Notes:

(1) The alternate form causes a leading octal specifier (`'0o'`) to be inserted before the first digit.

(2) The alternate form causes a leading `'0x'` or `'0X'` (depending on whether the `'x'` or `'X'` format was used) to be inserted before the first digit.

(3) The alternate form causes the result to always contain a decimal point, even if no digits follow it.

The precision determines the number of digits after the decimal point and defaults to 6.

(4) The alternate form causes the result to always contain a decimal point, and trailing zeroes are not removed as they would otherwise be.

The precision determines the number of significant digits before and after the decimal point and defaults to 6.

(5) If precision is `N`, the output is truncated to `N` characters.

(6) `b'%s'` is deprecated, but will not be removed during the 3.x series.

(7) `b'%r'` is deprecated, but will not be removed during the 3.x series.

(8) See **PEP 237**.

Note: The bytearray version of this method does *not* operate in place - it always produces a new object, even if no changes were made.

See also:

PEP 461 - Adding % formatting to bytes and bytearray

New in version 3.5.

4.8.5 Memory Views

memoryview objects allow Python code to access the internal data of an object that supports the buffer protocol without copying.

class memoryview(*object*)

Create a *memoryview* that references *object*. *object* must support the buffer protocol. Built-in objects that support the buffer protocol include *bytes* and *bytearray*.

A *memoryview* has the notion of an *element*, which is the atomic memory unit handled by the originating *object*. For many simple types such as *bytes* and *bytearray*, an element is a single byte, but other types such as *array.array* may have bigger elements.

`len(view)` is equal to the length of *tolist*. If `view.ndim = 0`, the length is 1. If `view.ndim = 1`, the length is equal to the number of elements in the view. For higher dimensions, the length is equal to the length of the nested list representation of the view. The *itemsize* attribute will give you the number of bytes in a single element.

A *memoryview* supports slicing and indexing to expose its data. One-dimensional slicing will result in a subview:

```
>>> v = memoryview(b'abcefg')
>>> v[1]
98
>>> v[-1]
103
>>> v[1:4]
<memory at 0x7f3ddc9f4350>
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
>>> bytes(v[1:4])
b'bce'
```

If *format* is one of the native format specifiers from the *struct* module, indexing with an integer or a tuple of integers is also supported and returns a single *element* with the correct type. One-dimensional memoryviews can be indexed with an integer or a one-integer tuple. Multi-dimensional memoryviews can be indexed with tuples of exactly *ndim* integers where *ndim* is the number of dimensions. Zero-dimensional memoryviews can be indexed with the empty tuple.

Here is an example with a non-byte format:

```
>>> import array
>>> a = array.array('l', [-11111111, 22222222, -33333333, 44444444])
>>> m = memoryview(a)
>>> m[0]
-11111111
>>> m[-1]
44444444
>>> m[::2].tolist()
[-11111111, -33333333]
```

If the underlying object is writable, the memoryview supports one-dimensional slice assignment. Resizing is not allowed:

```
>>> data = bytearray(b'abcefg')
>>> v = memoryview(data)
>>> v.readonly
False
>>> v[0] = ord(b'z')
>>> data
bytearray(b'zbcefg')
>>> v[1:4] = b'123'
>>> data
bytearray(b'z123fg')
>>> v[2:3] = b'spam'
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: memoryview assignment: lvalue and rvalue have different structures
>>> v[2:6] = b'spam'
>>> data
bytearray(b'z1spam')
```

One-dimensional memoryviews of *hashable* (read-only) types with formats 'B', 'b' or 'c' are also hashable. The hash is defined as `hash(m) == hash(m.tobytes())`:

```
>>> v = memoryview(b'abcefg')
>>> hash(v) == hash(b'abcefg')
True
>>> hash(v[2:4]) == hash(b'ce')
True
>>> hash(v[::-2]) == hash(b'abcefg'[::-2])
True
```

Changed in version 3.3: One-dimensional memoryviews can now be sliced. One-dimensional memoryviews with formats 'B', 'b' or 'c' are now *hashable*.

Changed in version 3.4: memoryview is now registered automatically with *collections.abc.Sequence*

Changed in version 3.5: memoryviews can now be indexed with tuple of integers.

memoryview has several methods:

__eq__(*exporter*)

A memoryview and a **PEP 3118** exporter are equal if their shapes are equivalent and if all corresponding values are equal when the operands' respective format codes are interpreted using *struct* syntax.

For the subset of *struct* format strings currently supported by *tolist()*, `v` and `w` are equal if `v.tolist() == w.tolist()`:

```
>>> import array
>>> a = array.array('I', [1, 2, 3, 4, 5])
>>> b = array.array('d', [1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0])
>>> c = array.array('b', [5, 3, 1])
>>> x = memoryview(a)
>>> y = memoryview(b)
>>> x == a == y == b
True
>>> x.tolist() == a.tolist() == y.tolist() == b.tolist()
True
>>> z = y[::-2]
>>> z == c
True
>>> z.tolist() == c.tolist()
True
```

If either format string is not supported by the *struct* module, then the objects will always compare as unequal (even if the format strings and buffer contents are identical):

```
>>> from ctypes import BigEndianStructure, c_long
>>> class BEPoint(BigEndianStructure):
...     _fields_ = [("x", c_long), ("y", c_long)]
...
>>> point = BEPoint(100, 200)
>>> a = memoryview(point)
>>> b = memoryview(point)
>>> a == point
False
>>> a == b
False
```

Note that, as with floating point numbers, `v is w` does *not* imply `v == w` for memoryview objects.

Changed in version 3.3: Previous versions compared the raw memory disregarding the item format and the logical array structure.

tobytes(*order='C'*)

Return the data in the buffer as a bytestring. This is equivalent to calling the *bytes* constructor on the memoryview.

```
>>> m = memoryview(b"abc")
>>> m.tobytes()
b'abc'
>>> bytes(m)
b'abc'
```

For non-contiguous arrays the result is equal to the flattened list representation with all elements converted to bytes. *tobytes()* supports all format strings, including those that are not in *struct* module syntax.

New in version 3.8: *order* can be {'C', 'F', 'A'}. When *order* is 'C' or 'F', the data of the original array is converted to C or Fortran order. For contiguous views, 'A' returns an exact copy of the physical memory. In particular, in-memory Fortran order is preserved. For non-contiguous views, the data is converted to C first. *order=None* is the same as *order='C'*.

hex([*sep*[, *bytes_per_sep*]])

Return a string object containing two hexadecimal digits for each byte in the buffer.

```
>>> m = memoryview(b"abc")
>>> m.hex()
'616263'
```

New in version 3.5.

Changed in version 3.8: Similar to *bytes.hex()*, *memoryview.hex()* now supports optional *sep* and *bytes_per_sep* parameters to insert separators between bytes in the hex output.

tolist()

Return the data in the buffer as a list of elements.

```
>>> memoryview(b'abc').tolist()
[97, 98, 99]
>>> import array
>>> a = array.array('d', [1.1, 2.2, 3.3])
>>> m = memoryview(a)
>>> m.tolist()
[1.1, 2.2, 3.3]
```

Changed in version 3.3: *tolist()* now supports all single character native formats in *struct* module syntax as well as multi-dimensional representations.

toreadonly()

Return a readonly version of the memoryview object. The original memoryview object is unchanged.

```
>>> m = memoryview(bytearray(b'abc'))
>>> mm = m.toreadonly()
>>> mm.tolist()
[97, 98, 99]
>>> mm[0] = 42
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: cannot modify read-only memory
>>> m[0] = 43
>>> mm.tolist()
[43, 98, 99]
```

New in version 3.8.

release()

Release the underlying buffer exposed by the memoryview object. Many objects take special actions when a view is held on them (for example, a *bytearray* would temporarily forbid resizing); therefore, calling release() is handy to remove these restrictions (and free any dangling resources) as soon as possible.

After this method has been called, any further operation on the view raises a *ValueError* (except *release()* itself which can be called multiple times):

```
>>> m = memoryview(b'abc')
>>> m.release()
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
>>> m[0]
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: operation forbidden on released memoryview object
```

The context management protocol can be used for a similar effect, using the `with` statement:

```
>>> with memoryview(b'abc') as m:
...     m[0]
...
97
>>> m[0]
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: operation forbidden on released memoryview object
```

New in version 3.2.

cast (*format*[, *shape*])

Cast a memoryview to a new format or shape. *shape* defaults to `[byte_length//new_itemsize]`, which means that the result view will be one-dimensional. The return value is a new memoryview, but the buffer itself is not copied. Supported casts are 1D -> C-*contiguous* and C-contiguous -> 1D.

The destination format is restricted to a single element native format in *struct* syntax. One of the formats must be a byte format ('B', 'b' or 'c'). The byte length of the result must be the same as the original length. Note that all byte lengths may depend on the operating system.

Cast 1D/long to 1D/unsigned bytes:

```
>>> import array
>>> a = array.array('l', [1,2,3])
>>> x = memoryview(a)
>>> x.format
'l'
>>> x.itemsize
8
>>> len(x)
3
>>> x.nbytes
24
>>> y = x.cast('B')
>>> y.format
'B'
>>> y.itemsize
1
>>> len(y)
24
>>> y.nbytes
24
```

Cast 1D/unsigned bytes to 1D/char:

```
>>> b = bytearray(b'zyz')
>>> x = memoryview(b)
>>> x[0] = b'a'
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
TypeError: memoryview: invalid type for format 'B'
>>> y = x.cast('c')
>>> y[0] = b'a'
>>> b
bytearray(b'ayz')
```

Cast 1D/bytes to 3D/ints to 1D/signed char:

```
>>> import struct
>>> buf = struct.pack("i"*12, *list(range(12)))
>>> x = memoryview(buf)
>>> y = x.cast('i', shape=[2,2,3])
>>> y.tolist()
[[[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5]], [[6, 7, 8], [9, 10, 11]]]
>>> y.format
'i'
>>> y.itemsize
4
>>> len(y)
2
>>> y.nbytes
48
>>> z = y.cast('b')
>>> z.format
'b'
>>> z.itemsize
1
>>> len(z)
48
>>> z.nbytes
48
```

Cast 1D/unsigned long to 2D/unsigned long:

```
>>> buf = struct.pack("L"*6, *list(range(6)))
>>> x = memoryview(buf)
>>> y = x.cast('L', shape=[2,3])
>>> len(y)
2
>>> y.nbytes
48
>>> y.tolist()
[[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5]]
```

New in version 3.3.

Changed in version 3.5: The source format is no longer restricted when casting to a byte view.

There are also several readonly attributes available:

obj

The underlying object of the memoryview:

```
>>> b  = bytearray(b'xyz')
>>> m = memoryview(b)
>>> m.obj is b
True
```

New in version 3.3.

nbytes

`nbytes == product(shape) * itemsize == len(m.tobytes())`. This is the amount of space in bytes that the array would use in a contiguous representation. It is not necessarily equal to `len(m)`:

```
>>> import array
>>> a = array.array('i', [1,2,3,4,5])
>>> m = memoryview(a)
>>> len(m)
5
>>> m.nbytes
20
>>> y = m[::2]
>>> len(y)
3
>>> y.nbytes
12
>>> len(y.tobytes())
12
```

Multi-dimensional arrays:

```
>>> import struct
>>> buf = struct.pack("d"*12, *[1.5*x for x in range(12)])
>>> x = memoryview(buf)
>>> y = x.cast('d', shape=[3,4])
>>> y.tolist()
[[0.0, 1.5, 3.0, 4.5], [6.0, 7.5, 9.0, 10.5], [12.0, 13.5, 15.0, 16.5]]
>>> len(y)
3
>>> y.nbytes
96
```

New in version 3.3.

readonly

A bool indicating whether the memory is read only.

format

A string containing the format (in *struct* module style) for each element in the view. A memoryview can be created from exporters with arbitrary format strings, but some methods (e.g. *tolist()*) are restricted to native single element formats.

Changed in version 3.3: format `'B'` is now handled according to the struct module syntax. This means that `memoryview(b'abc')[0] == b'abc'[0] == 97`.

itemsize

The size in bytes of each element of the memoryview:

```
>>> import array, struct
>>> m = memoryview(array.array('H', [32000, 32001, 32002]))
>>> m.itemsize
2
>>> m[0]
32000
>>> struct.calcsize('H') == m.itemsize
True
```

ndim

An integer indicating how many dimensions of a multi-dimensional array the memory represents.

shape

A tuple of integers the length of *ndim* giving the shape of the memory as an N-dimensional array.

Changed in version 3.3: An empty tuple instead of `None` when ndim = 0.

strides

A tuple of integers the length of *ndim* giving the size in bytes to access each element for each dimension of the array.

Changed in version 3.3: An empty tuple instead of `None` when ndim = 0.

suboffsets

Used internally for PIL-style arrays. The value is informational only.

c_contiguous

A bool indicating whether the memory is C-*contiguous*.

New in version 3.3.

f_contiguous

A bool indicating whether the memory is Fortran *contiguous*.

New in version 3.3.

contiguous

A bool indicating whether the memory is *contiguous*.

New in version 3.3.

4.9 Set Types — `set`, `frozenset`

A *set* object is an unordered collection of distinct *hashable* objects. Common uses include membership testing, removing duplicates from a sequence, and computing mathematical operations such as intersection, union, difference, and symmetric difference. (For other containers see the built-in *dict*, *list*, and *tuple* classes, and the *collections* module.)

Like other collections, sets support `x in set`, `len(set)`, and `for x in set`. Being an unordered collection, sets do not record element position or order of insertion. Accordingly, sets do not support indexing, slicing, or other sequence-like behavior.

There are currently two built-in set types, *set* and *frozenset*. The *set* type is mutable — the contents can be changed using methods like `add()` and `remove()`. Since it is mutable, it has no hash value and cannot be used as either a dictionary key or as an element of another set. The *frozenset* type is immutable and *hashable* — its contents cannot be altered after it is created; it can therefore be used as a dictionary key or as an element of another set.

Non-empty sets (not frozensets) can be created by placing a comma-separated list of elements within braces, for example: `{'jack', 'sjoerd'}`, in addition to the *set* constructor.

The constructors for both classes work the same:

class set([*iterable*])

class frozenset([*iterable*])

Return a new set or frozenset object whose elements are taken from *iterable*. The elements of a set must be *hashable*. To represent sets of sets, the inner sets must be *frozenset* objects. If *iterable* is not specified, a new empty set is returned.

Sets can be created by several means:

- Use a comma-separated list of elements within braces: `{'jack', 'sjoerd'}`
- Use a set comprehension: `{c for c in 'abracadabra' if c not in 'abc'}`
- Use the type constructor: `set()`, `set('foobar')`, `set(['a', 'b', 'foo'])`

Instances of *set* and *frozenset* provide the following operations:

len(s)

Return the number of elements in set *s* (cardinality of *s*).

x in s

Test *x* for membership in *s*.

x not in s

Test *x* for non-membership in *s*.

isdisjoint(*other*)

Return `True` if the set has no elements in common with *other*. Sets are disjoint if and only if their intersection is the empty set.

issubset(*other*)

set <= other

Test whether every element in the set is in *other*.

set < other

Test whether the set is a proper subset of *other*, that is, `set <= other and set != other`.

issuperset(*other*)

set >= other

Test whether every element in *other* is in the set.

set > other

Test whether the set is a proper superset of *other*, that is, `set >= other and set != other`.

union(**others*)

set | other | ...

Return a new set with elements from the set and all others.

intersection(**others*)

set & other & ...

Return a new set with elements common to the set and all others.

difference(**others*)

set - other - ...

Return a new set with elements in the set that are not in the others.

symmetric_difference(*other*)

set ^ other

Return a new set with elements in either the set or *other* but not both.

copy()

Return a shallow copy of the set.

Note, the non-operator versions of *union()*, *intersection()*, *difference()*, *symmetric_difference()*, *issubset()*, and *issuperset()* methods will accept any iterable as an argument. In contrast, their operator based counterparts require their arguments to be sets. This precludes

error-prone constructions like `set('abc') & 'cbs'` in favor of the more readable `set('abc').intersection('cbs')`.

Both *set* and *frozenset* support set to set comparisons. Two sets are equal if and only if every element of each set is contained in the other (each is a subset of the other). A set is less than another set if and only if the first set is a proper subset of the second set (is a subset, but is not equal). A set is greater than another set if and only if the first set is a proper superset of the second set (is a superset, but is not equal).

Instances of *set* are compared to instances of *frozenset* based on their members. For example, `set('abc') == frozenset('abc')` returns `True` and so does `set('abc') in set([frozenset('abc')])`.

The subset and equality comparisons do not generalize to a total ordering function. For example, any two nonempty disjoint sets are not equal and are not subsets of each other, so *all* of the following return `False`: `a<b`, `a==b`, or `a>b`.

Since sets only define partial ordering (subset relationships), the output of the *list.sort()* method is undefined for lists of sets.

Set elements, like dictionary keys, must be *hashable*.

Binary operations that mix *set* instances with *frozenset* return the type of the first operand. For example: `frozenset('ab') | set('bc')` returns an instance of *frozenset*.

The following table lists operations available for *set* that do not apply to immutable instances of *frozenset*:

update(**others*)

set |= other | ...

Update the set, adding elements from all others.

intersection_update(**others*)

set &= other & ...

Update the set, keeping only elements found in it and all others.

difference_update(**others*)

set -= other | ...

Update the set, removing elements found in others.

symmetric_difference_update(*other*)

set ^= other

Update the set, keeping only elements found in either set, but not in both.

add(*elem*)

Add element *elem* to the set.

remove(*elem*)

Remove element *elem* from the set. Raises *KeyError* if *elem* is not contained in the set.

discard(*elem*)

Remove element *elem* from the set if it is present.

pop()

Remove and return an arbitrary element from the set. Raises *KeyError* if the set is empty.

clear()

Remove all elements from the set.

Note, the non-operator versions of the *update()*, *intersection_update()*, *difference_update()*, and *symmetric_difference_update()* methods will accept any iterable as an argument.

Note, the *elem* argument to the `__contains__()`, `remove()`, and `discard()` methods may be a set. To support searching for an equivalent frozenset, a temporary one is created from *elem*.

4.10 Mapping Types — `dict`

A *mapping* object maps *hashable* values to arbitrary objects. Mappings are mutable objects. There is currently only one standard mapping type, the *dictionary*. (For other containers see the built-in `list`, `set`, and `tuple` classes, and the `collections` module.)

A dictionary's keys are *almost* arbitrary values. Values that are not *hashable*, that is, values containing lists, dictionaries or other mutable types (that are compared by value rather than by object identity) may not be used as keys. Values that compare equal (such as `1`, `1.0`, and `True`) can be used interchangeably to index the same dictionary entry.

class dict(***kwargs*)

class dict(*mapping*, ***kwargs*)

class dict(*iterable*, ***kwargs*)

Return a new dictionary initialized from an optional positional argument and a possibly empty set of keyword arguments.

Dictionaries can be created by several means:

- Use a comma-separated list of `key: value` pairs within braces: `{'jack': 4098, 'sjoerd': 4127}` or `{4098: 'jack', 4127: 'sjoerd'}`
- Use a dict comprehension: `{}`, `{x: x ** 2 for x in range(10)}`
- Use the type constructor: `dict()`, `dict([('foo', 100), ('bar', 200)])`, `dict(foo=100, bar=200)`

If no positional argument is given, an empty dictionary is created. If a positional argument is given and it is a mapping object, a dictionary is created with the same key-value pairs as the mapping object. Otherwise, the positional argument must be an *iterable* object. Each item in the iterable must itself be an iterable with exactly two objects. The first object of each item becomes a key in the new dictionary, and the second object the corresponding value. If a key occurs more than once, the last value for that key becomes the corresponding value in the new dictionary.

If keyword arguments are given, the keyword arguments and their values are added to the dictionary created from the positional argument. If a key being added is already present, the value from the keyword argument replaces the value from the positional argument.

To illustrate, the following examples all return a dictionary equal to `{"one": 1, "two": 2, "three": 3}`:

```
>>> a = dict(one=1, two=2, three=3)
>>> b = {'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3}
>>> c = dict(zip(['one', 'two', 'three'], [1, 2, 3]))
>>> d = dict([('two', 2), ('one', 1), ('three', 3)])
>>> e = dict({'three': 3, 'one': 1, 'two': 2})
>>> f = dict({'one': 1, 'three': 3}, two=2)
>>> a == b == c == d == e == f
True
```

Providing keyword arguments as in the first example only works for keys that are valid Python identifiers. Otherwise, any valid keys can be used.

These are the operations that dictionaries support (and therefore, custom mapping types should support too):

list(d)
Return a list of all the keys used in the dictionary *d*.

len(d)
Return the number of items in the dictionary *d*.

d[key]
Return the item of *d* with key *key*. Raises a *KeyError* if *key* is not in the map.

If a subclass of dict defines a method `__missing__()` and *key* is not present, the `d[key]` operation calls that method with the key *key* as argument. The `d[key]` operation then returns or raises whatever is returned or raised by the `__missing__(key)` call. No other operations or methods invoke `__missing__()`. If `__missing__()` is not defined, *KeyError* is raised. `__missing__()` must be a method; it cannot be an instance variable:

```
>>> class Counter(dict):
...     def __missing__(self, key):
...         return 0
>>> c = Counter()
>>> c['red']
0
>>> c['red'] += 1
>>> c['red']
1
```

The example above shows part of the implementation of *collections.Counter*. A different `__missing__` method is used by *collections.defaultdict*.

d[key] = value
Set `d[key]` to *value*.

del d[key]
Remove `d[key]` from *d*. Raises a *KeyError* if *key* is not in the map.

key in d
Return `True` if *d* has a key *key*, else `False`.

key not in d
Equivalent to `not key in d`.

iter(d)
Return an iterator over the keys of the dictionary. This is a shortcut for `iter(d.keys())`.

clear()
Remove all items from the dictionary.

copy()
Return a shallow copy of the dictionary.

classmethod fromkeys(*iterable*[, *value*])
Create a new dictionary with keys from *iterable* and values set to *value*.

fromkeys() is a class method that returns a new dictionary. *value* defaults to `None`. All of the values refer to just a single instance, so it generally doesn't make sense for *value* to be a mutable object such as an empty list. To get distinct values, use a dict comprehension instead.

get(*key*[, *default*])
Return the value for *key* if *key* is in the dictionary, else *default*. If *default* is not given, it defaults to `None`, so that this method never raises a *KeyError*.

items()

Return a new view of the dictionary's items (`(key, value)` pairs). See the *documentation of view objects*.

keys()

Return a new view of the dictionary's keys. See the *documentation of view objects*.

pop(*key*[, *default*])

If *key* is in the dictionary, remove it and return its value, else return *default*. If *default* is not given and *key* is not in the dictionary, a `KeyError` is raised.

popitem()

Remove and return a `(key, value)` pair from the dictionary. Pairs are returned in LIFO (last-in, first-out) order.

`popitem()` is useful to destructively iterate over a dictionary, as often used in set algorithms. If the dictionary is empty, calling `popitem()` raises a `KeyError`.

Changed in version 3.7: LIFO order is now guaranteed. In prior versions, `popitem()` would return an arbitrary key/value pair.

reversed(d)

Return a reverse iterator over the keys of the dictionary. This is a shortcut for `reversed(d.keys())`.

New in version 3.8.

setdefault(*key*[, *default*])

If *key* is in the dictionary, return its value. If not, insert *key* with a value of *default* and return *default*. *default* defaults to `None`.

update([*other*])

Update the dictionary with the key/value pairs from *other*, overwriting existing keys. Return `None`.

`update()` accepts either another dictionary object or an iterable of key/value pairs (as tuples or other iterables of length two). If keyword arguments are specified, the dictionary is then updated with those key/value pairs: `d.update(red=1, blue=2)`.

values()

Return a new view of the dictionary's values. See the *documentation of view objects*.

An equality comparison between one `dict.values()` view and another will always return `False`. This also applies when comparing `dict.values()` to itself:

```
>>> d = {'a': 1}
>>> d.values() == d.values()
False
```

d | other

Create a new dictionary with the merged keys and values of *d* and *other*, which must both be dictionaries. The values of *other* take priority when *d* and *other* share keys.

New in version 3.9.

d |= other

Update the dictionary *d* with keys and values from *other*, which may be either a *mapping* or an *iterable* of key/value pairs. The values of *other* take priority when *d* and *other* share keys.

New in version 3.9.

Dictionaries compare equal if and only if they have the same `(key, value)` pairs (regardless of ordering). Order comparisons ('<', '<=', '>=', '>') raise *TypeError*.

Dictionaries preserve insertion order. Note that updating a key does not affect the order. Keys added after deletion are inserted at the end.

```
>>> d = {"one": 1, "two": 2, "three": 3, "four": 4}
>>> d
{'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3, 'four': 4}
>>> list(d)
['one', 'two', 'three', 'four']
>>> list(d.values())
[1, 2, 3, 4]
>>> d["one"] = 42
>>> d
{'one': 42, 'two': 2, 'three': 3, 'four': 4}
>>> del d["two"]
>>> d["two"] = None
>>> d
{'one': 42, 'three': 3, 'four': 4, 'two': None}
```

Changed in version 3.7: Dictionary order is guaranteed to be insertion order. This behavior was an implementation detail of CPython from 3.6.

Dictionaries and dictionary views are reversible.

```
>>> d = {"one": 1, "two": 2, "three": 3, "four": 4}
>>> d
{'one': 1, 'two': 2, 'three': 3, 'four': 4}
>>> list(reversed(d))
['four', 'three', 'two', 'one']
>>> list(reversed(d.values()))
[4, 3, 2, 1]
>>> list(reversed(d.items()))
[('four', 4), ('three', 3), ('two', 2), ('one', 1)]
```

Changed in version 3.8: Dictionaries are now reversible.

See also:

types.MappingProxyType can be used to create a read-only view of a *dict*.

4.10.1 Dictionary view objects

The objects returned by *dict.keys()*, *dict.values()* and *dict.items()* are *view objects*. They provide a dynamic view on the dictionary's entries, which means that when the dictionary changes, the view reflects these changes.

Dictionary views can be iterated over to yield their respective data, and support membership tests:

len(dictview)

Return the number of entries in the dictionary.

iter(dictview)

Return an iterator over the keys, values or items (represented as tuples of `(key, value)`) in the dictionary.

Keys and values are iterated over in insertion order. This allows the creation of `(value, key)` pairs using *zip()*: `pairs = zip(d.values(), d.keys())`. Another way to create the same list is `pairs = [(v, k) for (k, v) in d.items()]`.

Iterating views while adding or deleting entries in the dictionary may raise a *RuntimeError* or fail to iterate over all entries.

Changed in version 3.7: Dictionary order is guaranteed to be insertion order.

x in dictview

Return `True` if *x* is in the underlying dictionary's keys, values or items (in the latter case, *x* should be a `(key, value)` tuple).

reversed(dictview)

Return a reverse iterator over the keys, values or items of the dictionary. The view will be iterated in reverse order of the insertion.

