `Button()` and placed it at the location `(100,150)`, which is halfway across the window and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the way down the window. We then placed `button2` at the location `(0, 0)`, which is just the upper left corner of the window, and gave it a width of 100 pixels (half the width of the window) and a height of 50 pixels ($\frac{1}{4}$ the height of the window).

Other than specifying absolute placement and size (meaning that we give exact amounts of pixels to use), we can instead provide relative placement and size of a widget. For instance, since frames are

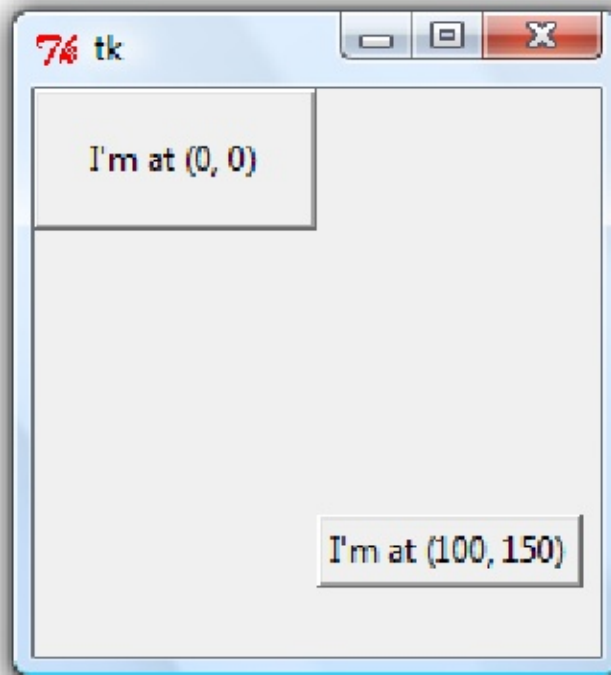


Figure 16.6: tk_positioning

also widgets, let's add two frames to a window and place them based on relative positions and sizes:

```
1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 window = Tk()
4
5 window.geometry("200x50") # window is 200 pixels wide by 50 pixels tall
6
7 # create side-by-side frames
8
9 frameLeft = Frame(bd=3, relief=SUNKEN) # give the frame an outline
10
11 frameLeft.place(relx=0, relwidth=0.5, relheight=1)
12
13 frameRight = Frame(bd=3, relief=SUNKEN) # give the frame an outline
14
15 frameRight.place(relx=0.7, relwidth=0.3)
16
17 # add a label to each frame
18
19 leftLabel = Label(frameLeft, text="I've been framed!")
20
21 leftLabel.pack()
22
23 rightLabel = Label(frameRight, text="So have I!")
```

```

24
25 rightLabel.pack()
26
27 window.mainloop()

```

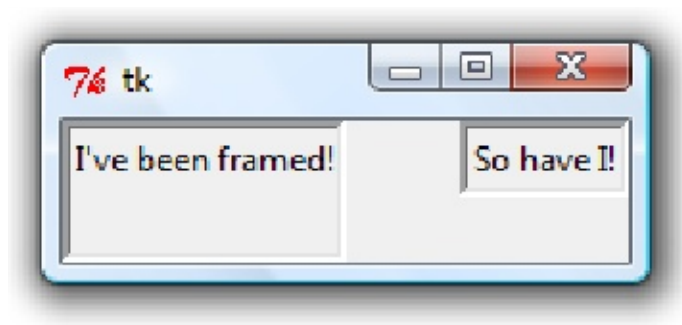


Figure 16.7: tk_frame_position

The extra parameters we passed to each frame provided a border (“bd”) and set that border in “sunken relief” so that we could actually see the edges of the frames, since by default the frames wouldn’t have been visible by themselves.

This time we used `relx` to provide a relative x placement, which takes a value from 0 to 1 to represent a fraction of the window’s width. The first label has `relx=0`, so it appears all the way at the left of the window. Since we gave the second label a `relx=.7` and `relwidth=.3`, it appears 70% of the way across the window and takes up the remaining 30% of the space without running off the end of the window. We specified a `relheight=1` for the first label so that it took up the entire height of the window. Since we didn’t name a `relheight` value (and didn’t even provide a `rely` value) for the second label, it defaulted to appear at the top of the window with only the height necessary to display the text inside of it. Try modifying all these values one by one to see how they change the appearance of the frames.

NOTE: Notice how we had to pass the name of each frame as the first argument of each label. This is how Tkinter tracks which widget belongs in which frame. Otherwise, we wouldn’t know which frame our label belongs to and couldn’t tell where to pack and display it. Even if you only have a single frame, however, since relative placement/sizing is done inside of the parent widget, you should always be sure to name the frame to which each widget belongs.

Although it offers more detailed control than `pack()` does, using `place()` to arrange widgets usually isn’t an ideal strategy, since it can be difficult to update the specific placements of everything if one widget gets added or deleted. Beyond this, different screen resolutions can make a window appear somewhat differently, making your careful placements less effective if you want to share the program to be run on different computers.

The last and usually the easiest way to make clean, simple GUI layouts without too much hassle is by using `grid()` to place widgets in a two-dimensional grid. To do this, we can imagine a grid with numbered rows and columns, where we can then specify which cell (or cells) of our grid we want to be taken up by each particular widget.

```

1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 window = Tk()
4
5 myFrame = Frame()
6
7 myFrame.grid() # add frame to take up the whole window using grid()
8
9 labelTopLeft = Label(myFrame, text="I'm at (1,1)")
10
11 labelTopLeft.grid(row=1, column=1)
12
13 labelBottomLeft = Label(myFrame, text="I'm at (2,1)")
14
15 labelBottomLeft.grid(row=2, column=1)
16
17 buttonBottomRight = Button(myFrame, text="I'm at (3,2)")
18
19 buttonBottomRight.grid(row=3, column=2)
20
21 window.mainloop() # start the application

```

Figure 16.8: tk_columns

Instead of calling `pack()` on our frame widget, we put the frame into the window by using `grid()`, which will let Tkinter know that we plan to place widgets inside this frame by also using `grid()` instead of another method. We could then call `grid()` on each widget instead of `pack()` or `place()` by providing a row and column numbers, which start at `row=1` and `column=1` in the upper-left corner of the window.

WARNING: Don't try to combine different ways of adding widgets into a single frame - for instance, don't use `grid()` on some widgets and `pack()` on others. Tkinter has no way to prioritize one method over the other and usually ends up freezing your application entirely when you've given it conflicting packing instructions.

