

DEVELOPMENT TOOLS

The modules described in this chapter help you write software. For example, the *pydoc* module takes a module and generates documentation based on the module's contents. The *doctest* and *unittest* modules contains frameworks for writing unit tests that automatically exercise code and verify that the expected output is produced. *2to3* can translate Python 2.x source code into valid Python 3.x code.

The list of modules described in this chapter is:

27.1 typing — Support for type hints

New in version 3.5.

Source code: [Lib/typing.py](#)

Note: The typing module has been included in the standard library on a *provisional basis*. New features might be added and API may change even between minor releases if deemed necessary by the core developers.

This module supports type hints as specified by [PEP 484](#) and [PEP 526](#). The most fundamental support consists of the types *Any*, *Union*, *Tuple*, *Callable*, *TypeVar*, and *Generic*. For full specification please see [PEP 484](#). For a simplified introduction to type hints see [PEP 483](#).

The function below takes and returns a string and is annotated as follows:

```
def greeting(name: str) -> str:
    return 'Hello ' + name
```

In the function `greeting`, the argument `name` is expected to be of type `str` and the return type `str`. Subtypes are accepted as arguments.

27.1.1 Type aliases

A type alias is defined by assigning the type to the alias. In this example, `Vector` and `List[float]` will be treated as interchangeable synonyms:

```
from typing import List
Vector = List[float]

def scale(scalar: float, vector: Vector) -> Vector:
    return [scalar * num for num in vector]
```

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```
# typechecks; a list of floats qualifies as a Vector.
new_vector = scale(2.0, [1.0, -4.2, 5.4])
```

Type aliases are useful for simplifying complex type signatures. For example:

```
from typing import Dict, Tuple, Sequence

ConnectionOptions = Dict[str, str]
Address = Tuple[str, int]
Server = Tuple[Address, ConnectionOptions]

def broadcast_message(message: str, servers: Sequence[Server]) -> None:
    ...

# The static type checker will treat the previous type signature as
# being exactly equivalent to this one.
def broadcast_message(
    message: str,
    servers: Sequence[Tuple[Tuple[str, int], Dict[str, str]]]) -> None:
    ...
```

Note that `None` as a type hint is a special case and is replaced by `type(None)`.

27.1.2 NewType

Use the `NewType()` helper function to create distinct types:

```
from typing import NewType

UserId = NewType('UserId', int)
some_id = UserId(524313)
```

The static type checker will treat the new type as if it were a subclass of the original type. This is useful in helping catch logical errors:

```
def get_user_name(user_id: UserId) -> str:
    ...

# typechecks
user_a = get_user_name(UserId(42351))

# does not typecheck; an int is not a UserId
user_b = get_user_name(-1)
```

You may still perform all `int` operations on a variable of type `UserId`, but the result will always be of type `int`. This lets you pass in a `UserId` wherever an `int` might be expected, but will prevent you from accidentally creating a `UserId` in an invalid way:

```
# 'output' is of type 'int', not 'UserId'
output = UserId(23413) + UserId(54341)
```

Note that these checks are enforced only by the static type checker. At runtime the statement `Derived = NewType('Derived', Base)` will make `Derived` a function that immediately returns whatever parameter you pass it. That means the expression `Derived(some_value)` does not create a new class or introduce any overhead beyond that of a regular function call.

More precisely, the expression `some_value is Derived(some_value)` is always true at runtime.

This also means that it is not possible to create a subtype of `Derived` since it is an identity function at runtime, not an actual type:

```
from typing import NewType

UserId = NewType('UserId', int)

# Fails at runtime and does not typecheck
class AdminUserId(UserId): pass
```

However, it is possible to create a *NewType()* based on a ‘derived’ *NewType*:

```
from typing import NewType

UserId = NewType('UserId', int)

ProUserId = NewType('ProUserId', UserId)
```

and typechecking for `ProUserId` will work as expected.

See [PEP 484](#) for more details.

Note: Recall that the use of a type alias declares two types to be *equivalent* to one another. Doing `Alias = Original` will make the static type checker treat `Alias` as being *exactly equivalent* to `Original` in all cases. This is useful when you want to simplify complex type signatures.

In contrast, `NewType` declares one type to be a *subtype* of another. Doing `Derived = NewType('Derived', Original)` will make the static type checker treat `Derived` as a *subclass* of `Original`, which means a value of type `Original` cannot be used in places where a value of type `Derived` is expected. This is useful when you want to prevent logic errors with minimal runtime cost.

New in version 3.5.2.

27.1.3 Callable

Frameworks expecting callback functions of specific signatures might be type hinted using `Callable[[Arg1Type, Arg2Type], ReturnType]`.

For example:

```
from typing import Callable

def feeder(get_next_item: Callable[[], str]) -> None:
    # Body

def async_query(on_success: Callable[[int], None],
               on_error: Callable[[int, Exception], None]) -> None:
    # Body
```

It is possible to declare the return type of a callable without specifying the call signature by substituting a literal ellipsis for the list of arguments in the type hint: `Callable[..., ReturnType]`.

27.1.4 Generics

Since type information about objects kept in containers cannot be statically inferred in a generic way, abstract base classes have been extended to support subscription to denote expected types for container elements.

```
from typing import Mapping, Sequence

def notify_by_email(employees: Sequence[Employee],
                   overrides: Mapping[str, str]) -> None: ...
```

Generics can be parameterized by using a new factory available in typing called *TypeVar*.

```
from typing import Sequence, TypeVar

T = TypeVar('T')           # Declare type variable

def first(l: Sequence[T]) -> T: # Generic function
    return l[0]
```

27.1.5 User-defined generic types

A user-defined class can be defined as a generic class.

```
from typing import TypeVar, Generic
from logging import Logger

T = TypeVar('T')

class LoggedVar(Generic[T]):
    def __init__(self, value: T, name: str, logger: Logger) -> None:
        self.name = name
        self.logger = logger
        self.value = value

    def set(self, new: T) -> None:
        self.log('Set ' + repr(self.value))
        self.value = new

    def get(self) -> T:
        self.log('Get ' + repr(self.value))
        return self.value

    def log(self, message: str) -> None:
        self.logger.info('%s: %s', self.name, message)
```

`Generic[T]` as a base class defines that the class `LoggedVar` takes a single type parameter `T`. This also makes `T` valid as a type within the class body.

The *Generic* base class uses a metaclass that defines `__getitem__()` so that `LoggedVar[t]` is valid as a type:

```
from typing import Iterable

def zero_all_vars(vars: Iterable[LoggedVar[int]]) -> None:
    for var in vars:
        var.set(0)
```

A generic type can have any number of type variables, and type variables may be constrained:

```
from typing import TypeVar, Generic
...

T = TypeVar('T')
S = TypeVar('S', int, str)

class StrangePair(Generic[T, S]):
    ...
```

Each type variable argument to *Generic* must be distinct. This is thus invalid:

```
from typing import TypeVar, Generic
...

T = TypeVar('T')

class Pair(Generic[T, T]):    # INVALID
    ...
```

You can use multiple inheritance with *Generic*:

```
from typing import TypeVar, Generic, Sized

T = TypeVar('T')

class LinkedList(Sized, Generic[T]):
    ...
```

When inheriting from generic classes, some type variables could be fixed:

```
from typing import TypeVar, Mapping

T = TypeVar('T')

class MyDict(Mapping[str, T]):
    ...
```

In this case `MyDict` has a single parameter, `T`.

Using a generic class without specifying type parameters assumes *Any* for each position. In the following example, `MyIterable` is not generic but implicitly inherits from `Iterable[Any]`:

```
from typing import Iterable

class MyIterable(Iterable): # Same as Iterable[Any]
```

User defined generic type aliases are also supported. Examples:

```

from typing import TypeVar, Iterable, Tuple, Union
S = TypeVar('S')
Response = Union[Iterable[S], int]

# Return type here is same as Union[Iterable[str], int]
def response(query: str) -> Response[str]:
    ...

T = TypeVar('T', int, float, complex)
Vec = Iterable[Tuple[T, T]]

def inproduct(v: Vec[T]) -> T: # Same as Iterable[Tuple[T, T]]
    return sum(x*y for x, y in v)

```

The metaclass used by *Generic* is a subclass of *abc.ABCMeta*. A generic class can be an ABC by including abstract methods or properties, and generic classes can also have ABCs as base classes without a metaclass conflict. Generic metaclasses are not supported. The outcome of parameterizing generics is cached, and most types in the typing module are hashable and comparable for equality.

27.1.6 The Any type

A special kind of type is *Any*. A static type checker will treat every type as being compatible with *Any* and *Any* as being compatible with every type.

This means that it is possible to perform any operation or method call on a value of type on *Any* and assign it to any variable:

```

from typing import Any

a = None    # type: Any
a = []      # OK
a = 2       # OK

s = ''      # type: str
s = a       # OK

def foo(item: Any) -> int:
    # Typechecks; 'item' could be any type,
    # and that type might have a 'bar' method
    item.bar()
    ...

```

Notice that no typechecking is performed when assigning a value of type *Any* to a more precise type. For example, the static type checker did not report an error when assigning *a* to *s* even though *s* was declared to be of type *str* and receives an *int* value at runtime!

Furthermore, all functions without a return type or parameter types will implicitly default to using *Any*:

```

def legacy_parser(text):
    ...
    return data

# A static type checker will treat the above
# as having the same signature as:

```

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```
def legacy_parser(text: Any) -> Any:
    ...
    return data
```

This behavior allows *Any* to be used as an *escape hatch* when you need to mix dynamically and statically typed code.

Contrast the behavior of *Any* with the behavior of *object*. Similar to *Any*, every type is a subtype of *object*. However, unlike *Any*, the reverse is not true: *object* is *not* a subtype of every other type.

That means when the type of a value is *object*, a type checker will reject almost all operations on it, and assigning it to a variable (or using it as a return value) of a more specialized type is a type error. For example:

```
def hash_a(item: object) -> int:
    # Fails; an object does not have a 'magic' method.
    item.magic()
    ...

def hash_b(item: Any) -> int:
    # Typechecks
    item.magic()
    ...

# Typechecks, since ints and strs are subclasses of object
hash_a(42)
hash_a("foo")

# Typechecks, since Any is compatible with all types
hash_b(42)
hash_b("foo")
```

Use *object* to indicate that a value could be any type in a typesafe manner. Use *Any* to indicate that a value is dynamically typed.

27.1.7 Classes, functions, and decorators

The module defines the following classes, functions and decorators:

class `typing.TypeVar`

Type variable.