Changed in version 3.8: Dictionary views are now reversible.

dictview.mapping

Return a *types.MappingProxyType* that wraps the original dictionary to which the view refers.

New in version 3.10.

Keys views are set-like since their entries are unique and *hashable*. If all values are hashable, so that `(key, value)` pairs are unique and hashable, then the items view is also set-like. (Values views are not treated as set-like since the entries are generally not unique.) For set-like views, all of the operations defined for the abstract base class *collections.abc.Set* are available (for example, ==, <, or ^).

An example of dictionary view usage:

```
>>> dishes = {'eggs': 2, 'sausage': 1, 'bacon': 1, 'spam': 500}
>>> keys = dishes.keys()
>>> values = dishes.values()

>>> # iteration
>>> n = 0
>>> for val in values:
...     n += val
>>> print(n)
504

>>> # keys and values are iterated over in the same order (insertion order)
>>> list(keys)
['eggs', 'sausage', 'bacon', 'spam']
>>> list(values)
[2, 1, 1, 500]

>>> # view objects are dynamic and reflect dict changes
>>> del dishes['eggs']
>>> del dishes['sausage']
>>> list(keys)
['bacon', 'spam']

>>> # set operations
>>> keys & {'eggs', 'bacon', 'salad'}
{'bacon'}
>>> keys ^ {'sausage', 'juice'} == {'juice', 'sausage', 'bacon', 'spam'}
True
>>> keys | ['juice', 'juice', 'juice'] == {'bacon', 'spam', 'juice'}
True

>>> # get back a read-only proxy for the original dictionary
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
>>> values.mapping
mappingproxy({'bacon': 1, 'spam': 500})
>>> values.mapping['spam']
500
```

4.11 Context Manager Types

Python's `with` statement supports the concept of a runtime context defined by a context manager. This is implemented using a pair of methods that allow user-defined classes to define a runtime context that is entered before the statement body is executed and exited when the statement ends:

`contextmanager.__enter__()`

Enter the runtime context and return either this object or another object related to the runtime context. The value returned by this method is bound to the identifier in the `as` clause of `with` statements using this context manager.

An example of a context manager that returns itself is a *file object*. File objects return themselves from __enter__() to allow *open()* to be used as the context expression in a `with` statement.

An example of a context manager that returns a related object is the one returned by *decimal.localcontext()*. These managers set the active decimal context to a copy of the original decimal context and then return the copy. This allows changes to be made to the current decimal context in the body of the `with` statement without affecting code outside the `with` statement.

`contextmanager.__exit__`(*exc_type*, *exc_val*, *exc_tb*)

Exit the runtime context and return a Boolean flag indicating if any exception that occurred should be suppressed. If an exception occurred while executing the body of the `with` statement, the arguments contain the exception type, value and traceback information. Otherwise, all three arguments are `None`.

Returning a true value from this method will cause the `with` statement to suppress the exception and continue execution with the statement immediately following the `with` statement. Otherwise the exception continues propagating after this method has finished executing. Exceptions that occur during execution of this method will replace any exception that occurred in the body of the `with` statement.

The exception passed in should never be reraised explicitly - instead, this method should return a false value to indicate that the method completed successfully and does not want to suppress the raised exception. This allows context management code to easily detect whether or not an *__exit__()* method has actually failed.

Python defines several context managers to support easy thread synchronisation, prompt closure of files or other objects, and simpler manipulation of the active decimal arithmetic context. The specific types are not treated specially beyond their implementation of the context management protocol. See the *contextlib* module for some examples.

Python's *generator*s and the *contextlib.contextmanager* decorator provide a convenient way to implement these protocols. If a generator function is decorated with the *contextlib.contextmanager* decorator, it will return a context manager implementing the necessary *__enter__()* and *__exit__()* methods, rather than the iterator produced by an undecorated generator function.

Note that there is no specific slot for any of these methods in the type structure for Python objects in the Python/C API. Extension types wanting to define these methods must provide them as a normal Python accessible method. Compared to the overhead of setting up the runtime context, the overhead of a single class dictionary lookup is negligible.

4.12 Type Annotation Types — Generic Alias, Union

The core built-in types for *type annotations* are *Generic Alias* and *Union*.

4.12.1 Generic Alias Type

`GenericAlias` objects are generally created by subscripting a class. They are most often used with container classes, such as *`list`* or *`dict`*. For example, `list[int]` is a `GenericAlias` object created by subscripting the `list` class with the argument *`int`*. `GenericAlias` objects are intended primarily for use with *type annotations*.

Note: It is generally only possible to subscript a class if the class implements the special method `__class_getitem__()`.

A `GenericAlias` object acts as a proxy for a *generic type*, implementing *parameterized generics*.

For a container class, the argument(s) supplied to a subscription of the class may indicate the type(s) of the elements an object contains. For example, `set[bytes]` can be used in type annotations to signify a *`set`* in which all the elements are of type *`bytes`*.

For a class which defines `__class_getitem__()` but is not a container, the argument(s) supplied to a subscription of the class will often indicate the return type(s) of one or more methods defined on an object. For example, *`regular expressions`* can be used on both the *`str`* data type and the *`bytes`* data type:

- If `x = re.search('foo', 'foo')`, `x` will be a *re.Match* object where the return values of `x.group(0)` and `x[0]` will both be of type *`str`*. We can represent this kind of object in type annotations with the `GenericAlias re.Match[str]`.
- If `y = re.search(b'bar', b'bar')`, (note the `b` for *`bytes`*), `y` will also be an instance of `re.Match`, but the return values of `y.group(0)` and `y[0]` will both be of type *`bytes`*. In type annotations, we would represent this variety of *re.Match* objects with `re.Match[bytes]`.

`GenericAlias` objects are instances of the class *`types.GenericAlias`*, which can also be used to create `GenericAlias` objects directly.

`T[X, Y, ...]`

Creates a `GenericAlias` representing a type `T` parameterized by types *X*, *Y*, and more depending on the `T` used. For example, a function expecting a *`list`* containing *`float`* elements:

```
def average(values: list[float]) -> float:
    return sum(values) / len(values)
```

Another example for *mapping* objects, using a *`dict`*, which is a generic type expecting two type parameters representing the key type and the value type. In this example, the function expects a `dict` with keys of type *`str`* and values of type *`int`*:

```
def send_post_request(url: str, body: dict[str, int]) -> None:
    ...
```

The builtin functions *`isinstance()`* and *`issubclass()`* do not accept `GenericAlias` types for their second argument:

```
>>> isinstance([1, 2], list[str])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: isinstance() argument 2 cannot be a parameterized generic
```

The Python runtime does not enforce *type annotations*. This extends to generic types and their type parameters. When creating a container object from a `GenericAlias`, the elements in the container are not checked against their type. For example, the following code is discouraged, but will run without errors:

```
>>> t = list[str]
>>> t([1, 2, 3])
[1, 2, 3]
```

Furthermore, parameterized generics erase type parameters during object creation:

```
>>> t = list[str]
>>> type(t)
<class 'types.GenericAlias'>

>>> l = t()
>>> type(l)
<class 'list'>
```

Calling *repr()* or *str()* on a generic shows the parameterized type:

```
>>> repr(list[int])
'list[int]'

>>> str(list[int])
'list[int]'
```

The `__getitem__()` method of generic containers will raise an exception to disallow mistakes like `dict[str][str]`:

```
>>> dict[str][str]
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
TypeError: dict[str] is not a generic class
```

However, such expressions are valid when *type variables* are used. The index must have as many elements as there are type variable items in the `GenericAlias` object's *__args__*.

```
>>> from typing import TypeVar
>>> Y = TypeVar('Y')
>>> dict[str, Y][int]
dict[str, int]
```

Standard Generic Classes

The following standard library classes support parameterized generics. This list is non-exhaustive.

- *tuple*
- *list*
- *dict*
- *set*
- *frozenset*
- *type*
- *collections.deque*

- *collections.defaultdict*
- *collections.OrderedDict*
- *collections.Counter*
- *collections.ChainMap*
- *collections.abc.Awaitable*
- *collections.abc.Coroutine*
- *collections.abc.AsyncIterable*
- *collections.abc.AsyncIterator*
- *collections.abc.AsyncGenerator*
- *collections.abc.Iterable*
- *collections.abc.Iterator*
- *collections.abc.Generator*
- *collections.abc.Reversible*
- *collections.abc.Container*
- *collections.abc.Collection*
- *collections.abc.Callable*
- *collections.abc.Set*
- *collections.abc.MutableSet*
- *collections.abc.Mapping*
- *collections.abc.MutableMapping*
- *collections.abc.Sequence*
- *collections.abc.MutableSequence*
- *collections.abc.ByteString*
- *collections.abc.MappingView*
- *collections.abc.KeysView*
- *collections.abc.ItemsView*
- *collections.abc.ValuesView*
- *contextlib.AbstractContextManager*
- *contextlib.AbstractAsyncContextManager*
- *dataclasses.Field*
- *functools.cached_property*
- *functools.partialmethod*
- *os.PathLike*
- *queue.LifoQueue*
- *queue.Queue*
- *queue.PriorityQueue*

- *queue.SimpleQueue*
- *re.Pattern*
- *re.Match*
- *shelve.BsdDbShelf*
- *shelve.DbfilenameShelf*
- *shelve.Shelf*
- *types.MappingProxyType*
- *weakref.WeakKeyDictionary*
- *weakref.WeakMethod*
- *weakref.WeakSet*
- *weakref.WeakValueDictionary*

Special Attributes of `GenericAlias` objects

All parameterized generics implement special read-only attributes.

`genericalias.__origin__`

This attribute points at the non-parameterized generic class:

```
>>> list[int].__origin__
<class 'list'>
```

`genericalias.__args__`

This attribute is a *tuple* (possibly of length 1) of generic types passed to the original `__class_getitem__()` of the generic class:

```
>>> dict[str, list[int]].__args__
(<class 'str'>, list[int])
```

`genericalias.__parameters__`

This attribute is a lazily computed tuple (possibly empty) of unique type variables found in `__args__`:

```
>>> from typing import TypeVar

>>> T = TypeVar('T')
>>> list[T].__parameters__
(~T,)
```

Note: A `GenericAlias` object with *typing.ParamSpec* parameters may not have correct `__parameters__` after substitution because *typing.ParamSpec* is intended primarily for static type checking.

`genericalias.__unpacked__`

A boolean that is true if the alias has been unpacked using the `*` operator (see *TypeVarTuple*).

New in version 3.11.

See also:

PEP 484 - Type Hints Introducing Python's framework for type annotations.

PEP 585 - Type Hinting Generics In Standard Collections Introducing the ability to natively parameterize standard-library classes, provided they implement the special class method `__class_getitem__()`.

Generics, *user-defined generics* **and** *`typing.Generic`* Documentation on how to implement generic classes that can be parameterized at runtime and understood by static type-checkers.

New in version 3.9.

4.12.2 Union Type

A union object holds the value of the `|` (bitwise or) operation on multiple *type objects*. These types are intended primarily for *type annotations*. The union type expression enables cleaner type hinting syntax compared to *`typing.Union`*.

`X | Y | ...`

Defines a union object which holds types *X*, *Y*, and so forth. `X | Y` means either X or Y. It is equivalent to `typing.Union[X, Y]`. For example, the following function expects an argument of type *`int`* or *`float`*:

```
def square(number: int | float) -> int | float:
    return number ** 2
```

Note: The `|` operand cannot be used at runtime to define unions where one or more members is a forward reference. For example, `int | "Foo"`, where `"Foo"` is a reference to a class not yet defined, will fail at runtime. For unions which include forward references, present the whole expression as a string, e.g. `"int | Foo"`.

`union_object == other`

Union objects can be tested for equality with other union objects. Details:

- Unions of unions are flattened:

```
(int | str) | float == int | str | float
```

- Redundant types are removed:

```
int | str | int == int | str
```

- When comparing unions, the order is ignored:

```
int | str == str | int
```

- It is compatible with *`typing.Union`*:

```
int | str == typing.Union[int, str]
```

- Optional types can be spelled as a union with `None`:

```
str | None == typing.Optional[str]
```

`isinstance(obj, union_object)`

`issubclass(obj, union_object)`

Calls to *`isinstance()`* and *`issubclass()`* are also supported with a union object:

```
>>> isinstance("", int | str)
True
```

However, *parameterized generics* in union objects cannot be checked:

```
>>> isinstance(1, int | list[int])  # short-circuit evaluation
True
>>> isinstance([1], int | list[int])
Traceback (most recent call last):
  ...
TypeError: isinstance() argument 2 cannot be a parameterized generic
```

The user-exposed type for the union object can be accessed from *types.UnionType* and used for *isinstance()* checks. An object cannot be instantiated from the type:

```
>>> import types
>>> isinstance(int | str, types.UnionType)
True
>>> types.UnionType()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: cannot create 'types.UnionType' instances
```

Note: The `__or__()` method for type objects was added to support the syntax `X | Y`. If a metaclass implements `__or__()`, the Union may override it:

```
>>> class M(type):
...     def __or__(self, other):
...         return "Hello"
...
>>> class C(metaclass=M):
...     pass
...
>>> C | int
'Hello'
>>> int | C
int | __main__.C
```

See also:

PEP 604 – PEP proposing the `X | Y` syntax and the Union type.

New in version 3.10.

4.13 Other Built-in Types

The interpreter supports several other kinds of objects. Most of these support only one or two operations.

4.13.1 Modules

The only special operation on a module is attribute access: `m.name`, where *m* is a module and *name* accesses a name defined in *m*'s symbol table. Module attributes can be assigned to. (Note that the `import` statement is not, strictly speaking, an operation on a module object; `import foo` does not require a module object named *foo* to exist, rather it requires an (external) *definition* for a module named *foo* somewhere.)

A special attribute of every module is *__dict__*. This is the dictionary containing the module's symbol table. Modifying this dictionary will actually change the module's symbol table, but direct assignment to the *__dict__* attribute is not possible (you can write `m.__dict__['a'] = 1`, which defines `m.a` to be `1`, but you can't write `m.__dict__ = {}`). Modifying *__dict__* directly is not recommended.

Modules built into the interpreter are written like this: `<module 'sys' (built-in)>`. If loaded from a file, they are written as `<module 'os' from '/usr/local/lib/pythonX.Y/os.pyc'>`.

4.13.2 Classes and Class Instances

See objects and class for these.

4.13.3 Functions

Function objects are created by function definitions. The only operation on a function object is to call it: `func(argument-list)`.

There are really two flavors of function objects: built-in functions and user-defined functions. Both support the same operation (to call the function), but the implementation is different, hence the different object types.

See function for more information.

4.13.4 Methods

Methods are functions that are called using the attribute notation. There are two flavors: built-in methods (such as `append()` on lists) and class instance methods. Built-in methods are described with the types that support them.

If you access a method (a function defined in a class namespace) through an instance, you get a special object: a *bound method* (also called *instance method*) object. When called, it will add the `self` argument to the argument list. Bound methods have two special read-only attributes: `m.__self__` is the object on which the method operates, and `m.__func__` is the function implementing the method. Calling `m(arg-1, arg-2, ..., arg-n)` is completely equivalent to calling `m.__func__(m.__self__, arg-1, arg-2, ..., arg-n)`.

Like function objects, bound method objects support getting arbitrary attributes. However, since method attributes are actually stored on the underlying function object (`meth.__func__`), setting method attributes on bound methods is disallowed. Attempting to set an attribute on a method results in an *AttributeError* being raised. In order to set a method attribute, you need to explicitly set it on the underlying function object:

```
>>> class C:
...     def method(self):
...         pass
...
>>> c = C()
>>> c.method.whoami = 'my name is method'  # can't set on the method
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
AttributeError: 'method' object has no attribute 'whoami'
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
>>> c.method.__func__.whoami = 'my name is method'
>>> c.method.whoami
'my name is method'
```

See types for more information.

4.13.5 Code Objects

Code objects are used by the implementation to represent "pseudo-compiled" executable Python code such as a function body. They differ from function objects because they don't contain a reference to their global execution environment. Code objects are returned by the built-in *compile()* function and can be extracted from function objects through their `__code__` attribute. See also the *code* module.

Accessing `__code__` raises an *auditing event* `object.__getattr__` with arguments `obj` and `"__code__"`.

A code object can be executed or evaluated by passing it (instead of a source string) to the *exec()* or *eval()* built-in functions.

See types for more information.

4.13.6 Type Objects

Type objects represent the various object types. An object's type is accessed by the built-in function *type()*. There are no special operations on types. The standard module *types* defines names for all standard built-in types.

Types are written like this: `<class 'int'>`.

4.13.7 The Null Object

This object is returned by functions that don't explicitly return a value. It supports no special operations. There is exactly one null object, named `None` (a built-in name). `type(None)()` produces the same singleton.

It is written as `None`.

4.13.8 The Ellipsis Object

This object is commonly used by slicing (see slicings). It supports no special operations. There is exactly one ellipsis object, named *Ellipsis* (a built-in name). `type(Ellipsis)()` produces the *Ellipsis* singleton.

It is written as `Ellipsis` or `...`.

4.13.9 The NotImplemented Object

This object is returned from comparisons and binary operations when they are asked to operate on types they don't support. See comparisons for more information. There is exactly one `NotImplemented` object. `type(NotImplemented)()` produces the singleton instance.

It is written as `NotImplemented`.

4.13.10 Boolean Values

Boolean values are the two constant objects `False` and `True`. They are used to represent truth values (although other values can also be considered false or true). In numeric contexts (for example when used as the argument to an arithmetic operator), they behave like the integers 0 and 1, respectively. The built-in function *bool()* can be used to convert any value to a Boolean, if the value can be interpreted as a truth value (see section *Truth Value Testing* above).

They are written as `False` and `True`, respectively.

4.13.11 Internal Objects

See types for this information. It describes stack frame objects, traceback objects, and slice objects.

4.14 Special Attributes

The implementation adds a few special read-only attributes to several object types, where they are relevant. Some of these are not reported by the *dir()* built-in function.

`object.`**`__dict__`**

A dictionary or other mapping object used to store an object's (writable) attributes.

`instance.`**`__class__`**

The class to which a class instance belongs.

`class.`**`__bases__`**

The tuple of base classes of a class object.

`definition.`**`__name__`**

The name of the class, function, method, descriptor, or generator instance.

`definition.`**`__qualname__`**

The *qualified name* of the class, function, method, descriptor, or generator instance.

New in version 3.3.

`class.`**`__mro__`**

This attribute is a tuple of classes that are considered when looking for base classes during method resolution.

`class.`**`mro`**`()`

This method can be overridden by a metaclass to customize the method resolution order for its instances. It is called at class instantiation, and its result is stored in *__mro__*.

`class.`**`__subclasses__`**`()`

Each class keeps a list of weak references to its immediate subclasses. This method returns a list of all those references still alive. The list is in definition order. Example:

```
>>> int.__subclasses__()
[<class 'bool'>, <enum 'IntEnum'>, <flag 'IntFlag'>, <class 're._constants._
↪NamedIntConstant'>]
```

4.15 Integer string conversion length limitation

CPython has a global limit for converting between *int* and *str* to mitigate denial of service attacks. This limit *only* applies to decimal or other non-power-of-two number bases. Hexadecimal, octal, and binary conversions are unlimited. The limit can be configured.

The *int* type in CPython is an arbitrary length number stored in binary form (commonly known as a "bignum"). There exists no algorithm that can convert a string to a binary integer or a binary integer to a string in linear time, *unless* the base is a power of 2. Even the best known algorithms for base 10 have sub-quadratic complexity. Converting a large value such as `int('1' * 500_000)` can take over a second on a fast CPU.

Limiting conversion size offers a practical way to avoid CVE-2020-10735.

The limit is applied to the number of digit characters in the input or output string when a non-linear conversion algorithm would be involved. Underscores and the sign are not counted towards the limit.

When an operation would exceed the limit, a *ValueError* is raised:

```
>>> import sys
>>> sys.set_int_max_str_digits(4300)  # Illustrative, this is the default.
>>> _ = int('2' * 5432)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: Exceeds the limit (4300 digits) for integer string conversion: value has␣
↪5432 digits; use sys.set_int_max_str_digits() to increase the limit
>>> i = int('2' * 4300)
>>> len(str(i))
4300
>>> i_squared = i*i
>>> len(str(i_squared))
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: Exceeds the limit (4300 digits) for integer string conversion; use sys.
↪set_int_max_str_digits() to increase the limit
>>> len(hex(i_squared))
7144
>>> assert int(hex(i_squared), base=16) == i*i  # Hexadecimal is unlimited.
```

The default limit is 4300 digits as provided in *sys.int_info.default_max_str_digits*. The lowest limit that can be configured is 640 digits as provided in *sys.int_info.str_digits_check_threshold*.

Verification:

```
>>> import sys
>>> assert sys.int_info.default_max_str_digits == 4300, sys.int_info
>>> assert sys.int_info.str_digits_check_threshold == 640, sys.int_info
>>> msg = int('578966293710682886880994035146873798396722250538762761564'
...           '9252925514383915483333812743580549779436104706260696366600'
...           '571186405732').to_bytes(53, 'big')
...
```

New in version 3.11.

4.15.1 Affected APIs

The limitation only applies to potentially slow conversions between *int* and *str* or *bytes*:

- `int(string)` with default base 10.
- `int(string, base)` for all bases that are not a power of 2.
- `str(integer)`.
- `repr(integer)`.
- any other string conversion to base 10, for example `f"{integer}"`, `"{}".format(integer)`, or `b"%d" % integer`.

The limitations do not apply to functions with a linear algorithm:

- `int(string, base)` with base 2, 4, 8, 16, or 32.
- *int.from_bytes()* and *int.to_bytes()*.
- *hex()*, *oct()*, *bin()*.
- *Format Specification Mini-Language* for hex, octal, and binary numbers.
- *str* to *float*.
- *str* to *decimal.Decimal*.

4.15.2 Configuring the limit

Before Python starts up you can use an environment variable or an interpreter command line flag to configure the limit:

- `PYTHONINTMAXSTRDIGITS`, e.g. `PYTHONINTMAXSTRDIGITS=640 python3` to set the limit to 640 or `PYTHONINTMAXSTRDIGITS=0 python3` to disable the limitation.
- `-X int_max_str_digits`, e.g. `python3 -X int_max_str_digits=640`
- `sys.flags.int_max_str_digits` contains the value of `PYTHONINTMAXSTRDIGITS` or `-X int_max_str_digits`. If both the env var and the `-X` option are set, the `-X` option takes precedence. A value of *-1* indicates that both were unset, thus a value of `sys.int_info.default_max_str_digits` was used during initialization.

From code, you can inspect the current limit and set a new one using these *sys* APIs:

- *sys.get_int_max_str_digits()* and *sys.set_int_max_str_digits()* are a getter and setter for the interpreter-wide limit. Subinterpreters have their own limit.

Information about the default and minimum can be found in *sys.int_info*:

- *sys.int_info.default_max_str_digits* is the compiled-in default limit.
- *sys.int_info.str_digits_check_threshold* is the lowest accepted value for the limit (other than 0 which disables it).

New in version 3.11.

Caution: Setting a low limit *can* lead to problems. While rare, code exists that contains integer constants in decimal in their source that exceed the minimum threshold. A consequence of setting the limit is that Python source code containing decimal integer literals longer than the limit will encounter an error during parsing, usually at startup time or import time or even at installation time - anytime an up to date `.pyc` does not already exist for the code. A workaround for source that contains such large constants is to convert them to `0x` hexadecimal form as it has no limit.

Test your application thoroughly if you use a low limit. Ensure your tests run with the limit set early via the environment or flag so that it applies during startup and even during any installation step that may invoke Python to precompile `.py` sources to `.pyc` files.

4.15.3 Recommended configuration

The default `sys.int_info.default_max_str_digits` is expected to be reasonable for most applications. If your application requires a different limit, set it from your main entry point using Python version agnostic code as these APIs were added in security patch releases in versions before 3.11.

Example:

```
>>> import sys
>>> if hasattr(sys, "set_int_max_str_digits"):
...     upper_bound = 68000
...     lower_bound = 4004
...     current_limit = sys.get_int_max_str_digits()
...     if current_limit == 0 or current_limit > upper_bound:
...         sys.set_int_max_str_digits(upper_bound)
...     elif current_limit < lower_bound:
...         sys.set_int_max_str_digits(lower_bound)
```

If you need to disable it entirely, set it to `0`.

CHAPTER

FIVE

BUILT-IN EXCEPTIONS

In Python, all exceptions must be instances of a class that derives from *BaseException*. In a `try` statement with an `except` clause that mentions a particular class, that clause also handles any exception classes derived from that class (but not exception classes from which *it* is derived). Two exception classes that are not related via subclassing are never equivalent, even if they have the same name.

The built-in exceptions listed below can be generated by the interpreter or built-in functions. Except where mentioned, they have an "associated value" indicating the detailed cause of the error. This may be a string or a tuple of several items of information (e.g., an error code and a string explaining the code). The associated value is usually passed as arguments to the exception class's constructor.

User code can raise built-in exceptions. This can be used to test an exception handler or to report an error condition "just like" the situation in which the interpreter raises the same exception; but beware that there is nothing to prevent user code from raising an inappropriate error.

The built-in exception classes can be subclassed to define new exceptions; programmers are encouraged to derive new exceptions from the *Exception* class or one of its subclasses, and not from *BaseException*. More information on defining exceptions is available in the Python Tutorial under tut-userexceptions.

5.1 Exception context

When raising a new exception while another exception is already being handled, the new exception's `__context__` attribute is automatically set to the handled exception. An exception may be handled when an `except` or `finally` clause, or a `with` statement, is used.

This implicit exception context can be supplemented with an explicit cause by using `from` with `raise`:

```
raise new_exc from original_exc
```

The expression following `from` must be an exception or `None`. It will be set as `__cause__` on the raised exception. Setting `__cause__` also implicitly sets the `__suppress_context__` attribute to `True`, so that using `raise new_exc from None` effectively replaces the old exception with the new one for display purposes (e.g. converting *KeyError* to *AttributeError*), while leaving the old exception available in `__context__` for introspection when debugging.

The default traceback display code shows these chained exceptions in addition to the traceback for the exception itself. An explicitly chained exception in `__cause__` is always shown when present. An implicitly chained exception in `__context__` is shown only if `__cause__` is *None* and `__suppress_context__` is false.

In either case, the exception itself is always shown after any chained exceptions so that the final line of the traceback always shows the last exception that was raised.

5.2 Inheriting from built-in exceptions

User code can create subclasses that inherit from an exception type. It's recommended to only subclass one exception type at a time to avoid any possible conflicts between how the bases handle the `args` attribute, as well as due to possible memory layout incompatibilities.

CPython implementation detail: Most built-in exceptions are implemented in C for efficiency, see: Objects/exceptions.c. Some have custom memory layouts which makes it impossible to create a subclass that inherits from multiple exception types. The memory layout of a type is an implementation detail and might change between Python versions, leading to new conflicts in the future. Therefore, it's recommended to avoid subclassing multiple exception types altogether.