We can assign values to the arguments `padx` and `pady` for any given widget, which will include extra space around the widget horizontally and/or vertically. We can also assign values to the argument

sticky for each widget, which takes cardinal directions (like a compass) such as E or N+W; this will tell the widget which side (or sides) it should “stick” to if there is extra room in that cell of the grid. Let’s look at these arguments in an example:

```
1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 window = Tk()
4
5 myFrame = Frame()
6
7 myFrame.grid() # add frame to window using grid()
8
9 labelTopLeft = Label(myFrame, text="I'm at (1,1)", bd="3", relief=SUNKEN)
10
11 labelTopLeft.grid(row=1, column=1, padx=100, pady=30)
12
13 labelBottomLeft = Label(myFrame, text="I'm at (2,1)", bd="3", relief=SUNKEN)
14
15 labelBottomLeft.grid(row=2, column=1, sticky=E)
16
17 buttonRight = Button(myFrame, text="I span 2 rows", height=5)
18
19 buttonRight.grid(row=1, column=2, rowspan=2)
20
21 window.mainloop() # start the application
```



Figure 16.9: tk_multirows

We included a border and “sunken” relief to the two labels (just like we did previously for the frame) so that we could see their outlines. Because we gave large `padx` and `pady` values to the first label, it appears with lots of extra space around it, centered in the middle of the first grid cell. The second label appears in the second row and first column, right underneath the first label, but this time we specified “`sticky=E`” to say that the label should stick to the east side of the grid cell if there is extra horizontal space.

We added a button in the second column, specifying a height of 5 (text lines). This allows us to see that, even though we placed the button at `row=1`, since we also specified `rowspan=2`, the button is

centered vertically across both the first and second rows.

NOTE: Since it often takes a fair amount of effort to get widgets arranged in a window exactly as you'd like, it's usually a good idea to draw out a mock-up of what you want your GUI application to look like on paper before doing any coding at all. With a physical reference, it will be much easier to translate what's in your head into GUI widgets organized in frames.

The buttons we've created so far aren't very useful, since they don't yet do anything when we click on them. However, we can specify a command argument to a button that will run a function of our choice. For instance, let's create a simple function `incrementButton()` that takes the number displayed on our button and increments it by one:

```
1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 window = Tk()
4
5 def incrementButton():
6
7     newNumber = 1+ myButton.cget("text")
8
9     myButton.config(text=newNumber)
10
11 myButton = Button(text=1, command=incrementButton)
12
13 myButton.pack()
14
15 window.mainloop() # start the application
```



Figure 16.10: button

Now each time you click on the button, it will add one to the value by configuring the button with a new text attribute. We used the `cget()` method on the button to retrieve the text currently displayed on the button; we can use `cget()` in this same way to get the values taken by other attributes of other types of widgets as well.

There are a number of other types of widgets available in Tkinter as well; a good quick reference can be found [here](#). Besides labels and buttons, one very commonly used type of widget is an Entry, which allows a place for the user to enter a line of text.

An entry works a little differently from labels and buttons in that the text in the entry box is blank at first. If you want to add “default” text to display, it must be inserted after creating the entry using the `insert()` method, which requires as its first argument a position in the text for inserting the new string. For instance, after creating a new Entry with `myEntry = Entry()`, we would then say `myEntry.insert(0, “default text”)` to add the string “default text” to the entry box. In order to return text currently in the entry box, we use the `get()` method instead of the usual `cget()` method. Both these concepts are easier seen in an example:

```
1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 window = Tk()
4
5 entry1 = Entry()
6
7 entry1.pack()
8
9 entry1.insert(0, "this is an entry")
10
11 entry2 = Entry()
12
13 entry2.pack()
14
15 myText = entry1.get() # get the text from entry1
16
17 entry2.insert(0, myText)
18
19 entry2.insert(8, "also ") # add "also" to the middle of myText
20
21 window.mainloop() # start the application
```

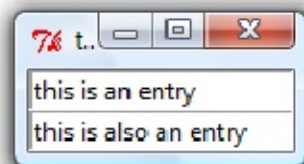


Figure 16.11: entries

Here we packed two entry boxes into a window, adding new text at index position 0 to entry1 first. We added the text seen in entry2 by first using `get()` to return the text in entry1, inserting this same text into entry2, then inserting additional text into this string starting at index location 8. We can also specify a width (in characters) that we want an entry box to take up by passing a value to `width` when we create the `Entry`.

Let’s put all of these GUI pieces together into a single usable application. We’ll modify the first function that we wrote way back in chapter 4 to create a GUI-based temperature conversion application:

```

1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 def recalc():
4
5     celTemp = entryCel.get() # get temp from text entry
6
7     try: # calculate converted temperature and place it in label
8
9         farTemp =float(celTemp) *9/5+32
10
11         farTemp =round(farTemp, 3) # round to three decimal places
12
13         resultFar.config(text=farTemp)
14
15     except ValueError: # user entered non-numeric temperature
16
17         resultFar.config(text="invalid")
18
19 # create the application window and add a Frame
20
21 window = Tk()
22
23 window.title("Temperature converter")
24
25 frame = Frame()
26
27 frame.grid(padx=5, pady=5) # pad top and left of frame 5 pixels before grid
28
29 # create and add text labels
30
31 labelCel = Label(frame, text="Celsius temperature:")
32
33 labelCel.grid(row=1, column=1, sticky=S+E)
34
35 labelFar = Label(frame, text="Fahrenheit temperature:")
36
37 labelFar.grid(row=2, column=1, sticky=S+E)
38
39 # create and add space for user entry of text
40
41 entryCel = Entry(frame, width=7)
42
43 entryCel.grid(row=1, column=2)
44
45 entryCel.insert(0, 0)
46
47 # create and add label for text calculation result

```

```

48 resultFar = Label(frame)
49
50 resultFar.grid(row=2, column=2)
51
52
53 # create and add 'recalculate' button
54 btnRecalc = Button(frame, text="Recalculate", command=recalc)
55
56 btnRecalc.grid(row=1, column=3, rowspan=2)
57
58
59 recalc() # fill in first default temperature conversion
60
61 window.mainloop() # start the application

```

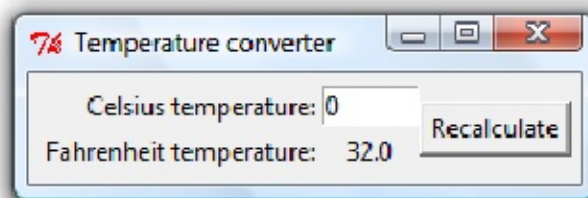


Figure 16.12: temperature_app

First we created the function `recalc()`, which gets the Celsius temperature from the entry box, converts it into Fahrenheit, and sets that (rounded) number as the text of the Fahrenheit temperature label. Notice how we used the `try/except` structure to check if the user entered something that isn't a number so that we can display "invalid" as the converted temperature instead of raising an error.