Usage:

```
T = TypeVar('T') # Can be anything
A = TypeVar('A', str, bytes) # Must be str or bytes
```

Type variables exist primarily for the benefit of static type checkers. They serve as the parameters for generic types as well as for generic function definitions. See class `Generic` for more information on generic types. Generic functions work as follows:

```
def repeat(x: T, n: int) -> Sequence[T]:
    """Return a list containing n references to x."""
    return [x]*n
```

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```
def longest(x: A, y: A) -> A:
    """Return the longest of two strings."""
    return x if len(x) >= len(y) else y
```

The latter example's signature is essentially the overloading of `(str, str) -> str` and `(bytes, bytes) -> bytes`. Also note that if the arguments are instances of some subclass of `str`, the return type is still plain `str`.

At runtime, `isinstance(x, T)` will raise `TypeError`. In general, `isinstance()` and `issubclass()` should not be used with types.

Type variables may be marked covariant or contravariant by passing `covariant=True` or `contravariant=True`. See [PEP 484](#) for more details. By default type variables are invariant. Alternatively, a type variable may specify an upper bound using `bound=<type>`. This means that an actual type substituted (explicitly or implicitly) for the type variable must be a subclass of the boundary type, see [PEP 484](#).

`class typing.Generic`

Abstract base class for generic types.

A generic type is typically declared by inheriting from an instantiation of this class with one or more type variables. For example, a generic mapping type might be defined as:

```
class Mapping(Generic[KT, VT]):
    def __getitem__(self, key: KT) -> VT:
        ...
    # Etc.
```

This class can then be used as follows:

```
X = TypeVar('X')
Y = TypeVar('Y')

def lookup_name(mapping: Mapping[X, Y], key: X, default: Y) -> Y:
    try:
        return mapping[key]
    except KeyError:
        return default
```

`class typing.Type(Generic[CT_co])`

A variable annotated with `C` may accept a value of type `C`. In contrast, a variable annotated with `Type[C]` may accept values that are classes themselves – specifically, it will accept the *class object* of `C`. For example:

```
a = 3           # Has type 'int'
b = int         # Has type 'Type[int]'
c = type(a)     # Also has type 'Type[int]'
```

Note that `Type[C]` is covariant:

```
class User: ...
class BasicUser(User): ...
class ProUser(User): ...
class TeamUser(User): ...
```

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```
# Accepts User, BasicUser, ProUser, TeamUser, ...
def make_new_user(user_class: Type[User]) -> User:
    # ...
    return user_class()
```

The fact that `Type[C]` is covariant implies that all subclasses of `C` should implement the same constructor signature and class method signatures as `C`. The type checker should flag violations of this, but should also allow constructor calls in subclasses that match the constructor calls in the indicated base class. How the type checker is required to handle this particular case may change in future revisions of [PEP 484](#).

The only legal parameters for *Type* are classes, *Any*, *type variables*, and unions of any of these types. For example:

```
def new_non_team_user(user_class: Type[Union[BaseUser, ProUser]]): ...
```

`Type[Any]` is equivalent to `Type` which in turn is equivalent to `type`, which is the root of Python's metaclass hierarchy.

New in version 3.5.2.

```
class typing.Iterable(Generic[T_co])
    A generic version of collections.abc.Iterable.

class typing.Iterator(Iterable[T_co])
    A generic version of collections.abc.Iterator.

class typing.Reversible(Iterable[T_co])
    A generic version of collections.abc.Reversible.

class typing.SupportsInt
    An ABC with one abstract method __int__.

class typing.SupportsFloat
    An ABC with one abstract method __float__.

class typing.SupportsComplex
    An ABC with one abstract method __complex__.

class typing.SupportsBytes
    An ABC with one abstract method __bytes__.

class typing.SupportsAbs
    An ABC with one abstract method __abs__ that is covariant in its return type.

class typing.SupportsRound
    An ABC with one abstract method __round__ that is covariant in its return type.

class typing.Container(Generic[T_co])
    A generic version of collections.abc.Container.

class typing.Hashable
    An alias to collections.abc.Hashable

class typing.Sized
    An alias to collections.abc.Sized

class typing.Collection(Sized, Iterable[T_co], Container[T_co])
    A generic version of collections.abc.Collection

    New in version 3.6.
```

`class typing.AbstractSet(Sized, Collection[T_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.Set`.

`class typing.MutableSet(AbstractSet[T])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.MutableSet`.

`class typing.Mapping(Sized, Collection[KT], Generic[VT_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.Mapping`. This type can be used as follows:

```
def get_position_in_index(word_list: Mapping[str, int], word: str) -> int:
    return word_list[word]
```

`class typing.MutableMapping(Mapping[KT, VT])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.MutableMapping`.

`class typing.Sequence(Reversible[T_co], Collection[T_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.Sequence`.

`class typing.MutableSequence(Sequence[T])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.MutableSequence`.

`class typing.ByteString(Sequence[int])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.ByteString`.

This type represents the types `bytes`, `bytearray`, and `memoryview`.

As a shorthand for this type, `bytes` can be used to annotate arguments of any of the types mentioned above.

`class typing.Deque(deque, MutableSequence[T])`

A generic version of `collections.deque`.

New in version 3.6.1.

`class typing.List(list, MutableSequence[T])`

Generic version of `list`. Useful for annotating return types. To annotate arguments it is preferred to use an abstract collection type such as `Sequence` or `Iterable`.

This type may be used as follows:

```
T = TypeVar('T', int, float)

def vec2(x: T, y: T) -> List[T]:
    return [x, y]

def keep_positives(vector: Sequence[T]) -> List[T]:
    return [item for item in vector if item > 0]
```

`class typing.Set(set, MutableSet[T])`

A generic version of `builtins.set`. Useful for annotating return types. To annotate arguments it is preferred to use an abstract collection type such as `AbstractSet`.

`class typing.Frozenset(frozenset, AbstractSet[T_co])`

A generic version of `builtins.frozenset`.

`class typing.MappingView(Sized, Iterable[T_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.MappingView`.

`class typing.KeysView(MappingView[KT_co], AbstractSet[KT_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.KeysView`.

`class typing.ItemsView(MappingView, Generic[KT_co, VT_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.ItemsView`.

`class typing.ValuesView(MappingView[VT_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.ValuesView`.

`class typing.Awaitable(Generic[T_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.Awaitable`.

`class typing.Coroutine(Awaitable[V_co], Generic[T_co T_contra, V_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.Coroutine`. The variance and order of type variables correspond to those of `Generator`, for example:

```
from typing import List, Coroutine
c = None # type: Coroutine[List[str], str, int]
...
x = c.send('hi') # type: List[str]
async def bar() -> None:
    x = await c # type: int
```

`class typing.AsyncIterable(Generic[T_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.AsyncIterable`.

`class typing.AsyncIterator(AsyncIterable[T_co])`

A generic version of `collections.abc.AsyncIterator`.

`class typing.ContextManager(Generic[T_co])`

A generic version of `contextlib.AbstractContextManager`.

New in version 3.6.

`class typing.AsyncContextManager(Generic[T_co])`

A generic version of `contextlib.AbstractAsyncContextManager`.

New in version 3.6.

`class typing.Dict(dict, MutableMapping[KT, VT])`

A generic version of `dict`. Useful for annotating return types. To annotate arguments it is preferred to use an abstract collection type such as `Mapping`.

This type can be used as follows:

```
def count_words(text: str) -> Dict[str, int]:
    ...
```

`class typing.DefaultDict(collections.defaultdict, MutableMapping[KT, VT])`

A generic version of `collections.defaultdict`.

New in version 3.5.2.

`class typing.OrderedDict(collections.OrderedDict, MutableMapping[KT, VT])`

A generic version of `collections.OrderedDict`.

New in version 3.7.2.

`class typing.Counter(collections.Counter, Dict[T, int])`

A generic version of `collections.Counter`.

New in version 3.6.1.

`class typing.ChainMap(collections.ChainMap, MutableMapping[KT, VT])`

A generic version of `collections.ChainMap`.

New in version 3.6.1.

`class typing.Generator(Iterator[T_co], Generic[T_co, T_contra, V_co])`

A generator can be annotated by the generic type `Generator[YieldType, SendType, ReturnType]`. For example:

```
def echo_round() -> Generator[int, float, str]:
    sent = yield 0
    while sent >= 0:
        sent = yield round(sent)
    return 'Done'
```

Note that unlike many other generics in the typing module, the `SendType` of `Generator` behaves contravariantly, not covariantly or invariantly.

If your generator will only yield values, set the `SendType` and `ReturnType` to `None`:

```
def infinite_stream(start: int) -> Generator[int, None, None]:
    while True:
        yield start
        start += 1
```

Alternatively, annotate your generator as having a return type of either `Iterable[YieldType]` or `Iterator[YieldType]`:

```
def infinite_stream(start: int) -> Iterator[int]:
    while True:
        yield start
        start += 1
```

`class typing.AsyncGenerator(AsyncIterator[T_co], Generic[T_co, T_contra])`

An async generator can be annotated by the generic type `AsyncGenerator[YieldType, SendType]`. For example:

```
async def echo_round() -> AsyncGenerator[int, float]:
    sent = yield 0
    while sent >= 0.0:
        rounded = await round(sent)
        sent = yield rounded
```

Unlike normal generators, async generators cannot return a value, so there is no `ReturnType` type parameter. As with `Generator`, the `SendType` behaves contravariantly.

If your generator will only yield values, set the `SendType` to `None`:

```
async def infinite_stream(start: int) -> AsyncGenerator[int, None]:
    while True:
        yield start
        start = await increment(start)
```

Alternatively, annotate your generator as having a return type of either `AsyncIterable[YieldType]` or `AsyncIterator[YieldType]`:

```
async def infinite_stream(start: int) -> AsyncIterator[int]:
    while True:
        yield start
        start = await increment(start)
```

New in version 3.5.4.

class typing.Text

Text is an alias for `str`. It is provided to supply a forward compatible path for Python 2 code: in Python 2, Text is an alias for `unicode`.

Use Text to indicate that a value must contain a unicode string in a manner that is compatible with both Python 2 and Python 3:

```
def add_unicode_checkmark(text: Text) -> Text:
    return text + u' \u2713'
```

New in version 3.5.2.

class typing.IO**class typing.TextIO****class typing.BinaryIO**

Generic type `IO[AnyStr]` and its subclasses `TextIO(IO[str])` and `BinaryIO(IO[bytes])` represent the types of I/O streams such as returned by `open()`.

class typing.Pattern**class typing.Match**

These type aliases correspond to the return types from `re.compile()` and `re.match()`. These types (and the corresponding functions) are generic in `AnyStr` and can be made specific by writing `Pattern[str]`, `Pattern[bytes]`, `Match[str]`, or `Match[bytes]`.

class typing.NamedTuple

Typed version of `namedtuple`.

Usage:

```
class Employee(NamedTuple):
    name: str
    id: int
```

This is equivalent to:

```
Employee = collections.namedtuple('Employee', ['name', 'id'])
```

To give a field a default value, you can assign to it in the class body:

```
class Employee(NamedTuple):
    name: str
    id: int = 3

employee = Employee('Guido')
assert employee.id == 3
```

Fields with a default value must come after any fields without a default.

The resulting class has two extra attributes: `_field_types`, giving a dict mapping field names to types, and `_field_defaults`, a dict mapping field names to default values. (The field names are in the `_fields` attribute, which is part of the `namedtuple` API.)