5.3 Base classes

The following exceptions are used mostly as base classes for other exceptions.

exception BaseException

The base class for all built-in exceptions. It is not meant to be directly inherited by user-defined classes (for that, use *Exception*). If *str()* is called on an instance of this class, the representation of the argument(s) to the instance are returned, or the empty string when there were no arguments.

args

The tuple of arguments given to the exception constructor. Some built-in exceptions (like *OSError*) expect a certain number of arguments and assign a special meaning to the elements of this tuple, while others are usually called only with a single string giving an error message.

with_traceback(*tb*)

This method sets *tb* as the new traceback for the exception and returns the exception object. It was more commonly used before the exception chaining features of **PEP 3134** became available. The following example shows how we can convert an instance of `SomeException` into an instance of `OtherException` while preserving the traceback. Once raised, the current frame is pushed onto the traceback of the `OtherException`, as would have happened to the traceback of the original `SomeException` had we allowed it to propagate to the caller.

```
try:
    ...
except SomeException:
    tb = sys.exception().__traceback__
    raise OtherException(...).with_traceback(tb)
```

add_note(*note*)

Add the string `note` to the exception's notes which appear in the standard traceback after the exception string. A *TypeError* is raised if `note` is not a string.

New in version 3.11.

__notes__

A list of the notes of this exception, which were added with *add_note()*. This attribute is created when *add_note()* is called.

New in version 3.11.

exception Exception

All built-in, non-system-exiting exceptions are derived from this class. All user-defined exceptions should also be derived from this class.

exception ArithmeticError

The base class for those built-in exceptions that are raised for various arithmetic errors: *OverflowError*, *ZeroDivisionError*, *FloatingPointError*.

exception BufferError

Raised when a buffer related operation cannot be performed.

exception LookupError

The base class for the exceptions that are raised when a key or index used on a mapping or sequence is invalid: *IndexError*, *KeyError*. This can be raised directly by *codecs.lookup()*.

5.4 Concrete exceptions

The following exceptions are the exceptions that are usually raised.

exception AssertionError

Raised when an `assert` statement fails.

exception AttributeError

Raised when an attribute reference (see attribute-references) or assignment fails. (When an object does not support attribute references or attribute assignments at all, *TypeError* is raised.)

The `name` and `obj` attributes can be set using keyword-only arguments to the constructor. When set they represent the name of the attribute that was attempted to be accessed and the object that was accessed for said attribute, respectively.

Changed in version 3.10: Added the `name` and `obj` attributes.

exception EOFError

Raised when the *input()* function hits an end-of-file condition (EOF) without reading any data. (N.B.: the `io.IOBase.read()` and *io.IOBase.readline()* methods return an empty string when they hit EOF.)

exception FloatingPointError

Not currently used.

exception GeneratorExit

Raised when a *generator* or *coroutine* is closed; see `generator.close()` and `coroutine.close()`. It directly inherits from *BaseException* instead of *Exception* since it is technically not an error.

exception ImportError

Raised when the `import` statement has troubles trying to load a module. Also raised when the "from list" in `from ... import` has a name that cannot be found.

The `name` and `path` attributes can be set using keyword-only arguments to the constructor. When set they represent the name of the module that was attempted to be imported and the path to any file which triggered the exception, respectively.

Changed in version 3.3: Added the `name` and `path` attributes.

exception ModuleNotFoundError

A subclass of *ImportError* which is raised by `import` when a module could not be located. It is also raised when `None` is found in *sys.modules*.

New in version 3.6.

exception IndexError

Raised when a sequence subscript is out of range. (Slice indices are silently truncated to fall in the allowed range; if an index is not an integer, *TypeError* is raised.)

exception KeyError

Raised when a mapping (dictionary) key is not found in the set of existing keys.

exception KeyboardInterrupt

Raised when the user hits the interrupt key (normally `Control-C` or `Delete`). During execution, a check for interrupts is made regularly. The exception inherits from *BaseException* so as to not be accidentally caught by code that catches *Exception* and thus prevent the interpreter from exiting.

Note: Catching a *KeyboardInterrupt* requires special consideration. Because it can be raised at unpredictable points, it may, in some circumstances, leave the running program in an inconsistent state. It is generally best to allow *KeyboardInterrupt* to end the program as quickly as possible or avoid raising it entirely. (See *Note on Signal Handlers and Exceptions*.)

---

exception MemoryError

Raised when an operation runs out of memory but the situation may still be rescued (by deleting some objects). The associated value is a string indicating what kind of (internal) operation ran out of memory. Note that because of the underlying memory management architecture (C's `malloc()` function), the interpreter may not always be able to completely recover from this situation; it nevertheless raises an exception so that a stack traceback can be printed, in case a run-away program was the cause.

exception NameError

Raised when a local or global name is not found. This applies only to unqualified names. The associated value is an error message that includes the name that could not be found.

The `name` attribute can be set using a keyword-only argument to the constructor. When set it represent the name of the variable that was attempted to be accessed.

Changed in version 3.10: Added the `name` attribute.

exception NotImplementedError

This exception is derived from *RuntimeError*. In user defined base classes, abstract methods should raise this exception when they require derived classes to override the method, or while the class is being developed to indicate that the real implementation still needs to be added.

Note: It should not be used to indicate that an operator or method is not meant to be supported at all – in that case either leave the operator / method undefined or, if a subclass, set it to *None*.

Note: `NotImplementedError` and `NotImplemented` are not interchangeable, even though they have similar names and purposes. See *NotImplemented* for details on when to use it.

---

exception OSError(*[arg]*)

exception OSError(*errno*, *strerror*[, *filename*[, *winerror*[, *filename2*]]])

This exception is raised when a system function returns a system-related error, including I/O failures such as "file not found" or "disk full" (not for illegal argument types or other incidental errors).

The second form of the constructor sets the corresponding attributes, described below. The attributes default to *None* if not specified. For backwards compatibility, if three arguments are passed, the *args* attribute contains only a 2-tuple of the first two constructor arguments.

The constructor often actually returns a subclass of *OSError*, as described in *OS exceptions* below. The particular subclass depends on the final *errno* value. This behaviour only occurs when constructing *OSError* directly or via an alias, and is not inherited when subclassing.

errno

A numeric error code from the C variable `errno`.

winerror

Under Windows, this gives you the native Windows error code. The *errno* attribute is then an approximate translation, in POSIX terms, of that native error code.

Under Windows, if the *winerror* constructor argument is an integer, the *errno* attribute is determined from the Windows error code, and the *errno* argument is ignored. On other platforms, the *winerror* argument is ignored, and the *winerror* attribute does not exist.

strerror

The corresponding error message, as provided by the operating system. It is formatted by the C functions `perror()` under POSIX, and `FormatMessage()` under Windows.

filename

filename2

For exceptions that involve a file system path (such as *open()* or *os.unlink()*), *filename* is the file name passed to the function. For functions that involve two file system paths (such as *os.rename()*), *filename2* corresponds to the second file name passed to the function.

Changed in version 3.3: *EnvironmentError*, *IOError*, *WindowsError*, *socket.error*, *select.error* and `mmap.error` have been merged into *OSError*, and the constructor may return a subclass.

Changed in version 3.4: The *filename* attribute is now the original file name passed to the function, instead of the name encoded to or decoded from the *filesystem encoding and error handler*. Also, the *filename2* constructor argument and attribute was added.

exception OverflowError

Raised when the result of an arithmetic operation is too large to be represented. This cannot occur for integers (which would rather raise *MemoryError* than give up). However, for historical reasons, OverflowError is sometimes raised for integers that are outside a required range. Because of the lack of standardization of floating point exception handling in C, most floating point operations are not checked.

exception RecursionError

This exception is derived from *RuntimeError*. It is raised when the interpreter detects that the maximum recursion depth (see *sys.getrecursionlimit()*) is exceeded.

New in version 3.5: Previously, a plain *RuntimeError* was raised.

exception ReferenceError

This exception is raised when a weak reference proxy, created by the *weakref.proxy()* function, is used to access an attribute of the referent after it has been garbage collected. For more information on weak references, see the *weakref* module.

exception RuntimeError

Raised when an error is detected that doesn't fall in any of the other categories. The associated value is a string indicating what precisely went wrong.

exception StopIteration

Raised by built-in function *next()* and an *iterator*'s *__next__()* method to signal that there are no further items produced by the iterator.

The exception object has a single attribute `value`, which is given as an argument when constructing the exception, and defaults to *None*.

When a *generator* or *coroutine* function returns, a new `StopIteration` instance is raised, and the value returned by the function is used as the `value` parameter to the constructor of the exception.

If a generator code directly or indirectly raises `StopIteration`, it is converted into a `RuntimeError` (retaining the `StopIteration` as the new exception's cause).

Changed in version 3.3: Added `value` attribute and the ability for generator functions to use it to return a value.

Changed in version 3.5: Introduced the RuntimeError transformation via `from __future__ import generator_stop`, see **PEP 479**.

Changed in version 3.7: Enable **PEP 479** for all code by default: a `StopIteration` error raised in a generator is transformed into a `RuntimeError`.

exception StopAsyncIteration

Must be raised by `__anext__()` method of an *asynchronous iterator* object to stop the iteration.

New in version 3.5.

exception SyntaxError(*message*, *details*)

Raised when the parser encounters a syntax error. This may occur in an `import` statement, in a call to the built-in functions `compile()`, `exec()`, or `eval()`, or when reading the initial script or standard input (also interactively).

The `str()` of the exception instance returns only the error message. Details is a tuple whose members are also available as separate attributes.

filename

The name of the file the syntax error occurred in.

lineno

Which line number in the file the error occurred in. This is 1-indexed: the first line in the file has a `lineno` of 1.

offset

The column in the line where the error occurred. This is 1-indexed: the first character in the line has an `offset` of 1.

text

The source code text involved in the error.

end_lineno

Which line number in the file the error occurred ends in. This is 1-indexed: the first line in the file has a `lineno` of 1.

end_offset

The column in the end line where the error occurred finishes. This is 1-indexed: the first character in the line has an `offset` of 1.

For errors in f-string fields, the message is prefixed by "f-string: " and the offsets are offsets in a text constructed from the replacement expression. For example, compiling f'Bad {a b} field' results in this args attribute: ('f-string: …', (", 1, 2, '(a b)n', 1, 5)).

Changed in version 3.10: Added the `end_lineno` and `end_offset` attributes.

exception IndentationError

Base class for syntax errors related to incorrect indentation. This is a subclass of `SyntaxError`.

exception TabError

Raised when indentation contains an inconsistent use of tabs and spaces. This is a subclass of `IndentationError`.

exception SystemError

Raised when the interpreter finds an internal error, but the situation does not look so serious to cause it to abandon all hope. The associated value is a string indicating what went wrong (in low-level terms).

You should report this to the author or maintainer of your Python interpreter. Be sure to report the version of the Python interpreter (`sys.version`; it is also printed at the start of an interactive Python session), the exact error message (the exception's associated value) and if possible the source of the program that triggered the error.

exception SystemExit

This exception is raised by the *sys.exit()* function. It inherits from *BaseException* instead of *Exception* so that it is not accidentally caught by code that catches *Exception*. This allows the exception to properly propagate up and cause the interpreter to exit. When it is not handled, the Python interpreter exits; no stack traceback is printed. The constructor accepts the same optional argument passed to *sys.exit()*. If the value is an integer, it specifies the system exit status (passed to C's `exit()` function); if it is `None`, the exit status is zero; if it has another type (such as a string), the object's value is printed and the exit status is one.

A call to *sys.exit()* is translated into an exception so that clean-up handlers (`finally` clauses of `try` statements) can be executed, and so that a debugger can execute a script without running the risk of losing control. The *os._exit()* function can be used if it is absolutely positively necessary to exit immediately (for example, in the child process after a call to *os.fork()*).

code

The exit status or error message that is passed to the constructor. (Defaults to `None`.)

exception TypeError

Raised when an operation or function is applied to an object of inappropriate type. The associated value is a string giving details about the type mismatch.

This exception may be raised by user code to indicate that an attempted operation on an object is not supported, and is not meant to be. If an object is meant to support a given operation but has not yet provided an implementation, *NotImplementedError* is the proper exception to raise.

Passing arguments of the wrong type (e.g. passing a *list* when an *int* is expected) should result in a *TypeError*, but passing arguments with the wrong value (e.g. a number outside expected boundaries) should result in a *ValueError*.

exception UnboundLocalError

Raised when a reference is made to a local variable in a function or method, but no value has been bound to that variable. This is a subclass of *NameError*.

exception UnicodeError

Raised when a Unicode-related encoding or decoding error occurs. It is a subclass of *ValueError*.

UnicodeError has attributes that describe the encoding or decoding error. For example, `err.object[err.start:err.end]` gives the particular invalid input that the codec failed on.

encoding

The name of the encoding that raised the error.

reason

A string describing the specific codec error.

object

The object the codec was attempting to encode or decode.

start

The first index of invalid data in *object*.

end

The index after the last invalid data in *object*.

exception UnicodeEncodeError

Raised when a Unicode-related error occurs during encoding. It is a subclass of *UnicodeError*.

exception UnicodeDecodeError

Raised when a Unicode-related error occurs during decoding. It is a subclass of *UnicodeError*.

exception UnicodeTranslateError

Raised when a Unicode-related error occurs during translating. It is a subclass of *UnicodeError*.

exception ValueError

Raised when an operation or function receives an argument that has the right type but an inappropriate value, and the situation is not described by a more precise exception such as *IndexError*.

exception ZeroDivisionError

Raised when the second argument of a division or modulo operation is zero. The associated value is a string indicating the type of the operands and the operation.

The following exceptions are kept for compatibility with previous versions; starting from Python 3.3, they are aliases of *OSError*.

exception EnvironmentError

exception IOError

exception WindowsError

Only available on Windows.

5.4.1 OS exceptions

The following exceptions are subclasses of *OSError*, they get raised depending on the system error code.

exception BlockingIOError

Raised when an operation would block on an object (e.g. socket) set for non-blocking operation. Corresponds to `errno` *EAGAIN*, *EALREADY*, *EWOULDBLOCK* and *EINPROGRESS*.

In addition to those of *OSError*, *BlockingIOError* can have one more attribute:

characters_written

An integer containing the number of characters written to the stream before it blocked. This attribute is available when using the buffered I/O classes from the *io* module.

exception ChildProcessError

Raised when an operation on a child process failed. Corresponds to `errno` *ECHILD*.

exception ConnectionError

A base class for connection-related issues.

Subclasses are *BrokenPipeError*, *ConnectionAbortedError*, *ConnectionRefusedError* and *ConnectionResetError*.

exception BrokenPipeError

A subclass of *ConnectionError*, raised when trying to write on a pipe while the other end has been closed, or trying to write on a socket which has been shutdown for writing. Corresponds to `errno` *EPIPE* and *ESHUTDOWN*.

exception ConnectionAbortedError

A subclass of *ConnectionError*, raised when a connection attempt is aborted by the peer. Corresponds to errno *ECONNABORTED*.

exception ConnectionRefusedError

A subclass of *ConnectionError*, raised when a connection attempt is refused by the peer. Corresponds to errno *ECONNREFUSED*.

exception ConnectionResetError

A subclass of *ConnectionError*, raised when a connection is reset by the peer. Corresponds to errno *ECONNRESET*.

exception FileExistsError

Raised when trying to create a file or directory which already exists. Corresponds to errno *EEXIST*.

exception FileNotFoundError

Raised when a file or directory is requested but doesn't exist. Corresponds to errno *ENOENT*.

exception InterruptedError

Raised when a system call is interrupted by an incoming signal. Corresponds to errno *EINTR*.

Changed in version 3.5: Python now retries system calls when a syscall is interrupted by a signal, except if the signal handler raises an exception (see **PEP 475** for the rationale), instead of raising *InterruptedError*.

exception IsADirectoryError

Raised when a file operation (such as *os.remove()*) is requested on a directory. Corresponds to errno *EISDIR*.

exception NotADirectoryError

Raised when a directory operation (such as *os.listdir()*) is requested on something which is not a directory. On most POSIX platforms, it may also be raised if an operation attempts to open or traverse a non-directory file as if it were a directory. Corresponds to errno *ENOTDIR*.

exception PermissionError

Raised when trying to run an operation without the adequate access rights - for example filesystem permissions. Corresponds to errno *EACCES*, *EPERM*, and *ENOTCAPABLE*.

Changed in version 3.11.1: WASI's *ENOTCAPABLE* is now mapped to *PermissionError*.

exception ProcessLookupError

Raised when a given process doesn't exist. Corresponds to errno *ESRCH*.

exception TimeoutError

Raised when a system function timed out at the system level. Corresponds to errno *ETIMEDOUT*.

New in version 3.3: All the above *OSError* subclasses were added.

See also:

PEP 3151 - Reworking the OS and IO exception hierarchy

5.5 Warnings

The following exceptions are used as warning categories; see the *Warning Categories* documentation for more details.

exception Warning

Base class for warning categories.

exception UserWarning

Base class for warnings generated by user code.

exception DeprecationWarning

Base class for warnings about deprecated features when those warnings are intended for other Python developers.

Ignored by the default warning filters, except in the `__main__` module (**PEP 565**). Enabling the *Python Development Mode* shows this warning.

The deprecation policy is described in **PEP 387**.

exception PendingDeprecationWarning

Base class for warnings about features which are obsolete and expected to be deprecated in the future, but are not deprecated at the moment.

This class is rarely used as emitting a warning about a possible upcoming deprecation is unusual, and `DeprecationWarning` is preferred for already active deprecations.

Ignored by the default warning filters. Enabling the *Python Development Mode* shows this warning.

The deprecation policy is described in **PEP 387**.

exception SyntaxWarning

Base class for warnings about dubious syntax.

exception RuntimeWarning

Base class for warnings about dubious runtime behavior.

exception FutureWarning

Base class for warnings about deprecated features when those warnings are intended for end users of applications that are written in Python.

exception ImportWarning

Base class for warnings about probable mistakes in module imports.

Ignored by the default warning filters. Enabling the *Python Development Mode* shows this warning.

exception UnicodeWarning

Base class for warnings related to Unicode.

exception EncodingWarning

Base class for warnings related to encodings.

See *Opt-in Encoding Warning* for details.

New in version 3.10.

exception BytesWarning

Base class for warnings related to `bytes` and `bytearray`.

exception ResourceWarning

Base class for warnings related to resource usage.

Ignored by the default warning filters. Enabling the *Python Development Mode* shows this warning.

New in version 3.2.

5.6 Exception groups

The following are used when it is necessary to raise multiple unrelated exceptions. They are part of the exception hierarchy so they can be handled with `except` like all other exceptions. In addition, they are recognised by `except*`, which matches their subgroups based on the types of the contained exceptions.

exception ExceptionGroup(*msg*, *excs*)

exception BaseExceptionGroup(*msg*, *excs*)

Both of these exception types wrap the exceptions in the sequence `excs`. The `msg` parameter must be a string. The difference between the two classes is that *BaseExceptionGroup* extends *BaseException* and it can wrap any exception, while *ExceptionGroup* extends *Exception* and it can only wrap subclasses of *Exception*. This design is so that `except Exception` catches an *ExceptionGroup* but not *BaseExceptionGroup*.

The *BaseExceptionGroup* constructor returns an *ExceptionGroup* rather than a *BaseExceptionGroup* if all contained exceptions are *Exception* instances, so it can be used to make the selection automatic. The *ExceptionGroup* constructor, on the other hand, raises a *TypeError* if any contained exception is not an *Exception* subclass.

message

The `msg` argument to the constructor. This is a read-only attribute.

exceptions

A tuple of the exceptions in the `excs` sequence given to the constructor. This is a read-only attribute.

subgroup(*condition*)

Returns an exception group that contains only the exceptions from the current group that match *condition*, or `None` if the result is empty.

The condition can be either a function that accepts an exception and returns true for those that should be in the subgroup, or it can be an exception type or a tuple of exception types, which is used to check for a match using the same check that is used in an `except` clause.

The nesting structure of the current exception is preserved in the result, as are the values of its *message*, `__traceback__`, `__cause__`, `__context__` and `__notes__` fields. Empty nested groups are omitted from the result.

The condition is checked for all exceptions in the nested exception group, including the top-level and any nested exception groups. If the condition is true for such an exception group, it is included in the result in full.

split(*condition*)

Like *subgroup()*, but returns the pair `(match, rest)` where `match` is `subgroup(condition)` and `rest` is the remaining non-matching part.

derive(*excs*)

Returns an exception group with the same *message*, but which wraps the exceptions in `excs`.

This method is used by *subgroup()* and *split()*. A subclass needs to override it in order to make *subgroup()* and *split()* return instances of the subclass rather than *ExceptionGroup*.

subgroup() and *split()* copy the __traceback__, __cause__, __context__ and __notes__ fields from the original exception group to the one returned by *derive()*, so these fields do not need to be updated by *derive()*.

```
>>> class MyGroup(ExceptionGroup):
...     def derive(self, excs):
...         return MyGroup(self.message, excs)
...
>>> e = MyGroup("eg", [ValueError(1), TypeError(2)])
>>> e.add_note("a note")
>>> e.__context__ = Exception("context")
>>> e.__cause__ = Exception("cause")
>>> try:
...     raise e
... except Exception as e:
...     exc = e
...
>>> match, rest = exc.split(ValueError)
>>> exc, exc.__context__, exc.__cause__, exc.__notes__
(MyGroup('eg', [ValueError(1), TypeError(2)]), Exception('context'),␣
↪Exception('cause'), ['a note'])
>>> match, match.__context__, match.__cause__, match.__notes__
(MyGroup('eg', [ValueError(1)]), Exception('context'), Exception('cause'), [
↪'a note'])
>>> rest, rest.__context__, rest.__cause__, rest.__notes__
(MyGroup('eg', [TypeError(2)]), Exception('context'), Exception('cause'), ['a␣
↪note'])
>>> exc.__traceback__ is match.__traceback__ is rest.__traceback__
True
```

Note that *BaseExceptionGroup* defines __new__(), so subclasses that need a different constructor signature need to override that rather than __init__(). For example, the following defines an exception group subclass which accepts an exit_code and and constructs the group's message from it.

```
class Errors(ExceptionGroup):
   def __new__(cls, errors, exit_code):
      self = super().__new__(Errors, f"exit code: {exit_code}", errors)
      self.exit_code = exit_code
      return self

   def derive(self, excs):
      return Errors(excs, self.exit_code)
```

Like *ExceptionGroup*, any subclass of *BaseExceptionGroup* which is also a subclass of *Exception* can only wrap instances of *Exception*.

New in version 3.11.

5.7 Exception hierarchy

The class hierarchy for built-in exceptions is:

```
BaseException
 ├── BaseExceptionGroup
 ├── GeneratorExit
 ├── KeyboardInterrupt
 ├── SystemExit
 └── Exception
      ├── ArithmeticError
      │    ├── FloatingPointError
      │    ├── OverflowError
      │    └── ZeroDivisionError
      ├── AssertionError
      ├── AttributeError
      ├── BufferError
      ├── EOFError
      ├── ExceptionGroup [BaseExceptionGroup]
      ├── ImportError
      │    └── ModuleNotFoundError
      ├── LookupError
      │    ├── IndexError
      │    └── KeyError
      ├── MemoryError
      ├── NameError
      │    └── UnboundLocalError
      ├── OSError
      │    ├── BlockingIOError
      │    ├── ChildProcessError
      │    ├── ConnectionError
      │    │    ├── BrokenPipeError
      │    │    ├── ConnectionAbortedError
      │    │    ├── ConnectionRefusedError
      │    │    └── ConnectionResetError
      │    ├── FileExistsError
      │    ├── FileNotFoundError
      │    ├── InterruptedError
      │    ├── IsADirectoryError
      │    ├── NotADirectoryError
      │    ├── PermissionError
      │    ├── ProcessLookupError
      │    └── TimeoutError
      ├── ReferenceError
      ├── RuntimeError
      │    ├── NotImplementedError
      │    └── RecursionError
      ├── StopAsyncIteration
      ├── StopIteration
      ├── SyntaxError
      │    └── IndentationError
      │         └── TabError
      ├── SystemError
      ├── TypeError
      ├── ValueError
      │    └── UnicodeError
      │         ├── UnicodeDecodeError
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
      │          ├── UnicodeEncodeError
      │          └── UnicodeTranslateError
      └── Warning
           ├── BytesWarning
           ├── DeprecationWarning
           ├── EncodingWarning
           ├── FutureWarning
           ├── ImportWarning
           ├── PendingDeprecationWarning
           ├── ResourceWarning
           ├── RuntimeWarning
           ├── SyntaxWarning
           ├── UnicodeWarning
           └── UserWarning
```

CHAPTER

SIX

TEXT PROCESSING SERVICES

The modules described in this chapter provide a wide range of string manipulation operations and other text processing services.

The `codecs` module described under *Binary Data Services* is also highly relevant to text processing. In addition, see the documentation for Python's built-in string type in *Text Sequence Type — str*.

6.1 `string` — Common string operations

Source code: Lib/string.py

See also:

Text Sequence Type — str

String Methods

6.1.1 String constants

The constants defined in this module are:

`string.`**`ascii_letters`**

The concatenation of the `ascii_lowercase` and `ascii_uppercase` constants described below. This value is not locale-dependent.

`string.`**`ascii_lowercase`**

The lowercase letters `'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz'`. This value is not locale-dependent and will not change.

`string.`**`ascii_uppercase`**

The uppercase letters `'ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ'`. This value is not locale-dependent and will not change.

`string.`**`digits`**

The string `'0123456789'`.

`string.`**`hexdigits`**

The string `'0123456789abcdefABCDEF'`.

`string.`**`octdigits`**

The string `'01234567'`.

string.**punctuation**

String of ASCII characters which are considered punctuation characters in the C locale: `!"#$%&'()*+,-./:;<=>?@[\]^_`{|}~`.

string.**printable**

String of ASCII characters which are considered printable. This is a combination of *digits*, *ascii_letters*, *punctuation*, and *whitespace*.

string.**whitespace**

A string containing all ASCII characters that are considered whitespace. This includes the characters space, tab, linefeed, return, formfeed, and vertical tab.

6.1.2 Custom String Formatting

The built-in string class provides the ability to do complex variable substitutions and value formatting via the *format()* method described in **PEP 3101**. The *Formatter* class in the *string* module allows you to create and customize your own string formatting behaviors using the same implementation as the built-in *format()* method.

class string.**Formatter**

The *Formatter* class has the following public methods:

format(*format_string*, */*, **args*, ***kwargs*)

The primary API method. It takes a format string and an arbitrary set of positional and keyword arguments. It is just a wrapper that calls *vformat()*.

Changed in version 3.7: A format string argument is now *positional-only*.

vformat(*format_string*, *args*, *kwargs*)

This function does the actual work of formatting. It is exposed as a separate function for cases where you want to pass in a predefined dictionary of arguments, rather than unpacking and repacking the dictionary as individual arguments using the `*args` and `**kwargs` syntax. *vformat()* does the work of breaking up the format string into character data and replacement fields. It calls the various methods described below.