The uses of GUI widgets should all look familiar to you now. We used a `grid()` layout with the value "S+E" to the sticky argument of our labels so that they would be right-aligned. The button, which is centered across two rows, calls our `recalc()` function so that the current Celsius temperature is converted and redisplayed in the Fahrenheit label each time the button is clicked; the actual button click by the user is considered an event, and by passing a function name to the `command` argument we ensure that the button is "listening" for this event so that it can take an action. We can also call the function ourselves, which we do before running the program in order to fill in a default converted value to our Fahrenheit label.

Finally, we can also use the separate `tkFileDialog` module to allow the user to open and save files, much like we did before with `EasyGUI`. (In Python 3.3, `tkFileDialog` is just called `filedialog` and already exists in the `tkinter` module, so there is no need to import it separately.)

Since we aren't presenting GUI elements one at a time, however, file dialogs in Tkinter will usually be linked to other specific GUI widgets - for instance, having the user click on a button in order to pop up a file dialog box. Let's write a quick script that uses an "Open" file dialog to let the user select either a .PY file or a .TXT file and then displays the full name of that file back in a label:

```

1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 import tkinterFileDialog# Python 3: replace with 'from tkinter import filedialog'
4
5 window = Tk()
6
7 frame = Frame()
8
9 frame.pack()
10
11 def openFile(): # ask user to choose a file and update label
12
13     typeList = [("Python scripts", "*.py"), ("Text files", "*.txt")]
14
15     fileName = tkinterFileDialog.askopenfilename(filetypes=typeList)
16
17 # Python 3: use filedialog instead of tkinterFileDialog
18
19     labelFile.config(text=fileName)
20
21 # blank label to hold name of chosen file
22
23 labelFile = Label(frame)
24
25 labelFile.pack()
26
27 # button to click on for 'Open' file dialog
28
29 buttonOpen = Button(frame, text="Choose a file...", command=openFile)
30
31 buttonOpen.pack()
32
33 window.mainloop() # start the application

```

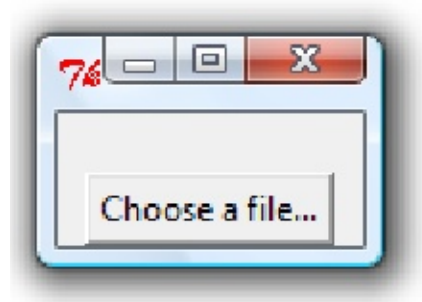


Figure 16.13: choose_a_file

Clicking the button will cause our function `openFile()` to run, which opens a file dialog using `tkFileDialog.askopenfilename()`. Make sure you import `tkFileDialog` as well as `Tkinter`, since they are actually

separate modules!

We passed `typeList` into the argument `filetypes` of the `tkFileDialog.askopenfilename()` function in order to provide a list of the different types of files that we want the user to be able to choose; these are provided as a list of tuples, where the first item in each tuple is a description of the file type and the second item in each tuple is the actual file extension.

Just like with EasyGUI, the `tkFileDialog.askopenfilename()` function returns the full name of the file, which we can then set equal to our string `fileName` and pass into our label. If the user hit the “Cancel” button instead, the function returns `None` and our label becomes blank.

Likewise, there is a `tkFileDialog.asksaveasfilename()` function that takes the same arguments as `tkFileDialog.askopenfilename()` and works analogously to the `filesavebox()` of EasyGUI. We can also pass a default extension type to `asksaveasfilename()` in order to append a file extension onto the name of the provided file if the user didn’t happen to provide one (although some operating systems might ignore this argument):

```
1 from Tkinter import * # Python 3: from tkinter import *
2
3 import tkFileDialog# Python 3: this import is not needed
4
5 window = Tk()
6
7 frame = Frame()
8
9 frame.pack()
10
11 def saveFile(): # ask user to choose a file and update label
12
13     typeList = [("Python scripts", "*.py"), ("Text files", "*.txt")]
14
15     fileName = tkFileDialog.asksaveasfilename(filetypes=typeList,
16 defaulttextextension=".py")
17
18 # Python 3: use filedialog instead of tkFileDialog
19
20     myText = "I will save: " + fileName
21
22     labelFile.config(text=myText)
23
24
25 # blank label to hold name of chosen file
26 labelFile = Label(frame)
27
28 labelFile.pack()
29
30 # button to click on for 'Open' file dialog
31
32 buttonOpen = Button(frame, text="Choose a file...", command=saveFile)
```

```
33  
34 buttonOpen.pack()  
35  
36 window.mainloop() # start the application
```

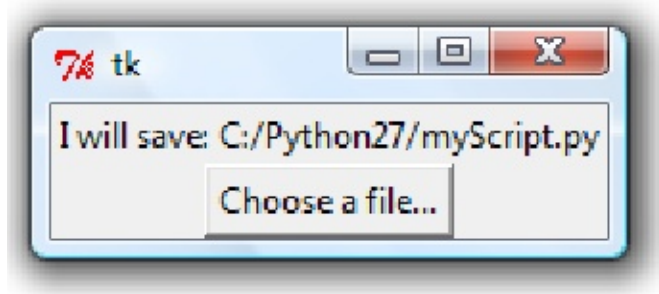


Figure 16.14: file_saver

Above, I navigated to the folder “C:/Python27/” and told the application to save the file “myScript” without typing out any file extension, but because we provided `defaultextension=".py"` as an argument to `asksaveasfilename()`, this ending was automatically added to the name of the file.

As mentioned at the start of this section, Tkinter is a popular choice for GUI application development, and this introduction has only covered the most basic use cases. There are a number of other choices available, some of which offer additional flexibility and more complicated functionality - although usually at the cost of the extra time it takes to develop such detailed and complex applications. Once you feel that you need something more customizable than Tkinter, [wxPython](#) is a good choice for a next step. [PyQt](#) and [PyGtk](#) are two of the other most popular and widely used GUI toolkits for Python.

Review exercises:

1. Recreate the various windows pictured and described in this section, complete with all the same GUI widgets and any necessary interaction, by writing your own scripts without referring to the provided code
2. Using `grid()` to organize your widgets horizontally, create a button that, when clicked, takes on the value entered into an entry box to its right

Assignment: Return of the poet

Write a script “poetry_writer.py” based on the poem generator created in assignment 6.1 that assists the user in creating beautiful poetry through a GUI.

