

Module: Network Communication Over HTTP(S) and Sockets

(b) (3) -P.L. 86-36

Updated over 2 years ago by [REDACTED] in COMP 3321

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fcs6 python

(U) Module: Network Communication Over HTTP(S) and Sockets

Recommendations

(U) HTTP with requests

(U) There are complicated ways of interacting with the network using built-in libraries, such as `urllib`, `urllib2`, and `httpplib`. We'll forgo those in favor of the `requests` library. This is included with Anaconda, but generally not with other python interpreters. So for this notebook, you'll want to execute it on an Anaconda jupyter-notebook, not in labbench. In general, you can pip install it on other python implementations.

```
$ pip install requests
import requests
# One of the few things not yet requiring a certificate for Secure The Net.
resp = requests.get([REDACTED])
print(resp.status_code)
print(len(resp.content))
print(len(resp.text))
# bytes vs. unicode
resp.content == resp.text
```

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resp.content
resp.url
resp.ok
resp.headers

(U) Other HTTP methods, including `put`, `delete`, and `head` are also supported by `requests`

(U) Setting up PKI

(U) Convert P12 certificate to PEM

(U//FOUO) The `requests` module needs your digital signature certificate to be in PEM format. This section assumes you're starting with a P12 formatted certificate, which is what you commonly start with. If you can't find your P12 cert, you may be able to export it from your browser. If you use CSPid, other instructions may apply. We'll also do this in python below, so you don't have to do this now.

1. (U) Windows Start > type 'cygwin' > run Cygwin Terminal
2. (U//FOUO) Run `cd /cygdrive/u/private/Certificates` (or whatever directory holds your .p12)
3. (U) Run `openssl pkcs12 -clcerts -in <your DS cert>.p12 -out <your DS cert>.pem`
 - (U) Enter your existing certificate password
 - (U) Enter a new pass phrase. It's generally a good idea to re-use the .p12 password.
 - (U) Confirm the new pass phrase.

(U//FOUO) Get the CA trust chain

(U//FOUO) To interact with sites over HTTPS, Python will need to know which certificate authorities to trust. To tell it that, you will need the following file.

1. (U//FOUO) Visit the [PKI certificate authorities page](#) (or "go pki" > click on "CA Chains" under "Server Administrators")
2. (U//FOUO) Scroll down to "Apache Certification Authority Bundles" at the bottom and click to expand "All Trusted Partners Apache Bundles"
3. (U//FOUO) Right click on "AllTrustedPartners.crt" and save it into the directory holding your .p12 certificate

(U) HTTPS and PKI with `requests`

(U) To use PKI, you need the proper [Certificate Authority](#) and [PEM-encoded PKI keys](#). We'll use a `requests.Session` object so that we only have to load these once..

Challenge: find a better algorithym than DES that `dump_privatekey` accepts

```
from OpenSSL import crypto
p12 = crypto.load_pkcs12(open("sid_DS.p12", "rb").read(), b"Your PKI password")
certfile = open("sid_DS.pem", "wb")
certfile.write(crypto.dump_privatekey(crypto.FILETYPE_PEM, p12.get_privatekey(), 'DES', b"mypkipassword"))
certfile.write(crypto.dump_certificate(crypto.FILETYPE_PEM, p12.get_certificate()))
certfile.close()

import requests

ses = requests.Session()

ses.verify = 'Apache_Bundle_AllTrustedPartners.crt'

# Will take the certificate, or a tuple of the certificate and password or at least it used to
# but the current version seems to not want to take a password string
# this avoids us getting prompted for the password
ses.cert = 'sid_DS.pem' #, b"mypkipassword",

resp = ses.get('https://home.web.nsa.ic.gov/')
```

At this point you need to click over to the terminal running your notebook and respond to the

Enter PEM pass phrase:

prompt. You should only get one prompt per Session().

```
resp.headers

resp = ses.get('https://nbgallery.nsa.ic.gov/')
resp.headers
```

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(U) It's also easy to POST data to a web service with `requests`:

```
resp = ses.get('https://nbgallery.nsa.ic.gov/')

index1 = resp.text.find('method="post"')
index2 = resp.text.find('</form>', index1)
print (resp.text[index1-64:index2+7])
```

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```
payload = {"Name": "████████",  
          "sid": "████",  
          "Organization": "████████",  
          "others": "████",  
          "message": "Just playing with Python(Jeannie said it was OK)",  
          "sendto": "████",  
          "subject": "(U//FOUO) Testing", "redirect": "",  
          "classification": "UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY"}  
  
resp = ses.post("https://siteworks.web.nsa.ic.gov/main/emailForm/", data=payload)  
  
print(resp.text[resp.text.find("Your form"):]])
```

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(U) In this example, `ses.cert` could also be a list or tuple containing `(certfile, keyfile)`, and `keyfile` can be a password-less PEM file or a PEM file and password string tuple, so you aren't prompted for your password every time.

(U) Low-level socket connections with `socket`

(U) Communication over a socket requires a **server** (which *listens*) and a **client** (which *connects*) to the server, so we'll need to open up two interactive interpreters. Both the server and the client can send and receive data. The **server** must

1. *Bind* to an IP address and port,
2. Announce that it is accepting connections,
3. Listen for connections.
4. Accept a connection.
5. Communicate on the established connection.

We'll run the server (immediately below) in the notebook and the client (below) in a separate python window on the system where we're running our jupyter-notebook.

```
#THIS IS THE SERVER  
  
import socket  
  
sock_server = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM) # IPv4, TCP  
  
HOST = '127.0.0.1'  
  
PORT = 50505 # USE YOUR OWN!
```

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```
sock_server.bind((HOST, PORT))
sock_server.listen(1)
sock_conn, meta = sock_server.accept()
sock_conn.send(b"Hello, welcome to the server")
sock_conn.recv(4096)
```

(U) The **client** must

1. Connect to an existing (IP address, port) tuple where a **server** is listening.
2. Communicate on the established connection.

So for our purposes, we'll run the following in a separate python window

```
#THIS IS THE CLIENT
import socket
sock_client = socket.socket(socket.AF_INET, socket.SOCK_STREAM)
HOST, PORT = '127.0.0.1', 50505 # must match a known server
sock_client.connect((HOST, PORT))
sock_client.recv(512)
sock_client.send(b"Thank you. I am the client")
```

(U) Buffering, etc. are taken care of for you, mostly.

(U) Topics for Future Consideration:

- SOAP with SOAPpy and/or SUDS
- Using modules from the Standard Library
- XML-RPC
- Parsing HTML with BeautifulSoup

(U)

HTTPS and PKI Concepts

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pem pkcs12 p12 pki https pyPKI2 ssl requests openssl fcs6 ppk

(U) Overview of HTTPS and PKI concepts.

Recommendations

HTTPS and PKI Concepts

PKI is confusing, especially given the mix of internal and external uses, but there are some core concepts.

Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

Each PKI certificate has two parts, the private key and the public key. The public key is simply an encrypted form of the private key. It is important to keep the private key secret at all costs. A compromised private key would allow someone else to pretend to be the original owner.

Establishing Trust

When you go to amazon.com, your browser receives their server certificate. But how do you know you can trust it?

Certificate Authorities (CA's)

Buried in your browser is a long list of known certificate authorities, such as Verisign. The amazon.com server certificate has been digitally signed by one of these CA's. We know it's coming from amazon.com because only amazon can generate the corresponding public key, and **only the corresponding private key can decrypt traffic sent to the public key**. In other words, because your computer knows the public key is signed by a known CA, and your computer is sending data to that public key, only amazon can decrypt it because they have the corresponding private key.

PKI in the IC

The IC, including NSA, has its own certificate authorities (CA's). Furthermore, both the users and the servers have certificates (generally only servers have certificates on the outside). These certificates are signed by the IC CA's, which are visible at <https://pki.web.nsa.ic.gov/pages/certificateAuthorities.shtml>

Digital Signature (DS) Certificate

90% of the time, you're using your digital signature certificate. This certificate verifies that you are you to the various services you access on NSAnet. You also use your DS certificate for Secure Shell (SSH) to access systems like MACHINESHOP, LABBENCH, and OpenShift.

Key Encryption (KE) Certificate

On the rare occasion that you encrypt an e-mail, you use your KE certificate. Your browser doesn't actually need this certificate.

Key Formats

PKCS12

NSA keys come in PKCS12 (.p12) format. It contains both the public and private key. With Python, you need the OpenSSL package to use PKCS12 certificates.

PEM

PEM format is by far the most widely supported format on the outside. Many languages and frameworks only support PEM, not PKCS12. However, you can convert your key from PKCS12 to PEM format using the openssl command.

To further complicate matters, many languages and frameworks only support **unencrypted** PEM certificates. You can unencrypt your PEM or PKCS12 certificate with the openssl command, but this is generally a no-no since it would allow anyone to masquerade as you.

PPK

PPK format is only used by PuTTY, the SSH tool for Windows. You can convert your key from PKCS12 to PPK format with the P12_to_PPK Converter tool.