In addition, the *Formatter* defines a number of methods that are intended to be replaced by subclasses:

parse(*format_string*)

Loop over the format_string and return an iterable of tuples (*literal_text*, *field_name*, *format_spec*, *conversion*). This is used by *vformat()* to break the string into either literal text, or replacement fields.

The values in the tuple conceptually represent a span of literal text followed by a single replacement field. If there is no literal text (which can happen if two replacement fields occur consecutively), then *literal_text* will be a zero-length string. If there is no replacement field, then the values of *field_name*, *format_spec* and *conversion* will be `None`.

get_field(*field_name*, *args*, *kwargs*)

Given *field_name* as returned by *parse()* (see above), convert it to an object to be formatted. Returns a tuple (obj, used_key). The default version takes strings of the form defined in **PEP 3101**, such as "0[name]" or "label.title". *args* and *kwargs* are as passed in to *vformat()*. The return value *used_key* has the same meaning as the *key* parameter to *get_value()*.

get_value(*key*, *args*, *kwargs*)

Retrieve a given field value. The *key* argument will be either an integer or a string. If it is an integer, it represents the index of the positional argument in *args*; if it is a string, then it represents a named argument in *kwargs*.

The *args* parameter is set to the list of positional arguments to *vformat()*, and the *kwargs* parameter is set to the dictionary of keyword arguments.

For compound field names, these functions are only called for the first component of the field name; subsequent components are handled through normal attribute and indexing operations.

So for example, the field expression '0.name' would cause *get_value()* to be called with a *key* argument of 0. The `name` attribute will be looked up after *get_value()* returns by calling the built-in *getattr()* function.

If the index or keyword refers to an item that does not exist, then an *IndexError* or *KeyError* should be raised.

check_unused_args(*used_args*, *args*, *kwargs*)

Implement checking for unused arguments if desired. The arguments to this function is the set of all argument keys that were actually referred to in the format string (integers for positional arguments, and strings for named arguments), and a reference to the *args* and *kwargs* that was passed to vformat. The set of unused args can be calculated from these parameters. *check_unused_args()* is assumed to raise an exception if the check fails.

format_field(*value*, *format_spec*)

format_field() simply calls the global *format()* built-in. The method is provided so that subclasses can override it.

convert_field(*value*, *conversion*)

Converts the value (returned by *get_field()*) given a conversion type (as in the tuple returned by the *parse()* method). The default version understands 's' (str), 'r' (repr) and 'a' (ascii) conversion types.

6.1.3 Format String Syntax

The *str.format()* method and the *Formatter* class share the same syntax for format strings (although in the case of *Formatter*, subclasses can define their own format string syntax). The syntax is related to that of formatted string literals, but it is less sophisticated and, in particular, does not support arbitrary expressions.

Format strings contain "replacement fields" surrounded by curly braces `{}`. Anything that is not contained in braces is considered literal text, which is copied unchanged to the output. If you need to include a brace character in the literal text, it can be escaped by doubling: `{{` and `}}`.

The grammar for a replacement field is as follows:

```
replacement_field  ::=   "{" [field_name] ["!" conversion] [":" format_spec] "}"
field_name         ::=   arg_name ("." attribute_name | "[" element_index "]")*
arg_name           ::=   [identifier | digit+]
attribute_name     ::=   identifier
element_index      ::=   digit+ | index_string
index_string       ::=   <any source character except "]"> +
conversion         ::=   "r" | "s" | "a"
format_spec        ::=   <described in the next section>
```

In less formal terms, the replacement field can start with a *field_name* that specifies the object whose value is to be formatted and inserted into the output instead of the replacement field. The *field_name* is optionally followed by a *conversion* field, which is preceded by an exclamation point `'!'`, and a *format_spec*, which is preceded by a colon `':'`. These specify a non-default format for the replacement value.

See also the *Format Specification Mini-Language* section.

The *field_name* itself begins with an *arg_name* that is either a number or a keyword. If it's a number, it refers to a positional argument, and if it's a keyword, it refers to a named keyword argument. An *arg_name* is treated as a number if a call to *str.isdecimal()* on the string would return true. If the numerical arg_names in a format string are 0, 1, 2,

… in sequence, they can all be omitted (not just some) and the numbers 0, 1, 2, … will be automatically inserted in that order. Because *arg_name* is not quote-delimited, it is not possible to specify arbitrary dictionary keys (e.g., the strings `'10'` or `':-]'`) within a format string. The *arg_name* can be followed by any number of index or attribute expressions. An expression of the form `'.name'` selects the named attribute using *getattr()*, while an expression of the form `'[index]'` does an index lookup using `__getitem__()`.

Changed in version 3.1: The positional argument specifiers can be omitted for *str.format()*, so `'{} {}'.format(a, b)` is equivalent to `'{0} {1}'.format(a, b)`.

Changed in version 3.4: The positional argument specifiers can be omitted for *Formatter*.

Some simple format string examples:

```
"First, thou shalt count to {0}"  # References first positional argument
"Bring me a {}"                   # Implicitly references the first positional␣
↪argument
"From {} to {}"                   # Same as "From {0} to {1}"
"My quest is {name}"              # References keyword argument 'name'
"Weight in tons {0.weight}"       # 'weight' attribute of first positional arg
"Units destroyed: {players[0]}"   # First element of keyword argument 'players'.
```

The *conversion* field causes a type coercion before formatting. Normally, the job of formatting a value is done by the `__format__()` method of the value itself. However, in some cases it is desirable to force a type to be formatted as a string, overriding its own definition of formatting. By converting the value to a string before calling `__format__()`, the normal formatting logic is bypassed.

Three conversion flags are currently supported: `'!s'` which calls *str()* on the value, `'!r'` which calls *repr()* and `'!a'` which calls *ascii()*.

Some examples:

```
"Harold's a clever {0!s}"         # Calls str() on the argument first
"Bring out the holy {name!r}"     # Calls repr() on the argument first
"More {!a}"                       # Calls ascii() on the argument first
```

The *format_spec* field contains a specification of how the value should be presented, including such details as field width, alignment, padding, decimal precision and so on. Each value type can define its own "formatting mini-language" or interpretation of the *format_spec*.

Most built-in types support a common formatting mini-language, which is described in the next section.

A *format_spec* field can also include nested replacement fields within it. These nested replacement fields may contain a field name, conversion flag and format specification, but deeper nesting is not allowed. The replacement fields within the format_spec are substituted before the *format_spec* string is interpreted. This allows the formatting of a value to be dynamically specified.

See the *Format examples* section for some examples.

Format Specification Mini-Language

"Format specifications" are used within replacement fields contained within a format string to define how individual values are presented (see *Format String Syntax* and f-strings). They can also be passed directly to the built-in *format()* function. Each formattable type may define how the format specification is to be interpreted.

Most built-in types implement the following options for format specifications, although some of the formatting options are only supported by the numeric types.

A general convention is that an empty format specification produces the same result as if you had called *str()* on the value. A non-empty format specification typically modifies the result.

The general form of a *standard format specifier* is:

```
format_spec      ::=  [[fill]align][sign]["z"]["#"]["0"][width][grouping_option]["." preci
fill             ::=  <any character>
align            ::=  "<" | ">" | "=" | "^"
sign             ::=  "+" | "-" | " "
width            ::=  digit+
grouping_option  ::=  "_" | ","
precision        ::=  digit+
type             ::=  "b" | "c" | "d" | "e" | "E" | "f" | "F" | "g" | "G" | "n" | "o" | "s
```

If a valid *align* value is specified, it can be preceded by a *fill* character that can be any character and defaults to a space if omitted. It is not possible to use a literal curly brace ("{" or "}") as the *fill* character in a formatted string literal or when using the *str.format()* method. However, it is possible to insert a curly brace with a nested replacement field. This limitation doesn't affect the *format()* function.

The meaning of the various alignment options is as follows:

Option	Meaning
'<'	Forces the field to be left-aligned within the available space (this is the default for most objects).
'>'	Forces the field to be right-aligned within the available space (this is the default for numbers).
'='	Forces the padding to be placed after the sign (if any) but before the digits. This is used for printing fields in the form '+000000120'. This alignment option is only valid for numeric types. It becomes the default for numbers when '0' immediately precedes the field width.
'^'	Forces the field to be centered within the available space.

Note that unless a minimum field width is defined, the field width will always be the same size as the data to fill it, so that the alignment option has no meaning in this case.

The *sign* option is only valid for number types, and can be one of the following:

Option	Meaning
'+'	indicates that a sign should be used for both positive as well as negative numbers.
'-'	indicates that a sign should be used only for negative numbers (this is the default behavior).
space	indicates that a leading space should be used on positive numbers, and a minus sign on negative numbers.

The 'z' option coerces negative zero floating-point values to positive zero after rounding to the format precision. This option is only valid for floating-point presentation types.

Changed in version 3.11: Added the 'z' option (see also **PEP 682**).

The '#' option causes the "alternate form" to be used for the conversion. The alternate form is defined differently for different types. This option is only valid for integer, float and complex types. For integers, when binary, octal, or hexadecimal output is used, this option adds the respective prefix '0b', '0o', '0x', or '0X' to the output value. For float and complex the alternate form causes the result of the conversion to always contain a decimal-point character, even if no digits follow it. Normally, a decimal-point character appears in the result of these conversions only if a digit follows it. In addition, for 'g' and 'G' conversions, trailing zeros are not removed from the result.

The ',' option signals the use of a comma for a thousands separator. For a locale aware separator, use the 'n' integer presentation type instead.

Changed in version 3.1: Added the `','` option (see also **PEP 378**).

The `'_'` option signals the use of an underscore for a thousands separator for floating point presentation types and for integer presentation type `'d'`. For integer presentation types `'b'`, `'o'`, `'x'`, and `'X'`, underscores will be inserted every 4 digits. For other presentation types, specifying this option is an error.

Changed in version 3.6: Added the `'_'` option (see also **PEP 515**).

width is a decimal integer defining the minimum total field width, including any prefixes, separators, and other formatting characters. If not specified, then the field width will be determined by the content.

When no explicit alignment is given, preceding the *width* field by a zero (`'0'`) character enables sign-aware zero-padding for numeric types. This is equivalent to a *fill* character of `'0'` with an *alignment* type of `'='`.

Changed in version 3.10: Preceding the *width* field by `'0'` no longer affects the default alignment for strings.

The *precision* is a decimal integer indicating how many digits should be displayed after the decimal point for presentation types `'f'` and `'F'`, or before and after the decimal point for presentation types `'g'` or `'G'`. For string presentation types the field indicates the maximum field size - in other words, how many characters will be used from the field content. The *precision* is not allowed for integer presentation types.

Finally, the *type* determines how the data should be presented.

The available string presentation types are:

Type	Meaning
`'s'`	String format. This is the default type for strings and may be omitted.
None	The same as `'s'`.

The available integer presentation types are:

Type	Meaning
`'b'`	Binary format. Outputs the number in base 2.
`'c'`	Character. Converts the integer to the corresponding unicode character before printing.
`'d'`	Decimal Integer. Outputs the number in base 10.
`'o'`	Octal format. Outputs the number in base 8.
`'x'`	Hex format. Outputs the number in base 16, using lower-case letters for the digits above 9.
`'X'`	Hex format. Outputs the number in base 16, using upper-case letters for the digits above 9. In case `'#'` is specified, the prefix `'0x'` will be upper-cased to `'0X'` as well.
`'n'`	Number. This is the same as `'d'`, except that it uses the current locale setting to insert the appropriate number separator characters.
None	The same as `'d'`.

In addition to the above presentation types, integers can be formatted with the floating point presentation types listed below (except `'n'` and `None`). When doing so, *`float()`* is used to convert the integer to a floating point number before formatting.

The available presentation types for *`float`* and *`Decimal`* values are:

Type	Meaning
`'e'`	Scientific notation. For a given precision `p`, formats the number in scientific notation with the letter 'e' separating the coefficient from the exponent. The coefficient has one digit before and `p` digits after the decimal point, for a total of `p + 1` significant digits. With no precision given, uses a precision of `6` digits after the decimal point for *`float`*, and shows all coefficient digits for *`Decimal`*. If no digits follow the decimal point, the decimal point is also removed unless the `#` option is used.
`'E'`	Scientific notation. Same as `'e'` except it uses an upper case 'E' as the separator character.
`'f'`	Fixed-point notation. For a given precision `p`, formats the number as a decimal number with exactly `p` digits following the decimal point. With no precision given, uses a precision of `6` digits after the decimal point for *`float`*, and uses a precision large enough to show all coefficient digits for *`Decimal`*. If no digits follow the decimal point, the decimal point is also removed unless the `#` option is used.
`'F'`	Fixed-point notation. Same as `'f'`, but converts `nan` to `NAN` and `inf` to `INF`.
`'g'`	General format. For a given precision `p >= 1`, this rounds the number to `p` significant digits and then formats the result in either fixed-point format or in scientific notation, depending on its magnitude. A precision of `0` is treated as equivalent to a precision of `1`. The precise rules are as follows: suppose that the result formatted with presentation type `'e'` and precision `p-1` would have exponent `exp`. Then, if `m <= exp < p`, where `m` is -4 for floats and -6 for *`Decimals`*, the number is formatted with presentation type `'f'` and precision `p-1-exp`. Otherwise, the number is formatted with presentation type `'e'` and precision `p-1`. In both cases insignificant trailing zeros are removed from the significand, and the decimal point is also removed if there are no remaining digits following it, unless the `'#'` option is used. With no precision given, uses a precision of `6` significant digits for *`float`*. For *`Decimal`*, the coefficient of the result is formed from the coefficient digits of the value; scientific notation is used for values smaller than `1e-6` in absolute value and values where the place value of the least significant digit is larger than 1, and fixed-point notation is used otherwise. Positive and negative infinity, positive and negative zero, and nans, are formatted as `inf`, `-inf`, `0`, `-0` and `nan` respectively, regardless of the precision.
`'G'`	General format. Same as `'g'` except switches to `'E'` if the number gets too large. The representations of infinity and NaN are uppercased, too.
`'n'`	Number. This is the same as `'g'`, except that it uses the current locale setting to insert the appropriate number separator characters.
`'%'`	Percentage. Multiplies the number by 100 and displays in fixed (`'f'`) format, followed by a percent sign.
None	For *`float`* this is the same as `'g'`, except that when fixed-point notation is used to format the result, it always includes at least one digit past the decimal point. The precision used is as large as needed to represent the given value faithfully. For *`Decimal`*, this is the same as either `'g'` or `'G'` depending on the value of `context.capitals` for the current decimal context. The overall effect is to match the output of *`str()`* as altered by the other format modifiers.

Format examples

This section contains examples of the *`str.format()`* syntax and comparison with the old `%`-formatting.

In most of the cases the syntax is similar to the old `%`-formatting, with the addition of the `{}` and with `:` used instead of `%`. For example, `'%03.2f'` can be translated to `'{:03.2f}'`.

The new format syntax also supports new and different options, shown in the following examples.

Accessing arguments by position:

```
>>> '{0}, {1}, {2}'.format('a', 'b', 'c')
'a, b, c'
>>> '{}, {}, {}'.format('a', 'b', 'c')  # 3.1+ only
'a, b, c'
>>> '{2}, {1}, {0}'.format('a', 'b', 'c')
'c, b, a'
>>> '{2}, {1}, {0}'.format(*'abc')      # unpacking argument sequence
'c, b, a'
>>> '{0}{1}{0}'.format('abra', 'cad')   # arguments' indices can be repeated
'abracadabra'
```

Accessing arguments by name:

```
>>> 'Coordinates: {latitude}, {longitude}'.format(latitude='37.24N', longitude='-115.
↪81W')
'Coordinates: 37.24N, -115.81W'
>>> coord = {'latitude': '37.24N', 'longitude': '-115.81W'}
>>> 'Coordinates: {latitude}, {longitude}'.format(**coord)
'Coordinates: 37.24N, -115.81W'
```

Accessing arguments' attributes:

```
>>> c = 3-5j
>>> ('The complex number {0} is formed from the real part {0.real} '
...  'and the imaginary part {0.imag}.').format(c)
'The complex number (3-5j) is formed from the real part 3.0 and the imaginary part -5.
↪0.'
>>> class Point:
...     def __init__(self, x, y):
...         self.x, self.y = x, y
...     def __str__(self):
...         return 'Point({self.x}, {self.y})'.format(self=self)
...
>>> str(Point(4, 2))
'Point(4, 2)'
```

Accessing arguments' items:

```
>>> coord = (3, 5)
>>> 'X: {0[0]};  Y: {0[1]}'.format(coord)
'X: 3;  Y: 5'
```

Replacing `%s` and `%r`:

```
>>> "repr() shows quotes: {!r}; str() doesn't: {!s}".format('test1', 'test2')
"repr() shows quotes: 'test1'; str() doesn't: test2"
```

Aligning the text and specifying a width:

```
>>> '{:<30}'.format('left aligned')
'left aligned                  '
>>> '{:>30}'.format('right aligned')
'                 right aligned'
>>> '{:^30}'.format('centered')
'           centered           '
>>> '{:*^30}'.format('centered')  # use '*' as a fill char
'***********centered***********'
```

Replacing `%+f`, `%-f`, and `% f` and specifying a sign:

```
>>> '{:+f}; {:+f}'.format(3.14, -3.14)  # show it always
'+3.140000; -3.140000'
>>> '{: f}; {: f}'.format(3.14, -3.14)  # show a space for positive numbers
' 3.140000; -3.140000'
>>> '{:-f}; {:-f}'.format(3.14, -3.14)  # show only the minus -- same as '{:f}; {:f}'
'3.140000; -3.140000'
```

Replacing `%x` and `%o` and converting the value to different bases:

```
>>> # format also supports binary numbers
>>> "int: {0:d};  hex: {0:x};  oct: {0:o};  bin: {0:b}".format(42)
'int: 42;  hex: 2a;  oct: 52;  bin: 101010'
>>> # with 0x, 0o, or 0b as prefix:
>>> "int: {0:d};  hex: {0:#x};  oct: {0:#o};  bin: {0:#b}".format(42)
'int: 42;  hex: 0x2a;  oct: 0o52;  bin: 0b101010'
```

Using the comma as a thousands separator:

```
>>> '{:,}'.format(1234567890)
'1,234,567,890'
```

Expressing a percentage:

```
>>> points = 19
>>> total = 22
>>> 'Correct answers: {:.2%}'.format(points/total)
'Correct answers: 86.36%'
```

Using type-specific formatting:

```
>>> import datetime
>>> d = datetime.datetime(2010, 7, 4, 12, 15, 58)
>>> '{:%Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S}'.format(d)
'2010-07-04 12:15:58'
```

Nesting arguments and more complex examples:

```
>>> for align, text in zip('<^>', ['left', 'center', 'right']):
...     '{0:{fill}{align}16}'.format(text, fill=align, align=align)
...
'left<<<<<<<<<<<<'
'^^^^^center^^^^^'
'>>>>>>>>>>>right'
>>>
>>> octets = [192, 168, 0, 1]
>>> '{:02X}{:02X}{:02X}{:02X}'.format(*octets)
'C0A80001'
>>> int(_, 16)
3232235521
>>>
>>> width = 5
>>> for num in range(5,12):
...     for base in 'dXob':
...         print('{0:{width}{base}}'.format(num, base=base, width=width), end=' ')
...     print()
...
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
 5     5     5   101
 6     6     6   110
 7     7     7   111
 8     8    10  1000
 9     9    11  1001
10     A    12  1010
11     B    13  1011
```

6.1.4 Template strings

Template strings provide simpler string substitutions as described in **PEP 292**. A primary use case for template strings is for internationalization (i18n) since in that context, the simpler syntax and functionality makes it easier to translate than other built-in string formatting facilities in Python. As an example of a library built on template strings for i18n, see the flufl.i18n package.

Template strings support `$`-based substitutions, using the following rules:

- `$$` is an escape; it is replaced with a single `$`.
- `$identifier` names a substitution placeholder matching a mapping key of `"identifier"`. By default, `"identifier"` is restricted to any case-insensitive ASCII alphanumeric string (including underscores) that starts with an underscore or ASCII letter. The first non-identifier character after the `$` character terminates this placeholder specification.
- `${identifier}` is equivalent to `$identifier`. It is required when valid identifier characters follow the placeholder but are not part of the placeholder, such as `"${noun}ification"`.

Any other appearance of `$` in the string will result in a *`ValueError`* being raised.

The *`string`* module provides a *`Template`* class that implements these rules. The methods of *`Template`* are:

class string.**Template**(*template*)

The constructor takes a single argument which is the template string.

substitute(*mapping={}*, */*, ***kwds*)

Performs the template substitution, returning a new string. *mapping* is any dictionary-like object with keys that match the placeholders in the template. Alternatively, you can provide keyword arguments, where the keywords are the placeholders. When both *mapping* and *kwds* are given and there are duplicates, the placeholders from *kwds* take precedence.

safe_substitute(*mapping={}*, */*, ***kwds*)

Like *`substitute()`*, except that if placeholders are missing from *mapping* and *kwds*, instead of raising a *`KeyError`* exception, the original placeholder will appear in the resulting string intact. Also, unlike with *`substitute()`*, any other appearances of the `$` will simply return `$` instead of raising *`ValueError`*.

While other exceptions may still occur, this method is called "safe" because it always tries to return a usable string instead of raising an exception. In another sense, *`safe_substitute()`* may be anything other than safe, since it will silently ignore malformed templates containing dangling delimiters, unmatched braces, or placeholders that are not valid Python identifiers.

is_valid()

Returns false if the template has invalid placeholders that will cause *`substitute()`* to raise *`ValueError`*.

New in version 3.11.

get_identifiers()

Returns a list of the valid identifiers in the template, in the order they first appear, ignoring any invalid identifiers.

New in version 3.11.

Template instances also provide one public data attribute:

template

This is the object passed to the constructor's *template* argument. In general, you shouldn't change it, but read-only access is not enforced.

Here is an example of how to use a Template:

```
>>> from string import Template
>>> s = Template('$who likes $what')
>>> s.substitute(who='tim', what='kung pao')
'tim likes kung pao'
>>> d = dict(who='tim')
>>> Template('Give $who $100').substitute(d)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: Invalid placeholder in string: line 1, col 11
>>> Template('$who likes $what').substitute(d)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
KeyError: 'what'
>>> Template('$who likes $what').safe_substitute(d)
'tim likes $what'
```

Advanced usage: you can derive subclasses of *Template* to customize the placeholder syntax, delimiter character, or the entire regular expression used to parse template strings. To do this, you can override these class attributes:

- *delimiter* – This is the literal string describing a placeholder introducing delimiter. The default value is `$`. Note that this should *not* be a regular expression, as the implementation will call *re.escape()* on this string as needed. Note further that you cannot change the delimiter after class creation (i.e. a different delimiter must be set in the subclass's class namespace).
- *idpattern* – This is the regular expression describing the pattern for non-braced placeholders. The default value is the regular expression `(?a:[_a-z][_a-z0-9]*)`. If this is given and *braceidpattern* is `None` this pattern will also apply to braced placeholders.

  Note: Since default *flags* is `re.IGNORECASE`, pattern `[a-z]` can match with some non-ASCII characters. That's why we use the local `a` flag here.

  Changed in version 3.7: *braceidpattern* can be used to define separate patterns used inside and outside the braces.
- *braceidpattern* – This is like *idpattern* but describes the pattern for braced placeholders. Defaults to `None` which means to fall back to *idpattern* (i.e. the same pattern is used both inside and outside braces). If given, this allows you to define different patterns for braced and unbraced placeholders.

  New in version 3.7.
- *flags* – The regular expression flags that will be applied when compiling the regular expression used for recognizing substitutions. The default value is `re.IGNORECASE`. Note that `re.VERBOSE` will always be added to the flags, so custom *idpattern*s must follow conventions for verbose regular expressions.

  New in version 3.2.

Alternatively, you can provide the entire regular expression pattern by overriding the class attribute *pattern*. If you do this, the value must be a regular expression object with four named capturing groups. The capturing groups correspond to the rules given above, along with the invalid placeholder rule:

- *escaped* – This group matches the escape sequence, e.g. `$$`, in the default pattern.
- *named* – This group matches the unbraced placeholder name; it should not include the delimiter in capturing group.
- *braced* – This group matches the brace enclosed placeholder name; it should not include either the delimiter or braces in the capturing group.
- *invalid* – This group matches any other delimiter pattern (usually a single delimiter), and it should appear last in the regular expression.

The methods on this class will raise *ValueError* if the pattern matches the template without one of these named groups matching.

6.1.5 Helper functions

string.**capwords**(*s*, *sep=None*)

Split the argument into words using *str.split()*, capitalize each word using *str.capitalize()*, and join the capitalized words using *str.join()*. If the optional second argument *sep* is absent or None, runs of whitespace characters are replaced by a single space and leading and trailing whitespace are removed, otherwise *sep* is used to split and join the words.

6.2 re — Regular expression operations

Source code: Lib/re/

This module provides regular expression matching operations similar to those found in Perl.

Both patterns and strings to be searched can be Unicode strings (*str*) as well as 8-bit strings (*bytes*). However, Unicode strings and 8-bit strings cannot be mixed: that is, you cannot match a Unicode string with a byte pattern or vice-versa; similarly, when asking for a substitution, the replacement string must be of the same type as both the pattern and the search string.

Regular expressions use the backslash character (`'\'`) to indicate special forms or to allow special characters to be used without invoking their special meaning. This collides with Python's usage of the same character for the same purpose in string literals; for example, to match a literal backslash, one might have to write `'\\\\'` as the pattern string, because the regular expression must be `\\`, and each backslash must be expressed as `\\` inside a regular Python string literal. Also, please note that any invalid escape sequences in Python's usage of the backslash in string literals now generate a *DeprecationWarning* and in the future this will become a *SyntaxError*. This behaviour will happen even if it is a valid escape sequence for a regular expression.

The solution is to use Python's raw string notation for regular expression patterns; backslashes are not handled in any special way in a string literal prefixed with `'r'`. So `r"\n"` is a two-character string containing `'\'` and `'n'`, while `"\n"` is a one-character string containing a newline. Usually patterns will be expressed in Python code using this raw string notation.

It is important to note that most regular expression operations are available as module-level functions and methods on *compiled regular expressions*. The functions are shortcuts that don't require you to compile a regex object first, but miss some fine-tuning parameters.

See also:

The third-party regex module, which has an API compatible with the standard library `re` module, but offers additional functionality and a more thorough Unicode support.

6.2.1 Regular Expression Syntax

A regular expression (or RE) specifies a set of strings that matches it; the functions in this module let you check if a particular string matches a given regular expression (or if a given regular expression matches a particular string, which comes down to the same thing).