1. The user should be instructed (in a label) to enter words into each list, separating words with commas. You can use the string split() method to generate lists of individual words.
2. Provide a grid layout with labels for Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Prepositions and Adverbs, where the user can supply a list of words for each by typing them into entry boxes.
3. Add a “Create your poem” button centered at the bottom of the window that, when clicked, will generate and display a random poem in a label below the button. If the user does not supply enough words, the “poem” label should instead display text letting the user know the error.
4. Add a “Save your poem” button centered below the poem that, when clicked, allows the user to save the poem currently being displayed as a .TXT file by prompting the user with a “Save As” dialog box. Add a default file extension of “.txt” and make sure that your program does not generate an error if the user clicks “Cancel” on the file save dialog box.
5. You can assume that the user will not supply any duplicate words in any of the word lists.
6. Bonus: Add a function checkUnique() that takes a list of words as an argument and returns True or False based on whether or not that list contains only unique entries. Use this function to alert the user if duplicate words are present within any of the word lists by displaying the error in the “poem” label. (Without this check, we run the risk of our program entering an infinite loop!)

Chapter 17

Web applications

Create a simple web application

You know how to write useful Python scripts, and now you want to show them off to the world... but how? Most non-programmers won't have any use for your .py script files. Programs like [PyInstaller](#) and [cx_Freeze](#) help turn Python scripts into executable programs that can be run by themselves on different platforms without the need to use Python to interpret the code. More and more, however, we're seeing a trend away from "desktop"-based applications and toward web applications that can be accessed and run through Internet browsers.

Historically, websites on the Internet were full of plain webpages that offered the exact same information to every user; you would request a page, and the information from that page would be displayed. These webpages were "static" because their content never changed; a web server would simply respond to a user's request for a webpage by sending along that page, regardless of who the user was or what other actions the user took.

Today, most websites are actually web applications, which offer "dynamic" webpages that can change their content in any number of ways. For instance, a webmail application allows the user to interact with it, displaying all sorts of different information, often while staying in a single webpage.

The idea behind creating a Python-driven web application is that you can use Python code to determine what content to show a user and what actions to take. The code is actually run by the web server that hosts your website, so your user doesn't need to install anything to use your application; if the user has a browser and an Internet connection, then everything else will be run online.

The task of getting Python code to run on a website is a complicated one, but there are a number of different [web frameworks](#) available for Python that automatically take care of a lot of the details.

The first thing that you will need is a web hosting plan that allows and supports the ability to run Python code. Since these usually cost money (and since not everyone even has a website), we'll stick with a free alternative that is one of the simplest to set up: Google App Engine, which uses a web framework called [webapp2](#).

There are a number of other alternatives (both free and paid) that are more customizable, and you can use webapp2 on its own later without relying on Google App Engine, but getting started with Google

App Engine will be the quickest and easiest way to begin learning about web application development in Python.

NOTE: If you have any plan to go deeper into web development, don't bother with Google App Engine; jump right to the more advanced [web development courses](#). If you only want to get a web application up with minimal time and effort, Google App Engine is a solid option, but it won't teach you much of the web development skills that you'll need when moving into more advanced topics.

First, go [here](#) to download and install the appropriate Python SDK for Google App Engine. SDK stands for Software Development Kit. This particular SDK includes two main resources: a “web server” application, which will allow you to run your web applications on your own computer without actually putting them online, and the Google App Engine Launcher, which will help to put your web applications online.

NOTE: Python 3 note: Unfortunately, Google App Engine only works with Python 2.7 and has no immediate plans to support Python 3 code.

Before we dive into writing a web application, let's get a very broad, generalized overview of what's about to happen. There are a lot of different pieces involved, and they all have to communicate with each other to function correctly:

1. First, your user makes a “request” for a particular webpage on your website (i.e., by typing a URL into a browser).
2. This request gets received by the web server that hosts your website.
3. The web server uses App Engine to look at the configuration file for your application. App Engine matches the user's request to a particular portion of your Python script.
4. This Python code is called up by App Engine. When your code runs, it writes out a “response” webpage.
5. App Engine delivers this response back to your user through the web server.
6. The user can then view the web server's response (i.e., by displaying the resulting webpage in a browser).

The application we're going to create will rely on a couple different files, so the first thing we need to do is make a project folder to hold all of these files. Create a new folder named “first_app” anywhere you like (just remember where it is). First we will write a very simple Python script that can “respond” with the content of your webpage:

```
1 print "Content-Type: text/plain"
2
3 print ""
4
5 print "Congratulations, it's a web app!"
```

Save this code in a script named “hello.py” inside your “first_app” folder.

So what’s with the first two print statements? Web servers communicate with users (usually browsers) through [HTTP](#) by receiving HTTP requests and sending HTTP responses. The HTTP response that our application sends can have both header lines and a body.

We added a header line to our HTTP response in the first line. Header lines contain optional information to let a browser know how to interpret the body of the response. In this case, setting our header’s “Content-Type” equal to the value “text/plain” is the way that our HTTP response lets a browser know to expect the body to contain plain text as opposed to HTML code, an image, or some other type of file. Leaving a blank line after this header line is how we told the browser, “the header lines are over now; here comes the actual body to display.”

The body of the response is what we will actually see when we load the page in a browser. In this case, it’s just a simple string of text: “Congratulations, it’s a web app!”

Before we can run our web application, we need to provide App Engine with a configuration file. This is the file that the web server will use to get information about what Python code we want it to run.

Open up any text editor (or another script window in IDLE) and copy the following text into a new file:

```
1 application: hello
2 version: 1
3 runtime: python27
4 api_version: 1
5 threadsafe: false
6 handlers:
7 - url: /*
8   script: hello.py
```

Now name this file “app.yaml” and save it in the same “first_app” folder as the Python script. Make sure you get the spacing correct; the last line includes two leading spaces so that “script” lines up under “url”. Just like Python, YAML files rely on precise indentation.

The YAML configuration file gives App Engine all the necessary information it needs to run the web application. First, “application: hello” provides a unique identifying name for the application so that we will be able to launch it later; we are giving the name “hello” to our web app.

The line “version: 1” lets App Engine know that this is version 1 of our application. (If we update this later to “version: 2”, App Engine will keep a copy of version 1 in memory so that we can go back to running this previous version if necessary.)

The lines “runtime: python27” and “api_version: 1” let App Engine know that we want to use Python 2.7 to run our application. (There is currently only one version of the Python [API](#) offered by Google.)

The line “threadsafe: false” means that our web application isn’t designed to be able to receive multiple requests at once; if App Engine has multiple requests then it will send them to our application one at a time instead of all at once.

Finally we define our “handlers” to handle different webpage requests from our users (i.e., if a user requested the main page at “/” or another page at a different address on our site). These requested

paths can each be assigned to a different piece of Python code. In this case, we only have one script, `hello.py`, so we want to direct user requests for any page on the website to the same script. In these last two lines of the configuration file, we say that any URL matching the regular expression `"/.*"` (which is any URL on our site) should be directed to the `"hello.py"` script.