PKI with Python

pypki2

Examples at <https://gitlab.coi.nsa.ic.gov/python/pypki2/blob/master/README.md>

By Hand with ssl Package

SSL is the Secure Sockets Layer, which implements HTTPS (Hyper Text Transfer Protocol Secure)

Python 2.7.9+

```
from getpass import getpass
from urllib2 import build_opener, HTTPCookieProcessor, HTTPError, HTTPSHandler, Request
import ssl

pemPasswd = getpasswd('Enter your PKI password: ')
context = ssl.SSLContext(ssl.PROTOCOL_SSLv23)
context.load_cert_chain(pemCertFile, keyfile=pemKeyFile, password=pemPasswd)
context.load_verify_locations(cafile=pemCAFile)
opener = build_opener(HTTPCookieProcessor(), HTTPSHandler(context=context))
req = Request('https://wikipedia.nsa.ic.gov/en/Colossally_abundant_number')
resp = opener.open(req)
print(resp.read())
```

Python 3.4+

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```
from getpass import getpass
from urllib.request import build_opener, HTTPCookieProcessor, HTTPSHandler, Request
import ssl

pemPasswd = getpasswd('Enter your PKI password: ')
context = ssl.SSLContext(ssl.PROTOCOL_SSLv23)
context.load_cert_chain(pemCertfile, keyfile=pemKeyFile, password=pemPasswd)
context.load_verify_locations(cafile=pemCAFile)
opener = build_opener(HTTPCookieProcessor(), HTTPSHandler(context=context))
req = Request('https://wikipedia.nsa.ic.gov/en/Colossally_abundant_number')
resp = opener.open(req)
print(str(resp.read(), encoding='utf-8')) # read() returns bytes type, which has to be converted to str type
```

External Packages

OpenSSL

Handles PKCS12 and many other key formats, but not part of the standard library. It is included with Anaconda/Jupyter.

Requests

Supports only unencrypted PEM format. Takes care of a lot of little things for you like HTTP redirects. More on HTTP Status Codes at https://wikipedia.nsa.ic.gov/en/List_of_HTTP_status_codes

Python, HTTPS, and LABBENCH

(b) (3)-P.L. 86-36

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fcx91 requests_pki labbench

(U//FOUO) This notebook demonstrates how to interact with web resources over HTTPS when using LABBENCH. It primarily uses the `requests_pki` module.

Recommendations

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(U//FOUO) Python, HTTPS, and LABBENCH

(U//FOUO) This notebook demonstrates how to interact with web resources over HTTPS when using LABBENCH. It uses the `requests_pki` and `rest_api` modules.

(U) HTTP with `requests_pki`

(U) There are complicated ways of interacting with the network using built-in libraries, such as `urllib`, `urllib2`, and `httpplib`. For basic (unsecured) interaction, we can use `requests`. However, with *Secure The Net*, almost everything is now PKI-enabled.

(U) Luckily, there is a module for that! LABBENCH has native support for `requests_pki`, which makes it an ideal library for us.

`!pip3 install requests`

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```
import ipydeps

modules = ['requests-pki', 'pypac']

ipydeps.pip(modules)
```

(U) Example 1: Obligatory example of `requests`

```
import requests
# One of the few things not yet requiring a certificate for Secure The Net.
resp = requests.get('http://airs.s2.org.nsa.ic.gov/')

print("Response code: {}".format(resp.status_code))
print("Length of content: {}".format(len(resp.content)))
print("Length of text: {}".format(len(resp.text)))
```

(U) That's interesting. Are `content` and `text` the same?

```
resp.content == resp.text
```

(U) It turns out that `content` stores the *bytes* of the response and `text` stores the *unicode* of the response. Let's look at the text:

```
print(resp.text)
```

(U) That's great if we want the raw HTML...which in many cases we may. However, we can render the HTML response natively within Jupyter!

```
from IPython.display import display, HTML
display(HTML(resp.text))
```

(U) Notice that we didn't get any of the images that go along with this webpage, but for our purposes now this is sufficient.

(U) `requests_pki`

(U) LABBENCH has made interacting with secure webpages trivial! That's because the `requests_pki` module works seamlessly with LABBENCH to pass your PKI with your request. Let's see how easy it is!

(U) Example 2: nbGallery

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```
import requests_pki
sess = requests_pki.Session()

resp = sess.get('https://nbgallery.nsa.ic.gov/')

resp.headers

display(HTML(resp.text))
```

(U) So maybe Jupyter isn't meant to be a full-fledged web-browser after all...

(U) Example 3: Notebook Gallery search

(U) Search the Notebook Gallery for a term, get the results back as JSON, and parse the JSON. This adds a new `headers` argument to the GET request.

(U) Normally a web server will respond with some default type of output. That may be `application/html`, `application/xml`, or something else. If you don't like that, you can try persuading the server to give you something else using an `Accept` header. That will tell the server your preferred response format (i.e. the format you prefer to accept). Servers often support multiple formats, but not all of them.

```
import json

search_term = 'beautifulsoup'
url = "https://nbgallery.nsa.ic.gov/notebooks"
params = { 'q' : search_term, 'sort' : 'score' }
headers = { 'Accept' : 'application/json' }
resp = sess.get(url, params=params, headers=headers)

resp.url

print(resp.text)

# json.loads() will parse a JSON string into Lists and hashes
resp_parsed = json.loads(resp.text)

type(resp_parsed)

# take a look at it and find what you want
resp_parsed
```

```
# print the titles of all notebooks that matched your search term
[ record['title'] for record in resp_parsed ]
```

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(U) Example 4: Using a proxy

(U) Sometimes you need a proxy set up, particularly when working with second party sites. `requests_pk1` and `pypac` make this setup quite easy!

```
import pypac

proxy = 'http://www.web.nsa.ic.gov/proxy/ipsec.pac'
url = 'http://www.web.nsa.ic.gov/namingstuff'
sess = requests_pk1.Session(pac=proxy)
params = { 'type' : 'Community' , 'activity_area' : 'All' , 'project' : 'All' , 'service' : 'All' }
respFromCSE = sess.get(url, params=params)

display(HTML(respFromCSE.text))
```

(U) Example 5: Post with JSON

Sometimes you'll need to 'post' data rather than do a 'get' request. The 'post' works similar to the 'get', but you'll need to specify parameters for the post and usually need to set the headers as well. This one posts the parameters as a JSON object; another common content type is `application/x-www-form-urlencoded`, in which you'll need to use the `urllib` library to URL encode your parameters prior to posting them.

```
base_url = 'https://namingstuff-western.apps.oso4.platform.cloud.nsa.ic.gov/'

# with this post, we're telling the host that we are sending json, and want to receive json
# the post parameters are sent in the 'data' key, and must be json in this case
status_code = 0
tries = 0
while not status_code == 200:
    resp = sess.post(
        base_url + 'GetRecord/languages/languages',
        headers={'Accept': 'application/json', 'Content-Type': 'application/json'},
        data=json.dumps({'language': {'$ne': 'English'}})
    )
    status_code = resp.status_code
    tries += 1
    if tries > 3:
        break
```

```

print(resp.status_code)
languages = json.loads(resp.text)
print(len(languages))
print(languages[0])

```

(U) rest_api

The `rest_api` library is another resource for accessing HTTPS pages on NSANet. Like `requests_pk1`, `rest_api` takes care of all the PKI authentication for you, but this library is built to enable you to create what's called an 'API wrapper', which means that we're wrapping our own class around the API, which is designed to just make it easier to query the API and interpret the results. API, by the way, stands for Application Programming Interface, and is basically a clearly defined set of methods for communication with a given service, or rules for interacting with data housed in a web service.

In general if you want to hit a single web page, `requests_pk1` is generally preferred because there's less overhead (you don't have to create a whole class to do it). But if you want to hit multiple pages at a website or API, then `rest_api` is probably the better way to go.

(U) Example 6: rest_api with TESTFLIGHT

This example shows a simple class that inherits from `rest_api.AbstractRestAPI`, and allows us to hit a couple of pages (called 'endpoints') of the TESTFLIGHT API. Notice we set `host` and `headers` as class variables. With these set, we don't have to define them every time we make a query to a TESTFLIGHT page. For each page we just add the actual page or endpoint and the class fills in the rest of the URL.

```

ipydeps.pip('rest-api')
import rest_api

class Testflight(rest_api.AbstractRestAPI):
    host = 'https://tf-www.testflight.proj.nsa.ic.gov'
    headers = {'Accept': 'application/json'}

    def sources(self):
        "Returns a list of all sources that feed Testflight"
        endpoint = '/SolanoService/rest/report/sources'
        return self._get(endpoint).json()

    def search(self, **kwargs):
        "Returns report summaries that match the given keyword arguments"
        endpoint = '/SolanoService/rest/report/search/'
        return self._post(endpoint, data=kwargs).json()

```

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```
from pprint import pprint
tf = Testflight()
pprint(tf.sources()[:3])

pprint(tf.search(originator='NSA', fields="subject serial nif", start=0, rows=3, sort='Newest'))
```

(U) Other resources

- (U//FOUO) [Other notebooks](#) on the Notebook Gallery that use `requests` (can you modify example 4 above to find them?)
- (U//FOUO) [pypki2](#), an open source module for working with your P12 certificate that originated at NSA. It's not part of Anaconda and works best in Jupyter on LABBENCH. It works with `urllib.requests` instead.

(U) One more comment. Be careful when you try to display the HTML from webpages...some webpages may affect things more than you want...

```
resp = sess.get('https://home.web.nsa.ic.gov/')
display(HTML(resp.text))
```

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Module HTML Processing With BeautifulSoup

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(b) (3) - P.I. 86-36

Updated 9 months ago by [REDACTED]

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fcx92 beautifulsoup

(U) BeautifulSoup module for COMP3321.

Recommendations

(U) BeautifulSoup is a Python module designed to help you easily locate and pull information out of an HTML document (or string).

(U) A good deal of the time, maybe even the majority of the time, when you have to get your data from the interwebs you will query a web service that returns complete, well formatted responses (JSON, XML, etc).