`NamedTuple` subclasses can also have docstrings and methods:

```
class Employee(NamedTuple):
    """Represents an employee."""
    name: str
    id: int = 3
```

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```
def __repr__(self) -> str:
    return f'<Employee {self.name}, id={self.id}>'
```

Backward-compatible usage:

```
Employee = NamedTuple('Employee', [('name', str), ('id', int)])
```

Changed in version 3.6: Added support for **PEP 526** variable annotation syntax.

Changed in version 3.6.1: Added support for default values, methods, and docstrings.

typing.NewType(*typ*)

A helper function to indicate a distinct types to a typechecker, see *NewType*. At runtime it returns a function that returns its argument. Usage:

```
UserId = NewType('UserId', int)
first_user = UserId(1)
```

New in version 3.5.2.

typing.cast(*typ, val*)

Cast a value to a type.

This returns the value unchanged. To the type checker this signals that the return value has the designated type, but at runtime we intentionally don't check anything (we want this to be as fast as possible).

typing.get_type_hints(*obj*[, *globals*[, *locals*]])

Return a dictionary containing type hints for a function, method, module or class object.

This is often the same as *obj.__annotations__*. In addition, forward references encoded as string literals are handled by evaluating them in *globals* and *locals* namespaces. If necessary, *Optional[t]* is added for function and method annotations if a default value equal to *None* is set. For a class *C*, return a dictionary constructed by merging all the *__annotations__* along *C.__mro__* in reverse order.

@typing.overload

The *@overload* decorator allows describing functions and methods that support multiple different combinations of argument types. A series of *@overload*-decorated definitions must be followed by exactly one non-*@overload*-decorated definition (for the same function/method). The *@overload*-decorated definitions are for the benefit of the type checker only, since they will be overwritten by the non-*@overload*-decorated definition, while the latter is used at runtime but should be ignored by a type checker. At runtime, calling a *@overload*-decorated function directly will raise *NotImplementedError*. An example of overload that gives a more precise type than can be expressed using a union or a type variable:

```
@overload
def process(response: None) -> None:
    ...
@overload
def process(response: int) -> Tuple[int, str]:
    ...
@overload
def process(response: bytes) -> str:
    ...
def process(response):
    <actual implementation>
```

See [PEP 484](#) for details and comparison with other typing semantics.

`@typing.no_type_check`

Decorator to indicate that annotations are not type hints.

This works as class or function *decorator*. With a class, it applies recursively to all methods defined in that class (but not to methods defined in its superclasses or subclasses).

This mutates the function(s) in place.

`@typing.no_type_check_decorator`

Decorator to give another decorator the `no_type_check()` effect.

This wraps the decorator with something that wraps the decorated function in `no_type_check()`.

`typing.Any`

Special type indicating an unconstrained type.

- Every type is compatible with *Any*.
- *Any* is compatible with every type.

`typing.NoReturn`

Special type indicating that a function never returns. For example:

```
from typing import NoReturn

def stop() -> NoReturn:
    raise RuntimeError('no way')
```

New in version 3.6.5.

`typing.Union`

Union type; `Union[X, Y]` means either X or Y.

To define a union, use e.g. `Union[int, str]`. Details:

- The arguments must be types and there must be at least one.
- Unions of unions are flattened, e.g.:

```
Union[Union[int, str], float] == Union[int, str, float]
```

- Unions of a single argument vanish, e.g.:

```
Union[int] == int # The constructor actually returns int
```

- Redundant arguments are skipped, e.g.:

```
Union[int, str, int] == Union[int, str]
```

- When comparing unions, the argument order is ignored, e.g.:

```
Union[int, str] == Union[str, int]
```

- You cannot subclass or instantiate a union.
- You cannot write `Union[X][Y]`.
- You can use `Optional[X]` as a shorthand for `Union[X, None]`.

Changed in version 3.7: Don't remove explicit subclasses from unions at runtime.

typing.Optional

Optional type.

`Optional[X]` is equivalent to `Union[X, None]`.

Note that this is not the same concept as an optional argument, which is one that has a default. An optional argument with a default does not require the `Optional` qualifier on its type annotation just because it is optional. For example:

```
def foo(arg: int = 0) -> None:
    ...
```

On the other hand, if an explicit value of `None` is allowed, the use of `Optional` is appropriate, whether the argument is optional or not. For example:

```
def foo(arg: Optional[int] = None) -> None:
    ...
```

typing.Tuple

Tuple type; `Tuple[X, Y]` is the type of a tuple of two items with the first item of type `X` and the second of type `Y`.

Example: `Tuple[T1, T2]` is a tuple of two elements corresponding to type variables `T1` and `T2`. `Tuple[int, float, str]` is a tuple of an int, a float and a string.

To specify a variable-length tuple of homogeneous type, use literal ellipsis, e.g. `Tuple[int, ...]`. A plain *tuple* is equivalent to `Tuple[Any, ...]`, and in turn to *tuple*.

typing.Callable

Callable type; `Callable[[int], str]` is a function of `(int) -> str`.

The subscription syntax must always be used with exactly two values: the argument list and the return type. The argument list must be a list of types or an ellipsis; the return type must be a single type.

There is no syntax to indicate optional or keyword arguments; such function types are rarely used as callback types. `Callable[..., ReturnType]` (literal ellipsis) can be used to type hint a callable taking any number of arguments and returning `ReturnType`. A plain *Callable* is equivalent to `Callable[..., Any]`, and in turn to *collections.abc.Callable*.

typing.ClassVar

Special type construct to mark class variables.

As introduced in [PEP 526](#), a variable annotation wrapped in `ClassVar` indicates that a given attribute is intended to be used as a class variable and should not be set on instances of that class. Usage:

```
class Starship:
    stats: ClassVar[Dict[str, int]] = {} # class variable
    damage: int = 10                     # instance variable
```

ClassVar accepts only types and cannot be further subscribed.

ClassVar is not a class itself, and should not be used with *isinstance()* or *issubclass()*. *ClassVar* does not change Python runtime behavior, but it can be used by third-party type checkers. For example, a type checker might flag the following code as an error:

```
enterprise_d = Starship(3000)
enterprise_d.stats = {} # Error, setting class variable on instance
Starship.stats = {}     # This is OK
```

New in version 3.5.3.

typing.AnyStr

`AnyStr` is a type variable defined as `AnyStr = TypeVar('AnyStr', str, bytes)`.

It is meant to be used for functions that may accept any kind of string without allowing different kinds of strings to mix. For example:

```
def concat(a: AnyStr, b: AnyStr) -> AnyStr:
    return a + b

concat(u"foo", u"bar") # Ok, output has type 'unicode'
concat(b"foo", b"bar") # Ok, output has type 'bytes'
concat(u"foo", b"bar") # Error, cannot mix unicode and bytes
```

typing.TYPE_CHECKING

A special constant that is assumed to be `True` by 3rd party static type checkers. It is `False` at runtime. Usage:

```
if TYPE_CHECKING:
    import expensive_mod

def fun(arg: 'expensive_mod.SomeType') -> None:
    local_var: expensive_mod.AnotherType = other_fun()
```

Note that the first type annotation must be enclosed in quotes, making it a “forward reference”, to hide the `expensive_mod` reference from the interpreter runtime. Type annotations for local variables are not evaluated, so the second annotation does not need to be enclosed in quotes.

New in version 3.5.2.

27.2 pydoc — Documentation generator and online help system

Source code: `Lib/pydoc.py`

The `pydoc` module automatically generates documentation from Python modules. The documentation can be presented as pages of text on the console, served to a Web browser, or saved to HTML files.

For modules, classes, functions and methods, the displayed documentation is derived from the docstring (i.e. the `__doc__` attribute) of the object, and recursively of its documentable members. If there is no docstring, `pydoc` tries to obtain a description from the block of comment lines just above the definition of the class, function or method in the source file, or at the top of the module (see `inspect.getcomments()`).

The built-in function `help()` invokes the online help system in the interactive interpreter, which uses `pydoc` to generate its documentation as text on the console. The same text documentation can also be viewed from outside the Python interpreter by running `pydoc` as a script at the operating system’s command prompt. For example, running

```
pydoc sys
```

at a shell prompt will display documentation on the `sys` module, in a style similar to the manual pages shown by the Unix `man` command. The argument to `pydoc` can be the name of a function, module, or package, or a dotted reference to a class, method, or function within a module or module in a package. If the argument to `pydoc` looks like a path (that is, it contains the path separator for your operating system, such as a slash in Unix), and refers to an existing Python source file, then documentation is produced for that file.

Note: In order to find objects and their documentation, `pydoc` imports the module(s) to be documented. Therefore, any code on module level will be executed on that occasion. Use an `if __name__ == '__main__':` guard to only execute code when a file is invoked as a script and not just imported.

When printing output to the console, `pydoc` attempts to paginate the output for easier reading. If the `PAGER` environment variable is set, `pydoc` will use its value as a pagination program.

Specifying a `-w` flag before the argument will cause HTML documentation to be written out to a file in the current directory, instead of displaying text on the console.

Specifying a `-k` flag before the argument will search the synopsis lines of all available modules for the keyword given as the argument, again in a manner similar to the Unix `man` command. The synopsis line of a module is the first line of its documentation string.

You can also use `pydoc` to start an HTTP server on the local machine that will serve documentation to visiting Web browsers. `pydoc -p 1234` will start a HTTP server on port 1234, allowing you to browse the documentation at `http://localhost:1234/` in your preferred Web browser. Specifying 0 as the port number will select an arbitrary unused port.

`pydoc -n <hostname>` will start the server listening at the given hostname. By default the hostname is 'localhost' but if you want the server to be reached from other machines, you may want to change the host name that the server responds to. During development this is especially useful if you want to run `pydoc` from within a container.

`pydoc -b` will start the server and additionally open a web browser to a module index page. Each served page has a navigation bar at the top where you can *Get* help on an individual item, *Search* all modules with a keyword in their synopsis line, and go to the *Module index*, *Topics* and *Keywords* pages.

When `pydoc` generates documentation, it uses the current environment and path to locate modules. Thus, invoking `pydoc spam` documents precisely the version of the module you would get if you started the Python interpreter and typed `import spam`.

Module docs for core modules are assumed to reside in `https://docs.python.org/X.Y/library/` where X and Y are the major and minor version numbers of the Python interpreter. This can be overridden by setting the `PYTHONDPCS` environment variable to a different URL or to a local directory containing the Library Reference Manual pages.

Changed in version 3.2: Added the `-b` option.

Changed in version 3.3: The `-g` command line option was removed.

Changed in version 3.4: `pydoc` now uses `inspect.signature()` rather than `inspect.getfullargspec()` to extract signature information from callables.

Changed in version 3.7: Added the `-n` option.

27.3 doctest — Test interactive Python examples

Source code: [Lib/doctest.py](#)

The `doctest` module searches for pieces of text that look like interactive Python sessions, and then executes those sessions to verify that they work exactly as shown. There are several common ways to use `doctest`:

- To check that a module's docstrings are up-to-date by verifying that all interactive examples still work as documented.
- To perform regression testing by verifying that interactive examples from a test file or a test object work as expected.

- To write tutorial documentation for a package, liberally illustrated with input-output examples. Depending on whether the examples or the expository text are emphasized, this has the flavor of “literate testing” or “executable documentation”.

Here’s a complete but small example module:

```
"""
This is the "example" module.