Okay, now we can finally take a look at our application! It's not online yet, but we can view it by running the application through our own "local" web server (that can't be accessed by other users) using Google App Engine. This will help us simulate what things will look like to a user once our application is online.

Open the Google App Engine Launcher program, then choose File -> Add Existing Application... You can then browse to and select your `first_app` folder that contains the web application. Add the application using port 8080, then select the application in the main window and click the green "Run" button.

Linux users: you will need to navigate in your Terminal to the directory just before the `first_app` folder (i.e., its parent directory), then type the following command to launch the web application

(which will run on port 8080 by default): `google_appengine/dev_appserver.py first_app/`
The console window that appears will track lots of extra information, but your web application is up and running once you see a blinking cursor.

The "port" number can be thought of as selecting a particular channel to use, similar to broadcasting a television or radio channel. We chose to run the web application on port 8080, meaning that the user can essentially "tune in" to this port number and receive communication from our web server. (We could host a completely different web application using a different port number and the two would not interfere with each other.)

Once the web application is running (this might take a little while), we can click "Browse" to view the web application in the default web browser. This will open up the page at the URL `"localhost:8080"` (which we can also type into a browser manually to load the web application). The web address `"localhost"` is just a way of saying "the web address of my own computer" (since the application isn't actually online yet). The `":8080"` specifies that we should listen for communication on port number 8080. If everything has been set up correctly, your browser should load a page that displays the plain text: **Congratulations, it's a web app!**

NOTE: If you make any changes to your script, as long as Google App Engine Launcher is still running your application, all you need to do in order to view the newest version of the web application is to save the script and reload the webpage. App Engine will automatically listen for any changes that might have been made.

Well, that's a start. As far as an "application" goes, however, the Python script involved was fairly useless. In order to make something with a bit more potential, we need to create a special object in our Python code called a `WSGIApplication`. [WSGI](#) stands for Web Server Gateway Interface and is a way to allow Python to communicate with the web server in a better way than simply "printing" a single chunk of information back as a response. Our new Python script, which still just displays the same line of text, is considerably more complicated:

```

1 import webapp2
2
3 class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
4
5     def get(self):
6
7         self.response.headers["Content-Type"] = "text/plain"
8
9         self.response.write("Congratulations, it's a web app!")
10
11 routes = [('/', MainPage)]
12
13 myApp = webapp2.WSGIApplication(routes, debug=True)

```

We now had to import `webapp2` in order to use WSGI. In the last line of our script, we are using the `webapp2` web framework to create a `WSGIApplication` object named “myApp” that will allow our code to communicate with the web server.

This time we are creating a new class using the “class” keyword; this means that `MainPage` is a new type of object (specifically, a type of `webapp2.RequestHandler` object) that can have its own methods and attributes just like any other object. Even though it looks like the `get()` method takes an argument of “self”, this special keyword is automatically created and used internally by the new object as a way to keep track of itself. We have to use this “self” keyword within a new object that we’ve defined, because the object needs to know when it’s referring to its own methods and attributes. For instance, we have to call `self.response` in order to access the response stored in our `MainPage` `RequestHandler` object. For a deeper look into how to make and use a Python class, you might want to take a look at Codecademy’s [Introduction to Classes](#) and my accompanying [practice project](#).

As the first argument of our `WSGIApplication`, we passed a list of tuples called `routes`. In this case, `routes` only contains one tuple, `(“/”, MainPage)`. This “route” tells our WSGI application that anyone accessing the main directory of our application should get directed to `MainPage`. We call `MainPage` a “request handler” because it is in charge of handling any user requests for that particular webpage.

The “/” is how we represent the main “root” directory of our application (i.e., our website). If we had provided a second tuple, `(“/images/”, ImagesPage)`, then anyone who accesses the (hypothetical) “images” directory of our website would be directed to the class `ImagesPage` in the Python script.

If we make a mistake in the code, our application’s “`debug=True`” argument will allow us to see the errors reported by Python in our web application; otherwise, all we would see is a “500 Internal Server Error” message.

Because of how we defined `routes`, when our web server receives a request to load the page “/”, `webapp2` creates a new `MainPage` object (called a request handler because it responds to the request for a webpage). The `get()` method of `MainPage` is automatically called when it is created, which is how our `WSGIApplication` responds to the web server. The response is written out with these two lines:

```

1 self.response.headers["Content-Type"] = "text/plain"
2 self.response.write("Congratulations, it's a web app!")

```

Again, we have to write both a header line and a body. The header line gets packed into headers like in a dictionary, setting the value of the “Content-Type” equal to “text/plain”. This time, we create the body of the response using the write() method. WSGI takes care of separating the header lines from the body, so this time there’s no need to write() a blank line first.

We now have to update our YAML configuration file as well:

```
1 application: hello
2 version: 1
3 runtime: python27
4 api_version: 1
5 threadsafe: false
6 handlers:
7 - url: /.*
8   script: hello.myApp
```

The only difference from the previous configuration file is the very last line, where we point the “script” to use hello.myApp instead of hello.py; instead of the entire Python script, we now want the web server to run the WSGIApplication object inside of our script named myApp, which we access using the simple dot notation of “hello.myApp”. (There’s no new file named “hello.myApp” - we’re just pointing our configuration file to the myApp object inside the hello.py script.)

If all goes well, you should now be able to save these two files, reload the webpage, and see the exact same thing as before: **Congratulations, it’s a web app!**

NOTE: If you make a mistake in your Python script, your web application might load a horrendous error page that makes it look as if you broke the Internet for good. Don’t panic! Just look at the last line, which will point you to the specific error (usually a line of your code displayed in red) that caused the entire [chain of failure](#)

If you do end up with an error that your browser refuses to give you further advice about (instead showing a “

500 Internal Server Error”, even when you’ve set your WSGIApplication to have debug=True), you can try running the Python script itself in IDLE. Although it won’t run (because Python won’t be able to find the webapp2 module), IDLE can still point out if your code has any syntax errors.

Review exercises:

1. Play around with your web application; make small changes to the script and see how App Engine responds
2. Use your WSGIApplication to create a [basic HTML page](#) by changing the Content-Type header value to “text/html” and then using write() multiple times to respond with lines of HTML code; for instance, the first write() statement could be self.response.write(<html>) to begin the HTML webpage

Create and interactive web application

Now that we've upgraded our web application to use WSGI, we can create multiple pages that interact with the user. We'll start by creating an HTML form that takes some text input from the user and displays that text back on a new page.

If you aren't familiar with [HTML forms](#), you should take a moment to review the basics first. We already saw an example of a basic form with the [login.php](#) page used for web scraping practice in chapter 10.