However, sometimes you just have to deal with the fact that the data you want can only be obtained by parsing a messy, probably automatically generated, web page.

(U) There are several approaches to dealing with web page parsing, and several Python packages that can help you. In this lesson we cover one of the most common, BeautifulSoup.

(U//FOUO) If you are running this via Jupyter on Anaconda, you can import BeautifulSoup and use the requests module to do the [] example. If you want to perform the [] homepage example on Anaconda, you will need to export your signature PKI to PEM format (instructions [here](#)) and use a module that supports HTTPS such as urllib.request.

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(U//FOUO) If you are running Jupyter on LABBENCH, execute the below cell to install bs4 and rest_api:

```
import ipydeps

modules = ['bs4', 'rest_api']

ipydeps.pip(modules)

import rest_api
```

(U) Run this cell regardless of LABBENCH or Anaconda

```
import requests
from bs4 import BeautifulSoup
from IPython.display import HTML, display
```

(C) Let's grab the [] [homepage](#) and save the table on the page as nice, parseable (is that a word?) text. Notice that we can do a simple .get() from the requests module. This is because the [] homepage is one of the very few plain HTTP sites left on the high side.

```
# We will try to connect and catch any exceptions in case things go awry
try:
    resp = requests.get('████████')
except:
    print("Well, that didn't work!")

#uncomment these lines if you want to see some of the helpful attributes of the response object

# print(resp.status_code)
# print(len(resp.content))
# print(len(resp.text))

#If we got this far then we have a response (we are going to assume the response isn't
# "Access Denied") we take the response text and create a BeautifulSoup object so we can
# tiptoe through our data
bsObj = BeautifulSoup(resp.text, "html.parser")

#Also could have used bsObj.findAll, this returns a list of all the <table>'s in the HTML
tables = bsObj.findAll("table")

#open our output file for writing
outfile = open(████████table.txt', 'w')

#Loop through our list of tables from the findAll("table") above and go through the table
# one row (<tr>) and cell (<td>) at a time, outputting the information to the screen as csv
# and to the output file in pipe('|') delimited formats.
for table in tables:
    i = 0
    for tr in table.findAll('tr'):
        i += 1
        j = 0
        for td in tr.findAll('td'):
            print('{},'.format(td.text), end='')
            outfile.write("element{}:{}|".format(j,td.text))
            j += 1
        outfile.write('\n')
        print()
outfile.close()
```

(U) Notice how we can display a hyperlink to our output - this might be handy if you don't want to go to Jupyter Home to display the file.

```
display(HTML('<a href="{}" target="_blank">display file</a>'.format("table.txt")))
```

(U) Now lets try something a little trickier. Let's pull down the homepage and redisplay the "Current Activities" bulleted list inline in our notebook.

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```
#We are going to use the rest_api module here. This is a NSA specific package and has
# HTTPS support baked in. It makes pulling webpages using your PKIs a snap, even though
# the package was really designed to access RESTful webservices and not web pages.
```

```
 urlString = 
```

```
parameters = ''
headers = { 'text/html',
            'application/xhtml+xml',
            'application/xml;q=0.9',
            '*/*;q=0.8'
        }
queryString = ""
#Create an api object for our host server
api = rest_api.AbstractRestAPI(host=urlString)
```

```
#Get the homepage from the server. If you wanted sub-pages off the server you would put
# that path in the queryString as something like "/folder/page.html".
```

```
try:
    resp = api._get(queryString)
except:
    print("Well that didn't work!")
```

```
#Create our BeautifulSoup object
bsObj = BeautifulSoup(resp.text, "html.parser")
```

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```
#Use the .find method to get the <body> of the HTML document. We will drill down to our
# list from there. .find() only returns the first matching HTML tag, which is OK in this
# case because you *should* only have one <body> tag in the document
body = bsObj.find('body')
```

(U//FOUO) Now for the sticky bit.

From the the Chrome brower Tools-> Developer Tools console (could have done this in Firefox as well from Tools->Web Developer->Toggle Tools) I ascertained that the path through the HTML to the bulleted list I care about is

```
section2 > div.item-container.item-container2.item-container-rss.item147067 > div.item-content.item-content2 > div > div
```

more succinctly, as xpath it is

```
//*[@id="section2"]/div[2]/div[1]/div/div/
```

but BeautifulSoup does not accept xpath (whomp, whomp). If you like to use xpath the lxml module does a decent job of parsing HTML and does accept xpath syntax.

```
#Now I progress through the body object using the find_next method to get to the bulleted list
activities = body.find_next('div',{'id':'section2'}).find_next('div',{'class':'feedDisplay'})
```

(U) Now we have the right element in the activities object. We can use the **str()** method to get the raw HTML from the object and either print it inline in the notebook or we can just print the text using the **.text** attribute.

```
# print(activities)
display(HTML(activities.__str__()))
```

An easier way: using 'select'

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In the 'Inspector' view in your Developer Tools, you can right-click on your desired tag and choose 'Copy Unique Selector' to copy the CSS selector path for your tag. Then you can use `soup.select` or `soup.select_one` to navigate directly to that tag, rather than crawling through the entire hierarchy to get to it. (Note: I ran this in Firefox, not sure what the right-click menu is like in Chrome)

```
selector = ".rssEntries > li:nth-child(1) > div:nth-child(3)"  
# at Least for our version of bs4, you have to replace  
# nth-child with nth-of-type  
selector = selector.replace("nth-child", "nth-of-type")  
# bsObj.select would find all tags with that path  
bsObj.select_one(selector)
```

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Module: Operations with Compression and Archives

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(b) (3) -P.L. 86-36

Updated about 2 years ago by [REDACTED] in [COMP 3321](#)

 3 70 8

[fcs6](#) [python](#)

(U) Module: Operations with Compression and Archives

[Recommendations](#)

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```
user_string = ''  
name,username,city,state,zip_code,primary_workstation
```



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```
...  
  
json_string = ''  
[{"author": "Jane Austen", "title": "Pride and Prejudice"}, {"author": "Fyodor Dostoevsky", "title": "Crime and Punishment"}, {  
...  
  
with open('user_file.csv','w') as f:  
    f.write(user_string)
```

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```
with open('user_file.json', 'w') as f:  
    f.write(json_string)
```

zipfile

```
import zipfile  
  
with zipfile.ZipFile('user_file.zip', mode='w') as zf:  
    zf.write('user_file.csv')  
  
zf = zipfile.ZipFile('user_file.zip') # with a filename  
  
zf2 = zipfile.ZipFile(open('user_file.zip')) # with a file or file-like object  
zf2 == zf  
  
zf.namelist()  
  
zf2.namelist()  
  
z = zf.filelist[0]  
z  
  
z.filename, z.file_size  
  
[(z.filename, z.file_size) for z in zf.filelist]  
  
zf.getinfo('user_file.csv')  
  
user_file_csv = zf.open('user_file.csv', 'r') # returns a file-like object!  
  
from csv import DictReader  
user_data = [_ for _ in DictReader(user_file_csv)]  
print(len(user_data))  
user_data[0]  
  
user_file_csv.read()  
  
user_file_csv.close()  
  
zf.extract(zf.filelist[0], 'zfextract')
```

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gzip

```
import gzip

with gzip.open('user_file.csv.gz', 'wt') as gf:
    gf.write('This string will be stored as text')

gzip_users = gzip.open('user_file.csv.gz') # takes a file name, returns a file-like object!
x = gzip_users.readlines()
gzip_users.close()
x[:3]

gzip_users = gzip.open('user_file.csv.gz', 'rt')
g_user_dicts = list(DictReader(gzip_users))
g_user_dicts[:2]

with open('user_file.csv.gz', 'rb') as f:
    still_gzipped = f.read()
still_gzipped[:100]

from io import StringIO
unpacked_users = gzip.GzipFile(fileobj=io.StringIO(still_gzipped)) # what if you have bytes or a file-like obejct to unpack?
unpacked_users.readlines()[:3]
```

tarfile

```
import tarfile

with tarfile.open('userfile.tar', mode='w') as tf:
    tf.add('user_file.csv')
    tf.add('user_file.json')

tarfile.is_tarfile('userfile.tar'), tarfile.is_tarfile('user_file.csv')

tf = tarfile.open('userfile.tar') # don't need to unzip first!
tf.getmembers()

tf.getnames()
```

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```
u = tf.extractfile('user_file.csv')
u2 = tf.extractfile(tf.getmembers()[1])

u.readline()
u2.read()[:150]

tf.extractall('from_tarball')
```

Module: Regular Expressions

(b) (3) -P.L. 86-36

Updated 11 months ago by [REDACTED] in [COMP 3321](#)
3 322 154

fcs6 python comp3321

(U) Module: Regular Expressions

Recommendations

(U) Regular Expressions (Regex)

(U) Now You've Got Two Problems...

Some people, when confronted with a problem, think "I know, I'll use regular expressions." Now they have two problems.

Jamie Zawinski, 1997

(U) A **regular expression** is a tool for finding and capturing patterns in text strings. It is very powerful and can be very complicated; the *second problem* referred to in the quote is a commentary on how regular expressions are essentially a separate programming language. As a rule of thumb, use the `in` operator or string methods like `find` or `startswith` if they are suitable for the task. When things get more complicated, use regular expressions, but try to use them sparingly, like a seasoning. At times it may be tempting to write one giant, powerful, super regular expression, but that is probably not the best thing to do.

(U) The power of regular expressions is found in the special characters. Some, like `^` and `$`, are roughly equivalent to string methods `startswith` and `endswith`, while others are more flexible, especially `.` and `*`, which allow flexible matching.