Regular expressions can be concatenated to form new regular expressions; if *A* and *B* are both regular expressions, then *AB* is also a regular expression. In general, if a string *p* matches *A* and another string *q* matches *B*, the string *pq* will match AB. This holds unless *A* or *B* contain low precedence operations; boundary conditions between *A* and *B*; or have numbered group references. Thus, complex expressions can easily be constructed from simpler primitive expressions like the ones described here. For details of the theory and implementation of regular expressions, consult the Friedl book [Frie09], or almost any textbook about compiler construction.

A brief explanation of the format of regular expressions follows. For further information and a gentler presentation, consult the regex-howto.

Regular expressions can contain both special and ordinary characters. Most ordinary characters, like `'A'`, `'a'`, or `'0'`, are the simplest regular expressions; they simply match themselves. You can concatenate ordinary characters, so `last` matches the string `'last'`. (In the rest of this section, we'll write RE's in `this special style`, usually without quotes, and strings to be matched `'in single quotes'`.)

Some characters, like `'|'` or `'('`, are special. Special characters either stand for classes of ordinary characters, or affect how the regular expressions around them are interpreted.

Repetition operators or quantifiers (`*`, `+`, `?`, `{m,n}`, etc) cannot be directly nested. This avoids ambiguity with the non-greedy modifier suffix `?`, and with other modifiers in other implementations. To apply a second repetition to an inner repetition, parentheses may be used. For example, the expression `(?:a{6})*` matches any multiple of six `'a'` characters.

The special characters are:

. (Dot.) In the default mode, this matches any character except a newline. If the *DOTALL* flag has been specified, this matches any character including a newline.

^ (Caret.) Matches the start of the string, and in *MULTILINE* mode also matches immediately after each newline.

$ Matches the end of the string or just before the newline at the end of the string, and in *MULTILINE* mode also matches before a newline. `foo` matches both 'foo' and 'foobar', while the regular expression `foo$` matches only 'foo'. More interestingly, searching for `foo.$` in `'foo1\nfoo2\n'` matches 'foo2' normally, but 'foo1' in *MULTILINE* mode; searching for a single `$` in `'foo\n'` will find two (empty) matches: one just before the newline, and one at the end of the string.

***** Causes the resulting RE to match 0 or more repetitions of the preceding RE, as many repetitions as are possible. `ab*` will match 'a', 'ab', or 'a' followed by any number of 'b's.

+ Causes the resulting RE to match 1 or more repetitions of the preceding RE. `ab+` will match 'a' followed by any non-zero number of 'b's; it will not match just 'a'.

? Causes the resulting RE to match 0 or 1 repetitions of the preceding RE. `ab?` will match either 'a' or 'ab'.

***?, +?, ??** The `'*'`, `'+'`, and `'?'` quantifiers are all *greedy*; they match as much text as possible. Sometimes this behaviour isn't desired; if the RE `<.*>` is matched against `'<a> b <c>'`, it will match the entire string, and not just `'<a>'`. Adding `?` after the quantifier makes it perform the match in *non-greedy* or *minimal* fashion; as *few* characters as possible will be matched. Using the RE `<.*?>` will match only `'<a>'`.

***+, ++, ?+** Like the `'*'`, `'+'`, and `'?'` quantifiers, those where `'+'` is appended also match as many times as possible. However, unlike the true greedy quantifiers, these do not allow back-tracking when the expression following it fails to match. These are known as *possessive* quantifiers. For example, `a*a` will match `'aaaa'` because the `a*` will match all 4 `'a'`s, but, when the final `'a'` is encountered, the expression is backtracked so that in the end the `a*` ends up matching 3 `'a'`s total, and the fourth `'a'` is matched by the final `'a'`. However, when `a*+a` is used to match `'aaaa'`, the `a*+` will match all 4 `'a'`, but when the final `'a'` fails to find any more characters to match, the expression cannot be backtracked and will thus fail to match. `x*+`, `x++` and `x?+` are equivalent to `(?>x*)`, `(?>x+)` and `(?>x?)` correspondingly.

New in version 3.11.

{m} Specifies that exactly *m* copies of the previous RE should be matched; fewer matches cause the entire RE not to match. For example, `a{6}` will match exactly six `'a'` characters, but not five.

{m,n} Causes the resulting RE to match from *m* to *n* repetitions of the preceding RE, attempting to match as many repetitions as possible. For example, `a{3,5}` will match from 3 to 5 `'a'` characters. Omitting *m* specifies a lower bound of zero, and omitting *n* specifies an infinite upper bound. As an example, `a{4,}b` will match `'aaaab'` or a thousand `'a'` characters followed by a `'b'`, but not `'aaab'`. The comma may not be omitted or the modifier would be confused with the previously described form.

{m,n}? Causes the resulting RE to match from *m* to *n* repetitions of the preceding RE, attempting to match as *few* repetitions as possible. This is the non-greedy version of the previous quantifier. For example, on the 6-character string `'aaaaaa'`, `a{3,5}` will match 5 `'a'` characters, while `a{3,5}?` will only match 3 characters.

{m,n}+ Causes the resulting RE to match from *m* to *n* repetitions of the preceding RE, attempting to match as many repetitions as possible *without* establishing any backtracking points. This is the possessive version of the quantifier above. For example, on the 6-character string `'aaaaaa'`, `a{3,5}+aa` attempt to match 5 `'a'` characters, then, requiring 2 more `'a'`s, will need more characters than available and thus fail, while `a{3,5}aa` will match with `a{3,5}` capturing 5, then 4 `'a'`s by backtracking and then the final 2 `'a'`s are matched by the final `aa` in the pattern. `x{m,n}+` is equivalent to `(?>x{m,n})`.

New in version 3.11.

**** Either escapes special characters (permitting you to match characters like `'*'`, `'?'`, and so forth), or signals a special sequence; special sequences are discussed below.

If you're not using a raw string to express the pattern, remember that Python also uses the backslash as an escape sequence in string literals; if the escape sequence isn't recognized by Python's parser, the backslash and subsequent character are included in the resulting string. However, if Python would recognize the resulting sequence, the backslash should be repeated twice. This is complicated and hard to understand, so it's highly recommended that you use raw strings for all but the simplest expressions.

[] Used to indicate a set of characters. In a set:

- Characters can be listed individually, e.g. `[amk]` will match `'a'`, `'m'`, or `'k'`.
- Ranges of characters can be indicated by giving two characters and separating them by a `'-'`, for example `[a-z]` will match any lowercase ASCII letter, `[0-5][0-9]` will match all the two-digits numbers from `00` to `59`, and `[0-9A-Fa-f]` will match any hexadecimal digit. If `-` is escaped (e.g. `[a\-z]`) or if it's placed as the first or last character (e.g. `[-a]` or `[a-]`), it will match a literal `'-'`.
- Special characters lose their special meaning inside sets. For example, `[(+*)]` will match any of the literal characters `'('`, `'+'`, `'*'`, or `')'`.
- Character classes such as `\w` or `\S` (defined below) are also accepted inside a set, although the characters they match depends on whether *ASCII* or *LOCALE* mode is in force.
- Characters that are not within a range can be matched by *complementing* the set. If the first character of the set is `'^'`, all the characters that are *not* in the set will be matched. For example, `[^5]` will match any character except `'5'`, and `[^^]` will match any character except `'^'`. `^` has no special meaning if it's not the first character in the set.

- To match a literal `']'` inside a set, precede it with a backslash, or place it at the beginning of the set. For example, both `[()[\]{}]` and `[]()[{}]` will match a right bracket, as well as left bracket, braces, and parentheses.
- Support of nested sets and set operations as in Unicode Technical Standard #18 might be added in the future. This would change the syntax, so to facilitate this change a *FutureWarning* will be raised in ambiguous cases for the time being. That includes sets starting with a literal `'['` or containing literal character sequences `'--'`, `'&&'`, `'~~'`, and `'||'`. To avoid a warning escape them with a backslash.

Changed in version 3.7: *FutureWarning* is raised if a character set contains constructs that will change semantically in the future.

| `A|B`, where *A* and *B* can be arbitrary REs, creates a regular expression that will match either *A* or *B*. An arbitrary number of REs can be separated by the `'|'` in this way. This can be used inside groups (see below) as well. As the target string is scanned, REs separated by `'|'` are tried from left to right. When one pattern completely matches, that branch is accepted. This means that once *A* matches, *B* will not be tested further, even if it would produce a longer overall match. In other words, the `'|'` operator is never greedy. To match a literal `'|'`, use `\|`, or enclose it inside a character class, as in `[|]`.

(...) Matches whatever regular expression is inside the parentheses, and indicates the start and end of a group; the contents of a group can be retrieved after a match has been performed, and can be matched later in the string with the `\number` special sequence, described below. To match the literals `'('` or `')'`, use `\(` or `\)`, or enclose them inside a character class: `[(]`, `[)]`.

(?...) This is an extension notation (a `'?'` following a `'('` is not meaningful otherwise). The first character after the `'?'` determines what the meaning and further syntax of the construct is. Extensions usually do not create a new group; `(?P<name>...)` is the only exception to this rule. Following are the currently supported extensions.

(?aiLmsux) (One or more letters from the set `'a'`, `'i'`, `'L'`, `'m'`, `'s'`, `'u'`, `'x'`.) The group matches the empty string; the letters set the corresponding flags: *re.A* (ASCII-only matching), *re.I* (ignore case), *re.L* (locale dependent), *re.M* (multi-line), *re.S* (dot matches all), *re.U* (Unicode matching), and *re.X* (verbose), for the entire regular expression. (The flags are described in *Module Contents*.) This is useful if you wish to include the flags as part of the regular expression, instead of passing a *flag* argument to the *re.compile()* function. Flags should be used first in the expression string.

Changed in version 3.11: This construction can only be used at the start of the expression.

(?:...) A non-capturing version of regular parentheses. Matches whatever regular expression is inside the parentheses, but the substring matched by the group *cannot* be retrieved after performing a match or referenced later in the pattern.

(?aiLmsux-imsx:...) (Zero or more letters from the set `'a'`, `'i'`, `'L'`, `'m'`, `'s'`, `'u'`, `'x'`, optionally followed by `'-'` followed by one or more letters from the `'i'`, `'m'`, `'s'`, `'x'`.) The letters set or remove the corresponding flags: *re.A* (ASCII-only matching), *re.I* (ignore case), *re.L* (locale dependent), *re.M* (multi-line), *re.S* (dot matches all), *re.U* (Unicode matching), and *re.X* (verbose), for the part of the expression. (The flags are described in *Module Contents*.)

The letters `'a'`, `'L'` and `'u'` are mutually exclusive when used as inline flags, so they can't be combined or follow `'-'`. Instead, when one of them appears in an inline group, it overrides the matching mode in the enclosing group. In Unicode patterns `(?a:...)` switches to ASCII-only matching, and `(?u:...)` switches to Unicode matching (default). In byte pattern `(?L:...)` switches to locale depending matching, and `(?a:...)` switches to ASCII-only matching (default). This override is only in effect for the narrow inline group, and the original matching mode is restored outside of the group.

New in version 3.6.

Changed in version 3.7: The letters `'a'`, `'L'` and `'u'` also can be used in a group.

(?>...) Attempts to match `...` as if it was a separate regular expression, and if successful, continues to match the rest of the pattern following it. If the subsequent pattern fails to match, the stack can only be unwound to a point

before the `(?>...)` because once exited, the expression, known as an *atomic group*, has thrown away all stack points within itself. Thus, `(?>.*).` would never match anything because first the `.*` would match all characters possible, then, having nothing left to match, the final `.` would fail to match. Since there are no stack points saved in the Atomic Group, and there is no stack point before it, the entire expression would thus fail to match.

New in version 3.11.

(?P<name>...) Similar to regular parentheses, but the substring matched by the group is accessible via the symbolic group name *name*. Group names must be valid Python identifiers, and each group name must be defined only once within a regular expression. A symbolic group is also a numbered group, just as if the group were not named.

Named groups can be referenced in three contexts. If the pattern is `(?P<quote>['"]).*?(?P=quote)` (i.e. matching a string quoted with either single or double quotes):

Context of reference to group "quote"	Ways to reference it
in the same pattern itself	• `(?P=quote)` (as shown) • `\1`
when processing match object *m*	• `m.group('quote')` • `m.end('quote')` (etc.)
in a string passed to the *repl* argument of `re.sub()`	• `\g<quote>` • `\g<1>` • `\1`

Deprecated since version 3.11: Group *name* containing characters outside the ASCII range (`b'\x00'-b'\x7f'`) in *bytes* patterns.

(?P=name) A backreference to a named group; it matches whatever text was matched by the earlier group named *name*.

(?#...) A comment; the contents of the parentheses are simply ignored.

(?=...) Matches if `...` matches next, but doesn't consume any of the string. This is called a *lookahead assertion*. For example, `Isaac (?=Asimov)` will match `'Isaac '` only if it's followed by `'Asimov'`.

(?!...) Matches if `...` doesn't match next. This is a *negative lookahead assertion*. For example, `Isaac (?!Asimov)` will match `'Isaac '` only if it's *not* followed by `'Asimov'`.

(?<=...) Matches if the current position in the string is preceded by a match for `...` that ends at the current position. This is called a *positive lookbehind assertion*. `(?<=abc)def` will find a match in `'abcdef'`, since the lookbehind will back up 3 characters and check if the contained pattern matches. The contained pattern must only match strings of some fixed length, meaning that `abc` or `a|b` are allowed, but `a*` and `a{3,4}` are not. Note that patterns which start with positive lookbehind assertions will not match at the beginning of the string being searched; you will most likely want to use the *search()* function rather than the *match()* function:

```
>>> import re
>>> m = re.search('(?<=abc)def', 'abcdef')
>>> m.group(0)
'def'
```

This example looks for a word following a hyphen:

```
>>> m = re.search(r'(?<=-)\w+', 'spam-egg')
>>> m.group(0)
'egg'
```

Changed in version 3.5: Added support for group references of fixed length.

(?<!...) Matches if the current position in the string is not preceded by a match for `...`. This is called a *negative lookbehind assertion*. Similar to positive lookbehind assertions, the contained pattern must only match strings of some fixed length. Patterns which start with negative lookbehind assertions may match at the beginning of the string being searched.

(?(id/name)yes-pattern|no-pattern) Will try to match with `yes-pattern` if the group with given *id* or *name* exists, and with `no-pattern` if it doesn't. `no-pattern` is optional and can be omitted. For example, `(<)?(\w+@\w+(?:\.\w+)+)(?(1)>|$)` is a poor email matching pattern, which will match with `'<user@host.com>'` as well as `'user@host.com'`, but not with `'<user@host.com'` nor `'user@host.com>'`.

Deprecated since version 3.11: Group *id* containing anything except ASCII digits. Group *name* containing characters outside the ASCII range (`b'\x00'-b'\x7f'`) in *bytes* replacement strings.

The special sequences consist of `'\'` and a character from the list below. If the ordinary character is not an ASCII digit or an ASCII letter, then the resulting RE will match the second character. For example, `\$` matches the character `'$'`.

\number Matches the contents of the group of the same number. Groups are numbered starting from 1. For example, `(.+) \1` matches `'the the'` or `'55 55'`, but not `'thethe'` (note the space after the group). This special sequence can only be used to match one of the first 99 groups. If the first digit of *number* is 0, or *number* is 3 octal digits long, it will not be interpreted as a group match, but as the character with octal value *number*. Inside the `'['` and `']'` of a character class, all numeric escapes are treated as characters.

\A Matches only at the start of the string.

\b Matches the empty string, but only at the beginning or end of a word. A word is defined as a sequence of word characters. Note that formally, `\b` is defined as the boundary between a `\w` and a `\W` character (or vice versa), or between `\w` and the beginning/end of the string. This means that `r'\bfoo\b'` matches `'foo'`, `'foo.'`, `'(foo)'`, `'bar foo baz'` but not `'foobar'` or `'foo3'`.

By default Unicode alphanumerics are the ones used in Unicode patterns, but this can be changed by using the *ASCII* flag. Word boundaries are determined by the current locale if the *LOCALE* flag is used. Inside a character range, `\b` represents the backspace character, for compatibility with Python's string literals.

\B Matches the empty string, but only when it is *not* at the beginning or end of a word. This means that `r'py\B'` matches `'python'`, `'py3'`, `'py2'`, but not `'py'`, `'py.'`, or `'py!'`. `\B` is just the opposite of `\b`, so word characters in Unicode patterns are Unicode alphanumerics or the underscore, although this can be changed by using the *ASCII* flag. Word boundaries are determined by the current locale if the *LOCALE* flag is used.

\d

For Unicode (str) patterns: Matches any Unicode decimal digit (that is, any character in Unicode character category [Nd]). This includes `[0-9]`, and also many other digit characters. If the *ASCII* flag is used only `[0-9]` is matched.

For 8-bit (bytes) patterns: Matches any decimal digit; this is equivalent to `[0-9]`.

\D Matches any character which is not a decimal digit. This is the opposite of `\d`. If the *ASCII* flag is used this becomes the equivalent of `[^0-9]`.

\s

For Unicode (str) patterns: Matches Unicode whitespace characters (which includes `[ \t\n\r\f\v]`, and also many other characters, for example the non-breaking spaces mandated by typography rules in many languages). If the *ASCII* flag is used, only `[ \t\n\r\f\v]` is matched.

For 8-bit (bytes) patterns: Matches characters considered whitespace in the ASCII character set; this is equivalent to `[ \t\n\r\f\v]`.

\S Matches any character which is not a whitespace character. This is the opposite of `\s`. If the *ASCII* flag is used this becomes the equivalent of `[^ \t\n\r\f\v]`.

\w

For Unicode (str) patterns: Matches Unicode word characters; this includes alphanumeric characters (as defined by *str.isalnum()*) as well as the underscore (_). If the *ASCII* flag is used, only `[a-zA-Z0-9_]` is matched.

For 8-bit (bytes) patterns: Matches characters considered alphanumeric in the ASCII character set; this is equivalent to `[a-zA-Z0-9_]`. If the *LOCALE* flag is used, matches characters considered alphanumeric in the current locale and the underscore.

\W Matches any character which is not a word character. This is the opposite of `\w`. If the *ASCII* flag is used this becomes the equivalent of `[^a-zA-Z0-9_]`. If the *LOCALE* flag is used, matches characters which are neither alphanumeric in the current locale nor the underscore.

\Z Matches only at the end of the string.

Most of the standard escapes supported by Python string literals are also accepted by the regular expression parser:

```
\a      \b      \f      \n
\N      \r      \t      \u
\U      \v      \x      \\
```

(Note that `\b` is used to represent word boundaries, and means "backspace" only inside character classes.)

`'\u'`, `'\U'`, and `'\N'` escape sequences are only recognized in Unicode patterns. In bytes patterns they are errors. Unknown escapes of ASCII letters are reserved for future use and treated as errors.

Octal escapes are included in a limited form. If the first digit is a 0, or if there are three octal digits, it is considered an octal escape. Otherwise, it is a group reference. As for string literals, octal escapes are always at most three digits in length.

Changed in version 3.3: The `'\u'` and `'\U'` escape sequences have been added.

Changed in version 3.6: Unknown escapes consisting of `'\'` and an ASCII letter now are errors.

Changed in version 3.8: The `'\N{name}'` escape sequence has been added. As in string literals, it expands to the named Unicode character (e.g. `'\N{EM DASH}'`).

6.2.2 Module Contents

The module defines several functions, constants, and an exception. Some of the functions are simplified versions of the full featured methods for compiled regular expressions. Most non-trivial applications always use the compiled form.

Flags

Changed in version 3.6: Flag constants are now instances of *RegexFlag*, which is a subclass of *enum.IntFlag*.

class re.**RegexFlag**

An *enum.IntFlag* class containing the regex options listed below.

New in version 3.11: - added to __all__

re.**A**

re.**ASCII**

Make \w, \W, \b, \B, \d, \D, \s and \S perform ASCII-only matching instead of full Unicode matching. This is only meaningful for Unicode patterns, and is ignored for byte patterns. Corresponds to the inline flag (?a).

Note that for backward compatibility, the *re.U* flag still exists (as well as its synonym *re.UNICODE* and its embedded counterpart (?u)), but these are redundant in Python 3 since matches are Unicode by default for strings (and Unicode matching isn't allowed for bytes).

re.**DEBUG**

Display debug information about compiled expression. No corresponding inline flag.

re.**I**

re.**IGNORECASE**

Perform case-insensitive matching; expressions like [A-Z] will also match lowercase letters. Full Unicode matching (such as Ü matching ü) also works unless the *re.ASCII* flag is used to disable non-ASCII matches. The current locale does not change the effect of this flag unless the *re.LOCALE* flag is also used. Corresponds to the inline flag (?i).

Note that when the Unicode patterns [a-z] or [A-Z] are used in combination with the *IGNORECASE* flag, they will match the 52 ASCII letters and 4 additional non-ASCII letters: 'İ' (U+0130, Latin capital letter I with dot above), 'ı' (U+0131, Latin small letter dotless i), 'ſ' (U+017F, Latin small letter long s) and 'K' (U+212A, Kelvin sign). If the *ASCII* flag is used, only letters 'a' to 'z' and 'A' to 'Z' are matched.

re.**L**

re.**LOCALE**

Make \w, \W, \b, \B and case-insensitive matching dependent on the current locale. This flag can be used only with bytes patterns. The use of this flag is discouraged as the locale mechanism is very unreliable, it only handles one "culture" at a time, and it only works with 8-bit locales. Unicode matching is already enabled by default in Python 3 for Unicode (str) patterns, and it is able to handle different locales/languages. Corresponds to the inline flag (?L).

Changed in version 3.6: *re.LOCALE* can be used only with bytes patterns and is not compatible with *re.ASCII*.

Changed in version 3.7: Compiled regular expression objects with the *re.LOCALE* flag no longer depend on the locale at compile time. Only the locale at matching time affects the result of matching.

re.**M**

re.**MULTILINE**

When specified, the pattern character '^' matches at the beginning of the string and at the beginning of each line (immediately following each newline); and the pattern character '$' matches at the end of the string and at the end of each line (immediately preceding each newline). By default, '^' matches only at the beginning of the string, and '$' only at the end of the string and immediately before the newline (if any) at the end of the string. Corresponds to the inline flag (?m).

re.**NOFLAG**

Indicates no flag being applied, the value is 0. This flag may be used as a default value for a function keyword argument or as a base value that will be conditionally ORed with other flags. Example of use as a default value:

```
def myfunc(text, flag=re.NOFLAG):
    return re.match(text, flag)
```

New in version 3.11.

re.**S**

re.**DOTALL**

Make the `'.'` special character match any character at all, including a newline; without this flag, `'.'` will match anything *except* a newline. Corresponds to the inline flag `(?s)`.

re.**U**

re.**UNICODE**

In Python 2, this flag made *special sequences* include Unicode characters in matches. Since Python 3, Unicode characters are matched by default.

See *A* for restricting matching on ASCII characters instead.

This flag is only kept for backward compatibility.

re.**X**

re.**VERBOSE**

This flag allows you to write regular expressions that look nicer and are more readable by allowing you to visually separate logical sections of the pattern and add comments. Whitespace within the pattern is ignored, except when in a character class, or when preceded by an unescaped backslash, or within tokens like `*?`, `(?:` or `(?P<...>`. For example, `(? :` and `* ?` are not allowed. When a line contains a `#` that is not in a character class and is not preceded by an unescaped backslash, all characters from the leftmost such `#` through the end of the line are ignored.

This means that the two following regular expression objects that match a decimal number are functionally equal:

```
a = re.compile(r"""\d +  # the integral part
                   \.    # the decimal point
                   \d *  # some fractional digits""", re.X)
b = re.compile(r"\d+\.\d*")
```

Corresponds to the inline flag `(?x)`.

Functions

re.**compile**(*pattern*, *flags=0*)

Compile a regular expression pattern into a *regular expression object*, which can be used for matching using its *match()*, *search()* and other methods, described below.

The expression's behaviour can be modified by specifying a *flags* value. Values can be any of the following variables, combined using bitwise OR (the `|` operator).

The sequence

```
prog = re.compile(pattern)
result = prog.match(string)
```

is equivalent to

```
result = re.match(pattern, string)
```

but using *re.compile()* and saving the resulting regular expression object for reuse is more efficient when the expression will be used several times in a single program.

Note: The compiled versions of the most recent patterns passed to `re.compile()` and the module-level matching functions are cached, so programs that use only a few regular expressions at a time needn't worry about compiling regular expressions.

`re.`**`search`**(*pattern*, *string*, *flags=0*)

Scan through *string* looking for the first location where the regular expression *pattern* produces a match, and return a corresponding *match object*. Return `None` if no position in the string matches the pattern; note that this is different from finding a zero-length match at some point in the string.

`re.`**`match`**(*pattern*, *string*, *flags=0*)

If zero or more characters at the beginning of *string* match the regular expression *pattern*, return a corresponding *match object*. Return `None` if the string does not match the pattern; note that this is different from a zero-length match.

Note that even in `MULTILINE` mode, `re.match()` will only match at the beginning of the string and not at the beginning of each line.

If you want to locate a match anywhere in *string*, use `search()` instead (see also *search() vs. match()*).

`re.`**`fullmatch`**(*pattern*, *string*, *flags=0*)

If the whole *string* matches the regular expression *pattern*, return a corresponding *match object*. Return `None` if the string does not match the pattern; note that this is different from a zero-length match.

New in version 3.4.

`re.`**`split`**(*pattern*, *string*, *maxsplit=0*, *flags=0*)

Split *string* by the occurrences of *pattern*. If capturing parentheses are used in *pattern*, then the text of all groups in the pattern are also returned as part of the resulting list. If *maxsplit* is nonzero, at most *maxsplit* splits occur, and the remainder of the string is returned as the final element of the list.

```
>>> re.split(r'\W+', 'Words, words, words.')
['Words', 'words', 'words', '']
>>> re.split(r'(\W+)', 'Words, words, words.')
['Words', ', ', 'words', ', ', 'words', '.', '']
>>> re.split(r'\W+', 'Words, words, words.', 1)
['Words', 'words, words.']
>>> re.split('[a-f]+', '0a3B9', flags=re.IGNORECASE)
['0', '3', '9']
```

If there are capturing groups in the separator and it matches at the start of the string, the result will start with an empty string. The same holds for the end of the string:

```
>>> re.split(r'(\W+)', '...words, words...')
['', '...', 'words', ', ', 'words', '...', '']
```

That way, separator components are always found at the same relative indices within the result list.

Empty matches for the pattern split the string only when not adjacent to a previous empty match.

```
>>> re.split(r'\b', 'Words, words, words.')
['', 'Words', ', ', 'words', ', ', 'words', '.']
>>> re.split(r'\W*', '...words...')
['', '', 'w', 'o', 'r', 'd', 's', '', '']
>>> re.split(r'(\W*)', '...words...')
['', '...', '', '', 'w', '', 'o', '', 'r', '', 'd', '', 's', '...', '', '', '']
```

Changed in version 3.1: Added the optional flags argument.