The first URL of our web application will be the main "/" page that users see by default. Our second page will be located at "/welcome" (i.e., this path will appear after the name of the website). In order to do this, we need to include two tuples in our routes:

```
1 routes = [('/', MainPage), ('/welcome', Greeting)]
```

We don't need to update the configuration file for, because we still want any request for a webpage to be directed to our WSGIApplication object myApp inside the hello.py script. From there, myApp is responsible for directing any webpage requests to the correct "request handler" - either MainPage or Greeting. Our full web application code will look like this:

```
1 import webapp2
2
3 class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
4
5     def get(self):
6
7         self.response.headers["Content-Type"] = "text/html"
8
9         self.response.write("""
10
11         <html>
12
13         <head><title>Enter your name...</title></head>
14
15         <body>
16
17         <form action="/welcome" method="post">
18
19             <input type="text" name="myName"><br>
20             <input type="submit" value="Sign In">
21
22         </form>
23
24         </body>
25
26 </html>""")
27
```

```

28
29 class Greeting(webapp2.RequestHandler):
30
31     def post(self):
32
33         username = self.request.get("myName")
34         welcomeString = """<html><body>
35
36             Hi there, {}!
37
38 </body></html>""".format(username)
39
40         self.response.headers["Content-Type"] = "text/html"
41
42         self.response.write(welcomeString)
43
44 routes = [('/', MainPage), ('/welcome', Greeting)]
45
46 myApp = webapp2.WSGIApplication(routes, debug=True)
47

```

This time, we specified the Content-Type to be “text/html” because we’re writing out webpages in HTML code. We did this using multi-line strings, although we also could have broken the content into multiple write() commands.

As before, our main page (handled by the request handler MainPage) has a get() method so that it can respond to requests to “get” its information. In the content body, we included a title for our webpage and a simple form. Our form has a single text input field called “myName” and a submit button labeled “Sign In”. When a user clicks on the “Sign In” button, our form **posts** its data (i.e., the value of myName) to the webpage located at “/welcome”.

Meanwhile, our “/welcome” page (handled by the request handler Greeting) has a post() method so that it can respond when it receives “**posted**” data. We could have used get() to send the user’s data (and we will in the next example), but information that is sent using get() becomes a part of the URL; this would become a problem if we later decided that we want the user to include sensitive information (like a password).

Within post(), we used self.request.get(“myName”) to get the user-supplied value of myName from the user’s “post” request, which we stored in a string variable called username. We then created a welcomeString, which is a multi-line string representing the full HTML code for our “/welcome” page, including the inserted value of username. As before, we then write() out the header line and content body to display the resulting webpage.

Save your script and reload the browser to view your new web application. Notice how, when you “Sign In” to the web application, you are directed to the new webpage “localhost:8080/welcome” - which should hopefully display back what you typed!

Actually, there’s one important change we need to make to our code. The fact that we take input from a user and display that input back without first investigating what we are about to display is a huge

security hole. Sure, maybe you don't expect to have malicious users who are actively trying to break your application, but never underestimate the potential for users to do unexpected things that cause your application to break in unexpected ways.

For instance, maybe someone decides that an appropriate username to enter into our application is ``. Our `/welcome` webpage ends up displaying:

```
1 Hi there, !
```

Since we're inserting this text into HTML code, the `` was interpreted as an HTML tag to begin making text bold - so instead of greeting our user, we only change our explanation point to be displayed bold. (You can imagine how this might present a security problem; any user can now write code that runs on our web server.)

To avoid this, we can use Python's built-in `cgi.escape()` function, which converts the special HTML characters `<`, `>`, and `&` into equivalent representations that can be displayed correctly. You will first need to import `cgi` into your Python script to use this functionality. Then, when you get() the value of `myName` from the user's request, you can convert any special HTML characters by instead saying:

```
1 username = cgi.escape(self.request.get("myName"))
```

With these changes, try re-running your web application and signing in with a username of `` again. You should now see it display the username back to you correctly:

```
1 Hi there, <b>!
```

Okay, so we can now create one webpage that helps the user "post" data to another webpage interactively. What about using the `get()` method to make a single page interactive? Let's look at an example with just a little bit more Python code behind it and revisit the "temperature converter" script that we wrote way back in chapter 4 and again as a simple GUI application.

The webpage we want to display will have a simple text field where the user can input a temperature in degrees Celsius. We will also include a "Convert" button to convert the user's supplied Celsius temperature into degrees Fahrenheit. This converted result will be displayed on the next line and will be updated whenever the user clicks the "Convert" button. The HTML for this page, with placeholders for the actual temperature values, will look like so:

```
1 <html>
2
3   <head><title>Temperature Converter</title></head>
4
5   <body>
6
7     <form action="/" method="get">
8
9       Celsius temperature: <input type="text" name="celTemp" value={}>
10
11     <input type="submit" value="Convert"><br>
```



```

12         Fahrenheit temperature: {}
13
14
15     </form>
16
17
18 </body>
19 </html>

```

This time, our form uses the “get” method with a form “action” that points back to the main page itself. In other words, when the user submits this form by clicking on the “Convert” button, instead of sending a “post” request to a new webpage, the user will send a “get” request for the same page, providing the page with some input data.

Just as we did before, we will want to put the temperature conversion into a function of its own. The full code will look as follows:

```

1  import webapp2
2
3  def convertTemp(celTemp):
4
5      ''' convert Celsius temperature to Fahrenheit temperature '''
6
7      if celTemp == "":
8
9          return ""
10
11     try:
12
13         farTemp = float(celTemp) * 9/5 + 32
14
15         farTemp = round(farTemp, 3) # round to three decimal places
16
17         return str(farTemp)
18
19     except ValueError: # user entered non-numeric temperature
20
21         return "invalid input"
22
23 class MainPage(webapp2.RequestHandler):
24     def get(self):
25
26
27         celTemp = self.request.get("celTemp")
28
29         farTemp = convertTemp(celTemp)
30
31         self.response.headers["Content-Type"] = "text/html"

```

```

32     self.response.write("""
33
34         <html>
35
36
37         <head><title>Temperature Converter</title></head>
38         <body>
39
40             <form action="/" method="get">
41
42                 Celsius temperature: <input type="text"
43                                     name="celTemp" value={}>
44
45                 <input type="submit" value="Convert"><br>
46
47                 Fahrenheit temperature: {}
48
49             </form>
50
51         </body>
52
53     </html>""".format(celTemp, farTemp))
54
55 routes = [('/', MainPage)]
56
57 myApp = webapp2.WSGIApplication(routes, debug=True)
58
59

```

As before, our `convertTemp()` function checks to see if the user supplied a valid value. Since the user won't have supplied any value when the page first loads (and we don't want to start out by saying "invalid input"), we check first for this condition and return an empty string if the text field is also blank.