(U) Getting Stuff Done without Regex

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```
"mike" in "so many mikes!"  
"mike".startswith("mi")  
"mike".endswith("ke")  
"mike".find("k")  
"mike".isalpha()  
"mike".isdigit()  
"mike".replace("k", "c")
```

(U) Regular expressions in Python

There are only a few common methods for using the `re` module, but they don't always do what you would first expect. Some functionality is exposed through `flags`, which are actually constants (i.e. `int` defined for the `re` module), which means that they can be combined by addition.

```
import re  
  
re.match("c", "abcdef")  
re.match("a", "abcdef")  
re.search("c", "abcdef")  
re.search("C", "abcdef")  
re.search("C", "abcdef", re.I) # re.IGNORECASE  
re.search("^c", "ab\ncdef")  
re.search("^c", "ab\ncdef", re.M) # re.MULTILINE  
re.search("^C", "ab\ncdef", re.M + re.I)
```

(U) In both `match` and `search`, the *regular expression* precedes the string to search. The difference between the two functions is that `match` works only at the beginning of the string, while `search` examines the whole string.

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(U) When repeatedly using the same regular expression, *compiling* it can speed up processing. After a compiled regular expression is created, `find`, `search`, and other methods can be called on it, and given only the search string as a single argument.

```
c_re = re.compile("c")
```

```
c_re.search("abcde")
```

Regex Operators

```
. - matches a single character
^ - matches beginning of a string or newline
$ - matches end of string
* - 0 or more of something
+ - 1 or more of something
? - 0 or 1 of something
*?, +?, ?? - don't be greedy (see example below)
{3} - match 3 of something
{2,4} - match 2 to 4 of something
\ - escape character
[lrnLRN] - match any ONE of the letters l, r, n, L, R, N
[a-m] - match any ONE of letters from a to m
[a|m] - match letter a or m
\w - match a letter
\s - match a space
\d - match a digit
```

```
re.search("\w*s$", "Mike likes cheese\nand Mike likes bees")
```

```
re.findall("\(\d{3}\)\s\d{3}-\d{4}", "Hello, I am a very bad terrorist. If you wanted to know, my phone number is (303) 555-2
```

```
re.findall("mi.*ke", "i am looking for mike and not all this stuff in between mike")
```

```
re.findall("mi.*?ke", "i am looking for mike and not all this stuff in between mike")
```

Capture Groups

Put what you want to pull out of the strings in parentheses ()

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```
my_string = "python is the best language for doing 'pro'gramming"
result = re.findall("(\\w+)", my_string)
print(result)
print(result[0])
```

Matches and Groups

(U) The return value from a successful call of `match` or `search` is a *match object*; an unsuccessful call returns `None`. First, this is suitable for use in `if` statements, such as `if c.re.search("abcde"): ...`. For complicated regular expressions, the match object has all the details about the substring that was matched, as well as any captured groups, i.e. regions surrounded by parentheses in the regular expression. These are available via the `group` and `groups` methods. Group 0 is always the whole matching string, after which remaining groups (which can be nested) are ordered according to the opening parenthesis.

```
m = re.match(r"(\w+) (\w+)", "Isaac Newton, physicist")
m.group()
m.group(1)
m.group(2)
m.groups()
```

Other Methods

(U) Other regular expression methods work through all matches in the string, although what is returned is not always straightforward, especially when captured groups are involved. We demonstrate out some basic uses without captured groups. When doing more complicated things, please remember: be careful, read the documentation, and do experiments to test!

```
re.findall("a.c", "abcdcaecafbc") # returns List of strings
re.finditer("a.c", "abcdcaecafbc") # returns iterator of match objects
re.split("a.", "abcdcaecafbc") # returns List of strings.
```

(U) The `sub` method returns a modified copy of the target string. The first argument is the regular expression to match, the second argument is what to replace it with—which can be another string or a function, and the third argument is the string on which the substitutions are to be carried out. If the `sub` method is passed a function, the function should take a single match object as an argument and return a string. For some cases, if

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the substitution needs to reference captured groups from the regular expression, it can do so using the syntax `\g<number>` , which is the same as accessing the `groups` method within a function.

```
re.sub("a.*?c", "a--c", "abracadabra")  
  
re.sub("a(.*)c", "a\g<1>\n\g<1>c", "abracadabra")  
  
def reverse_first_group(matchobj):  
    match = matchobj.group()  
    rev_group = matchobj.group(1)[::-1]  
    return match[:matchobj.start(1)] + rev_group + match[matchobj.end(1):]  
  
re.sub("a(.*)c", reverse_first_group, "abracadabra")
```

(U) In the above, we used `start` and `end` , which are methods on a match object that take a single numeric argument—the group number—and return the starting and ending indices in the string of the captured group.

(U) One final warning: if a group can be captured more than once, for instance when its definition is followed by a `+` or a `*` , then only the last occurrence of the group will be captured and stored.

Hashes

(b) (3) -P.L. 86-36

Updated 6 months ago by [REDACTED] in [COMP 3321](#)

3 22 4

comp3321

(U) Computing Hashes in Python

Recommendations

(U) Hashes

(U) Let's start with hashes. Hashes map data of arbitrary size to data of fixed size and have a variety of uses:

- securely storing passwords
- verifying file integrity
- efficiently determining if data is the same

(U) There are many different hashing algorithms. You've probably heard of some of the more common ones, such as MD5, SHA1, and SHA256.

(U) Hashes have some useful features:

- they are one-way, meaning that given a hash, there isn't a function to convert it back to the original data
- they map data to a fixed output, which is useful when comparing large amounts of data (such as files)

(U) So let's generate a hash.

```
from hashlib import sha256
sha256('abc'.encode('ascii')).hexdigest()
```

(U) or

```
sha256(b'abc').hexdigest()
```

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(U) We all know storing plaintext passwords is bad. A common technique of avoiding this is to store the hash of the password, then check if the hashes match. So we can create a short function to check if the typed password matches the stored hash:

```
def check_password(clear_password, password_hash):
    return sha256(clear_password).hexdigest() == password_hash
```

(U) Does anyone know why storing the hash of a password is bad?

(U) If the password hash database was ever compromised, it would be vulnerable to a pre-computation attack (rainbow table), where an attacker pre-computes hashes of common passwords. There are tools such as scrypt to help mitigate this vulnerability.

(U) How about a safer use of hashes? Suppose you need to look for duplicate files? Doing a byte-per-byte comparison of every file to every other file would be really expensive. A better approach is to compute the hash of each file, then compare the hashes.

```
import os
from hashlib import md5
def get_file_checksum(filename):
    h = md5()
    chunk_size = 8198
    with open(filename, 'rb') as f:
        while True:
            chunk = f.read(chunk_size)
            if len(chunk) == 0:
                break
            h.update(chunk)
    return h.hexdigest()
```

(U) There is a small danger with this approach: collisions. Since we're mapping a lot of data to a smaller amount of data, there is the possibility that two files will map to the same hash. For SHA256, the chances that two files have the same hash are 1 in 2^{256} , or about 1 in $1.16e+77$. So even with a lot of files, the chance of a collision is small.

(U) Notice that we don't need to read in the entire file at once. One really cool feature of hashes is they can be updated:

```
h = sha256(b'abc')
h.update(b'def')
h.hexdigest()

sha256(b'abcdef').hexdigest()
```

Module: SQL and Python

(b) (3) -P.L. 86-36

Updated almost 2 years ago by  in [COMP 3321](#)

1 359 163

fcs6 python

(U) Module: SQL and Python

Recommendations

(U) The Odd Couple: Programming and Databases

(U) It makes a lot of sense to keep your data in a database, and programming logic in a program. Therefore, it's worth overcoming the fundamental impedance mismatch between the two technologies. In the most common use cases, where the program isn't too terribly complicated and the data isn't too crazily interconnected, things usually work just fine.

(U) Python has a recommended [Database API](#), although there are slight variations in the way this API is implemented, which is one reason to use a metaclass library like **SQLAlchemy** (we'll get to this later). The standard library only provides an implementation for **SQLite**, in the `sqlite3` package. Connections to other database types require external packages, such as `MySQLdb` (confusingly, to get this you have to `pip install MySQL-python`).

 bobby drop tables

(U) Basics with `sqlite3`

To interact with a database, a program must

1. Establish a connection
2. Create a cursor
3. Execute commands
 - Read the results
 - Commit the changes

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4. Close the cursor and/or connection

(U) Using a basic adapter, commands are executed by passing strings containing SQL commands as arguments.

```
import sqlite3

conn = sqlite3.connect('test.db') # SQLite specific: creates db if necessary

cur = conn.cursor()

cur.execute("""create table fruit (
    id integer primary key,
    name text not null,
    color text default "RED"
)""")

cur.execute('' insert into fruit (name) values ("apple")''') # not there yet

conn.commit() # to make sure it's written

cur.execute('' select * from fruit '') # returns the cursor--no need to capture it.

cur.fetchone()
```

(U) When making changes to the database, it's best to use *parameter substitution* instead of *string substitution* to automatically protect against unsanitized input. The `sqlite3` module uses `?` as its substitution placeholder, but this differs between database modules (which is a major headache when writing code that might have to connect to more than one type of database).

```
fruit_data = [('banana', 'yellow'),
              ('cranberry', 'crimson'),
              ('date', 'brown'),
              ('eggplant', 'purple'),
              ('fig', 'orange'),
              ('grape', 'purple')]

for f in fruit_data:
    cur.execute(''insert into fruit (name, color) values (?,?)'', f)

cur.execute('' select * from fruit '') # DANGER! DATA HASN'T BEEN WRITTEN YET!

cur.fetchone()
```