Changed in version 3.7: Added support of splitting on a pattern that could match an empty string.

re.**findall**(*pattern*, *string*, *flags=0*)

Return all non-overlapping matches of *pattern* in *string*, as a list of strings or tuples. The *string* is scanned left-to-right, and matches are returned in the order found. Empty matches are included in the result.

The result depends on the number of capturing groups in the pattern. If there are no groups, return a list of strings matching the whole pattern. If there is exactly one group, return a list of strings matching that group. If multiple groups are present, return a list of tuples of strings matching the groups. Non-capturing groups do not affect the form of the result.

```
>>> re.findall(r'\bf[a-z]*', 'which foot or hand fell fastest')
['foot', 'fell', 'fastest']
>>> re.findall(r'(\w+)=(\d+)', 'set width=20 and height=10')
[('width', '20'), ('height', '10')]
```

Changed in version 3.7: Non-empty matches can now start just after a previous empty match.

re.**finditer**(*pattern*, *string*, *flags=0*)

Return an *iterator* yielding *match objects* over all non-overlapping matches for the RE *pattern* in *string*. The *string* is scanned left-to-right, and matches are returned in the order found. Empty matches are included in the result.

Changed in version 3.7: Non-empty matches can now start just after a previous empty match.

re.**sub**(*pattern*, *repl*, *string*, *count=0*, *flags=0*)

Return the string obtained by replacing the leftmost non-overlapping occurrences of *pattern* in *string* by the replacement *repl*. If the pattern isn't found, *string* is returned unchanged. *repl* can be a string or a function; if it is a string, any backslash escapes in it are processed. That is, `\n` is converted to a single newline character, `\r` is converted to a carriage return, and so forth. Unknown escapes of ASCII letters are reserved for future use and treated as errors. Other unknown escapes such as `\&` are left alone. Backreferences, such as `\6`, are replaced with the substring matched by group 6 in the pattern. For example:

```
>>> re.sub(r'def\s+([a-zA-Z_][a-zA-Z_0-9]*)\s*\(\s*\):',
...         r'static PyObject*\npy_\1(void)\n{',
...         'def myfunc():')
'static PyObject*\npy_myfunc(void)\n{'
```

If *repl* is a function, it is called for every non-overlapping occurrence of *pattern*. The function takes a single *match object* argument, and returns the replacement string. For example:

```
>>> def dashrepl(matchobj):
...     if matchobj.group(0) == '-': return ' '
...     else: return '-'
>>> re.sub('-{1,2}', dashrepl, 'pro----gram-files')
'pro--gram files'
>>> re.sub(r'\sAND\s', ' & ', 'Baked Beans And Spam', flags=re.IGNORECASE)
'Baked Beans & Spam'
```

The pattern may be a string or a *pattern object*.

The optional argument *count* is the maximum number of pattern occurrences to be replaced; *count* must be a non-negative integer. If omitted or zero, all occurrences will be replaced. Empty matches for the pattern are replaced only when not adjacent to a previous empty match, so `sub('x*', '-', 'abxd')` returns `'-a-b--d-'`.

In string-type *repl* arguments, in addition to the character escapes and backreferences described above, `\g<name>` will use the substring matched by the group named `name`, as defined by the `(?P<name>...)` syntax. `\g<number>` uses the corresponding group number; `\g<2>` is therefore equivalent to `\2`, but isn't ambiguous

in a replacement such as `\g<2>0`. `\20` would be interpreted as a reference to group 20, not a reference to group 2 followed by the literal character `'0'`. The backreference `\g<0>` substitutes in the entire substring matched by the RE.

Changed in version 3.1: Added the optional flags argument.

Changed in version 3.5: Unmatched groups are replaced with an empty string.

Changed in version 3.6: Unknown escapes in *pattern* consisting of `'\'` and an ASCII letter now are errors.

Changed in version 3.7: Unknown escapes in *repl* consisting of `'\'` and an ASCII letter now are errors.

Changed in version 3.7: Empty matches for the pattern are replaced when adjacent to a previous non-empty match.

Deprecated since version 3.11: Group *id* containing anything except ASCII digits. Group *name* containing characters outside the ASCII range (`b'\x00'-b'\x7f'`) in *bytes* replacement strings.

`re.`**`subn`**(*pattern*, *repl*, *string*, *count=0*, *flags=0*)

Perform the same operation as *sub()*, but return a tuple `(new_string, number_of_subs_made)`.

Changed in version 3.1: Added the optional flags argument.

Changed in version 3.5: Unmatched groups are replaced with an empty string.

`re.`**`escape`**(*pattern*)

Escape special characters in *pattern*. This is useful if you want to match an arbitrary literal string that may have regular expression metacharacters in it. For example:

```
>>> print(re.escape('https://www.python.org'))
https://www\.python\.org

>>> legal_chars = string.ascii_lowercase + string.digits + "!#$%&'*+-.^_`|~:"
>>> print('[%s]+' % re.escape(legal_chars))
[abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz0123456789!\#\$%\&'\*\+\-\.\^_`\|\~:]+

>>> operators = ['+', '-', '*', '/', '**']
>>> print('|'.join(map(re.escape, sorted(operators, reverse=True))))
/|\-|\+|\*\*|\*
```

This function must not be used for the replacement string in *sub()* and *subn()*, only backslashes should be escaped. For example:

```
>>> digits_re = r'\d+'
>>> sample = '/usr/sbin/sendmail - 0 errors, 12 warnings'
>>> print(re.sub(digits_re, digits_re.replace('\\', r'\\'), sample))
/usr/sbin/sendmail - \d+ errors, \d+ warnings
```

Changed in version 3.3: The `'_'` character is no longer escaped.

Changed in version 3.7: Only characters that can have special meaning in a regular expression are escaped. As a result, `'!'`, `'"'`, `'%'`, `"'"`, `','`, `'/'`, `':'`, `';'`, `'<'`, `'='`, `'>'`, `'@'`, and `"`` " are no longer escaped.

`re.`**`purge`**()

Clear the regular expression cache.

Exceptions

exception re.**error**(*msg*, *pattern=None*, *pos=None*)

Exception raised when a string passed to one of the functions here is not a valid regular expression (for example, it might contain unmatched parentheses) or when some other error occurs during compilation or matching. It is never an error if a string contains no match for a pattern. The error instance has the following additional attributes:

msg

The unformatted error message.

pattern

The regular expression pattern.

pos

The index in *pattern* where compilation failed (may be `None`).

lineno

The line corresponding to *pos* (may be `None`).

colno

The column corresponding to *pos* (may be `None`).

Changed in version 3.5: Added additional attributes.

6.2.3 Regular Expression Objects

Compiled regular expression objects support the following methods and attributes:

Pattern.**search**(*string*[, *pos*[, *endpos*]])

Scan through *string* looking for the first location where this regular expression produces a match, and return a corresponding *match object*. Return `None` if no position in the string matches the pattern; note that this is different from finding a zero-length match at some point in the string.

The optional second parameter *pos* gives an index in the string where the search is to start; it defaults to `0`. This is not completely equivalent to slicing the string; the `'^'` pattern character matches at the real beginning of the string and at positions just after a newline, but not necessarily at the index where the search is to start.

The optional parameter *endpos* limits how far the string will be searched; it will be as if the string is *endpos* characters long, so only the characters from *pos* to `endpos - 1` will be searched for a match. If *endpos* is less than *pos*, no match will be found; otherwise, if *rx* is a compiled regular expression object, `rx.search(string, 0, 50)` is equivalent to `rx.search(string[:50], 0)`.

```
>>> pattern = re.compile("d")
>>> pattern.search("dog")     # Match at index 0
<re.Match object; span=(0, 1), match='d'>
>>> pattern.search("dog", 1)  # No match; search doesn't include the "d"
```

Pattern.**match**(*string*[, *pos*[, *endpos*]])

If zero or more characters at the *beginning* of *string* match this regular expression, return a corresponding *match object*. Return `None` if the string does not match the pattern; note that this is different from a zero-length match.

The optional *pos* and *endpos* parameters have the same meaning as for the *search()* method.

```
>>> pattern = re.compile("o")
>>> pattern.match("dog")      # No match as "o" is not at the start of "dog".
>>> pattern.match("dog", 1)   # Match as "o" is the 2nd character of "dog".
<re.Match object; span=(1, 2), match='o'>
```

If you want to locate a match anywhere in *string*, use `search()` instead (see also *search() vs. match()*).

`Pattern.`**`fullmatch`**(*string*[, *pos*[, *endpos*]])

If the whole *string* matches this regular expression, return a corresponding *match object*. Return `None` if the string does not match the pattern; note that this is different from a zero-length match.

The optional *pos* and *endpos* parameters have the same meaning as for the `search()` method.

```
>>> pattern = re.compile("o[gh]")
>>> pattern.fullmatch("dog")      # No match as "o" is not at the start of "dog".
>>> pattern.fullmatch("ogre")     # No match as not the full string matches.
>>> pattern.fullmatch("doggie", 1, 3)   # Matches within given limits.
<re.Match object; span=(1, 3), match='og'>
```

New in version 3.4.

`Pattern.`**`split`**(*string*, *maxsplit=0*)

Identical to the `split()` function, using the compiled pattern.

`Pattern.`**`findall`**(*string*[, *pos*[, *endpos*]])

Similar to the `findall()` function, using the compiled pattern, but also accepts optional *pos* and *endpos* parameters that limit the search region like for `search()`.

`Pattern.`**`finditer`**(*string*[, *pos*[, *endpos*]])

Similar to the `finditer()` function, using the compiled pattern, but also accepts optional *pos* and *endpos* parameters that limit the search region like for `search()`.

`Pattern.`**`sub`**(*repl*, *string*, *count=0*)

Identical to the `sub()` function, using the compiled pattern.

`Pattern.`**`subn`**(*repl*, *string*, *count=0*)

Identical to the `subn()` function, using the compiled pattern.

`Pattern.`**`flags`**

The regex matching flags. This is a combination of the flags given to `compile()`, any `(?...)` inline flags in the pattern, and implicit flags such as `UNICODE` if the pattern is a Unicode string.

`Pattern.`**`groups`**

The number of capturing groups in the pattern.

`Pattern.`**`groupindex`**

A dictionary mapping any symbolic group names defined by `(?P<id>)` to group numbers. The dictionary is empty if no symbolic groups were used in the pattern.

`Pattern.`**`pattern`**

The pattern string from which the pattern object was compiled.

Changed in version 3.7: Added support of `copy.copy()` and `copy.deepcopy()`. Compiled regular expression objects are considered atomic.

6.2.4 Match Objects

Match objects always have a boolean value of `True`. Since *match()* and *search()* return `None` when there is no match, you can test whether there was a match with a simple `if` statement:

```
match = re.search(pattern, string)
if match:
    process(match)
```

Match objects support the following methods and attributes:

`Match.`**`expand`**(*template*)

Return the string obtained by doing backslash substitution on the template string *template*, as done by the *sub()* method. Escapes such as `\n` are converted to the appropriate characters, and numeric backreferences (`\1`, `\2`) and named backreferences (`\g<1>`, `\g<name>`) are replaced by the contents of the corresponding group.

Changed in version 3.5: Unmatched groups are replaced with an empty string.

`Match.`**`group`**([*group1*, ...])

Returns one or more subgroups of the match. If there is a single argument, the result is a single string; if there are multiple arguments, the result is a tuple with one item per argument. Without arguments, *group1* defaults to zero (the whole match is returned). If a *groupN* argument is zero, the corresponding return value is the entire matching string; if it is in the inclusive range [1..99], it is the string matching the corresponding parenthesized group. If a group number is negative or larger than the number of groups defined in the pattern, an *IndexError* exception is raised. If a group is contained in a part of the pattern that did not match, the corresponding result is `None`. If a group is contained in a part of the pattern that matched multiple times, the last match is returned.

```
>>> m = re.match(r"(\w+) (\w+)", "Isaac Newton, physicist")
>>> m.group(0)       # The entire match
'Isaac Newton'
>>> m.group(1)       # The first parenthesized subgroup.
'Isaac'
>>> m.group(2)       # The second parenthesized subgroup.
'Newton'
>>> m.group(1, 2)    # Multiple arguments give us a tuple.
('Isaac', 'Newton')
```

If the regular expression uses the `(?P<name>...)` syntax, the *groupN* arguments may also be strings identifying groups by their group name. If a string argument is not used as a group name in the pattern, an *IndexError* exception is raised.

A moderately complicated example:

```
>>> m = re.match(r"(?P<first_name>\w+) (?P<last_name>\w+)", "Malcolm Reynolds")
>>> m.group('first_name')
'Malcolm'
>>> m.group('last_name')
'Reynolds'
```

Named groups can also be referred to by their index:

```
>>> m.group(1)
'Malcolm'
>>> m.group(2)
'Reynolds'
```

If a group matches multiple times, only the last match is accessible:

```
>>> m = re.match(r"(..)+", "a1b2c3")  # Matches 3 times.
>>> m.group(1)                        # Returns only the last match.
'c3'
```

`Match.__getitem__`(*g*)

This is identical to `m.group(g)`. This allows easier access to an individual group from a match:

```
>>> m = re.match(r"(\w+) (\w+)", "Isaac Newton, physicist")
>>> m[0]       # The entire match
'Isaac Newton'
>>> m[1]       # The first parenthesized subgroup.
'Isaac'
>>> m[2]       # The second parenthesized subgroup.
'Newton'
```

Named groups are supported as well:

```
>>> m = re.match(r"(?P<first_name>\w+) (?P<last_name>\w+)", "Isaac Newton")
>>> m['first_name']
'Isaac'
>>> m['last_name']
'Newton'
```

New in version 3.6.

`Match.groups`(*default=None*)

Return a tuple containing all the subgroups of the match, from 1 up to however many groups are in the pattern. The *default* argument is used for groups that did not participate in the match; it defaults to `None`.

For example:

```
>>> m = re.match(r"(\d+)\.(\d+)", "24.1632")
>>> m.groups()
('24', '1632')
```

If we make the decimal place and everything after it optional, not all groups might participate in the match. These groups will default to `None` unless the *default* argument is given:

```
>>> m = re.match(r"(\d+)\.?(\d+)?", "24")
>>> m.groups()      # Second group defaults to None.
('24', None)
>>> m.groups('0')   # Now, the second group defaults to '0'.
('24', '0')
```

`Match.groupdict`(*default=None*)

Return a dictionary containing all the *named* subgroups of the match, keyed by the subgroup name. The *default* argument is used for groups that did not participate in the match; it defaults to `None`. For example:

```
>>> m = re.match(r"(?P<first_name>\w+) (?P<last_name>\w+)", "Malcolm Reynolds")
>>> m.groupdict()
{'first_name': 'Malcolm', 'last_name': 'Reynolds'}
```

`Match.start`([*group*])

`Match.end`([*group*])

Return the indices of the start and end of the substring matched by *group*; *group* defaults to zero (meaning the whole matched substring). Return `-1` if *group* exists but did not contribute to the match. For a match object *m*, and a group *g* that did contribute to the match, the substring matched by group *g* (equivalent to `m.group(g)`) is

```
m.string[m.start(g):m.end(g)]
```

Note that `m.start(group)` will equal `m.end(group)` if *group* matched a null string. For example, after `m = re.search('b(c?)', 'cba')`, `m.start(0)` is 1, `m.end(0)` is 2, `m.start(1)` and `m.end(1)` are both 2, and `m.start(2)` raises an *IndexError* exception.

An example that will remove *remove_this* from email addresses:

```
>>> email = "tony@tiremove_thisger.net"
>>> m = re.search("remove_this", email)
>>> email[:m.start()] + email[m.end():]
'tony@tiger.net'
```

`Match.`**`span`**`([`*group*`])`

For a match *m*, return the 2-tuple `(m.start(group), m.end(group))`. Note that if *group* did not contribute to the match, this is `(-1, -1)`. *group* defaults to zero, the entire match.

`Match.`**`pos`**

The value of *pos* which was passed to the *search()* or *match()* method of a *regex object*. This is the index into the string at which the RE engine started looking for a match.

`Match.`**`endpos`**

The value of *endpos* which was passed to the *search()* or *match()* method of a *regex object*. This is the index into the string beyond which the RE engine will not go.

`Match.`**`lastindex`**

The integer index of the last matched capturing group, or `None` if no group was matched at all. For example, the expressions `(a)b`, `((a)(b))`, and `((ab))` will have `lastindex == 1` if applied to the string `'ab'`, while the expression `(a)(b)` will have `lastindex == 2`, if applied to the same string.

`Match.`**`lastgroup`**

The name of the last matched capturing group, or `None` if the group didn't have a name, or if no group was matched at all.

`Match.`**`re`**

The *regular expression object* whose *match()* or *search()* method produced this match instance.

`Match.`**`string`**

The string passed to *match()* or *search()*.

Changed in version 3.7: Added support of *copy.copy()* and *copy.deepcopy()*. Match objects are considered atomic.

6.2.5 Regular Expression Examples

Checking for a Pair

In this example, we'll use the following helper function to display match objects a little more gracefully:

```
def displaymatch(match):
    if match is None:
        return None
    return '<Match: %r, groups=%r>' % (match.group(), match.groups())
```

Suppose you are writing a poker program where a player's hand is represented as a 5-character string with each character representing a card, "a" for ace, "k" for king, "q" for queen, "j" for jack, "t" for 10, and "2" through "9" representing the card with that value.

To see if a given string is a valid hand, one could do the following:

```
>>> valid = re.compile(r"^[a2-9tjqk]{5}$")
>>> displaymatch(valid.match("akt5q"))  # Valid.
"<Match: 'akt5q', groups=()>"
>>> displaymatch(valid.match("akt5e"))  # Invalid.
>>> displaymatch(valid.match("akt"))    # Invalid.
>>> displaymatch(valid.match("727ak"))  # Valid.
"<Match: '727ak', groups=()>"
```

That last hand, `"727ak"`, contained a pair, or two of the same valued cards. To match this with a regular expression, one could use backreferences as such:

```
>>> pair = re.compile(r".*(.).*\1")
>>> displaymatch(pair.match("717ak"))     # Pair of 7s.
"<Match: '717', groups=('7',)>"
>>> displaymatch(pair.match("718ak"))     # No pairs.
>>> displaymatch(pair.match("354aa"))     # Pair of aces.
"<Match: '354aa', groups=('a',)>"
```

To find out what card the pair consists of, one could use the *group()* method of the match object in the following manner:

```
>>> pair = re.compile(r".*(.).*\1")
>>> pair.match("717ak").group(1)
'7'

# Error because re.match() returns None, which doesn't have a group() method:
>>> pair.match("718ak").group(1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#23>", line 1, in <module>
    re.match(r".*(.).*\1", "718ak").group(1)
AttributeError: 'NoneType' object has no attribute 'group'

>>> pair.match("354aa").group(1)
'a'
```

Simulating scanf()

Python does not currently have an equivalent to `scanf()`. Regular expressions are generally more powerful, though also more verbose, than `scanf()` format strings. The table below offers some more-or-less equivalent mappings between `scanf()` format tokens and regular expressions.

scanf() Token	Regular Expression
%c	.
%5c	.{5}
%d	[-+]?\d+
%e, %E, %f, %g	[-+]?(\d+(\.\d*)?|\.\d+)([eE][-+]?\d+)?
%i	[-+]?(0[xX][\dA-Fa-f]+|0[0-7]*|\d+)
%o	[-+]?[0-7]+
%s	\S+
%u	\d+
%x, %X	[-+]?(0[xX])?[\dA-Fa-f]+

To extract the filename and numbers from a string like

```
/usr/sbin/sendmail - 0 errors, 4 warnings
```

you would use a `scanf()` format like

```
%s - %d errors, %d warnings
```

The equivalent regular expression would be

```
(\S+) - (\d+) errors, (\d+) warnings
```

search() vs. match()

Python offers different primitive operations based on regular expressions:

- *re.match()* checks for a match only at the beginning of the string
- *re.search()* checks for a match anywhere in the string (this is what Perl does by default)
- *re.fullmatch()* checks for entire string to be a match

For example:

```
>>> re.match("c", "abcdef")    # No match
>>> re.search("c", "abcdef")   # Match
<re.Match object; span=(2, 3), match='c'>
>>> re.fullmatch("p.*n", "python") # Match
<re.Match object; span=(0, 6), match='python'>
>>> re.fullmatch("r.*n", "python") # No match
```

Regular expressions beginning with `'^'` can be used with *search()* to restrict the match at the beginning of the string:

```
>>> re.match("c", "abcdef")    # No match
>>> re.search("^c", "abcdef")  # No match
>>> re.search("^a", "abcdef")  # Match
<re.Match object; span=(0, 1), match='a'>
```

Note however that in *MULTILINE* mode *match()* only matches at the beginning of the string, whereas using *search()* with a regular expression beginning with `'^'` will match at the beginning of each line.

```
>>> re.match("X", "A\nB\nX", re.MULTILINE)  # No match
>>> re.search("^X", "A\nB\nX", re.MULTILINE)  # Match
<re.Match object; span=(4, 5), match='X'>
```

Making a Phonebook

split() splits a string into a list delimited by the passed pattern. The method is invaluable for converting textual data into data structures that can be easily read and modified by Python as demonstrated in the following example that creates a phonebook.

First, here is the input. Normally it may come from a file, here we are using triple-quoted string syntax

```
>>> text = """Ross McFluff: 834.345.1254 155 Elm Street
...
... Ronald Heathmore: 892.345.3428 436 Finley Avenue
... Frank Burger: 925.541.7625 662 South Dogwood Way
...
...
... Heather Albrecht: 548.326.4584 919 Park Place"""
```

The entries are separated by one or more newlines. Now we convert the string into a list with each nonempty line having its own entry:

```
>>> entries = re.split("\n+", text)
>>> entries
['Ross McFluff: 834.345.1254 155 Elm Street',
'Ronald Heathmore: 892.345.3428 436 Finley Avenue',
'Frank Burger: 925.541.7625 662 South Dogwood Way',
'Heather Albrecht: 548.326.4584 919 Park Place']
```

Finally, split each entry into a list with first name, last name, telephone number, and address. We use the `maxsplit` parameter of *split()* because the address has spaces, our splitting pattern, in it:

```
>>> [re.split(":? ", entry, 3) for entry in entries]
[['Ross', 'McFluff', '834.345.1254', '155 Elm Street'],
['Ronald', 'Heathmore', '892.345.3428', '436 Finley Avenue'],
['Frank', 'Burger', '925.541.7625', '662 South Dogwood Way'],
['Heather', 'Albrecht', '548.326.4584', '919 Park Place']]
```

The `:?` pattern matches the colon after the last name, so that it does not occur in the result list. With a `maxsplit` of `4`, we could separate the house number from the street name:

```
>>> [re.split(":? ", entry, 4) for entry in entries]
[['Ross', 'McFluff', '834.345.1254', '155', 'Elm Street'],
['Ronald', 'Heathmore', '892.345.3428', '436', 'Finley Avenue'],
['Frank', 'Burger', '925.541.7625', '662', 'South Dogwood Way'],
['Heather', 'Albrecht', '548.326.4584', '919', 'Park Place']]
```

Text Munging

sub() replaces every occurrence of a pattern with a string or the result of a function. This example demonstrates using *sub()* with a function to "munge" text, or randomize the order of all the characters in each word of a sentence except for the first and last characters:

```
>>> def repl(m):
...     inner_word = list(m.group(2))
...     random.shuffle(inner_word)
...     return m.group(1) + "".join(inner_word) + m.group(3)
>>> text = "Professor Abdolmalek, please report your absences promptly."
>>> re.sub(r"(\w)(\w+)(\w)", repl, text)
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
'Poefsrosr Aealmlobdk, pslaee reorpt your abnseces plmrptoy.'
>>> re.sub(r"(\w)(\w+)(\w)", repl, text)
'Pofsroser Aodlambelk, plasee reoprt yuor asnebces potlmrpy.'
```

Finding all Adverbs

findall() matches *all* occurrences of a pattern, not just the first one as *search()* does. For example, if a writer wanted to find all of the adverbs in some text, they might use *findall()* in the following manner:

```
>>> text = "He was carefully disguised but captured quickly by police."
>>> re.findall(r"\w+ly\b", text)
['carefully', 'quickly']
```

Finding all Adverbs and their Positions

If one wants more information about all matches of a pattern than the matched text, *finditer()* is useful as it provides *match objects* instead of strings. Continuing with the previous example, if a writer wanted to find all of the adverbs *and their positions* in some text, they would use *finditer()* in the following manner:

```
>>> text = "He was carefully disguised but captured quickly by police."
>>> for m in re.finditer(r"\w+ly\b", text):
...     print('%02d-%02d: %s' % (m.start(), m.end(), m.group(0)))
07-16: carefully
40-47: quickly
```

Raw String Notation

Raw string notation (`r"text"`) keeps regular expressions sane. Without it, every backslash (`'\'`) in a regular expression would have to be prefixed with another one to escape it. For example, the two following lines of code are functionally identical:

```
>>> re.match(r"\W(.)\1\W", " ff ")
<re.Match object; span=(0, 4), match=' ff '>
>>> re.match("\\W(.)\\1\\W", " ff ")
<re.Match object; span=(0, 4), match=' ff '>
```

When one wants to match a literal backslash, it must be escaped in the regular expression. With raw string notation, this means `r"\\"`. Without raw string notation, one must use `"\\\\"`, making the following lines of code functionally identical:

```
>>> re.match(r"\\", r"\\")
<re.Match object; span=(0, 1), match='\\'>
>>> re.match("\\\\", r"\\")
<re.Match object; span=(0, 1), match='\\'>
```

Writing a Tokenizer

A tokenizer or scanner analyzes a string to categorize groups of characters. This is a useful first step in writing a compiler or interpreter.