The example module supplies one function, factorial().  For example,

>>> factorial(5)
120
"""

def factorial(n):
    """Return the factorial of n, an exact integer >= 0.

    >>> [factorial(n) for n in range(6)]
    [1, 1, 2, 6, 24, 120]
    >>> factorial(30)
    265252859812191058636308480000000
    >>> factorial(-1)
    Traceback (most recent call last):
    ...
    ValueError: n must be >= 0

    Factorials of floats are OK, but the float must be an exact integer:
    >>> factorial(30.1)
    Traceback (most recent call last):
    ...
    ValueError: n must be exact integer
    >>> factorial(30.0)
    26525285981219105863630848000000

    It must also not be ridiculously large:
    >>> factorial(1e100)
    Traceback (most recent call last):
    ...
    OverflowError: n too large
    """

    import math
    if not n >= 0:
        raise ValueError("n must be >= 0")
    if math.floor(n) != n:
        raise ValueError("n must be exact integer")
    if n+1 == n: # catch a value like 1e300
        raise OverflowError("n too large")
    result = 1
    factor = 2
    while factor <= n:
        result *= factor
        factor += 1
```

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```
    return result

if __name__ == "__main__":
    import doctest
    doctest.testmod()
```

If you run `example.py` directly from the command line, `doctest` works its magic:

```
$ python example.py
$
```

There's no output! That's normal, and it means all the examples worked. Pass `-v` to the script, and `doctest` prints a detailed log of what it's trying, and prints a summary at the end:

```
$ python example.py -v
Trying:
    factorial(5)
Expecting:
    120
ok
Trying:
    [factorial(n) for n in range(6)]
Expecting:
    [1, 1, 2, 6, 24, 120]
ok
```

And so on, eventually ending with:

```
Trying:
    factorial(1e100)
Expecting:
    Traceback (most recent call last):
      ...
    OverflowError: n too large
ok
2 items passed all tests:
  1 tests in __main__
  8 tests in __main__.factorial
9 tests in 2 items.
9 passed and 0 failed.
Test passed.
$
```

That's all you need to know to start making productive use of `doctest`! Jump in. The following sections provide full details. Note that there are many examples of doctests in the standard Python test suite and libraries. Especially useful examples can be found in the standard test file `Lib/test/test_doctest.py`.

27.3.1 Simple Usage: Checking Examples in Docstrings

The simplest way to start using `doctest` (but not necessarily the way you'll continue to do it) is to end each module `M` with:

```
if __name__ == "__main__":
    import doctest
    doctest.testmod()
```

`doctest` then examines docstrings in module `M`.

Running the module as a script causes the examples in the docstrings to get executed and verified:

```
python M.py
```

This won't display anything unless an example fails, in which case the failing example(s) and the cause(s) of the failure(s) are printed to stdout, and the final line of output is *****Test Failed*** N failures.**, where *N* is the number of examples that failed.

Run it with the `-v` switch instead:

```
python M.py -v
```

and a detailed report of all examples tried is printed to standard output, along with assorted summaries at the end.

You can force verbose mode by passing `verbose=True` to `testmod()`, or prohibit it by passing `verbose=False`. In either of those cases, `sys.argv` is not examined by `testmod()` (so passing `-v` or not has no effect).

There is also a command line shortcut for running `testmod()`. You can instruct the Python interpreter to run the doctest module directly from the standard library and pass the module name(s) on the command line:

```
python -m doctest -v example.py
```

This will import `example.py` as a standalone module and run `testmod()` on it. Note that this may not work correctly if the file is part of a package and imports other submodules from that package.

For more information on `testmod()`, see section *Basic API*.

27.3.2 Simple Usage: Checking Examples in a Text File

Another simple application of doctest is testing interactive examples in a text file. This can be done with the `testfile()` function:

```
import doctest
doctest.testfile("example.txt")
```

That short script executes and verifies any interactive Python examples contained in the file `example.txt`. The file content is treated as if it were a single giant docstring; the file doesn't need to contain a Python program! For example, perhaps `example.txt` contains this:

```
The ``example`` module
=====

Using ``factorial``
-----

This is an example text file in reStructuredText format. First import
``factorial`` from the ``example`` module:
```

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```
>>> from example import factorial

Now use it:

>>> factorial(6)
120
```

Running `doctest.testfile("example.txt")` then finds the error in this documentation:

```
File "./example.txt", line 14, in example.txt
Failed example:
    factorial(6)
Expected:
    120
Got:
    720
```

As with `testmod()`, `testfile()` won't display anything unless an example fails. If an example does fail, then the failing example(s) and the cause(s) of the failure(s) are printed to stdout, using the same format as `testmod()`.

By default, `testfile()` looks for files in the calling module's directory. See section [Basic API](#) for a description of the optional arguments that can be used to tell it to look for files in other locations.

Like `testmod()`, `testfile()`'s verbosity can be set with the `-v` command-line switch or with the optional keyword argument `verbose`.

There is also a command line shortcut for running `testfile()`. You can instruct the Python interpreter to run the doctest module directly from the standard library and pass the file name(s) on the command line:

```
python -m doctest -v example.txt
```

Because the file name does not end with `.py`, `doctest` infers that it must be run with `testfile()`, not `testmod()`.

For more information on `testfile()`, see section [Basic API](#).

27.3.3 How It Works

This section examines in detail how doctest works: which docstrings it looks at, how it finds interactive examples, what execution context it uses, how it handles exceptions, and how option flags can be used to control its behavior. This is the information that you need to know to write doctest examples; for information about actually running doctest on these examples, see the following sections.

Which Docstrings Are Examined?

The module docstring, and all function, class and method docstrings are searched. Objects imported into the module are not searched.

In addition, if `M.__test__` exists and "is true", it must be a dict, and each entry maps a (string) name to a function object, class object, or string. Function and class object docstrings found from `M.__test__` are searched, and strings are treated as if they were docstrings. In output, a key `K` in `M.__test__` appears with name

```
<name of M>.__test__.K
```

Any classes found are recursively searched similarly, to test docstrings in their contained methods and nested classes.

CPython implementation detail: Prior to version 3.4, extension modules written in C were not fully searched by doctest.

How are Docstring Examples Recognized?

In most cases a copy-and-paste of an interactive console session works fine, but doctest isn't trying to do an exact emulation of any specific Python shell.

```
>>> # comments are ignored
>>> x = 12
>>> x
12
>>> if x == 13:
...     print("yes")
... else:
...     print("no")
...     print("NO")
...     print("NO!!!")
...
no
NO
NO!!!
>>>
```

Any expected output must immediately follow the final '>>>' or '...' line containing the code, and the expected output (if any) extends to the next '>>>' or all-whitespace line.

The fine print:

- Expected output cannot contain an all-whitespace line, since such a line is taken to signal the end of expected output. If expected output does contain a blank line, put `<BLANKLINE>` in your doctest example each place a blank line is expected.
- All hard tab characters are expanded to spaces, using 8-column tab stops. Tabs in output generated by the tested code are not modified. Because any hard tabs in the sample output *are* expanded, this means that if the code output includes hard tabs, the only way the doctest can pass is if the `NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE` option or *directive* is in effect. Alternatively, the test can be rewritten to capture the output and compare it to an expected value as part of the test. This handling of tabs in the source was arrived at through trial and error, and has proven to be the least error prone way of handling them. It is possible to use a different algorithm for handling tabs by writing a custom `DocTestParser` class.
- Output to stdout is captured, but not output to stderr (exception tracebacks are captured via a different means).
- If you continue a line via backslashing in an interactive session, or for any other reason use a backslash, you should use a raw docstring, which will preserve your backslashes exactly as you type them:

```
>>> def f(x):
...     r'''Backslashes in a raw docstring: m\n'''
```

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```
>>> print(f.__doc__)
Backslashes in a raw docstring: m\n
```

Otherwise, the backslash will be interpreted as part of the string. For example, the `\n` above would be interpreted as a newline character. Alternatively, you can double each backslash in the doctest version (and not use a raw string):

```
>>> def f(x):
...     '''Backslashes in a raw docstring: m\\n'''
>>> print(f.__doc__)
Backslashes in a raw docstring: m\n
```

- The starting column doesn't matter:

```
>>> assert "Easy!"
    >>> import math
        >>> math.floor(1.9)
            1
```

and as many leading whitespace characters are stripped from the expected output as appeared in the initial `'>>> '` line that started the example.

What's the Execution Context?

By default, each time *doctest* finds a docstring to test, it uses a *shallow copy* of `M`'s globals, so that running tests doesn't change the module's real globals, and so that one test in `M` can't leave behind crumbs that accidentally allow another test to work. This means examples can freely use any names defined at top-level in `M`, and names defined earlier in the docstring being run. Examples cannot see names defined in other docstrings.

You can force use of your own dict as the execution context by passing `globals=your_dict` to *testmod()* or *testfile()* instead.

What About Exceptions?

No problem, provided that the traceback is the only output produced by the example: just paste in the traceback.¹ Since tracebacks contain details that are likely to change rapidly (for example, exact file paths and line numbers), this is one case where doctest works hard to be flexible in what it accepts.

Simple example:

```
>>> [1, 2, 3].remove(42)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: list.remove(x): x not in list
```

That doctest succeeds if *ValueError* is raised, with the `list.remove(x): x not in list` detail as shown.

The expected output for an exception must start with a traceback header, which may be either of the following two lines, indented the same as the first line of the example:

¹ Examples containing both expected output and an exception are not supported. Trying to guess where one ends and the other begins is too error-prone, and that also makes for a confusing test.


```
Traceback (most recent call last):
Traceback (innermost last):
```

The traceback header is followed by an optional traceback stack, whose contents are ignored by doctest. The traceback stack is typically omitted, or copied verbatim from an interactive session.

The traceback stack is followed by the most interesting part: the line(s) containing the exception type and detail. This is usually the last line of a traceback, but can extend across multiple lines if the exception has a multi-line detail:

```
>>> raise ValueError('multi\n    line\ndetail')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
ValueError: multi
    line
detail
```

The last three lines (starting with *ValueError*) are compared against the exception's type and detail, and the rest are ignored.

Best practice is to omit the traceback stack, unless it adds significant documentation value to the example. So the last example is probably better as:

```
>>> raise ValueError('multi\n    line\ndetail')
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError: multi
    line
detail
```

Note that tracebacks are treated very specially. In particular, in the rewritten example, the use of `...` is independent of doctest's *ELLIPSIS* option. The ellipsis in that example could be left out, or could just as well be three (or three hundred) commas or digits, or an indented transcript of a Monty Python skit.