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```
cur.fetchmany(3)  
cur.fetchall()
```

(U) A cursor is iterable:

```
more_fruit = [('honeydew', 'green'), ('ice cream bean', 'brown'), ('jujube', 'red')]  
cur.executemany(""" insert into fruit (name, color) values (?,?)""",more_fruit)  
cur.execute("""select * from fruit""")  
[item[1] for item in cur] # read the name  
cur.execute('PRAGMA table_info(fruit)')  
for line in cur:  
    print(line)  
cur.fetchall()  
conn.commit() # always remember to commit!
```

(U) In `sqlite3`, many of the methods associated with a `cursor` have shortcuts at the level of a `connection`—behind the scenes, the module creates a temporary cursor to perform the operations. We will not cover it because it isn't portable.

(U) Other Drivers

(U) The most common databases are MySQL and Postgres. Installing the packages to interact with them is often frustrating, because they have non-Python dependencies. Even worse, the most current version of `mysql-python` in PYPI is broken, so we request a different version:

```
(VENV)[~]$ pip install mysql-python==1.2.3  
(VENV)[~]$ pip install psycopg2  
(VENV)[~]$ pip install psycopg2  
...  
Error: pg_config executable not found.  
...  
P.L. 86-36
```

(U) With enough exceptions to make life very frustrating, they work like `sqlite3`.

(U) SQLAlchemy

(U) SQLAlchemy is a very powerful, very complicated package that provides abstraction layers over interaction with SQL databases. It includes all kinds of useful features like connection pooling. We'll discuss two basic use cases; in both of which we just want to use it to get data in and out of Python.

(U) Cross-Database SQL

(U) Imagine the following scenario: during development you'd like to use SQLite, even though your production database is MySQL. You don't plan to do anything fancy; you already know the SQL statements you want to execute (although there are a couple of things you always wished `sqlite3` would do for you, like returning a `dict` instead of a `tuple`).

(U) Enter SQLAlchemy. It does require that you have a driver installed, e.g. `MySQLdb`, to actually talk to the database, but it takes care of all the ticky-tacky syntax details. By default, it even commits changes automatically!

```
import ipydeps
ipydeps.pip('sqlalchemy')

import sqlalchemy
engine = sqlalchemy.create_engine('sqlite:///test.db') # database protocol and URL

result = engine.execute('select * from fruit')

ans = result.fetchall()

first_ans = ans[0]

type(first_ans)

first_ans[1]

first_ans.keys()

first_ans.values()

engine.execute("""insert into fruit (name) values (?)""",('kumquat'))

engine.execute("""insert into fruit (name,color) values (?, ?)""",[('lime','green'),('mango','green')])

result = engine.execute('select * from fruit')
```

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```
result.fetchall()
```

(U) Now, to move to MySQL, all you have to do is use a different URL, which follows the pattern:

`dialect+driver://username:password@host:port/database`

The SQLAlchemy documentation lists all the [databases and drivers](#).

(U) As Object Relational Mapper

(U) The real power in SQLAlchemy is in using it to store and retrieve Python objects from a database without ever writing a single line of SQL. It takes a little bit of what looks like voodoo at first. We'll skip most of the details for now, at the risk of this being a complete cargo cult activity. Open up a new file called `sql_fruit.py` and put the following into it:

```
from sqlalchemy import create_engine, Column, Integer, String, Date
from sqlalchemy.ext.declarative import declarative_base
from sqlalchemy.orm import sessionmaker

engine = create_engine('sqlite:///test.db')
Base = declarative_base()
Session = sessionmaker(bind=engine)
db_session = Session()

class Fruit(Base):
    __tablename__ = 'fruit'
    id = Column(Integer, primary_key=True)
    name = Column(String)
    color=Column(String, default="RED")

    def __init__(self, name, color):
        self.name = name
        self.color = color

    def __repr__(self):
        return "<Fruit {}: {}, {}>".format(self.id, self.name, self.color)
```

(U) Now, in the interactive interpreter:

```
from sql_fruit import *
f_query = db_session.query(Fruit)
```

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```
f_query.all()  
f_query.first()  
nectarine = Fruit('nectarine', 'orangered')  
db_session.add(nectarine)  
db_session.commit()
```

Easy Databases with sqlite3

(b) (3) -P.L. 86-36

Created over 3 years ago by [REDACTED] in [COMP 3321](#)

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fcs6 comp3321 sqlite3 sq1 average

(U) Example on using sqlite3 to group and average data instead of using dictionaries.

Recommendations

Easy Databases with sqlite3

The great thing about sqlite3 is that it allows you to create a simple, local database without having to install any servers or other tools. The entire database is contained in a single file.

Here we're going to create a simple database that holds daily stock data. This is related to the Structured Data and Dates Exercise from COMP3321 at <https://jupyter-gallery.platform.cloud.nsa.ic.gov/nb/884fb2f/Structured-Data-and-Dates-Exercise>

We'll use the same AAPL stock data from Yahoo Finance available at <https://urn.nsa.ic.gov/t/0grl>

First we import the packages for reading the CSV, parsing the dates, and working with sqlite3.

```
from csv import DictReader
from datetime import datetime
import sqlite3
```

Create the Table

Here we have a function that creates a stocks table in our database (referenced by db_conn). The columns are:

- symbol: Simply holds the stock ticker symbol so we can store records for more than just AAPL.
- year, month, day: We break the date out into three integer columns because it's easier to do queries against precise dates or groups/ranges of dates. If the date were kept as a string, forming the query string would be much more difficult.

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- week: We calculate the week for each date so the data can be grouped by week.
- price: This corresponds to the Adj Close column from the CSV; the closing price for that symbol on that date.

When we're done forming our table, we need to commit the changes to the database.

```
def create_database(db_conn):  
    cur = db_conn.cursor()  
    cur.execute('CREATE TABLE stocks (symbol text, year integer, month integer, day integer, week integer, price real)')  
    db_conn.commit()
```

Import the Data

This function imports data for a symbol from `input_file` using the database connection object `db_conn`. This is very similar to the Structured Data exercise, except we do a SQL insert for each record. The question marks get associated with the values in the tuple (the second argument to `cursor.execute` after the `INSERT` command string).

After we've iterated over all records for the inserts, we need to commit them to the database with `db_conn.commit()`.

```
def import_data(symbol, input_file, db_conn):  
    with open(input_file, 'r') as infile:  
        symbol = symbol.strip().upper()  
        reader = DictReader(infile)  
        cursor = db_conn.cursor()  
  
        for record in reader:  
            dt = datetime.strptime(record['Date'], '%Y-%m-%d')  
            week = dt.isocalendar()[1]  
            price = float(record['Adj Close'])  
            cursor.execute("INSERT INTO stocks VALUES (?, ?, ?, ?, ?, ?)", (symbol, dt.year, dt.month, dt.day, week, price))  
  
    db_conn.commit()
```

Making SQL do all the Work

In the Structured Data Exercise, the student had to manually group the data in a dictionary by week (really a (year,week) tuple). SQL can do this for us, and even calculate the average. We break down each line of the query as follows:

- **SELECT:** We want the year, the week, and the average for the prices for the days on that year week, so we use `SELECT` to pick those columns.
- **FROM:** We're working with the stocks table, so we say `FROM stocks`.

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- WHERE: To put conditions on a SQL query, we use the WHERE clause. Here our only condition is that we only want data associated with a certain symbol (AAPL in this case).
- GROUP BY: We need to group the data by week, and since we don't want the same week in two different years to get grouped together, we have to group by the year and the week, hence GROUP BY year, week.
- ORDER BY: To display our data in descending order by date, we have to use ORDER BY. SQL even allows mixed ascending and descending subgroups, so we have to specify that we want both the year and the week in descending order.

We append each result from our query into an empty list, which gets returned by our function.

```
def weekly_averages(symbol, db_conn):  
    cur = db_conn.cursor()  
    results = []  
  
    for result in cur.execute('''SELECT year, week, avg(price)  
                                FROM stocks  
                                WHERE symbol=?  
                                GROUP BY year, week  
                                ORDER BY year DESC, week DESC''' , (symbol,)):  
        results.append(result)  
  
    return results
```

Execute!

Here we create our database in aapl.db. Note that it will raise an exception if the table has already been created in the database. If you simply comment out the create_database() call to get around this, then be careful since import_data() will insert the data again, so you'll have the double entries in your stocks table. Restart this notebook and delete aapl.db to get a truly fresh start.

```
db_file = 'aapl.db'  
  
db_conn = sqlite3.connect(db_file)  
create_database(db_conn)  
import_data('AAPL', 'aapl.csv', db_conn)
```

Now that the data is in the database, we can call our weekly_averages() query function. This will just display the list of results.

```
weekly_averages('AAPL', db_conn)
```

Module: Structured Data: CSV, XML, and JSON

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(b) (3) -P.L. 86-36

Updated over 1 year ago by [REDACTED] in [COMP 3321](#)
3 5 701 263

 python  fcs6

(U) Read, write, and manipulate CSV, XML, JSON, and Python's custom pickle and shelve formats.

Recommendations

UNCLASSIFIED

(U) Setup

(U) For this notebook, you will need the following files:

- [user_file.csv](#)
- [user_file.xml](#)

(U) Right-click each to download and "Save As," then, from your Jupyter home, navigate to the folder containing this notebook and click the "Upload" button to upload each file from your local system.

(U) Introduction: It's Sad, But True

(U) Much of computing involves reading and writing structured data. Too much, probably. Often that data is contained in files--not even a database. We've already worked with opening, closing, reading from, and writing to text files. We've also frequently used `str`ing methods. At first, it might seem that that's all we need to work with **CSV**, **XML**, and other structured data formats.

(U) After all, what could go wrong with the following?