We used `self.request.get("celTemp")` to get the user-supplied value of `celTemp` from the user's "get" request (just like we did for the user's "post" request in the previous example). The HTML code that we `write()` out as a multi-line string now includes two user-supplied values: the `celTemp`, which is the value that the user entered into the text field, and the `farTemp`, which is the calculated result returned by our function. If we had not written the value of `celTemp` into the text box, then this input box would be cleared when the user clicks on the button.

Save this script as "temperature.py" in the same "first_app" folder, then update the `app.yaml` configuration file accordingly. Since we renamed our script, we changed the name of the module where the `WSGIApplication` object `myApp` should be loaded:

```

1 application: temperature-converter
2 version: 1
3 runtime: python27

```

```
4 api_version: 1
5 threadsafe: false
6 handlers:
7 - url: /*
8   script: temperature.myApp
```

We also updated the name of the application just to provide a descriptive name for what the application actually does. Even if you left App Engine running, this name will update automatically in the Launcher. Notice how we used a dash but didn't use any capitalization in the name; application names for Google App Engine can only include lower-case letters, digits and hyphens.

You should now be able to use your new web application, supplying temperatures and seeing the converted result appear on the same webpage. Since we use a "get" request, we can also now see the user-supplied data appear in the URL. In fact, you can even circumvent the form and provide your own value for celTemp by supplying an appropriate address. For instance, try typing the URL `localhost:8080/?celTemp=30` directly into your browser and you will see the resulting temperature conversion.

Review exercises:

1. Modify the "log in" web application example so that it only has a single main webpage that can receive "get" requests from the user; instead of a "Sign In" button under the text field, make a "Greet me!" button that, when clicked, reloads the page to greet the user by name (if a name has been supplied) and display the greeting form again

Assignment: The poet gains a web presence

Recreate the random poem generator that we saw in assignments 6.1 and 12.2 by turning it into an interactive web application. You should use a web form like the one at poem-generator.appspot.com to help your user generate poems. You can view the source of this webpage to reverse-engineer most of the necessary HTML code. Your web application should use a single webpage with a single form that accepts “get” requests from the user. Bonus: Learn how to [use static files](#) like [CSS](#) in your web application to improve its overall appearance and make your HTML code easier to read and maintain.

Put your web application online

It's finally time to share your beautiful work with the world. Getting your content online is actually a fairly simple process with Google App Engine.

Google provides a free service at appspot.com to allow you to host up to ten different web applications (as long as you don't have millions of users accessing them every month, in which case you will need to upgrade to a paid plan). You will first need to go to appengine.google.com and sign in to App Engine.

Once you've logged into App Engine, you can create a new application and give it a unique "Application Identifier", which is the name of your web application. This name will appear in the URL of your application, which will look like: **`http://your-application-name.appspot.com`**

Since this is a direct URL that must be unique, you might need to try a few times before you find a name that isn't already in use by someone else. I'm going to use the temperature conversion application and name mine "temperature-converter" - which means you can't! Whatever you end up using as your application identifier, be sure to update your configuration file so that the name provided for the "application" in the very first line of the file matches this application name. The title that you provide for your application will be the name that appears on the webpage's title bar (so in this case, specifying a `<title>` in the HTML was superfluous).

Once you've registered an application ID and updated your web application to reflect this name, you're ready to go! Just click the "Deploy" button in App Engine Launcher and log in with your Google account to load the application onto your new webpage. A new window will appear, offering details of the upload process; it may take a minute or two to complete.

Linux users: you will need to navigate to the folder just before the `first_app` folder, then use the following command for uploading the application through App Engine: `google_appengine/appcfg.py update first_app/`

If you see the message "This application does not exist", then either you have not registered the application correctly or the name of your web application does not match the application identifier that you provided. **Congratulations! You now have a live webpage of your own running Python code.**

Google has a number of other handy built-in features, including the ability to store "persistent" user data (that lasts even after the user leaves the website) within your application and even a way to integrate your application with your users' Google accounts. The current [tutorials and documentation](#) include functional but outdated example code, although it can still provide an idea of what is possible beyond the basics.

For complex websites, writing out long blocks of HTML is fairly inefficient and hard to manage, which is why a number of frameworks have been developed to help organize and speed up the web development process using templates and pre-built pieces of code. [Django](#) is perhaps the most popular web framework. [Flask](#) and [web2py](#) are other popular options; web2py is especially good at integrating with databases. All of these web frameworks can be run on their own or set up through Google App Engine instead of using webapp2. In fact, App Engine supports [Django templates](#) within webapp2 by default.

Chapter 18

Final Thoughts

Congratulations! You've made it to the beginning. You already know enough to do a lot of amazing things with Python, but now the real fun starts: it's time to explore on your own!

The best way to learn is by solving real problems of your own. Sure, your code might not be very pretty or efficient when you're just starting out, but it will be useful. If you don't think you have any problems of the variety that Python could solve, pick a [popular module](#) that interests you and create your own project around it.

Part of what makes Python so great is the community. Log in at the [RealPython.com](#) members' forum and help out other new Python students; the only way to know you've really mastered a concept is when you can explain it to someone else.

If you're interested in web development, consider diving into the [more advanced Real Python courses](<http://RealPython.com>).

If you've made it this far using Python 2.7, you should consider getting a handle on Python 3.4 as well. The changes are all fairly minimal, but eventually Python 3 will actually catch on and be used with more frequency, so it's good to be prepared. For transitioning Python 2 code that you've already written into Python 3, you should consider learning to use the built-in [2to3](#) program.

When you feel ready, consider helping out with an open-source project on [GitHub](#). If puzzles are more your style, try working through some of the mathematical challenges on [Project Euler](#) or the series of riddles at [Python Challenge](#). You can also sign up for Udacity's free [CS101 course](#) to learn how to build a basic search engine using Python - although you know most of the Python concepts covered there already!

If you get stuck somewhere along the way, I guarantee that someone else has encountered (and potentially solved) the exact same problem before; search around for answers, particularly at [Stack Overflow](#), or find a [community](#) of Pythonistas willing to help you out.

If all else fails, `import` this and take a moment to meditate on that which is Python.

Chapter 19

Appendix A: Installing Python

Windows 7

Start by downloading Python 2.7.6 from the official Python [website](#). The Windows version is distributed as a MSI package. Once downloaded, double-click the file to install. By default this will install Python to C:\Python2.7.

You also need to add Python to your PATH environmental variables, so when you want to run a Python script, you do not have to type the full path each and every time, as this is quite tedious.