Some details you should read once, but won't need to remember:

- Doctest can't guess whether your expected output came from an exception traceback or from ordinary printing. So, e.g., an example that expects `ValueError: 42 is prime` will pass whether *ValueError* is actually raised or if the example merely prints that traceback text. In practice, ordinary output rarely begins with a traceback header line, so this doesn't create real problems.
- Each line of the traceback stack (if present) must be indented further than the first line of the example, *or* start with a non-alphanumeric character. The first line following the traceback header indented the same and starting with an alphanumeric is taken to be the start of the exception detail. Of course this does the right thing for genuine tracebacks.
- When the *IGNORE_EXCEPTION_DETAIL* doctest option is specified, everything following the leftmost colon and any module information in the exception name is ignored.
- The interactive shell omits the traceback header line for some *SyntaxErrors*. But doctest uses the traceback header line to distinguish exceptions from non-exceptions. So in the rare case where you need to test a *SyntaxError* that omits the traceback header, you will need to manually add the traceback header line to your test example.
- For some *SyntaxErrors*, Python displays the character position of the syntax error, using a `^` marker:

```
>>> 1 1
      File "<stdin>", line 1
```

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```

1 1
^
SyntaxError: invalid syntax

```

Since the lines showing the position of the error come before the exception type and detail, they are not checked by doctest. For example, the following test would pass, even though it puts the `^` marker in the wrong location:

```

>>> 1 1
File "<stdin>", line 1
    1 1
    ^
SyntaxError: invalid syntax

```

Option Flags

A number of option flags control various aspects of doctest's behavior. Symbolic names for the flags are supplied as module constants, which can be bitwise ORED together and passed to various functions. The names can also be used in *doctest directives*, and may be passed to the doctest command line interface via the `-o` option.

New in version 3.4: The `-o` command line option.

The first group of options define test semantics, controlling aspects of how doctest decides whether actual output matches an example's expected output:

`doctest.DONT_ACCEPT_TRUE_FOR_1`

By default, if an expected output block contains just `1`, an actual output block containing just `1` or just `True` is considered to be a match, and similarly for `0` versus `False`. When `DONT_ACCEPT_TRUE_FOR_1` is specified, neither substitution is allowed. The default behavior caters to that Python changed the return type of many functions from integer to boolean; doctests expecting "little integer" output still work in these cases. This option will probably go away, but not for several years.

`doctest.DONT_ACCEPT_BLANKLINE`

By default, if an expected output block contains a line containing only the string `<BLANKLINE>`, then that line will match a blank line in the actual output. Because a genuinely blank line delimits the expected output, this is the only way to communicate that a blank line is expected. When `DONT_ACCEPT_BLANKLINE` is specified, this substitution is not allowed.

`doctest.NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE`

When specified, all sequences of whitespace (blanks and newlines) are treated as equal. Any sequence of whitespace within the expected output will match any sequence of whitespace within the actual output. By default, whitespace must match exactly. `NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE` is especially useful when a line of expected output is very long, and you want to wrap it across multiple lines in your source.

`doctest.ELLIPSIS`

When specified, an ellipsis marker (`...`) in the expected output can match any substring in the actual output. This includes substrings that span line boundaries, and empty substrings, so it's best to keep usage of this simple. Complicated uses can lead to the same kinds of "oops, it matched too much!" surprises that `.*` is prone to in regular expressions.

`doctest.IGNORE_EXCEPTION_DETAIL`

When specified, an example that expects an exception passes if an exception of the expected type is raised, even if the exception detail does not match. For example, an example expecting `ValueError: 42` will pass if the actual exception raised is `ValueError: 3*14`, but will fail, e.g., if `TypeError` is raised.

It will also ignore the module name used in Python 3 doctest reports. Hence both of these variations will work with the flag specified, regardless of whether the test is run under Python 2.7 or Python 3.2 (or later versions):

```
>>> raise CustomError('message')
Traceback (most recent call last):
CustomError: message

>>> raise CustomError('message')
Traceback (most recent call last):
my_module.CustomError: message
```

Note that *ELLIPSIS* can also be used to ignore the details of the exception message, but such a test may still fail based on whether or not the module details are printed as part of the exception name. Using *IGNORE_EXCEPTION_DETAIL* and the details from Python 2.3 is also the only clear way to write a doctest that doesn't care about the exception detail yet continues to pass under Python 2.3 or earlier (those releases do not support *doctest directives* and ignore them as irrelevant comments). For example:

```
>>> (1, 2)[3] = 'moo'
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: object doesn't support item assignment
```

passes under Python 2.3 and later Python versions with the flag specified, even though the detail changed in Python 2.4 to say “does not” instead of “doesn't”.

Changed in version 3.2: *IGNORE_EXCEPTION_DETAIL* now also ignores any information relating to the module containing the exception under test.

doctest.SKIP

When specified, do not run the example at all. This can be useful in contexts where doctest examples serve as both documentation and test cases, and an example should be included for documentation purposes, but should not be checked. E.g., the example's output might be random; or the example might depend on resources which would be unavailable to the test driver.

The SKIP flag can also be used for temporarily “commenting out” examples.

doctest.COMPARISON_FLAGS

A bitmask or'ing together all the comparison flags above.

The second group of options controls how test failures are reported:

doctest.REPORT_UDIFF

When specified, failures that involve multi-line expected and actual outputs are displayed using a unified diff.

doctest.REPORT_CDIFF

When specified, failures that involve multi-line expected and actual outputs will be displayed using a context diff.

doctest.REPORT_NDIFF

When specified, differences are computed by `difflib.Differ`, using the same algorithm as the popular `ndiff.py` utility. This is the only method that marks differences within lines as well as across lines. For example, if a line of expected output contains digit 1 where actual output contains letter l, a line is inserted with a caret marking the mismatching column positions.

doctest.REPORT_ONLY_FIRST_FAILURE

When specified, display the first failing example in each doctest, but suppress output for all remaining examples. This will prevent doctest from reporting correct examples that break because of earlier failures; but it might also hide incorrect examples that fail independently of the first failure. When

`REPORT_ONLY_FIRST_FAILURE` is specified, the remaining examples are still run, and still count towards the total number of failures reported; only the output is suppressed.

`doctest.FAIL_FAST`

When specified, exit after the first failing example and don't attempt to run the remaining examples. Thus, the number of failures reported will be at most 1. This flag may be useful during debugging, since examples after the first failure won't even produce debugging output.

The doctest command line accepts the option `-f` as a shorthand for `-o FAIL_FAST`.

New in version 3.4.

`doctest.REPORTING_FLAGS`

A bitmask or'ing together all the reporting flags above.

There is also a way to register new option flag names, though this isn't useful unless you intend to extend `doctest` internals via subclassing:

`doctest.register_optionflag(name)`

Create a new option flag with a given name, and return the new flag's integer value. `register_optionflag()` can be used when subclassing `OutputChecker` or `DocTestRunner` to create new options that are supported by your subclasses. `register_optionflag()` should always be called using the following idiom:

```
MY_FLAG = register_optionflag('MY_FLAG')
```

Directives

Doctest directives may be used to modify the *option flags* for an individual example. Doctest directives are special Python comments following an example's source code:

```
directive           ::=    "#" "doctest:" directive_options
directive_options   ::=    directive_option ("," directive_option)*
directive_option     ::=    on_or_off directive_option_name
on_or_off           ::=    "+" \| "-"
directive_option_name ::=    "DONT_ACCEPT_BLANKLINE" \| "NORMALIZE_WHITESPACE" \| ...
```

Whitespace is not allowed between the + or - and the directive option name. The directive option name can be any of the option flag names explained above.

An example's doctest directives modify doctest's behavior for that single example. Use + to enable the named behavior, or - to disable it.

For example, this test passes:

```
>>> print(list(range(20)))
[0,  1,  2,  3,  4,  5,  6,  7,  8,  9,
10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19]
```

Without the directive it would fail, both because the actual output doesn't have two blanks before the single-digit list elements, and because the actual output is on a single line. This test also passes, and also requires a directive to do so:

```
>>> print(list(range(20)))
[0, 1, ..., 18, 19]
```

Multiple directives can be used on a single physical line, separated by commas:

```
>>> print(list(range(20)))
[0, 1, ..., 18, 19]
```

If multiple directive comments are used for a single example, then they are combined:

```
>>> print(list(range(20)))
...
[0, 1, ..., 18, 19]
```

As the previous example shows, you can add ... lines to your example containing only directives. This can be useful when an example is too long for a directive to comfortably fit on the same line:

```
>>> print(list(range(5)) + list(range(10, 20)) + list(range(30, 40)))
...
[0, ..., 4, 10, ..., 19, 30, ..., 39]
```

Note that since all options are disabled by default, and directives apply only to the example they appear in, enabling options (via + in a directive) is usually the only meaningful choice. However, option flags can also be passed to functions that run doctests, establishing different defaults. In such cases, disabling an option via - in a directive can be useful.

Warnings

`doctest` is serious about requiring exact matches in expected output. If even a single character doesn't match, the test fails. This will probably surprise you a few times, as you learn exactly what Python does and doesn't guarantee about output. For example, when printing a dict, Python doesn't guarantee that the key-value pairs will be printed in any particular order, so a test like

```
>>> foo()
{"Hermione": "hippogryph", "Harry": "broomstick"}
```

is vulnerable! One workaround is to do

```
>>> foo() == {"Hermione": "hippogryph", "Harry": "broomstick"}
True
```

instead. Another is to do

```
>>> d = sorted(foo().items())
>>> d
[('Harry', 'broomstick'), ('Hermione', 'hippogryph')]
```

There are others, but you get the idea.

Another bad idea is to print things that embed an object address, like

```
>>> id(1.0) # certain to fail some of the time
7948648
>>> class C: pass
>>> C() # the default repr() for instances embeds an address
<__main__.C instance at 0x00AC18F0>
```

The *ELLIPSIS* directive gives a nice approach for the last example:

```
>>> C()
<__main__.C instance at 0x...>
```

Floating-point numbers are also subject to small output variations across platforms, because Python defers to the platform C library for float formatting, and C libraries vary widely in quality here.

```
>>> 1./7 # risky
0.14285714285714285
>>> print(1./7) # safer
0.142857142857
>>> print(round(1./7, 6)) # much safer
0.142857
```

Numbers of the form `I/2.**J` are safe across all platforms, and I often contrive doctest examples to produce numbers of that form:

```
>>> 3./4 # utterly safe
0.75
```

Simple fractions are also easier for people to understand, and that makes for better documentation.

27.3.4 Basic API

The functions `testmod()` and `testfile()` provide a simple interface to doctest that should be sufficient for most basic uses. For a less formal introduction to these two functions, see sections *Simple Usage: Checking Examples in Docstrings* and *Simple Usage: Checking Examples in a Text File*.