```
my_csv_file = open('user_file.csv', 'r')
```

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```
csv_lines = my_csv_file.readlines()

comma_separated_records = [line.split(',') for line in csv_lines]

xml_formatter = """<person>
    <name>{}</name>
    <address>{}</address>
    <phone>{}</phone>
</person>"""

xml_records = "\n".join([xml_formatter.format(*record) for record in comma_separated_records])

xml_records = "<people>" + xml_records + "</people>

with open('file.xml', 'w') as f:
    f.write(xml_records)
```

(U) In a rapidly-developed prototype with controlled input, this may not cause a problem. Given the way the real world works, though, someday this little snippet from a one-off script will become the long-forgotten key component of a huge, enterprise-wide project. Somebody will try to feed it data in just the wrong way at a crucial moment, and it will fail catastrophically.

(U) When that happens, you'll wish you had used a fully-developed library that would have had a better chance against the malformed data. Thankfully, there are several--and they actually aren't any harder to get started with.

(U) Comma Separated Values (CSV)

(U) The most exciting things about the `csv` module are the `DictReader` and `DictWriter` classes. First, let's look at the plain vanilla options for reading and writing.

```
import csv

f = open('user_file.csv')

reader = csv.reader(f)

header = next(reader)

all_lines = [line for line in reader]

all_lines.sort()
```

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```
g = open('user_file_sorted.csv', 'w')

writer = csv.writer(g)

writer.writerow(header)

writer.writerows(all_lines)

g.close()
```

(U) CSV readers and writers have other options involving *dialects* and *separators*. Note that the argument to `csv.reader` must be an open file (or file-like object), and the reading starts at the current cursor position.

(U) Accessing categorical data positionally is not ideal. That is why `csv` also provides the `DictReader` and `DictWriter` classes, which can also handle records with more or less in them than you expect. When given only a file as an argument, a `DictReader` uses the first line as the keys for the remaining lines; however, it is also possible to pass in `fieldnames` as an additional parameter.

```
f.seek(0)

d_reader = csv.DictReader(f)

records = [line for line in d_reader]
```

(U) To see the differences between reader and DictReader, look at how we might extract cities from the records in each.

```
# for the object from csv.reader
cities0 = [record[2] for record in all_lines]

# for the object from csv.DictReader
cities1 = [record['city'] for record in records]

cities0 == cities1
```

(U) In a `DictWriter`, the `fieldnames` parameter is required and headers are not written by default. If you want one, add it with the `writeheader` method. If the `fieldnames` argument does not include all the fields for every dictionary passed into the `DictWriter`, the keyword argument `extrasaction` must be specified.

```
g = open('names_only.csv', 'w')

d_writer = csv.DictWriter(g, ['name', 'primary_workstation'], extrasaction='ignore')

d_writer.writeheader()
```

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```
d_writer.writerows(records)

g.close()
```

(U) Javascript Object Notation (JSON)

(U) JSON is another structured data format. In many cases it looks very similar to nested Python `dict`s and `list`s. However, there are enough notable differences from those (e.g. only single quotation marks are allowed, boolean values have a lowercase initial letter) that it's wise to use a dedicated module to parse JSON data. Still, *serializing* and *deserializing* JSON data structures is relatively painless.

(U) For this section, our example will be a list of novels:

```
import json

novel_list = []

novel_list.append({'title': 'Pride and Prejudice', 'author': 'Jane Austen'})

novel_list.append({'title': 'Crime and Punishment', 'author': 'Fyodor Dostoevsky'})

novel_list.append({'title': 'The Unconsoled', 'author': 'Kazuo Ishiguro'})

json.dumps(novel_list) # to string

with open('novel_list.json', 'w') as f:
    json.dump(novel_list, f) # to file

the_hobbit = '{"title": "The Hobbit", "author": "J.R.R. Tolkien"}'

novel_list.append(json.loads(the_hobbit)) # from string

with open('war_and_peace.json') as f: # <-- if this file existed
    novel_list.append(json.load(f)) # from file
```

(U) By default, the `load` and `loads` methods return Unicode strings. It's possible to use the `json` module to define custom encoders and decoders, but this is not usually required.

(U) Extensible Markup Language (XML)

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(U) This lesson is supposed to be simple, but XML is complicated. We'll cover only the basics of reading data from and writing data to files in a very basic XML format using the `ElementTree` API, which is just the most recent of at least three approaches to dealing with XML in the Python Standard Library. We will not discuss attributes or namespaces at all, which are very common features of XML. If you need to process lots of XML quickly, it's probably best to look outside the standard library (probably at a package called `lxml`).

(U) Although there are other ways to get started, an `ElementTree` can be created from a file by initializing with the keyword argument `file`:

```
from xml.etree import ElementTree

xml_file = open('user_file.xml')

user_tree = ElementTree.ElementTree(file=xml_file)
```

(U) To do much of anything, it's best to pull the root element out of the `ElementTree`. Elements are iterable, so they can be expanded in list comprehensions. To see what is inside an element, the `ElementTree` module provides two class functions: `dump` (which prints to screen and returns `None`) and `tostring`. Each node has a `text` property, although in our example these are all empty except for leaf nodes.

```
root_elt = user_tree.getroot()

users = [u for u in root_elt]

print(ElementTree.tostring(users[0]))

u_children = [x for x in users[0]]

u_children[2].text

u_children[2].text = 'north-x5-1234'

ElementTree.dump(users[0])
```

(U) To get nested descendant elements directly, use `findall`, which returns a list of all matches, or `find`, which returns the first matched element. Note that these are the actual elements, not copies, so changes made here are visible in the whole element tree.

```
all_usernames = root_elt.findall('user/name/username')

[n.text for n in all_usernames[:10]]
```

(U) To construct an XML document:

- make an `Element`,
- `append` other `Element`s to it (repeating as necessary),
- wrap it all up in an `ElementTree`, and
- use the `ElementTree.write` method (which takes a file `name`, not a `file` object).

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```
apple = ElementTree.Element('apple')
apple.attrib['color'] = 'red'
apple.set('variety', 'honeycrisp')
apple.text = "Tasty"
ElementTree.dump(apple)

fruit_basket = ElementTree.Element('basket')
fruit_basket.append(apple)

fruit_basket.append(ElementTree.XML('<orange color="orange" variety="navel"></orange>'))
ElementTree.dump(fruit_basket)

fruit_tree = ElementTree.ElementTree(fruit_basket)
fruit_tree.write('fruit_basket.xml')
```

(U) Bonus Material: Pickles and Shelves

(U) At the expense of compatibility with other languages, Python also provides built-in serialization and data storage capabilities in the form of the **pickle** and **shelve** modules.

(U) Pickling

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```
import pickle

pickleme = {}

pickleme['Title'] = 'Python is Cool'
pickleme['PageCount'] = 543
pickleme['Author'] = ''
```

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```
with open('/tmp/pickledData.pick', 'wb') as p:  
    p = pickle.dump(pickleme, p)  
  
with open('/tmp/pickledData.pick', 'rb') as p:  
    p = pickle.load(p)  
  
print(p)
```

(U) Shelving

P.L. 86-36

(U) Creating a Shelve

```
import shelve  
  
pickleme = {}  
  
pickleme['Title'] = 'Python is Cool'  
pickleme['PageCount'] = 543  
pickleme['Author'] = ' [REDACTED]'  
  
db = shelve.open('/tmp/shelve.dat')  
  
db['book1'] = pickleme  
  
db.sync()  
  
pickleme['Title'] = 'Python is Cool -- The Next Phase'  
pickleme['PageCount'] = 123  
pickleme['Author'] = ' [REDACTED]'  
  
db['book2'] = pickleme  
  
db.sync()  
  
db.close()
```

(U) Opening a Shelve

```
db = shelve.open('/tmp/shelve.dat')
z = db.keys()
a = db['book1']
b = db['book2']
print(a)
print(b)
print(z)
db.close()
```

(U) Modifying a Shelve

```
db = shelve.open('/tmp/shelve.dat')
z = db.keys()
a = db['book1']
b = db['book2']
print(a)
print(b)
print(z)
a['PageCount'] = 544
b['PageCount'] = 129
db['book1'] = a
db['book2'] = b
```

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db.close()

UNCLASSIFIED

Module: System Interaction

(b) (3) - P.L. 86-36

Updated over 3 years ago by  in [COMP 3321](#)

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[python](#)

[fcs6](#)

(U) Basic operating system interaction using the `os`, `shutil`, and `sys` modules.

Recommendations

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(U) Introduction

(U) Python provides several modules for interacting with your operating system and the files and directories it holds. We will talk about three: `os`, `shutil`, and `sys`.

(U) Be aware that while this notebook is unclassified, your output may not be (depending on the files you're displaying).

(U) os Module:

(U) This module helps you interact with the operating system, providing methods for almost anything you would want to do at a shell prompt. On POSIX systems, there are over 200 methods in the `os` module; we will just cover the most common ones. Be aware that the `os` module includes methods that are not cross-platform compatible; the [documentation](#) is helpfully annotated with *Availability* tags.

(U) Directory discovery and transversal is pretty basic:

```
import os

os.getcwd()

os.chdir('/tmp') # Unix dir--choose different dir for Windows
```

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```
os.listdir()  
os.getcwd()  
walker = os.walk(os.curdir)  
type(walker)  
list(walker)
```

(U) Avoid one common confusion: `os.curdir` is a module constant ('.' on Unix-like systems), while `os.getcwd()` is a function. Either one can be used in the method `os.walk`, which returns a generator that traverses the file system tree starting at the method's argument. Each successive value from the generator is a tuple of `(directory, [subdirectories], [files])`.