The text categories are specified with regular expressions. The technique is to combine those into a single master regular expression and to loop over successive matches:

```
from typing import NamedTuple
import re

class Token(NamedTuple):
    type: str
    value: str
    line: int
    column: int

def tokenize(code):
    keywords = {'IF', 'THEN', 'ENDIF', 'FOR', 'NEXT', 'GOSUB', 'RETURN'}
    token_specification = [
        ('NUMBER',   r'\d+(\.\d*)?'),  # Integer or decimal number
        ('ASSIGN',   r':='),           # Assignment operator
        ('END',      r';'),            # Statement terminator
        ('ID',       r'[A-Za-z]+'),    # Identifiers
        ('OP',       r'[+\-*/]'),      # Arithmetic operators
        ('NEWLINE',  r'\n'),           # Line endings
        ('SKIP',     r'[ \t]+'),       # Skip over spaces and tabs
        ('MISMATCH', r'.'),            # Any other character
    ]
    tok_regex = '|'.join('(?P<%s>%s)' % pair for pair in token_specification)
    line_num = 1
    line_start = 0
    for mo in re.finditer(tok_regex, code):
        kind = mo.lastgroup
        value = mo.group()
        column = mo.start() - line_start
        if kind == 'NUMBER':
            value = float(value) if '.' in value else int(value)
        elif kind == 'ID' and value in keywords:
            kind = value
        elif kind == 'NEWLINE':
            line_start = mo.end()
            line_num += 1
            continue
        elif kind == 'SKIP':
            continue
        elif kind == 'MISMATCH':
            raise RuntimeError(f'{value!r} unexpected on line {line_num}')
        yield Token(kind, value, line_num, column)

statements = '''
    IF quantity THEN
        total := total + price * quantity;
        tax := price * 0.05;
    ENDIF;
'''

for token in tokenize(statements):
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
    print(token)
```

The tokenizer produces the following output:

```
Token(type='IF', value='IF', line=2, column=4)
Token(type='ID', value='quantity', line=2, column=7)
Token(type='THEN', value='THEN', line=2, column=16)
Token(type='ID', value='total', line=3, column=8)
Token(type='ASSIGN', value=':=', line=3, column=14)
Token(type='ID', value='total', line=3, column=17)
Token(type='OP', value='+', line=3, column=23)
Token(type='ID', value='price', line=3, column=25)
Token(type='OP', value='*', line=3, column=31)
Token(type='ID', value='quantity', line=3, column=33)
Token(type='END', value=';', line=3, column=41)
Token(type='ID', value='tax', line=4, column=8)
Token(type='ASSIGN', value=':=', line=4, column=12)
Token(type='ID', value='price', line=4, column=15)
Token(type='OP', value='*', line=4, column=21)
Token(type='NUMBER', value=0.05, line=4, column=23)
Token(type='END', value=';', line=4, column=27)
Token(type='ENDIF', value='ENDIF', line=5, column=4)
Token(type='END', value=';', line=5, column=9)
```

6.3 `difflib` — Helpers for computing deltas

Source code: Lib/difflib.py

This module provides classes and functions for comparing sequences. It can be used for example, for comparing files, and can produce information about file differences in various formats, including HTML and context and unified diffs. For comparing directories and files, see also, the *filecmp* module.

class difflib.**SequenceMatcher**

This is a flexible class for comparing pairs of sequences of any type, so long as the sequence elements are *hashable*. The basic algorithm predates, and is a little fancier than, an algorithm published in the late 1980's by Ratcliff and Obershelp under the hyperbolic name "gestalt pattern matching." The idea is to find the longest contiguous matching subsequence that contains no "junk" elements; these "junk" elements are ones that are uninteresting in some sense, such as blank lines or whitespace. (Handling junk is an extension to the Ratcliff and Obershelp algorithm.) The same idea is then applied recursively to the pieces of the sequences to the left and to the right of the matching subsequence. This does not yield minimal edit sequences, but does tend to yield matches that "look right" to people.

Timing: The basic Ratcliff-Obershelp algorithm is cubic time in the worst case and quadratic time in the expected case. *SequenceMatcher* is quadratic time for the worst case and has expected-case behavior dependent in a complicated way on how many elements the sequences have in common; best case time is linear.

Automatic junk heuristic: *SequenceMatcher* supports a heuristic that automatically treats certain sequence items as junk. The heuristic counts how many times each individual item appears in the sequence. If an item's duplicates (after the first one) account for more than 1% of the sequence and the sequence is at least 200 items long, this item is marked as "popular" and is treated as junk for the purpose of sequence matching. This heuristic can be turned off by setting the `autojunk` argument to `False` when creating the *SequenceMatcher*.

New in version 3.2: The *autojunk* parameter.

class difflib.**Differ**

This is a class for comparing sequences of lines of text, and producing human-readable differences or deltas. Differ uses *SequenceMatcher* both to compare sequences of lines, and to compare sequences of characters within similar (near-matching) lines.

Each line of a *Differ* delta begins with a two-letter code:

Code	Meaning
'- '	line unique to sequence 1
'+ '	line unique to sequence 2
' '	line common to both sequences
'? '	line not present in either input sequence

Lines beginning with '?' attempt to guide the eye to intraline differences, and were not present in either input sequence. These lines can be confusing if the sequences contain tab characters.

class difflib.**HtmlDiff**

This class can be used to create an HTML table (or a complete HTML file containing the table) showing a side by side, line by line comparison of text with inter-line and intra-line change highlights. The table can be generated in either full or contextual difference mode.

The constructor for this class is:

__init__(*tabsize=8*, *wrapcolumn=None*, *linejunk=None*, *charjunk=IS_CHARACTER_JUNK*)

Initializes instance of *HtmlDiff*.

tabsize is an optional keyword argument to specify tab stop spacing and defaults to 8.

wrapcolumn is an optional keyword to specify column number where lines are broken and wrapped, defaults to None where lines are not wrapped.

linejunk and *charjunk* are optional keyword arguments passed into *ndiff()* (used by *HtmlDiff* to generate the side by side HTML differences). See *ndiff()* documentation for argument default values and descriptions.

The following methods are public:

make_file(*fromlines*, *tolines*, *fromdesc=''*, *todesc=''*, *context=False*, *numlines=5*, ***, *charset='utf-8'*)

Compares *fromlines* and *tolines* (lists of strings) and returns a string which is a complete HTML file containing a table showing line by line differences with inter-line and intra-line changes highlighted.

fromdesc and *todesc* are optional keyword arguments to specify from/to file column header strings (both default to an empty string).

context and *numlines* are both optional keyword arguments. Set *context* to True when contextual differences are to be shown, else the default is False to show the full files. *numlines* defaults to 5. When *context* is True *numlines* controls the number of context lines which surround the difference highlights. When *context* is False *numlines* controls the number of lines which are shown before a difference highlight when using the "next" hyperlinks (setting to zero would cause the "next" hyperlinks to place the next difference highlight at the top of the browser without any leading context).

Note: *fromdesc* and *todesc* are interpreted as unescaped HTML and should be properly escaped while receiving input from untrusted sources.

Changed in version 3.5: *charset* keyword-only argument was added. The default charset of HTML document changed from 'ISO-8859-1' to 'utf-8'.

make_table(*fromlines*, *tolines*, *fromdesc=''*, *todesc=''*, *context=False*, *numlines=5*)

Compares *fromlines* and *tolines* (lists of strings) and returns a string which is a complete HTML table showing line by line differences with inter-line and intra-line changes highlighted.

The arguments for this method are the same as those for the `make_file()` method.

`Tools/scripts/diff.py` is a command-line front-end to this class and contains a good example of its use.

difflib.**context_diff**(*a*, *b*, *fromfile=''*, *tofile=''*, *fromfiledate=''*, *tofiledate=''*, *n=3*, *lineterm='\n'*)

Compare *a* and *b* (lists of strings); return a delta (a *generator* generating the delta lines) in context diff format.

Context diffs are a compact way of showing just the lines that have changed plus a few lines of context. The changes are shown in a before/after style. The number of context lines is set by *n* which defaults to three.

By default, the diff control lines (those with `***` or `---`) are created with a trailing newline. This is helpful so that inputs created from `io.IOBase.readlines()` result in diffs that are suitable for use with `io.IOBase.writelines()` since both the inputs and outputs have trailing newlines.

For inputs that do not have trailing newlines, set the *lineterm* argument to `""` so that the output will be uniformly newline free.

The context diff format normally has a header for filenames and modification times. Any or all of these may be specified using strings for *fromfile*, *tofile*, *fromfiledate*, and *tofiledate*. The modification times are normally expressed in the ISO 8601 format. If not specified, the strings default to blanks.

```
>>> s1 = ['bacon\n', 'eggs\n', 'ham\n', 'guido\n']
>>> s2 = ['python\n', 'eggy\n', 'hamster\n', 'guido\n']
>>> sys.stdout.writelines(context_diff(s1, s2, fromfile='before.py', tofile=
↪'after.py'))
*** before.py
--- after.py
***************
*** 1,4 ****
! bacon
! eggs
! ham
  guido
--- 1,4 ----
! python
! eggy
! hamster
  guido
```

See *A command-line interface to difflib* for a more detailed example.

difflib.**get_close_matches**(*word*, *possibilities*, *n=3*, *cutoff=0.6*)

Return a list of the best "good enough" matches. *word* is a sequence for which close matches are desired (typically a string), and *possibilities* is a list of sequences against which to match *word* (typically a list of strings).

Optional argument *n* (default `3`) is the maximum number of close matches to return; *n* must be greater than `0`.

Optional argument *cutoff* (default `0.6`) is a float in the range [0, 1]. Possibilities that don't score at least that similar to *word* are ignored.

The best (no more than *n*) matches among the possibilities are returned in a list, sorted by similarity score, most similar first.

```
>>> get_close_matches('appel', ['ape', 'apple', 'peach', 'puppy'])
['apple', 'ape']
>>> import keyword
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
>>> get_close_matches('wheel', keyword.kwlist)
['while']
>>> get_close_matches('pineapple', keyword.kwlist)
[]
>>> get_close_matches('accept', keyword.kwlist)
['except']
```

difflib.**ndiff**(*a*, *b*, *linejunk=None*, *charjunk=IS_CHARACTER_JUNK*)

Compare *a* and *b* (lists of strings); return a *Differ*-style delta (a *generator* generating the delta lines).

Optional keyword parameters *linejunk* and *charjunk* are filtering functions (or `None`):

linejunk: A function that accepts a single string argument, and returns true if the string is junk, or false if not. The default is `None`. There is also a module-level function *IS_LINE_JUNK()*, which filters out lines without visible characters, except for at most one pound character (`'#'`) – however the underlying *SequenceMatcher* class does a dynamic analysis of which lines are so frequent as to constitute noise, and this usually works better than using this function.

charjunk: A function that accepts a character (a string of length 1), and returns if the character is junk, or false if not. The default is module-level function *IS_CHARACTER_JUNK()*, which filters out whitespace characters (a blank or tab; it's a bad idea to include newline in this!).

`Tools/scripts/ndiff.py` is a command-line front-end to this function.

```
>>> diff = ndiff('one\ntwo\nthree\n'.splitlines(keepends=True),
...              'ore\ntree\nemu\n'.splitlines(keepends=True))
>>> print(''.join(diff), end="")
- one
?  ^
+ ore
?  ^
- two
- three
?  -
+ tree
+ emu
```

difflib.**restore**(*sequence*, *which*)

Return one of the two sequences that generated a delta.

Given a *sequence* produced by *Differ.compare()* or *ndiff()*, extract lines originating from file 1 or 2 (parameter *which*), stripping off line prefixes.

Example:

```
>>> diff = ndiff('one\ntwo\nthree\n'.splitlines(keepends=True),
...              'ore\ntree\nemu\n'.splitlines(keepends=True))
>>> diff = list(diff) # materialize the generated delta into a list
>>> print(''.join(restore(diff, 1)), end="")
one
two
three
>>> print(''.join(restore(diff, 2)), end="")
ore
tree
emu
```

difflib.**unified_diff**(*a*, *b*, *fromfile=''*, *tofile=''*, *fromfiledate=''*, *tofiledate=''*, *n=3*, *lineterm='\n'*)

Compare *a* and *b* (lists of strings); return a delta (a *generator* generating the delta lines) in unified diff format.

Unified diffs are a compact way of showing just the lines that have changed plus a few lines of context. The changes are shown in an inline style (instead of separate before/after blocks). The number of context lines is set by *n* which defaults to three.

By default, the diff control lines (those with `---`, `+++`, or `@@`) are created with a trailing newline. This is helpful so that inputs created from `io.IOBase.readlines()` result in diffs that are suitable for use with `io.IOBase.writelines()` since both the inputs and outputs have trailing newlines.

For inputs that do not have trailing newlines, set the *lineterm* argument to `""` so that the output will be uniformly newline free.

The context diff format normally has a header for filenames and modification times. Any or all of these may be specified using strings for *fromfile*, *tofile*, *fromfiledate*, and *tofiledate*. The modification times are normally expressed in the ISO 8601 format. If not specified, the strings default to blanks.

```
>>> s1 = ['bacon\n', 'eggs\n', 'ham\n', 'guido\n']
>>> s2 = ['python\n', 'eggy\n', 'hamster\n', 'guido\n']
>>> sys.stdout.writelines(unified_diff(s1, s2, fromfile='before.py', tofile=
↪'after.py'))
--- before.py
+++ after.py
@@ -1,4 +1,4 @@
-bacon
-eggs
-ham
+python
+eggy
+hamster
 guido
```

See *A command-line interface to difflib* for a more detailed example.

difflib.**diff_bytes**(*dfunc*, *a*, *b*, *fromfile=b''*, *tofile=b''*, *fromfiledate=b''*, *tofiledate=b''*, *n=3*, *lineterm=b'\n'*)

Compare *a* and *b* (lists of bytes objects) using *dfunc*; yield a sequence of delta lines (also bytes) in the format returned by *dfunc*. *dfunc* must be a callable, typically either `unified_diff()` or `context_diff()`.

Allows you to compare data with unknown or inconsistent encoding. All inputs except *n* must be bytes objects, not str. Works by losslessly converting all inputs (except *n*) to str, and calling `dfunc(a, b, fromfile, tofile, fromfiledate, tofiledate, n, lineterm)`. The output of *dfunc* is then converted back to bytes, so the delta lines that you receive have the same unknown/inconsistent encodings as *a* and *b*.

New in version 3.5.

difflib.**IS_LINE_JUNK**(*line*)

Return `True` for ignorable lines. The line *line* is ignorable if *line* is blank or contains a single `'#'`, otherwise it is not ignorable. Used as a default for parameter *linejunk* in `ndiff()` in older versions.

difflib.**IS_CHARACTER_JUNK**(*ch*)

Return `True` for ignorable characters. The character *ch* is ignorable if *ch* is a space or tab, otherwise it is not ignorable. Used as a default for parameter *charjunk* in `ndiff()`.

See also:

Pattern Matching: The Gestalt Approach Discussion of a similar algorithm by John W. Ratcliff and D. E. Metzener. This was published in Dr. Dobb's Journal in July, 1988.

6.3.1 SequenceMatcher Objects

The *SequenceMatcher* class has this constructor:

class difflib.**SequenceMatcher**(*isjunk=None*, *a=''*, *b=''*, *autojunk=True*)

Optional argument *isjunk* must be `None` (the default) or a one-argument function that takes a sequence element and returns true if and only if the element is "junk" and should be ignored. Passing `None` for *isjunk* is equivalent to passing `lambda x: False`; in other words, no elements are ignored. For example, pass:

```
lambda x: x in " \t"
```

if you're comparing lines as sequences of characters, and don't want to synch up on blanks or hard tabs.

The optional arguments *a* and *b* are sequences to be compared; both default to empty strings. The elements of both sequences must be *hashable*.

The optional argument *autojunk* can be used to disable the automatic junk heuristic.

New in version 3.2: The *autojunk* parameter.

SequenceMatcher objects get three data attributes: *bjunk* is the set of elements of *b* for which *isjunk* is `True`; *bpopular* is the set of non-junk elements considered popular by the heuristic (if it is not disabled); *b2j* is a dict mapping the remaining elements of *b* to a list of positions where they occur. All three are reset whenever *b* is reset with *set_seqs()* or *set_seq2()*.

New in version 3.2: The *bjunk* and *bpopular* attributes.

SequenceMatcher objects have the following methods:

set_seqs(*a*, *b*)

Set the two sequences to be compared.

SequenceMatcher computes and caches detailed information about the second sequence, so if you want to compare one sequence against many sequences, use *set_seq2()* to set the commonly used sequence once and call *set_seq1()* repeatedly, once for each of the other sequences.

set_seq1(*a*)

Set the first sequence to be compared. The second sequence to be compared is not changed.

set_seq2(*b*)

Set the second sequence to be compared. The first sequence to be compared is not changed.

find_longest_match(*alo=0*, *ahi=None*, *blo=0*, *bhi=None*)

Find longest matching block in `a[alo:ahi]` and `b[blo:bhi]`.

If *isjunk* was omitted or `None`, *find_longest_match()* returns `(i, j, k)` such that `a[i:i+k]` is equal to `b[j:j+k]`, where `alo <= i <= i+k <= ahi` and `blo <= j <= j+k <= bhi`. For all `(i', j', k')` meeting those conditions, the additional conditions `k >= k'`, `i <= i'`, and if `i == i'`, `j <= j'` are also met. In other words, of all maximal matching blocks, return one that starts earliest in *a*, and of all those maximal matching blocks that start earliest in *a*, return the one that starts earliest in *b*.

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(None, " abcd", "abcd abcd")
>>> s.find_longest_match(0, 5, 0, 9)
Match(a=0, b=4, size=5)
```

If *isjunk* was provided, first the longest matching block is determined as above, but with the additional restriction that no junk element appears in the block. Then that block is extended as far as possible by matching (only) junk elements on both sides. So the resulting block never matches on junk except as identical junk happens to be adjacent to an interesting match.

Here's the same example as before, but considering blanks to be junk. That prevents `' abcd'` from matching the `' abcd'` at the tail end of the second sequence directly. Instead only the `'abcd'` can match, and matches the leftmost `'abcd'` in the second sequence:

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(lambda x: x==" ", " abcd", "abcd abcd")
>>> s.find_longest_match(0, 5, 0, 9)
Match(a=1, b=0, size=4)
```

If no blocks match, this returns `(alo, blo, 0)`.

This method returns a *named tuple* `Match(a, b, size)`.

Changed in version 3.9: Added default arguments.

get_matching_blocks()

Return list of triples describing non-overlapping matching subsequences. Each triple is of the form `(i, j, n)`, and means that `a[i:i+n] == b[j:j+n]`. The triples are monotonically increasing in *i* and *j*.

The last triple is a dummy, and has the value `(len(a), len(b), 0)`. It is the only triple with `n == 0`. If `(i, j, n)` and `(i', j', n')` are adjacent triples in the list, and the second is not the last triple in the list, then `i+n < i'` or `j+n < j'`; in other words, adjacent triples always describe non-adjacent equal blocks.

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(None, "abxcd", "abcd")
>>> s.get_matching_blocks()
[Match(a=0, b=0, size=2), Match(a=3, b=2, size=2), Match(a=5, b=4, size=0)]
```

get_opcodes()

Return list of 5-tuples describing how to turn *a* into *b*. Each tuple is of the form `(tag, i1, i2, j1, j2)`. The first tuple has `i1 == j1 == 0`, and remaining tuples have *i1* equal to the *i2* from the preceding tuple, and, likewise, *j1* equal to the previous *j2*.

The *tag* values are strings, with these meanings:

Value	Meaning
`'replace'`	`a[i1:i2]` should be replaced by `b[j1:j2]`.
`'delete'`	`a[i1:i2]` should be deleted. Note that `j1 == j2` in this case.
`'insert'`	`b[j1:j2]` should be inserted at `a[i1:i1]`. Note that `i1 == i2` in this case.
`'equal'`	`a[i1:i2] == b[j1:j2]` (the sub-sequences are equal).

For example:

```
>>> a = "qabxcd"
>>> b = "abycdf"
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(None, a, b)
>>> for tag, i1, i2, j1, j2 in s.get_opcodes():
...     print('{:7}   a[{}:{}] --> b[{}:{}] {!r:>8} --> {!r}'.format(
...         tag, i1, i2, j1, j2, a[i1:i2], b[j1:j2]))
delete    a[0:1] --> b[0:0]      'q' --> ''
equal     a[1:3] --> b[0:2]     'ab' --> 'ab'
replace   a[3:4] --> b[2:3]      'x' --> 'y'
equal     a[4:6] --> b[3:5]     'cd' --> 'cd'
insert    a[6:6] --> b[5:6]       '' --> 'f'
```

get_grouped_opcodes(*n=3*)

Return a *generator* of groups with up to *n* lines of context.

Starting with the groups returned by *get_opcodes()*, this method splits out smaller change clusters and eliminates intervening ranges which have no changes.

The groups are returned in the same format as *get_opcodes()*.

ratio()

Return a measure of the sequences' similarity as a float in the range [0, 1].

Where T is the total number of elements in both sequences, and M is the number of matches, this is 2.0*M / T. Note that this is `1.0` if the sequences are identical, and `0.0` if they have nothing in common.

This is expensive to compute if *get_matching_blocks()* or *get_opcodes()* hasn't already been called, in which case you may want to try *quick_ratio()* or *real_quick_ratio()* first to get an upper bound.

Note: Caution: The result of a *ratio()* call may depend on the order of the arguments. For instance:

```
>>> SequenceMatcher(None, 'tide', 'diet').ratio()
0.25
>>> SequenceMatcher(None, 'diet', 'tide').ratio()
0.5
```

---

quick_ratio()

Return an upper bound on *ratio()* relatively quickly.

real_quick_ratio()

Return an upper bound on *ratio()* very quickly.

The three methods that return the ratio of matching to total characters can give different results due to differing levels of approximation, although `quick_ratio()` and `real_quick_ratio()` are always at least as large as `ratio()`:

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(None, "abcd", "bcde")
>>> s.ratio()
0.75
>>> s.quick_ratio()
0.75
>>> s.real_quick_ratio()
1.0
```

6.3.2 SequenceMatcher Examples

This example compares two strings, considering blanks to be "junk":

```
>>> s = SequenceMatcher(lambda x: x == " ",
...                     "private Thread currentThread;",
...                     "private volatile Thread currentThread;")
```

`ratio()` returns a float in [0, 1], measuring the similarity of the sequences. As a rule of thumb, a `ratio()` value over 0.6 means the sequences are close matches:

```
>>> print(round(s.ratio(), 3))
0.866
```

If you're only interested in where the sequences match, `get_matching_blocks()` is handy:

```
>>> for block in s.get_matching_blocks():
...     print("a[%d] and b[%d] match for %d elements" % block)
a[0] and b[0] match for 8 elements
a[8] and b[17] match for 21 elements
a[29] and b[38] match for 0 elements
```

Note that the last tuple returned by `get_matching_blocks()` is always a dummy, `(len(a), len(b), 0)`, and this is the only case in which the last tuple element (number of elements matched) is `0`.

If you want to know how to change the first sequence into the second, use `get_opcodes()`:

```
>>> for opcode in s.get_opcodes():
...     print("%6s a[%d:%d] b[%d:%d]" % opcode)
 equal a[0:8] b[0:8]
insert a[8:8] b[8:17]
 equal a[8:29] b[17:38]
```

See also:

- The *get_close_matches()* function in this module which shows how simple code building on *SequenceMatcher* can be used to do useful work.
- Simple version control recipe for a small application built with *SequenceMatcher*.

6.3.3 Differ Objects

Note that *Differ*-generated deltas make no claim to be **minimal** diffs. To the contrary, minimal diffs are often counter-intuitive, because they synch up anywhere possible, sometimes accidental matches 100 pages apart. Restricting synch points to contiguous matches preserves some notion of locality, at the occasional cost of producing a longer diff.

The *Differ* class has this constructor:

class difflib.**Differ**(*linejunk=None*, *charjunk=None*)

Optional keyword parameters *linejunk* and *charjunk* are for filter functions (or `None`):

linejunk: A function that accepts a single string argument, and returns true if the string is junk. The default is `None`, meaning that no line is considered junk.

charjunk: A function that accepts a single character argument (a string of length 1), and returns true if the character is junk. The default is `None`, meaning that no character is considered junk.

These junk-filtering functions speed up matching to find differences and do not cause any differing lines or characters to be ignored. Read the description of the *find_longest_match()* method's *isjunk* parameter for an explanation.

Differ objects are used (deltas generated) via a single method:

compare(*a*, *b*)

Compare two sequences of lines, and generate the delta (a sequence of lines).

Each sequence must contain individual single-line strings ending with newlines. Such sequences can be obtained from the *readlines()* method of file-like objects. The delta generated also consists of newline-terminated strings, ready to be printed as-is via the *writelines()* method of a file-like object.

6.3.4 Differ Example

This example compares two texts. First we set up the texts, sequences of individual single-line strings ending with newlines (such sequences can also be obtained from the `readlines()` method of file-like objects):

```
>>> text1 = '''  1. Beautiful is better than ugly.
...   2. Explicit is better than implicit.
...   3. Simple is better than complex.
...   4. Complex is better than complicated.
... '''.splitlines(keepends=True)
>>> len(text1)
4
>>> text1[0][-1]
'\n'
>>> text2 = '''  1. Beautiful is better than ugly.
...   3.   Simple is better than complex.
...   4. Complicated is better than complex.
...   5. Flat is better than nested.
... '''.splitlines(keepends=True)
```

Next we instantiate a Differ object:

```
>>> d = Differ()
```

Note that when instantiating a *Differ* object we may pass functions to filter out line and character "junk." See the *Differ()* constructor for details.

Finally, we compare the two:

```
>>> result = list(d.compare(text1, text2))
```

`result` is a list of strings, so let's pretty-print it:

```
>>> from pprint import pprint
>>> pprint(result)
['    1. Beautiful is better than ugly.\n',
 '-   2. Explicit is better than implicit.\n',
 '-   3. Simple is better than complex.\n',
 '+   3.   Simple is better than complex.\n',
 '?     ++\n',
 '-   4. Complex is better than complicated.\n',
 '?            ^                     ---- ^\n',
 '+   4. Complicated is better than complex.\n',
 '?           +++ ^                         ^\n',
 '+   5. Flat is better than nested.\n']
```

As a single multi-line string it looks like this:

```
>>> import sys
>>> sys.stdout.writelines(result)
    1. Beautiful is better than ugly.
-   2. Explicit is better than implicit.
-   3. Simple is better than complex.
+   3.   Simple is better than complex.
?     ++
-   4. Complex is better than complicated.
?            ^                     ---- ^
+   4. Complicated is better than complex.
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
?           ++++ ^                         ^
+   5. Flat is better than nested.
```

6.3.5 A command-line interface to difflib

This example shows how to use difflib to create a `diff`-like utility. It is also contained in the Python source distribution, as `Tools/scripts/diff.py`.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3
""" Command line interface to difflib.py providing diffs in four formats:

* ndiff:    lists every line and highlights interline changes.
* context:  highlights clusters of changes in a before/after format.
* unified:  highlights clusters of changes in an inline format.
* html:     generates side by side comparison with change highlights.