Since you downloaded Python version 2.7.6, you need to add the add the following directories to your PATH:

- C:\Python27\Scripts\
- C:\PYTHON27\DLLs\
- C:\PYTHON27\LIB\

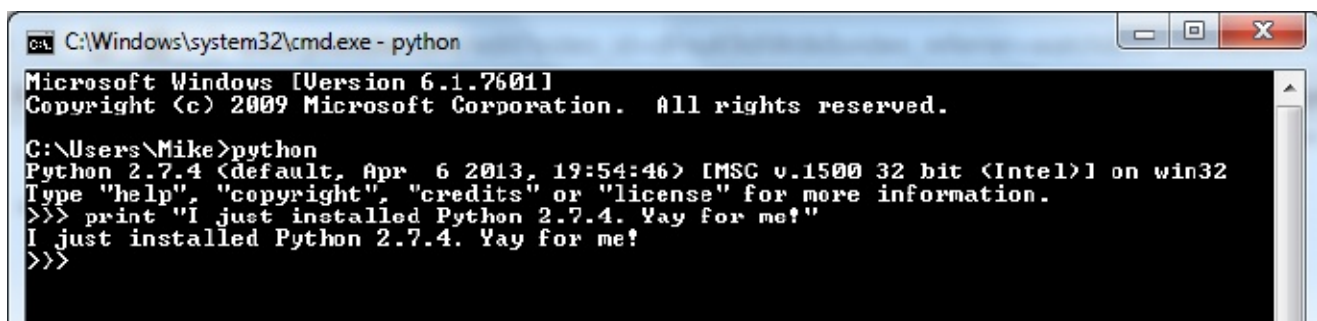
Open your power shell and run the following statement:

```
[Environment]::SetEnvironmentVariable("Path",  
"$env:Path;C:\Python27\;C:\Python27\Scripts\;C:\PYTHON27\DLLs\;C:\PYTHON27\LIB\;" ,  
"User")
```

That's it. To test to make sure Python was installed correctly open your command prompt and then type python to load the Shell:

Video

Watch the video [here](#) for assistance.

A screenshot of a Windows command prompt window. The title bar reads "C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe - python". The window has standard Windows window controls (minimize, maximize, close) on the right. The text inside the window is as follows:

```
Microsoft Windows [Version 6.1.7601]
Copyright (c) 2009 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.

C:\Users\Mike>python
Python 2.7.4 (default, Apr 6 2013, 19:54:46) [MSC v.1500 32 bit (Intel)] on win32
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license()" for more information.
>>> print "I just installed Python 2.7.4. Yay for me!"
I just installed Python 2.7.4. Yay for me!
>>>
```

Figure 19.1: windows install

Mac OS X

All Mac OS X versions since 10.4 come with Python pre-installed. You can view the version by opening the terminal and typing `python` to enter the shell. The output will look like this:



Figure 19.2: mac install

If you don't currently have version 2.7.6, go ahead and upgrade by downloading the latest [installer](#). Once downloaded, double-click the file to install.

Linux

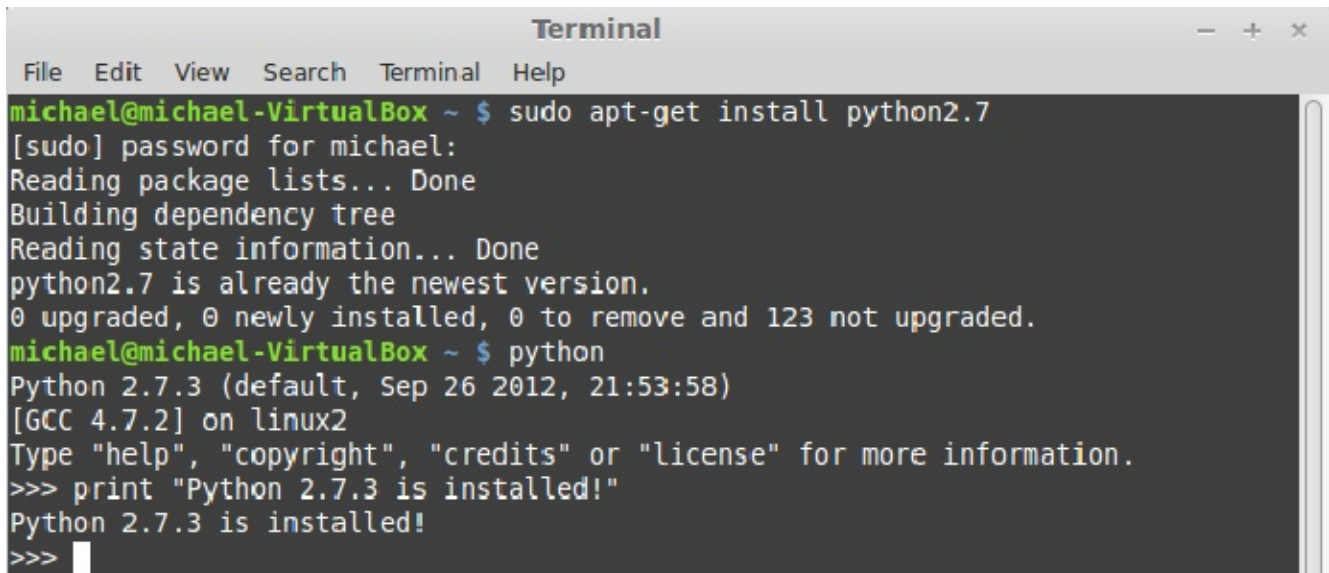
If you are using Ubuntu, Linux Mint, or another Debian-based system, enter the following command in your terminal:

```
1 sudo apt-get install python2.7
```

Or you can download the tarball directly from the official Python [website](#). Once downloaded, run the following commands:

```
1 $ tar -zxvf [mytarball.tar.gz]
2 $ ./configure
3 $ make
4 $ sudo make install
```

Once installed, fire up the terminal and type python to get to the shell:



```
Terminal
File Edit View Search Terminal Help
michael@michael-VirtualBox ~ $ sudo apt-get install python2.7
[sudo] password for michael:
Reading package lists... Done
Building dependency tree
Reading state information... Done
python2.7 is already the newest version.
0 upgraded, 0 newly installed, 0 to remove and 123 not upgraded.
michael@michael-VirtualBox ~ $ python
Python 2.7.3 (default, Sep 26 2012, 21:53:58)
[GCC 4.7.2] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> print "Python 2.7.3 is installed!"
Python 2.7.3 is installed!
>>> █
```

Figure 19.3: linux install

If you have problems or have a different Linux distribution, you can always use your package manager or just do a Google search for how to install Python on your particular Linux distribution.

Chapter 20

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