(U) A variety of methods allow you to examine, modify, and create or remove directories and files.

```
f = open('new_temp_file.txt', 'w')  
f.close()  
os.stat('new_temp_file.txt')  
os.mkdir('other_dir')  
os.rename('new_temp_file.txt', 'other_dir/tempfile.txt')
```

(U) The `os.path` submodule provides additional functionality, including cross-platform compatible methods for constructing and deconstructing paths. Note that while it is possible to join a path completely, deconstructing a path occurs one element at a time, right to left.

```
sample_path = os.path.join('ford', 'trucks', 'f150')  
sample_path  
os.path.split(sample_path)  
os.path.exists(sample_path)
```

(U) Information about the current environment is also available, either via specific methods or in the `os.environ` object, which functions like a dictionary of environment variables. If `os.environ` is modified, spawned subprocesses inherit the changes.

```
os.getlogin()
```

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```
os.getuid()  # Unix
os.getgroups()  # Unix
os.environ
os.environ['NEW_TEMP_VAR'] = '123456'
os.uname()  # Unix
```

(U) shutil Module

(U) Living on top of the **os** module, **shutil** makes high-level operations on files and collections of files somewhat easier. In particular, functions are provided which support file copying and removal, as well as cloning permissions and other metadata.

```
import shutil

shutil.copyfile(src,dest) # overwrites dest

shutil.copymode(src,dest) # permission bits

shutil.copystat(src,dest) # permission bits and other metadata

shutil.copy(src,dest)      # works like cp if dest is a directory

shutil.copy2(src,dest)     # copy then copystat

shutil.copytree(src,dest)

shutil.rmtree(path)       # must be real directory, not a symlink

shutil.move(src,dest)     # works with directories
```

(U) sys Module

(U) The **sys** module provides access to variables and functions used or maintained by the Python interpreter; it can be thought of as a way of accessing features from the layer between the underlying system and Python. Some of its constants are interesting, but not usually useful.

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```
import sys
```

```
sys.maxsize
```

```
sys.byteorder
```

```
sys.version
```

(U) Other module attributes are sometimes useful, although fiddling with them can introduce problems with compatibility. For instance, `sys.path` is a list of where Python will look for modules when `import` is called. If it is modified within a script, and then modules can be loaded from a new location, but there is no inherent guarantee that location will be present on a system other than your own! On the other hand, `sys.exit()` can be used to shut down a script, optionally returning an error message by passing a non-zero numeric argument.

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Manipulating Microsoft Office Documents with win32com

(b) (3) -P.L. 86-36

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Updated almost 3 years ago by  in COMP 3321

3 1 115 18

win32com python comp3321 pug

(U) Demonstration of using win32com to create and modify Microsoft Office documents.

Recommendations

(U) Manipulating Microsoft Office Documents with win32com

(U) Welcome To Automation with win32com!

(U) The win32com module connects Python to the Microsoft Component Object Model interface that enables inter-process communication and object creation within Microsoft Office applications.

(U) **Note: win32com only exists on Windows platforms, so this notebook will not run on LABBENCH.** In order to run this notebook, install Anaconda3 on your Windows platform and use jupyter-notebook.

(U) "Hello World" for Word

(U) We need to import the library, and open Word.

```
import win32com.client
word = win32com.client.Dispatch('Word.Application')
```

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(U) `Dispatch` checks to see if Word is already open. If it is, it attaches to that instance. If you'd like to always open a new instance, use `DispatchEx`.

(U) By default, Word will start, but won't be visible. Set this to `True` if you want to see the application.

```
word.Visible = True
```

(U) Create a document and add some text, setting a font size that we like.

```
worddoc = word.Documents.Add()  
worddoc.Content.Text = "Hello World"  
worddoc.Content.Font.Size = 18
```

(U) Save the document and exit the application. Note that `win32com` bypasses the normal Python file object, so we need to account for the Windows directory separator.

(U) Also, ClassifyTool may nag you for a classification. In order to prevent this, in Word, select the "ClassifyTool" tab, click on "Options", and under "When Closing Document", uncheck "Always show Classification Form", and click "Save".

```
worddoc.SaveAs('u:\\private\\jupyter\\win32com\\hello.docx')  
word.Quit()
```

(U) That's it!

(U) More Elaborate Word Example

(U) There's another option for starting the application:

```
word = win32com.client.gencache.EnsureDispatch('Word.Application')
```

(U) This can take slightly longer, but enables access to `win32com` constants, which are required for some methods. The alternative is to look through the `win32com` documentation for the value of the constants you need.

(U) Let's take a look at a possible use case. Say we have reports in a particular format that we need to regularly generate. We can create a template with the sections that will be replaced. In this case, they are `ReportEvent`, `ReportTime`, and `ReportPlace`. First, [download the template](#). Then open the template and create a dictionary with the sections and the data that will be used.

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```
constants = win32com.client.constants          # save some future typing
word.Visible = True
worddoc = word.Documents.Open('u:\\private\\jupyter\\win32com\\demo_template.docx')
event_details = { "ReportEvent" : "P.L. 86-36", "ReportTime" : "P.L. 86-36", "ReportPlace" : "P.L. 86-36" }
```

(U) Now the magic happens. Lets iterate through the dictionary, replacing all of the sections with the data.

```
# Execute( FindText, MatchCase, MatchWholeWord, MatchWildcards, MatchSoundsLike, MatchAllWordForms,
#           Forward, Wrap, Format, ReplaceWith, Replace)
for tag, data in event_details.items():
    _ = word.Selection.Find.Execute( tag, False, False, False, False, False,
                                    True, constants.wdFindContinue, False, data, constants.wdReplaceAll)
```

(U) We can add a couple of paragraphs of additional info, and we're done.

```
paragraph1 = worddoc.Paragraphs.Add()
paragraph1.Range.Text = 'Additional info\\n'
footer = worddoc.Paragraphs.Add()
footer.Range.Text = 'Produced by me\\n'
worddoc.SaveAs('u:\\private\\jupyter\\win32com\\demo_out.docx')
word.Quit()
```

(U)PowerPoint

(U) PowerPoint works very similarly. Again, [download the template](#)

```
ppt = win32com.client.Dispatch('PowerPoint.Application')
presentation = ppt.Presentations.Open('u:\\private\\jupyter\\win32com\\MyTeam_template.pptx')
```

(U) Did you notice that we didn't need to set `ppt.Visible`? PowerPoint is always visible.

```
title = presentation.Slides(1)
```

(U) We know the first slide is the title slide, so we've set a variable to it. PowerPoint presentations are made up of slides, which in turn are collections of shapes. To modify a presentation, we need to know which shape is which. Let's take a look at title:

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```
title
```

(U) Hmm. That's not very helpful. Let's see what methods we have:

```
dir(title)
```

(U) At this point you're probably realizing that COM objects don't act like normal Python objects.

```
help(title)
```

(U) So Python just takes anything you try to do with `title` and passes it on to the Windows COM library. Which means you'll need to consult Microsoft's Win32Com documentation if you have questions about something.

(U) Let's get back to working with this presentation. We still need to find out which shape is which:

```
for i, shape in enumerate(title.Shapes):  
    shape.TextFrame.TextRange.Text = 'Shape #{0}'.format(i+1)
```

(U) This sets the text for each shape to its index number so we now have a number associated with each shape. You only need to do this when you're writing your script. Once you create your template, the shape numbers won't change. So the title is #1 and the subtitle #2.

(U) `Undo` a few times will remove the numbers.

(U) Let's update the title slide with today's date:

```
from datetime import date  
today = date.today().strftime('%Y%m%d')  
title.Shapes(2).TextFrame.TextRange.Text = today
```

(U) Now let's update the status of our two focus areas. We'll skip the step of identifying the shapes we want to modify.

```
focus1 = presentation.Slides(2)  
focus1.Shapes(2).TextFrame.TextRange.Text = 'All Good, Boss'  
  
focus2 = presentation.Slides(3)  
focus2.Shapes(2).TextFrame.TextRange.Text = 'Sir, We have a problem'
```

(U) Now save the presentation with today's date, and Bob's your uncle.

```
presentation.SaveAs('u:\\private\\jupyter\\win32com\\MyTeam_{0}.pptx'.format(today))  
presentation.Close()  
ppt.Quit()
```

(U) Starting the application should look familiar:

```
visio = win32com.client.Dispatch("Visio.Application")
documents = visio.Documents
document = documents.Add("Basic Network Diagram.vst")      # Start with a built-in template
document.Title = "New Network Graph"                         # Add a title
pages = visio.ActiveDocument.Pages
page = pages.Item(1)
```

(U) Visio is visible by default, but can be hidden if desired.

(U) So we've created a document and grabbed the page associated with it. Visio shapes are part of stencil packages, so let's add a couple.

```
NetworkStencil = visio.Documents.AddEx("periph_m.vss", 0, 16+64, 0)
ComputerStencil = visio.Documents.AddEx("Computers and Monitors.vss", 0, 16+64, 0)
```

(U) Other stencils are:

- Network Locations: `netloc_m.vss`
- Network Symbols: `netsym_m.vss`
- Detailed Network shapes: `dtlnet_m.vss`
- Legends: `lgnd_m.vss`

(U) Other stencil names can be found on the Internet.