"""

import sys, os, difflib, argparse
from datetime import datetime, timezone

def file_mtime(path):
    t = datetime.fromtimestamp(os.stat(path).st_mtime,
                               timezone.utc)
    return t.astimezone().isoformat()

def main():

    parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
    parser.add_argument('-c', action='store_true', default=False,
                        help='Produce a context format diff (default)')
    parser.add_argument('-u', action='store_true', default=False,
                        help='Produce a unified format diff')
    parser.add_argument('-m', action='store_true', default=False,
                        help='Produce HTML side by side diff '
                             '(can use -c and -l in conjunction)')
    parser.add_argument('-n', action='store_true', default=False,
                        help='Produce a ndiff format diff')
    parser.add_argument('-l', '--lines', type=int, default=3,
                        help='Set number of context lines (default 3)')
    parser.add_argument('fromfile')
    parser.add_argument('tofile')
    options = parser.parse_args()

    n = options.lines
    fromfile = options.fromfile
    tofile = options.tofile

    fromdate = file_mtime(fromfile)
    todate = file_mtime(tofile)
    with open(fromfile) as ff:
        fromlines = ff.readlines()
    with open(tofile) as tf:
        tolines = tf.readlines()
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
    if options.u:
        diff = difflib.unified_diff(fromlines, tolines, fromfile, tofile, fromdate,␣
↪todate, n=n)
    elif options.n:
        diff = difflib.ndiff(fromlines, tolines)
    elif options.m:
        diff = difflib.HtmlDiff().make_file(fromlines,tolines,fromfile,tofile,
↪context=options.c,numlines=n)
    else:
        diff = difflib.context_diff(fromlines, tolines, fromfile, tofile, fromdate,␣
↪todate, n=n)

    sys.stdout.writelines(diff)

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

6.4 `textwrap` — Text wrapping and filling

Source code: Lib/textwrap.py

The *textwrap* module provides some convenience functions, as well as *TextWrapper*, the class that does all the work. If you're just wrapping or filling one or two text strings, the convenience functions should be good enough; otherwise, you should use an instance of *TextWrapper* for efficiency.

textwrap.**wrap**(*text*, *width=70*, ***, *initial_indent=''*, *subsequent_indent=''*, *expand_tabs=True*, *replace_whitespace=True*, *fix_sentence_endings=False*, *break_long_words=True*, *drop_whitespace=True*, *break_on_hyphens=True*, *tabsize=8*, *max_lines=None*, *placeholder=' [...]'*)

Wraps the single paragraph in *text* (a string) so every line is at most *width* characters long. Returns a list of output lines, without final newlines.

Optional keyword arguments correspond to the instance attributes of *TextWrapper*, documented below.

See the *TextWrapper.wrap()* method for additional details on how *wrap()* behaves.

textwrap.**fill**(*text*, *width=70*, ***, *initial_indent=''*, *subsequent_indent=''*, *expand_tabs=True*, *replace_whitespace=True*, *fix_sentence_endings=False*, *break_long_words=True*, *drop_whitespace=True*, *break_on_hyphens=True*, *tabsize=8*, *max_lines=None*, *placeholder=' [...]'*)

Wraps the single paragraph in *text*, and returns a single string containing the wrapped paragraph. *fill()* is shorthand for

```
"\n".join(wrap(text, ...))
```

In particular, *fill()* accepts exactly the same keyword arguments as *wrap()*.

textwrap.**shorten**(*text*, *width*, ***, *fix_sentence_endings=False*, *break_long_words=True*, *break_on_hyphens=True*, *placeholder=' [...]'*)

Collapse and truncate the given *text* to fit in the given *width*.

First the whitespace in *text* is collapsed (all whitespace is replaced by single spaces). If the result fits in the *width*, it is returned. Otherwise, enough words are dropped from the end so that the remaining words plus the *placeholder* fit within *width*:

```
>>> textwrap.shorten("Hello  world!", width=12)
'Hello world!'
>>> textwrap.shorten("Hello  world!", width=11)
'Hello [...]'
>>> textwrap.shorten("Hello world", width=10, placeholder="...")
'Hello...'
```

Optional keyword arguments correspond to the instance attributes of *TextWrapper*, documented below. Note that the whitespace is collapsed before the text is passed to the *TextWrapper* *fill()* function, so changing the value of *tabsize*, *expand_tabs*, *drop_whitespace*, and *replace_whitespace* will have no effect.

New in version 3.4.

textwrap.**dedent**(*text*)

Remove any common leading whitespace from every line in *text*.

This can be used to make triple-quoted strings line up with the left edge of the display, while still presenting them in the source code in indented form.

Note that tabs and spaces are both treated as whitespace, but they are not equal: the lines `"  hello"` and `"\thello"` are considered to have no common leading whitespace.

Lines containing only whitespace are ignored in the input and normalized to a single newline character in the output.

For example:

```
def test():
    # end first line with \ to avoid the empty line!
    s = '''\
    hello
      world
    '''
    print(repr(s))          # prints '    hello\n      world\n    '
    print(repr(dedent(s)))  # prints 'hello\n  world\n'
```

textwrap.**indent**(*text*, *prefix*, *predicate=None*)

Add *prefix* to the beginning of selected lines in *text*.

Lines are separated by calling `text.splitlines(True)`.

By default, *prefix* is added to all lines that do not consist solely of whitespace (including any line endings).

For example:

```
>>> s = 'hello\n\n \nworld'
>>> indent(s, '  ')
'  hello\n\n \n  world'
```

The optional *predicate* argument can be used to control which lines are indented. For example, it is easy to add *prefix* to even empty and whitespace-only lines:

```
>>> print(indent(s, '+ ', lambda line: True))
+ hello
+
+
+ world
```

New in version 3.3.

wrap(), *fill()* and *shorten()* work by creating a *TextWrapper* instance and calling a single method on it. That instance is not reused, so for applications that process many text strings using *wrap()* and/or *fill()*, it may be more efficient to create your own *TextWrapper* object.

Text is preferably wrapped on whitespaces and right after the hyphens in hyphenated words; only then will long words be broken if necessary, unless *TextWrapper.break_long_words* is set to false.

class textwrap.**TextWrapper**(***kwargs*)

The *TextWrapper* constructor accepts a number of optional keyword arguments. Each keyword argument corresponds to an instance attribute, so for example

```
wrapper = TextWrapper(initial_indent="* ")
```

is the same as

```
wrapper = TextWrapper()
wrapper.initial_indent = "* "
```

You can re-use the same *TextWrapper* object many times, and you can change any of its options through direct assignment to instance attributes between uses.

The *TextWrapper* instance attributes (and keyword arguments to the constructor) are as follows:

width

(default: `70`) The maximum length of wrapped lines. As long as there are no individual words in the input text longer than *width*, *TextWrapper* guarantees that no output line will be longer than *width* characters.

expand_tabs

(default: `True`) If true, then all tab characters in *text* will be expanded to spaces using the *expandtabs()* method of *text*.

tabsize

(default: `8`) If *expand_tabs* is true, then all tab characters in *text* will be expanded to zero or more spaces, depending on the current column and the given tab size.

New in version 3.3.

replace_whitespace

(default: `True`) If true, after tab expansion but before wrapping, the *wrap()* method will replace each whitespace character with a single space. The whitespace characters replaced are as follows: tab, newline, vertical tab, formfeed, and carriage return (`'\t\n\v\f\r'`).

Note: If *expand_tabs* is false and *replace_whitespace* is true, each tab character will be replaced by a single space, which is *not* the same as tab expansion.

Note: If *replace_whitespace* is false, newlines may appear in the middle of a line and cause strange output. For this reason, text should be split into paragraphs (using *str.splitlines()* or similar) which are wrapped separately.

---

drop_whitespace

(default: `True`) If true, whitespace at the beginning and ending of every line (after wrapping but before indenting) is dropped. Whitespace at the beginning of the paragraph, however, is not dropped if non-whitespace follows it. If whitespace being dropped takes up an entire line, the whole line is dropped.

initial_indent

(default: `''`) String that will be prepended to the first line of wrapped output. Counts towards the length of the first line. The empty string is not indented.

subsequent_indent

(default: `''`) String that will be prepended to all lines of wrapped output except the first. Counts towards the length of each line except the first.

fix_sentence_endings

(default: `False`) If true, *TextWrapper* attempts to detect sentence endings and ensure that sentences are always separated by exactly two spaces. This is generally desired for text in a monospaced font. However, the sentence detection algorithm is imperfect: it assumes that a sentence ending consists of a lowercase letter followed by one of `'.'`, `'!'`, or `'?'`, possibly followed by one of `'"'` or `"'"`, followed by a space. One problem with this is algorithm is that it is unable to detect the difference between "Dr." in

```
[...] Dr. Frankenstein's monster [...]
```

and "Spot." in

```
[...] See Spot. See Spot run [...]
```

fix_sentence_endings is false by default.

Since the sentence detection algorithm relies on `string.lowercase` for the definition of "lowercase letter", and a convention of using two spaces after a period to separate sentences on the same line, it is specific to English-language texts.

break_long_words

(default: `True`) If true, then words longer than *width* will be broken in order to ensure that no lines are longer than *width*. If it is false, long words will not be broken, and some lines may be longer than *width*. (Long words will be put on a line by themselves, in order to minimize the amount by which *width* is exceeded.)

break_on_hyphens

(default: `True`) If true, wrapping will occur preferably on whitespaces and right after hyphens in compound words, as it is customary in English. If false, only whitespaces will be considered as potentially good places for line breaks, but you need to set *break_long_words* to false if you want truly insecable words. Default behaviour in previous versions was to always allow breaking hyphenated words.

max_lines

(default: `None`) If not `None`, then the output will contain at most *max_lines* lines, with *placeholder* appearing at the end of the output.

New in version 3.4.

placeholder

(default: `' [...]'`) String that will appear at the end of the output text if it has been truncated.

New in version 3.4.

TextWrapper also provides some public methods, analogous to the module-level convenience functions:

wrap(*text*)

Wraps the single paragraph in *text* (a string) so every line is at most *width* characters long. All wrapping options are taken from instance attributes of the *TextWrapper* instance. Returns a list of output lines, without final newlines. If the wrapped output has no content, the returned list is empty.

fill(*text*)

Wraps the single paragraph in *text*, and returns a single string containing the wrapped paragraph.

6.5 unicodedata — Unicode Database

This module provides access to the Unicode Character Database (UCD) which defines character properties for all Unicode characters. The data contained in this database is compiled from the UCD version 14.0.0.

The module uses the same names and symbols as defined by Unicode Standard Annex #44, "Unicode Character Database". It defines the following functions:

unicodedata.**lookup**(*name*)

Look up character by name. If a character with the given name is found, return the corresponding character. If not found, *KeyError* is raised.

Changed in version 3.3: Support for name aliases[1] and named sequences[2] has been added.

unicodedata.**name**(*chr*[, *default*])

Returns the name assigned to the character *chr* as a string. If no name is defined, *default* is returned, or, if not given, *ValueError* is raised.

unicodedata.**decimal**(*chr*[, *default*])

Returns the decimal value assigned to the character *chr* as integer. If no such value is defined, *default* is returned, or, if not given, *ValueError* is raised.

unicodedata.**digit**(*chr*[, *default*])

Returns the digit value assigned to the character *chr* as integer. If no such value is defined, *default* is returned, or, if not given, *ValueError* is raised.

unicodedata.**numeric**(*chr*[, *default*])

Returns the numeric value assigned to the character *chr* as float. If no such value is defined, *default* is returned, or, if not given, *ValueError* is raised.

unicodedata.**category**(*chr*)

Returns the general category assigned to the character *chr* as string.

unicodedata.**bidirectional**(*chr*)

Returns the bidirectional class assigned to the character *chr* as string. If no such value is defined, an empty string is returned.

unicodedata.**combining**(*chr*)

Returns the canonical combining class assigned to the character *chr* as integer. Returns `0` if no combining class is defined.

unicodedata.**east_asian_width**(*chr*)

Returns the east asian width assigned to the character *chr* as string.

unicodedata.**mirrored**(*chr*)

Returns the mirrored property assigned to the character *chr* as integer. Returns `1` if the character has been identified as a "mirrored" character in bidirectional text, `0` otherwise.

unicodedata.**decomposition**(*chr*)

Returns the character decomposition mapping assigned to the character *chr* as string. An empty string is returned in case no such mapping is defined.

[1] https://www.unicode.org/Public/14.0.0/ucd/NameAliases.txt
[2] https://www.unicode.org/Public/14.0.0/ucd/NamedSequences.txt

unicodedata.**normalize**(*form*, *unistr*)

Return the normal form *form* for the Unicode string *unistr*. Valid values for *form* are 'NFC', 'NFKC', 'NFD', and 'NFKD'.

The Unicode standard defines various normalization forms of a Unicode string, based on the definition of canonical equivalence and compatibility equivalence. In Unicode, several characters can be expressed in various way. For example, the character U+00C7 (LATIN CAPITAL LETTER C WITH CEDILLA) can also be expressed as the sequence U+0043 (LATIN CAPITAL LETTER C) U+0327 (COMBINING CEDILLA).

For each character, there are two normal forms: normal form C and normal form D. Normal form D (NFD) is also known as canonical decomposition, and translates each character into its decomposed form. Normal form C (NFC) first applies a canonical decomposition, then composes pre-combined characters again.

In addition to these two forms, there are two additional normal forms based on compatibility equivalence. In Unicode, certain characters are supported which normally would be unified with other characters. For example, U+2160 (ROMAN NUMERAL ONE) is really the same thing as U+0049 (LATIN CAPITAL LETTER I). However, it is supported in Unicode for compatibility with existing character sets (e.g. gb2312).

The normal form KD (NFKD) will apply the compatibility decomposition, i.e. replace all compatibility characters with their equivalents. The normal form KC (NFKC) first applies the compatibility decomposition, followed by the canonical composition.

Even if two unicode strings are normalized and look the same to a human reader, if one has combining characters and the other doesn't, they may not compare equal.

unicodedata.**is_normalized**(*form*, *unistr*)

Return whether the Unicode string *unistr* is in the normal form *form*. Valid values for *form* are 'NFC', 'NFKC', 'NFD', and 'NFKD'.

New in version 3.8.

In addition, the module exposes the following constant:

unicodedata.**unidata_version**

The version of the Unicode database used in this module.

unicodedata.**ucd_3_2_0**

This is an object that has the same methods as the entire module, but uses the Unicode database version 3.2 instead, for applications that require this specific version of the Unicode database (such as IDNA).

Examples:

```
>>> import unicodedata
>>> unicodedata.lookup('LEFT CURLY BRACKET')
'{'
>>> unicodedata.name('/')
'SOLIDUS'
>>> unicodedata.decimal('9')
9
>>> unicodedata.decimal('a')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: not a decimal
>>> unicodedata.category('A')  # 'L'etter, 'u'ppercase
'Lu'
>>> unicodedata.bidirectional('\u0660') # 'A'rabic, 'N'umber
'AN'
```

6.6 stringprep — Internet String Preparation

Source code: Lib/stringprep.py

When identifying things (such as host names) in the internet, it is often necessary to compare such identifications for "equality". Exactly how this comparison is executed may depend on the application domain, e.g. whether it should be case-insensitive or not. It may be also necessary to restrict the possible identifications, to allow only identifications consisting of "printable" characters.

RFC 3454 defines a procedure for "preparing" Unicode strings in internet protocols. Before passing strings onto the wire, they are processed with the preparation procedure, after which they have a certain normalized form. The RFC defines a set of tables, which can be combined into profiles. Each profile must define which tables it uses, and what other optional parts of the `stringprep` procedure are part of the profile. One example of a `stringprep` profile is `nameprep`, which is used for internationalized domain names.

The module *stringprep* only exposes the tables from RFC 3454. As these tables would be very large to represent them as dictionaries or lists, the module uses the Unicode character database internally. The module source code itself was generated using the `mkstringprep.py` utility.

As a result, these tables are exposed as functions, not as data structures. There are two kinds of tables in the RFC: sets and mappings. For a set, *stringprep* provides the "characteristic function", i.e. a function that returns `True` if the parameter is part of the set. For mappings, it provides the mapping function: given the key, it returns the associated value. Below is a list of all functions available in the module.

`stringprep.`**`in_table_a1`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableA.1 (Unassigned code points in Unicode 3.2).

`stringprep.`**`in_table_b1`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableB.1 (Commonly mapped to nothing).

`stringprep.`**`map_table_b2`**(*code*)
: Return the mapped value for *code* according to tableB.2 (Mapping for case-folding used with NFKC).

`stringprep.`**`map_table_b3`**(*code*)
: Return the mapped value for *code* according to tableB.3 (Mapping for case-folding used with no normalization).

`stringprep.`**`in_table_c11`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableC.1.1 (ASCII space characters).

`stringprep.`**`in_table_c12`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableC.1.2 (Non-ASCII space characters).

`stringprep.`**`in_table_c11_c12`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableC.1 (Space characters, union of C.1.1 and C.1.2).

`stringprep.`**`in_table_c21`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableC.2.1 (ASCII control characters).

`stringprep.`**`in_table_c22`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableC.2.2 (Non-ASCII control characters).

`stringprep.`**`in_table_c21_c22`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableC.2 (Control characters, union of C.2.1 and C.2.2).

`stringprep.`**`in_table_c3`**(*code*)
: Determine whether *code* is in tableC.3 (Private use).

stringprep.**in_table_c4**(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.4 (Non-character code points).

stringprep.**in_table_c5**(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.5 (Surrogate codes).

stringprep.**in_table_c6**(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.6 (Inappropriate for plain text).

stringprep.**in_table_c7**(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.7 (Inappropriate for canonical representation).

stringprep.**in_table_c8**(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.8 (Change display properties or are deprecated).

stringprep.**in_table_c9**(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableC.9 (Tagging characters).

stringprep.**in_table_d1**(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableD.1 (Characters with bidirectional property "R" or "AL").

stringprep.**in_table_d2**(*code*)

Determine whether *code* is in tableD.2 (Characters with bidirectional property "L").

6.7 readline — GNU readline interface

The *readline* module defines a number of functions to facilitate completion and reading/writing of history files from the Python interpreter. This module can be used directly, or via the *rlcompleter* module, which supports completion of Python identifiers at the interactive prompt. Settings made using this module affect the behaviour of both the interpreter's interactive prompt and the prompts offered by the built-in *input()* function.

Readline keybindings may be configured via an initialization file, typically `.inputrc` in your home directory. See Readline Init File in the GNU Readline manual for information about the format and allowable constructs of that file, and the capabilities of the Readline library in general.

Note: The underlying Readline library API may be implemented by the `libedit` library instead of GNU readline. On macOS the *readline* module detects which library is being used at run time.

The configuration file for `libedit` is different from that of GNU readline. If you programmatically load configuration strings you can check for the text "libedit" in `readline.__doc__` to differentiate between GNU readline and libedit.

If you use *editline*/`libedit` readline emulation on macOS, the initialization file located in your home directory is named `.editrc`. For example, the following content in `~/.editrc` will turn ON *vi* keybindings and TAB completion:

```
python:bind -v
python:bind ^I rl_complete
```

6.7.1 Init file

The following functions relate to the init file and user configuration:

readline.**parse_and_bind**(*string*)

Execute the init line provided in the *string* argument. This calls `rl_parse_and_bind()` in the underlying library.

readline.**read_init_file**([*filename*])

Execute a readline initialization file. The default filename is the last filename used. This calls `rl_read_init_file()` in the underlying library.

6.7.2 Line buffer

The following functions operate on the line buffer:

readline.**get_line_buffer**()

Return the current contents of the line buffer (`rl_line_buffer` in the underlying library).

readline.**insert_text**(*string*)

Insert text into the line buffer at the cursor position. This calls `rl_insert_text()` in the underlying library, but ignores the return value.

readline.**redisplay**()

Change what's displayed on the screen to reflect the current contents of the line buffer. This calls `rl_redisplay()` in the underlying library.

6.7.3 History file

The following functions operate on a history file:

readline.**read_history_file**([*filename*])

Load a readline history file, and append it to the history list. The default filename is `~/.history`. This calls `read_history()` in the underlying library.

readline.**write_history_file**([*filename*])

Save the history list to a readline history file, overwriting any existing file. The default filename is `~/.history`. This calls `write_history()` in the underlying library.

readline.**append_history_file**(*nelements*[, *filename*])

Append the last *nelements* items of history to a file. The default filename is `~/.history`. The file must already exist. This calls `append_history()` in the underlying library. This function only exists if Python was compiled for a version of the library that supports it.

New in version 3.5.

readline.**get_history_length**()

readline.**set_history_length**(*length*)

Set or return the desired number of lines to save in the history file. The *write_history_file()* function uses this value to truncate the history file, by calling `history_truncate_file()` in the underlying library. Negative values imply unlimited history file size.

6.7.4 History list

The following functions operate on a global history list:

readline.**clear_history**()

Clear the current history. This calls `clear_history()` in the underlying library. The Python function only exists if Python was compiled for a version of the library that supports it.

readline.**get_current_history_length**()

Return the number of items currently in the history. (This is different from *get_history_length()*, which returns the maximum number of lines that will be written to a history file.)

readline.**get_history_item**(*index*)

Return the current contents of history item at *index*. The item index is one-based. This calls `history_get()` in the underlying library.

readline.**remove_history_item**(*pos*)

Remove history item specified by its position from the history. The position is zero-based. This calls `remove_history()` in the underlying library.

readline.**replace_history_item**(*pos*, *line*)

Replace history item specified by its position with *line*. The position is zero-based. This calls `replace_history_entry()` in the underlying library.

readline.**add_history**(*line*)

Append *line* to the history buffer, as if it was the last line typed. This calls `add_history()` in the underlying library.

readline.**set_auto_history**(*enabled*)

Enable or disable automatic calls to `add_history()` when reading input via readline. The *enabled* argument should be a Boolean value that when true, enables auto history, and that when false, disables auto history.

New in version 3.6.

CPython implementation detail: Auto history is enabled by default, and changes to this do not persist across multiple sessions.

6.7.5 Startup hooks

readline.**set_startup_hook**([*function*])

Set or remove the function invoked by the `rl_startup_hook` callback of the underlying library. If *function* is specified, it will be used as the new hook function; if omitted or `None`, any function already installed is removed. The hook is called with no arguments just before readline prints the first prompt.

readline.**set_pre_input_hook**([*function*])

Set or remove the function invoked by the `rl_pre_input_hook` callback of the underlying library. If *function* is specified, it will be used as the new hook function; if omitted or `None`, any function already installed is removed. The hook is called with no arguments after the first prompt has been printed and just before readline starts reading input characters. This function only exists if Python was compiled for a version of the library that supports it.

6.7.6 Completion

The following functions relate to implementing a custom word completion function. This is typically operated by the Tab key, and can suggest and automatically complete a word being typed. By default, Readline is set up to be used by *rlcompleter* to complete Python identifiers for the interactive interpreter. If the *readline* module is to be used with a custom completer, a different set of word delimiters should be set.

readline.**set_completer**([*function*])

Set or remove the completer function. If *function* is specified, it will be used as the new completer function; if omitted or None, any completer function already installed is removed. The completer function is called as function(text, state), for *state* in 0, 1, 2, ..., until it returns a non-string value. It should return the next possible completion starting with *text*.

The installed completer function is invoked by the *entry_func* callback passed to rl_completion_matches() in the underlying library. The *text* string comes from the first parameter to the rl_attempted_completion_function callback of the underlying library.

readline.**get_completer**()

Get the completer function, or None if no completer function has been set.

readline.**get_completion_type**()

Get the type of completion being attempted. This returns the rl_completion_type variable in the underlying library as an integer.

readline.**get_begidx**()

readline.**get_endidx**()

Get the beginning or ending index of the completion scope. These indexes are the *start* and *end* arguments passed to the rl_attempted_completion_function callback of the underlying library. The values may be different in the same input editing scenario based on the underlying C readline implementation. Ex: libedit is known to behave differently than libreadline.

readline.**set_completer_delims**(*string*)

readline.**get_completer_delims**()

Set or get the word delimiters for completion. These determine the start of the word to be considered for completion (the completion scope). These functions access the rl_completer_word_break_characters variable in the underlying library.

readline.**set_completion_display_matches_hook**([*function*])

Set or remove the completion display function. If *function* is specified, it will be used as the new completion display function; if omitted or None, any completion display function already installed is removed. This sets or clears the rl_completion_display_matches_hook callback in the underlying library. The completion display function is called as function(substitution, [matches], longest_match_length) once each time matches need to be displayed.

6.7.7 Example

The following example demonstrates how to use the *readline* module's history reading and writing functions to automatically load and save a history file named .python_history from the user's home directory. The code below would normally be executed automatically during interactive sessions from the user's PYTHONSTARTUP file.

```
import atexit
import os
import readline

```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
histfile = os.path.join(os.path.expanduser("~"), ".python_history")
try:
    readline.read_history_file(histfile)
    # default history len is -1 (infinite), which may grow unruly
    readline.set_history_length(1000)
except FileNotFoundError:
    pass

atexit.register(readline.write_history_file, histfile)
```

This code is actually automatically run when Python is run in interactive mode (see *Readline configuration*).

The following example achieves the same goal but supports concurrent interactive sessions, by only appending the new history.

```
import atexit
import os
import readline
histfile = os.path.join(os.path.expanduser("~"), ".python_history")

try:
    readline.read_history_file(histfile)
    h_len = readline.get_current_history_length()
except FileNotFoundError:
    open(histfile, 'wb').close()
    h_len = 0

def save(prev_h_len, histfile):
    new_h_len = readline.get_current_history_length()
    readline.set_history_length(1000)
    readline.append_history_file(new_h_len - prev_h_len, histfile)
atexit.register(save, h_len, histfile)
```

The following example extends the *code.InteractiveConsole* class to support history save/restore.

```
import atexit
import code
import os
import readline

class HistoryConsole(code.InteractiveConsole):
    def __init__(self, locals=None, filename="<console>",
                 histfile=os.path.expanduser("~/.console-history")):
        code.InteractiveConsole.__init__(self, locals, filename)
        self.init_history(histfile)

    def init_history(self, histfile):
        readline.parse_and_bind("tab: complete")
        if hasattr(readline, "read_history_file"):
            try:
                readline.read_history_file(histfile)
            except FileNotFoundError:
                pass
            atexit.register(self.save_history, histfile)

    def save_history(self, histfile):
        readline.set_history_length(1000)
```

(continues on next page)

(continued from previous page)

```
        readline.write_history_file(histfile)
```

6.8 `rlcompleter` — Completion function for GNU readline

Source code: Lib/rlcompleter.py

The *rlcompleter* module defines a completion function suitable for the *readline* module by completing valid Python identifiers and keywords.

When this module is imported on a Unix platform with the *readline* module available, an instance of the `Completer` class is automatically created and its `complete()` method is set as the *readline* completer.

Example:

```
>>> import rlcompleter
>>> import readline
>>> readline.parse_and_bind("tab: complete")
>>> readline. <TAB PRESSED>
readline.__doc__          readline.get_line_buffer(  readline.read_init_file(
readline.__file__         readline.insert_text(      readline.set_completer(
readline.__name__         readline.parse_and_bind(
>>> readline.
```

The *rlcompleter* module is designed for use with Python's interactive mode. Unless Python is run with the `-S` option, the module is automatically imported and configured (see *Readline configuration*).

On platforms without *readline*, the `Completer` class defined by this module can still be used for custom purposes.

6.8.1 Completer Objects

Completer objects have the following method:

`Completer.`**`complete`**(*text*, *state*)

Return the *state*th completion for *text*.

If called for *text* that doesn't include a period character (`'.'`), it will complete from names currently defined in *__main__*, *builtins* and keywords (as defined by the *keyword* module).

If called for a dotted name, it will try to evaluate anything without obvious side-effects (functions will not be evaluated, but it can generate calls to `__getattr__()`) up to the last part, and find matches for the rest via the *dir()* function. Any exception raised during the evaluation of the expression is caught, silenced and *None* is returned.