(U) Now we need the shape masters that we'll use.

```
pc = ComputerStencil.Masters.Item("PC")
router = NetworkStencil.Masters.Item("Router")
server = NetworkStencil.Masters.Item("Server")
connector = NetworkStencil.Masters.item("Dynamic Connector")
```

(U) The names match the names you see when you view the shapes in the stencil sidebar. Let's add a few shapes.

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```
pc1 = page.Drop(pc, 2, 2)
pc1.Text = "10.1.1.1"
pc2 = page.Drop(pc, 10, 10)
pc2.Text = "10.1.1.2"
server1 = page.Drop(server, 15, 5)
server1.Text = "10.1.1.100"
router1 = page.Drop(router, 8, 8)
router1.Text = "10.1.1.250"
```

(U) Some of the shapes went off the page, so resize. You can wait until the end to do this, but it's more fun to watch the connections being drawn.

```
page.ResizeToFitContents()
page.CenterDrawing()
```

(U) Now draw the connectors.

```
arrow = page.Drop(connector, 0, 0)
arrowBegin = arrow.CellsU("BeginX").GlueTo(pc1.CellsU("PinX"))
arrowEnd = arrow.CellsU("EndX").GlueTo(router1.CellsU("PinX"))
arrow.Text = "pc1 connection"
```

(U) We can customize a connector

```
arrow = page.Drop(connector, 0, 0)
arrowBegin = arrow.CellsU("BeginX").GlueTo(pc2.CellsU("PinX"))
arrowEnd = arrow.CellsU("EndX").GlueTo(router1.CellsU("PinX"))
arrow.CellsU("LineColor").Formula = "=RGB(255, 153, 3)"
arrow.CellsU("EndArrow").Formula = "=5"
arrow.CellsU("EndArrowSize").Formula = "=4"
arrow.CellsU("LineWeight").FormulaU = "=5.0 pt"
arrow.Text = "pc2 connection"

arrow = page.Drop(connector, 0, 0)
arrowBegin = arrow.CellsU("BeginX").GlueTo(server1.CellsU("PinX"))
arrowEnd = arrow.CellsU("EndX").GlueTo(router1.CellsU("PinX"))
arrow.Text = "server1 connection"
```

(U) Now resize, recenter, and save.

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```
page.ResizeToFitContents()  
page.CenterDrawing()  
  
document.SaveAs('U:\\private\\jupyter\\win32com\\visio_demo.vsdx')
```

(U) Close the application.

```
visio.Quit()
```

(U) Excel

(U) win32com works with Excel too, but due to the slowness of the interface, you're probably better off using pandas.

Module: Threading and Subprocesses

Updated over 2 years ago by  in [COMP 3321](#)

3 206 34

fcs6 python

(U) Module: Threading and Subprocesses

Recommendations

(b) (3) - P.L. 86-36

(U) Module: Threading and Subprocesses

(U) Concurrence and Python's GIL - i.e. Python doesn't offer true concurrence

(U) Python's Global Interpreter Lock (GIL) means that you can really only have one true thread at one time. However, Threading in Python can be immensely helpful in speeding up processing when your script can perform subsequent steps that do not depend on the output of other steps. Basically, it gives the illusion of being able to do two (or more) things at the same time.

(U) Threading

(U) Threading allows you to spawn off "mini programs" called threads that work independently of the main program (sort of). Threading allows you to send data off to a function and let it work on getting results while you go on with your business. It

can also allow you to set up functions that will process items as you add them to a work queue. This could be especially helpful if you have parts of your program that take a long time to execute but are independent of other parts of your program. A good example is using a thread to execute a slow RESTful web service query.

(U) This adds some complexity to your life. Threads act asynchronously - meaning that you have limited control as to when they execute and finish. This can cause problems if you are depending on return values from threads in subsequent code. You have to think about if and how you need to wait on thread output which adds extra things to worry about in terms of accessing data. Python provides a thread-safe container named Queue. Queues will allow your threads access without becoming unstable, unlike other containers (such as dictionaries and lists) which may become corrupted or have unstable behavior if you access them via multiple threads.

(U) Subprocess

(U) The subprocess module is useful for spinning off programs on the local system and letting them run independently.

```
import ipydeps

modules = ['threading', 'queue']

for m in modules:
    installed_packages = [package.project_name for package in ipydeps._pip.get_installed_distributions()]
    if (m not in installed_packages) and (m not in ipydeps.sys.modules):
        ipydeps.pip(m)

import time
from threading import Thread, Timer, Lock
from queue import Queue
import random
```

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```
result_q = Queue()
work_q = Queue()
work_list = []

# The worker thread pulls an item from the queue and processes it
def worker():
    while True:
        item = work_q.get()
        do_work(item)
        work_q.task_done() #pause while until current work_q task has completed

def do_work(item):
    ## submit query process results and add result to Queue
    result_q.put( wait_random(item) )

def wait_random(t):
    time.sleep(t[1])
    print('finished task {}'.format(t[0]))

def hello():
    print("hello, world")

#Loading up our work_q and work_list with the same random ints between 1 and 10
time_total = 0
for i in range(10):
    x = random.randint(1,10)
    time_total += x
    work_q.put((i,x))
    work_list.append((i,x))

work_q.qsize()

len(work_list)

%%time
print('This should take {} seconds'.format(time_total))
for w in work_list:
    wait_random(w)
```

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```
%%time
for i in range(5):
    t = Thread(target=worker)
    t.daemon = True # thread dies when main thread exits. If we don't do this, then the threads will continue to
                    # "listen" to the work_q and take items out of the work_q and automatically process as you
                    # stick more items into the work_q
    t.start()        # you have to start a thread before it begins to execute
work_q.join()      # block until all tasks are done
```

(U) You can also use the Timer class to specify that a thread should only kick off after a set amount of time. This could be critical if you need to give some other threads a head start of for various other reasons. Remember, when we are doing threading you have to keep timing in mind!

```
%%time
# stupid little example
ti = Timer(5.0, hello)
ti.daemon = True
ti.start() # after 5 seconds, "hello, world" will be printed
```

(U) You can mix these. The output below will most likely look like a bucket of crazy because threads execute (sort of) independently.

```
#Loading up our work_q and work_list with the same random ints between 1 and 10
for i in range(10):
    x = random.randint(1,10)
    work_q.put((i,x))
```

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```
%%time
for i in range(5):
    t = Thread(target=worker, )
    t.daemon = True
    t.start()

ti = Timer(5.0,hello)
ti.daemon = True
ti.start()      # ti *will probably* print 'hello, world' before all the other threads finish,
# or it might not it depends on the work_q contents
work_q.join()  # block until all tasks are done
```

(U) Subprocesses

(U) For most subprocess creation you will usually want to use the subprocess.run() convenience method. Please note, if you wish to access the STDOUT or STDERR output you must specify a value for the stdout and stderr arguments. Using the subprocess.PIPE constant puts the results from STDOUT and STDERR into the CompletedProcess object's attributes.

```
import subprocess

completed = subprocess.run(['ls', '-l'], stdout=subprocess.PIPE, universal_newlines=True)

print("ARGS:", completed.args)
print("STDOUT:", completed.stdout)
print("STDERR: ", completed.stderr)
print("return code:", completed.returncode)

completed = subprocess.run(['ls', 'nosuchfile'], stdout=subprocess.PIPE, stderr=subprocess.PIPE, universal_newlines=True)
```

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```
print("ARGS:", completed.args)
print("STDOUT:", completed.stdout)
print("STDERR: ", completed.stderr)
print("return code:", completed.returncode)

dir(completed)

type(completed)
```

(U) For finer-grained control you can use subprocess.Popen() . This allows greater flexibility, and allows you to do things like kill spawned subprocesses, but be careful - you may get some unexpected behavior.

```
completed = subprocess.Popen(['ls', '-l'], stdout=subprocess.PIPE, stderr=subprocess.PIPE, universal_newlines=True)

print("ARGS:", completed.args)
print("STDOUT:", completed.stdout)
print("STDERR: ", completed.stderr)
print("return code:", completed.returncode)

dir(completed)

type(completed)
```

(U) If you are just looking for a quick way to dump the output from the subprocess into a variable, you can use subprocess.check_output(). This is an older way of doing a specific type of .run() so you will see it used in Python 2. It takes many of the same parameters as .run() but has a few extra that correspond more closely to Popen()

```
completed = subprocess.check_output(['ls', '-l'], universal_newlines=True)

dir(completed)
```

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```
print(completed)
```

```
type(completed)
```

Distributing a Python Package at NSA

(b) (3)-P.L. 86-36

Updated 2 months ago by  in [COMP 3321](#)

9 255 30

[python](#) [packages](#) [distribution](#) [git](#) [gitlab](#)

(U//FOUO) Directions for how to make and distribute a Python package using the nsa-pip server.

Recommendations

~~UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY~~

(U//FOUO) Module: Distributing a Python Package at NSA

(U//FOUO) At NSA, internally-developed Python packages can be installed by configuring `pip` to point to the `nsa-pip` server (<https://pip.proj.nsa.ic.gov/>). But how do you push your own package out to `nsa-pip`? The basic steps are as follows:

1. (U) Make a python package.
2. (U) Make the package into a distribution.
3. (U) Push the project to GitLab.
4. (U//FOUO) Add a webhook for nsa-pip to the GitLab project.
5. (U//FOUO) Push the package to nsa-pip.

1. (U) Make a python package

(U) Recall from [an earlier lesson](#) that a python package is just a directory structure containing one or more modules, a special `__init__.py` file, and maybe some nested subpackages. The name of the package is just the name of the directory.