```
doctest.testfile(filename,
                  module_relative=True, name=None, package=None,
                  globs=None, verbose=None, report=True, optionflags=0, extraglobs=None,
                  raise_on_error=False, parser=DocTestParser(), encoding=None)
```

All arguments except `filename` are optional, and should be specified in keyword form.

Test examples in the file named `filename`. Return `(failure_count, test_count)`.

Optional argument `module_relative` specifies how the filename should be interpreted:

- If `module_relative` is `True` (the default), then `filename` specifies an OS-independent module-relative path. By default, this path is relative to the calling module's directory; but if the `package` argument is specified, then it is relative to that package. To ensure OS-independence, `filename` should use `/` characters to separate path segments, and may not be an absolute path (i.e., it may not begin with `/`).
- If `module_relative` is `False`, then `filename` specifies an OS-specific path. The path may be absolute or relative; relative paths are resolved with respect to the current working directory.

Optional argument `name` gives the name of the test; by default, or if `None`, `os.path.basename(filename)` is used.

Optional argument `package` is a Python package or the name of a Python package whose directory should be used as the base directory for a module-relative filename. If no package is specified, then the calling module's directory is used as the base directory for module-relative filenames. It is an error to specify `package` if `module_relative` is `False`.

Optional argument `globs` gives a dict to be used as the globals when executing examples. A new shallow copy of this dict is created for the doctest, so its examples start with a clean slate. By default, or if `None`, a new empty dict is used.

Optional argument `extraglobs` gives a dict merged into the globals used to execute examples. This works like `dict.update()`: if `globs` and `extraglobs` have a common key, the associated value in `extraglobs`

appears in the combined dict. By default, or if `None`, no extra globals are used. This is an advanced feature that allows parameterization of doctests. For example, a doctest can be written for a base class, using a generic name for the class, then reused to test any number of subclasses by passing an *extraglobs* dict mapping the generic name to the subclass to be tested.

Optional argument *verbose* prints lots of stuff if true, and prints only failures if false; by default, or if `None`, it's true if and only if `'-v'` is in `sys.argv`.

Optional argument *report* prints a summary at the end when true, else prints nothing at the end. In verbose mode, the summary is detailed, else the summary is very brief (in fact, empty if all tests passed).

Optional argument *optionflags* (default value 0) takes the bitwise OR of option flags. See section *Option Flags*.

Optional argument *raise_on_error* defaults to false. If true, an exception is raised upon the first failure or unexpected exception in an example. This allows failures to be post-mortem debugged. Default behavior is to continue running examples.

Optional argument *parser* specifies a *DocTestParser* (or subclass) that should be used to extract tests from the files. It defaults to a normal parser (i.e., `DocTestParser()`).

Optional argument *encoding* specifies an encoding that should be used to convert the file to unicode.

```
doctest.testmod(m=None, name=None, globs=None, verbose=None, report=True, optionflags=0,
                extraglobs=None, raise_on_error=False, exclude_empty=False)
```

All arguments are optional, and all except for *m* should be specified in keyword form.

Test examples in docstrings in functions and classes reachable from module *m* (or module `__main__` if *m* is not supplied or is `None`), starting with `m.__doc__`.

Also test examples reachable from dict `m.__test__`, if it exists and is not `None`. `m.__test__` maps names (strings) to functions, classes and strings; function and class docstrings are searched for examples; strings are searched directly, as if they were docstrings.

Only docstrings attached to objects belonging to module *m* are searched.

Return (`failure_count`, `test_count`).

Optional argument *name* gives the name of the module; by default, or if `None`, `m.__name__` is used.

Optional argument *exclude_empty* defaults to false. If true, objects for which no doctests are found are excluded from consideration. The default is a backward compatibility hack, so that code still using `doctest.master.summarize()` in conjunction with `testmod()` continues to get output for objects with no tests. The *exclude_empty* argument to the newer *DocTestFinder* constructor defaults to true.

Optional arguments *extraglobs*, *verbose*, *report*, *optionflags*, *raise_on_error*, and *globs* are the same as for function `testfile()` above, except that *globs* defaults to `m.__dict__`.

```
doctest.run_docstring_examples(f, globs, verbose=False, name="NoName", compileflags=None,
                              optionflags=0)
```

Test examples associated with object *f*; for example, *f* may be a string, a module, a function, or a class object.

A shallow copy of dictionary argument *globs* is used for the execution context.

Optional argument *name* is used in failure messages, and defaults to `"NoName"`.

If optional argument *verbose* is true, output is generated even if there are no failures. By default, output is generated only in case of an example failure.

Optional argument *compileflags* gives the set of flags that should be used by the Python compiler when running the examples. By default, or if `None`, flags are deduced corresponding to the set of future features found in *globs*.

Optional argument *optionflags* works as for function `testfile()` above.

27.3.5 Unittest API

As your collection of doctest'ed modules grows, you'll want a way to run all their doctests systematically. `doctest` provides two functions that can be used to create `unittest` test suites from modules and text files containing doctests. To integrate with `unittest` test discovery, include a `load_tests()` function in your test module:

```
import unittest
import doctest
import my_module_with_doctests

def load_tests(loader, tests, ignore):
    tests.addTests(doctest.DocTestSuite(my_module_with_doctests))
    return tests
```

There are two main functions for creating `unittest.TestSuite` instances from text files and modules with doctests:

```
doctest.DocFileSuite(*paths, module_relative=True, package=None, setUp=None,
                     tearDown=None, globs=None, optionflags=0, parser=DocTestParser(),
                     encoding=None)
```

Convert doctest tests from one or more text files to a `unittest.TestSuite`.

The returned `unittest.TestSuite` is to be run by the unittest framework and runs the interactive examples in each file. If an example in any file fails, then the synthesized unit test fails, and a `failureException` exception is raised showing the name of the file containing the test and a (sometimes approximate) line number.

Pass one or more paths (as strings) to text files to be examined.

Options may be provided as keyword arguments:

Optional argument `module_relative` specifies how the filenames in `paths` should be interpreted:

- If `module_relative` is `True` (the default), then each filename in `paths` specifies an OS-independent module-relative path. By default, this path is relative to the calling module's directory; but if the `package` argument is specified, then it is relative to that package. To ensure OS-independence, each filename should use `/` characters to separate path segments, and may not be an absolute path (i.e., it may not begin with `/`).
- If `module_relative` is `False`, then each filename in `paths` specifies an OS-specific path. The path may be absolute or relative; relative paths are resolved with respect to the current working directory.

Optional argument `package` is a Python package or the name of a Python package whose directory should be used as the base directory for module-relative filenames in `paths`. If no package is specified, then the calling module's directory is used as the base directory for module-relative filenames. It is an error to specify `package` if `module_relative` is `False`.

Optional argument `setUp` specifies a set-up function for the test suite. This is called before running the tests in each file. The `setUp` function will be passed a `DocTest` object. The `setUp` function can access the test globals as the `globs` attribute of the test passed.

Optional argument `tearDown` specifies a tear-down function for the test suite. This is called after running the tests in each file. The `tearDown` function will be passed a `DocTest` object. The `setUp` function can access the test globals as the `globs` attribute of the test passed.

Optional argument `globs` is a dictionary containing the initial global variables for the tests. A new copy of this dictionary is created for each test. By default, `globs` is a new empty dictionary.

Optional argument *optionflags* specifies the default doctest options for the tests, created by or-ing together individual option flags. See section *Option Flags*. See function `set_unittest_reportflags()` below for a better way to set reporting options.

Optional argument *parser* specifies a *DocTestParser* (or subclass) that should be used to extract tests from the files. It defaults to a normal parser (i.e., `DocTestParser()`).

Optional argument *encoding* specifies an encoding that should be used to convert the file to unicode.

The global `__file__` is added to the globals provided to doctests loaded from a text file using *DocFileSuite()*.

```
doctest.DocTestSuite(module=None,      globs=None,      extraglobs=None,      test_finder=None,
                    setUp=None, tearDown=None, checker=None)
Convert doctest tests for a module to a unittest.TestSuite.
```

The returned *unittest.TestSuite* is to be run by the unittest framework and runs each doctest in the module. If any of the doctests fail, then the synthesized unit test fails, and a `failureException` exception is raised showing the name of the file containing the test and a (sometimes approximate) line number.

Optional argument *module* provides the module to be tested. It can be a module object or a (possibly dotted) module name. If not specified, the module calling this function is used.

Optional argument *globs* is a dictionary containing the initial global variables for the tests. A new copy of this dictionary is created for each test. By default, *globs* is a new empty dictionary.

Optional argument *extraglobs* specifies an extra set of global variables, which is merged into *globs*. By default, no extra globals are used.

Optional argument *test_finder* is the *DocTestFinder* object (or a drop-in replacement) that is used to extract doctests from the module.

Optional arguments *setUp*, *tearDown*, and *optionflags* are the same as for function *DocFileSuite()* above.

This function uses the same search technique as *testmod()*.

Changed in version 3.5: *DocTestSuite()* returns an empty *unittest.TestSuite* if *module* contains no docstrings instead of raising *ValueError*.

Under the covers, *DocTestSuite()* creates a *unittest.TestSuite* out of *doctest.DocTestCase* instances, and *DocTestCase* is a subclass of *unittest.TestCase*. *DocTestCase* isn't documented here (it's an internal detail), but studying its code can answer questions about the exact details of *unittest* integration.

Similarly, *DocFileSuite()* creates a *unittest.TestSuite* out of *doctest.DocFileCase* instances, and *DocFileCase* is a subclass of *DocTestCase*.

So both ways of creating a *unittest.TestSuite* run instances of *DocTestCase*. This is important for a subtle reason: when you run *doctest* functions yourself, you can control the *doctest* options in use directly, by passing option flags to *doctest* functions. However, if you're writing a *unittest* framework, *unittest* ultimately controls when and how tests get run. The framework author typically wants to control *doctest* reporting options (perhaps, e.g., specified by command line options), but there's no way to pass options through *unittest* to *doctest* test runners.

For this reason, *doctest* also supports a notion of *doctest* reporting flags specific to *unittest* support, via this function:

```
doctest.set_unittest_reportflags(flags)
Set the doctest reporting flags to use.
```

Argument *flags* takes the bitwise OR of option flags. See section *Option Flags*. Only "reporting flags" can be used.

This is a module-global setting, and affects all future doctests run by module `unittest`: the `runTest()` method of `DocTestCase` looks at the option flags specified for the test case when the `DocTestCase` instance was constructed. If no reporting flags were specified (which is the typical and expected case), `doctest`'s `unittest` reporting flags are bitwise ORed into the option flags, and the option flags so augmented are passed to the `DocTestRunner` instance created to run the doctest. If any reporting flags were specified when the `DocTestCase` instance was constructed, `doctest`'s `unittest` reporting flags are ignored.

The value of the `unittest` reporting flags in effect before the function was called is returned by the function.

27.3.6 Advanced API

The basic API is a simple wrapper that's intended to make doctest easy to use. It is fairly flexible, and should meet most users' needs; however, if you require more fine-grained control over testing, or wish to extend doctest's capabilities, then you should use the advanced API.

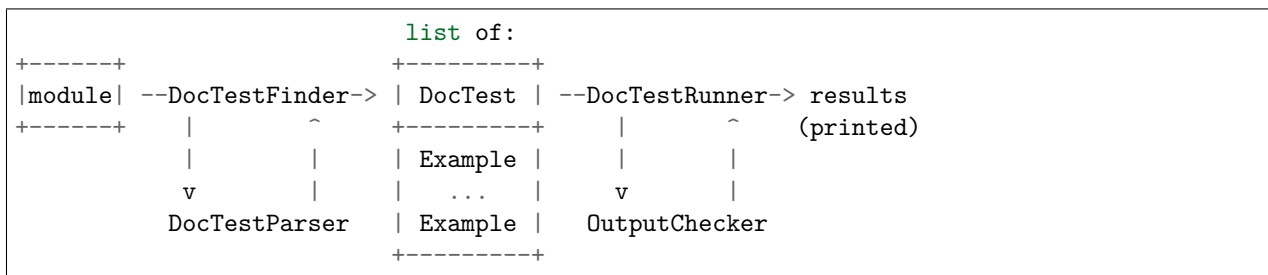
The advanced API revolves around two container classes, which are used to store the interactive examples extracted from doctest cases:

- **Example**: A single Python *statement*, paired with its expected output.
- **DocTest**: A collection of *Examples*, typically extracted from a single docstring or text file.

Additional processing classes are defined to find, parse, and run, and check doctest examples:

- **DocTestFinder**: Finds all docstrings in a given module, and uses a `DocTestParser` to create a `DocTest` from every docstring that contains interactive examples.
- **DocTestParser**: Creates a `DocTest` object from a string (such as an object's docstring).
- **DocTestRunner**: Executes the examples in a `DocTest`, and uses an `OutputChecker` to verify their output.
- **OutputChecker**: Compares the actual output from a doctest example with the expected output, and decides whether they match.

The relationships among these processing classes are summarized in the following diagram:



DocTest Objects

class `doctest.DocTest(examples, globs, name, filename, lineno, docstring)`

A collection of doctest examples that should be run in a single namespace. The constructor arguments are used to initialize the attributes of the same names.

`DocTest` defines the following attributes. They are initialized by the constructor, and should not be modified directly.

examples

A list of *Example* objects encoding the individual interactive Python examples that should be run by this test.

globs

The namespace (aka globals) that the examples should be run in. This is a dictionary mapping names to values. Any changes to the namespace made by the examples (such as binding new variables) will be reflected in *globs* after the test is run.

name

A string name identifying the *DocTest*. Typically, this is the name of the object or file that the test was extracted from.

filename

The name of the file that this *DocTest* was extracted from; or *None* if the filename is unknown, or if the *DocTest* was not extracted from a file.

lineno

The line number within *filename* where this *DocTest* begins, or *None* if the line number is unavailable. This line number is zero-based with respect to the beginning of the file.

docstring

The string that the test was extracted from, or *None* if the string is unavailable, or if the test was not extracted from a string.

Example Objects

class `doctest.Example`(*source*, *want*, *exc_msg=None*, *lineno=0*, *indent=0*, *options=None*)

A single interactive example, consisting of a Python statement and its expected output. The constructor arguments are used to initialize the attributes of the same names.

Example defines the following attributes. They are initialized by the constructor, and should not be modified directly.

source

A string containing the example's source code. This source code consists of a single Python statement, and always ends with a newline; the constructor adds a newline when necessary.

want

The expected output from running the example's source code (either from stdout, or a traceback in case of exception). *want* ends with a newline unless no output is expected, in which case it's an empty string. The constructor adds a newline when necessary.

exc_msg

The exception message generated by the example, if the example is expected to generate an exception; or *None* if it is not expected to generate an exception. This exception message is compared against the return value of `traceback.format_exception_only()`. *exc_msg* ends with a newline unless it's *None*. The constructor adds a newline if needed.

lineno

The line number within the string containing this example where the example begins. This line number is zero-based with respect to the beginning of the containing string.

indent

The example's indentation in the containing string, i.e., the number of space characters that precede the example's first prompt.

options

A dictionary mapping from option flags to *True* or *False*, which is used to override default options for this example. Any option flags not contained in this dictionary are left at their default value (as specified by the *DocTestRunner*'s *optionflags*). By default, no options are set.

DocTestFinder objects

```
class doctest.DocTestFinder(verbose=False, parser=DocTestParser(), recurse=True, exclude_empty=True)
```

A processing class used to extract the *DocTests* that are relevant to a given object, from its docstring and the docstrings of its contained objects. *DocTests* can be extracted from modules, classes, functions, methods, staticmethods, classmethods, and properties.

The optional argument *verbose* can be used to display the objects searched by the finder. It defaults to **False** (no output).

The optional argument *parser* specifies the *DocTestParser* object (or a drop-in replacement) that is used to extract doctests from docstrings.

If the optional argument *recurse* is false, then *DocTestFinder.find()* will only examine the given object, and not any contained objects.

If the optional argument *exclude_empty* is false, then *DocTestFinder.find()* will include tests for objects with empty docstrings.

DocTestFinder defines the following method:

```
find(obj[, name][, module][, globs][, extraglobs])
```

Return a list of the *DocTests* that are defined by *obj*'s docstring, or by any of its contained objects' docstrings.

The optional argument *name* specifies the object's name; this name will be used to construct names for the returned *DocTests*. If *name* is not specified, then *obj.__name__* is used.

The optional parameter *module* is the module that contains the given object. If the module is not specified or is **None**, then the test finder will attempt to automatically determine the correct module. The object's module is used:

- As a default namespace, if *globs* is not specified.
- To prevent the *DocTestFinder* from extracting *DocTests* from objects that are imported from other modules. (Contained objects with modules other than *module* are ignored.)
- To find the name of the file containing the object.
- To help find the line number of the object within its file.

If *module* is **False**, no attempt to find the module will be made. This is obscure, of use mostly in testing *doctest* itself: if *module* is **False**, or is **None** but cannot be found automatically, then all objects are considered to belong to the (non-existent) module, so all contained objects will (recursively) be searched for doctests.

The globals for each *DocTest* is formed by combining *globs* and *extraglobs* (bindings in *extraglobs* override bindings in *globs*). A new shallow copy of the globals dictionary is created for each *DocTest*. If *globs* is not specified, then it defaults to the module's `__dict__`, if specified, or `{}` otherwise. If *extraglobs* is not specified, then it defaults to `{}`.

DocTestParser objects

```
class doctest.DocTestParser
```

A processing class used to extract interactive examples from a string, and use them to create a *DocTest* object.

DocTestParser defines the following methods:

```
get_doctest(string, globs, name, filename, lineno)
```

Extract all doctest examples from the given string, and collect them into a *DocTest* object.

globs, *name*, *filename*, and *lineno* are attributes for the new *DocTest* object. See the documentation for *DocTest* for more information.

get_examples(*string*, *name*='<string>')

Extract all doctest examples from the given string, and return them as a list of *Example* objects. Line numbers are 0-based. The optional argument *name* is a name identifying this string, and is only used for error messages.

parse(*string*, *name*='<string>')

Divide the given string into examples and intervening text, and return them as a list of alternating *Examples* and strings. Line numbers for the *Examples* are 0-based. The optional argument *name* is a name identifying this string, and is only used for error messages.

DocTestRunner objects

class `doctest.DocTestRunner`(*checker=None*, *verbose=None*, *optionflags=0*)

A processing class used to execute and verify the interactive examples in a *DocTest*.

The comparison between expected outputs and actual outputs is done by an *OutputChecker*. This comparison may be customized with a number of option flags; see section *Option Flags* for more information. If the option flags are insufficient, then the comparison may also be customized by passing a subclass of *OutputChecker* to the constructor.

The test runner's display output can be controlled in two ways. First, an output function can be passed to `TestRunner.run()`; this function will be called with strings that should be displayed. It defaults to `sys.stdout.write`. If capturing the output is not sufficient, then the display output can be also customized by subclassing *DocTestRunner*, and overriding the methods *report_start()*, *report_success()*, *report_unexpected_exception()*, and *report_failure()*.

The optional keyword argument *checker* specifies the *OutputChecker* object (or drop-in replacement) that should be used to compare the expected outputs to the actual outputs of doctest examples.

The optional keyword argument *verbose* controls the *DocTestRunner*'s verbosity. If *verbose* is `True`, then information is printed about each example, as it is run. If *verbose* is `False`, then only failures are printed. If *verbose* is unspecified, or `None`, then verbose output is used iff the command-line switch `-v` is used.

The optional keyword argument *optionflags* can be used to control how the test runner compares expected output to actual output, and how it displays failures. For more information, see section *Option Flags*.

DocTestParser defines the following methods:

report_start(*out*, *test*, *example*)

Report that the test runner is about to process the given example. This method is provided to allow subclasses of *DocTestRunner* to customize their output; it should not be called directly.

example is the example about to be processed. *test* is the test containing *example*. *out* is the output function that was passed to *DocTestRunner.run()*.

report_success(*out*, *test*, *example*, *got*)

Report that the given example ran successfully. This method is provided to allow subclasses of *DocTestRunner* to customize their output; it should not be called directly.

example is the example about to be processed. *got* is the actual output from the example. *test* is the test containing *example*. *out* is the output function that was passed to *DocTestRunner.run()*.

report_failure(*out*, *test*, *example*, *got*)

Report that the given example failed. This method is provided to allow subclasses of *DocTestRunner* to customize their output; it should not be called directly.

example is the example about to be processed. *got* is the actual output from the example. *test* is the test containing *example*. *out* is the output function that was passed to `DocTestRunner.run()`.

report_unexpected_exception(*out*, *test*, *example*, *exc_info*)

Report that the given example raised an unexpected exception. This method is provided to allow subclasses of `DocTestRunner` to customize their output; it should not be called directly.

example is the example about to be processed. *exc_info* is a tuple containing information about the unexpected exception (as returned by `sys.exc_info()`). *test* is the test containing *example*. *out* is the output function that was passed to `DocTestRunner.run()`.

run(*test*, *compileflags*=None, *out*=None, *clear_globs*=True)

Run the examples in *test* (a `DocTest` object), and display the results using the writer function *out*.

The examples are run in the namespace `test.globs`. If *clear_globs* is true (the default), then this namespace will be cleared after the test runs, to help with garbage collection. If you would like to examine the namespace after the test completes, then use *clear_globs*=False.

compileflags gives the set of flags that should be used by the Python compiler when running the examples. If not specified, then it will default to the set of future-import flags that apply to *globs*.

The output of each example is checked using the `DocTestRunner`'s output checker, and the results are formatted by the `DocTestRunner.report_*` methods.

summarize(*verbose*=None)

Print a summary of all the test cases that have been run by this `DocTestRunner`, and return a *named tuple* `TestResults(failed, attempted)`.

The optional *verbose* argument controls how detailed the summary is. If the verbosity is not specified, then the `DocTestRunner`'s verbosity is used.

OutputChecker objects

class doctest.OutputChecker

A class used to check the whether the actual output from a doctest example matches the expected output. `OutputChecker` defines two methods: `check_output()`, which compares a given pair of outputs, and returns true if they match; and `output_difference()`, which returns a string describing the differences between two outputs.

`OutputChecker` defines the following methods:

check_output(*want*, *got*, *optionflags*)

Return `True` iff the actual output from an example (*got*) matches the expected output (*want*). These strings are always considered to match if they are identical; but depending on what option flags the test runner is using, several non-exact match types are also possible. See section [Option Flags](#) for more information about option flags.

output_difference(*example*, *got*, *optionflags*)

Return a string describing the differences between the expected output for a given example (*example*) and the actual output (*got*). *optionflags* is the set of option flags used to compare *want* and *got*.

27.3.7 Debugging

Doctest provides several mechanisms for debugging doctest examples:

- Several functions convert doctests to executable Python programs, which can be run under the Python debugger, `pdb`.

- The `DebugRunner` class is a subclass of `DocTestRunner` that raises an exception for the first failing example, containing information about that example. This information can be used to perform post-mortem debugging on the example.
- The `unittest` cases generated by `DocTestSuite()` support the `debug()` method defined by `unittest.TestCase`.
- You can add a call to `pdb.set_trace()` in a doctest example, and you'll drop into the Python debugger when that line is executed. Then you can inspect current values of variables, and so on. For example, suppose `a.py` contains just this module docstring:

```
"""
>>> def f(x):
...     g(x*2)
>>> def g(x):
...     print(x+3)
...     import pdb; pdb.set_trace()
>>> f(3)
9
"""
```

Then an interactive Python session may look like this:

```
>>> import a, doctest
>>> doctest.testmod(a)
--Return--
> <doctest a[1]>(3)g()->None
-> import pdb; pdb.set_trace()
(Pdb) list
  1     def g(x):
  2         print(x+3)
  3 ->     import pdb; pdb.set_trace()
[EOF]
(Pdb) p x
6
(Pdb) step
--Return--
> <doctest a[0]>(2)f()->None
-> g(x*2)
(Pdb) list
  1     def f(x):
  2 ->     g(x*2)
[EOF]
(Pdb) p x
3
(Pdb) step
--Return--
> <doctest a[2]>(1)?()->None
-> f(3)
(Pdb) cont
(0, 3)
>>>
```

Functions that convert doctests to Python code, and possibly run the synthesized code under the debugger:

`doctest.script_from_examples(s)`

Convert text with examples to a script.

Argument *s* is a string containing doctest examples. The string is converted to a Python script, where doctest examples in *s* are converted to regular code, and everything else is converted to Python comments. The generated script is returned as a string. For example,

```
import doctest
print(doctest.script_from_examples(r"""
    Set x and y to 1 and 2.
    >>> x, y = 1, 2

    Print their sum:
    >>> print(x+y)
    3
    """))
```

displays:

```
# Set x and y to 1 and 2.
x, y = 1, 2
#
# Print their sum:
print(x+y)
# Expected:
## 3
```

This function is used internally by other functions (see below), but can also be useful when you want to transform an interactive Python session into a Python script.

`doctest.testsource(module, name)`

Convert the doctest for an object to a script.

Argument *module* is a module object, or dotted name of a module, containing the object whose doctests are of interest. Argument *name* is the name (within the module) of the object with the doctests of interest. The result is a string, containing the object's docstring converted to a Python script, as described for `script_from_examples()` above. For example, if module `a.py` contains a top-level function `f()`, then

```
import a, doctest
print(doctest.testsource(a, "a.f"))
```

prints a script version of function `f()`'s docstring, with doctests converted to code, and the rest placed in comments.

`doctest.debug(module, name, pm=False)`

Debug the doctests for an object.

The *module* and *name* arguments are the same as for function `testsource()` above. The synthesized Python script for the named object's docstring is written to a temporary file, and then that file is run under the control of the Python debugger, `pdb`.

A shallow copy of `module.__dict__` is used for both local and global execution context.

Optional argument *pm* controls whether post-mortem debugging is used. If *pm* has a true value, the script file is run directly, and the debugger gets involved only if the script terminates via raising an unhandled exception. If it does, then post-mortem debugging is invoked, via `pdb.post_mortem()`, passing the traceback object from the unhandled exception. If *pm* is not specified, or is false, the script is run under the debugger from the start, via passing an appropriate `exec()` call to `pdb.run()`.

`doctest.debug_src(src, pm=False, globs=None)`

Debug the doctests in a string.

This is like function `debug()` above, except that a string containing doctest examples is specified directly, via the `src` argument.

Optional argument `pm` has the same meaning as in function `debug()` above.

Optional argument `globs` gives a dictionary to use as both local and global execution context. If not specified, or `None`, an empty dictionary is used. If specified, a shallow copy of the dictionary is used.

The `DebugRunner` class, and the special exceptions it may raise, are of most interest to testing framework authors, and will only be sketched here. See the source code, and especially `DebugRunner`'s docstring (which is a doctest!) for more details:

class `doctest.DebugRunner`(*checker=None, verbose=None, optionflags=0*)

A subclass of `DocTestRunner` that raises an exception as soon as a failure is encountered. If an unexpected exception occurs, an `UnexpectedException` exception is raised, containing the test, the example, and the original exception. If the output doesn't match, then a `DocTestFailure` exception is raised, containing the test, the example, and the actual output.

For information about the constructor parameters and methods, see the documentation for `DocTestRunner` in section *Advanced API*.

There are two exceptions that may be raised by `DebugRunner` instances:

exception `doctest.DocTestFailure`(*test, example, got*)

An exception raised by `DocTestRunner` to signal that a doctest example's actual output did not match its expected output. The constructor arguments are used to initialize the attributes of the same names.

`DocTestFailure` defines the following attributes:

`DocTestFailure.test`

The `DocTest` object that was being run when the example failed.

`DocTestFailure.example`

The `Example` that failed.

`DocTestFailure.got`

The example's actual output.

exception `doctest.UnexpectedException`(*test, example, exc_info*)

An exception raised by `DocTestRunner` to signal that a doctest example raised an unexpected exception. The constructor arguments are used to initialize the attributes of the same names.

`UnexpectedException` defines the following attributes:

`UnexpectedException.test`

The `DocTest` object that was being run when the example failed.

`UnexpectedException.example`

The `Example` that failed.

`UnexpectedException.exc_info`

A tuple containing information about the unexpected exception, as returned by `sys.exc_info()`.

27.3.8 Soapbox

As mentioned in the introduction, `doctest` has grown to have three primary uses:

1. Checking examples in docstrings.
2. Regression testing.
3. Executable documentation / literate testing.

These uses have different requirements, and it is important to distinguish them. In particular, filling your docstrings with obscure test cases makes for bad documentation.

When writing a docstring, choose docstring examples with care. There's an art to this that needs to be learned—it may not be natural at first. Examples should add genuine value to the documentation. A good example can often be worth many words. If done with care, the examples will be invaluable for your users, and will pay back the time it takes to collect them many times over as the years go by and things change. I'm still amazed at how often one of my `doctest` examples stops working after a “harmless” change.

Doctest also makes an excellent tool for regression testing, especially if you don't skimp on explanatory text. By interleaving prose and examples, it becomes much easier to keep track of what's actually being tested, and why. When a test fails, good prose can make it much easier to figure out what the problem is, and how it should be fixed. It's true that you could write extensive comments in code-based testing, but few programmers do. Many have found that using doctest approaches instead leads to much clearer tests. Perhaps this is simply because doctest makes writing prose a little easier than writing code, while writing comments in code is a little harder. I think it goes deeper than just that: the natural attitude when writing a doctest-based test is that you want to explain the fine points of your software, and illustrate them with examples. This in turn naturally leads to test files that start with the simplest features, and logically progress to complications and edge cases. A coherent narrative is the result, instead of a collection of isolated functions that test isolated bits of functionality seemingly at random. It's a different attitude, and produces different results, blurring the distinction between testing and explaining.

Regression testing is best confined to dedicated objects or files. There are several options for organizing tests:

- Write text files containing test cases as interactive examples, and test the files using `testfile()` or `DocFileSuite()`. This is recommended, although is easiest to do for new projects, designed from the start to use doctest.
- Define functions named `_regtest_topic` that consist of single docstrings, containing test cases for the named topics. These functions can be included in the same file as the module, or separated out into a separate test file.
- Define a `__test__` dictionary mapping from regression test topics to docstrings containing test cases.

When you have placed your tests in a module, the module can itself be the test runner. When a test fails, you can arrange for your test runner to re-run only the failing doctest while you debug the problem. Here is a minimal example of such a test runner:

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    import doctest
    flags = doctest.REPORT_NDIFF|doctest.FAIL_FAST
    if len(sys.argv) > 1:
        name = sys.argv[1]
        if name in globals():
            obj = globals()[name]
        else:
            obj = __test__[name]
        doctest.run_docstring_examples(obj, globals(), name=name,
                                      optionflags=flags)
    else:
        fail, total = doctest.testmod(optionflags=flags)
        print("{} failures out of {} tests".format(fail, total))
```

27.4 unittest — Unit testing framework

Source code: `Lib/unittest/__init__.py`

(If you are already familiar with the basic concepts of testing, you might want to skip to [the list of assert methods](#).)

The `unittest` unit testing framework was originally inspired by JUnit and has a similar flavor as major unit testing frameworks in other languages. It supports test automation, sharing of setup and shutdown code for tests, aggregation of tests into collections, and independence of the tests from the reporting framework.

To achieve this, `unittest` supports some important concepts in an object-oriented way:

test fixture A *test fixture* represents the preparation needed to perform one or more tests, and any associated cleanup actions. This may involve, for example, creating temporary or proxy databases, directories, or starting a server process.

test case A *test case* is the individual unit of testing. It checks for a specific response to a particular set of inputs. `unittest` provides a base class, `TestCase`, which may be used to create new test cases.

test suite A *test suite* is a collection of test cases, test suites, or both. It is used to aggregate tests that should be executed together.

test runner A *test runner* is a component which orchestrates the execution of tests and provides the outcome to the user. The runner may use a graphical interface, a textual interface, or return a special value to indicate the results of executing the tests.

See also:

Module `doctest` Another test-support module with a very different flavor.

Simple Smalltalk Testing: With Patterns Kent Beck's original paper on testing frameworks using the pattern shared by `unittest`.

Nose and pytest Third-party unittest frameworks with a lighter-weight syntax for writing tests. For example, `assert func(10) == 42`.

The Python Testing Tools Taxonomy An extensive list of Python testing tools including functional testing frameworks and mock object libraries.

Testing in Python Mailing List A special-interest-group for discussion of testing, and testing tools, in Python.

The script `Tools/unittestgui/unittestgui.py` in the Python source distribution is a GUI tool for test discovery and execution. This is intended largely for ease of use for those new to unit testing. For production environments it is recommended that tests be driven by a continuous integration system such as [Buildbot](#), [Jenkins](#) or [Hudson](#).

27.4.1 Basic example

The `unittest` module provides a rich set of tools for constructing and running tests. This section demonstrates that a small subset of the tools suffice to meet the needs of most users.

Here is a short script to test three string methods:

```
import unittest

class TestStringMethods(unittest.TestCase):
```

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```

def test_upper(self):
    self.assertEqual('foo'.upper(), 'FOO')

def test_isupper(self):
    self.assertTrue('FOO'.isupper())
    self.assertFalse('Foo'.isupper())

def test_split(self):
    s = 'hello world'
    self.assertEqual(s.split(), ['hello', 'world'])
    # check that s.split fails when the separator is not a string
    with self.assertRaises(TypeError):
        s.split(2)

if __name__ == '__main__':
    unittest.main()

```

A testcase is created by subclassing `unittest.TestCase`. The three individual tests are defined with methods whose names start with the letters `test`. This naming convention informs the test runner about which methods represent tests.

The crux of each test is a call to `assertEqual()` to check for an expected result; `assertTrue()` or `assertFalse()` to verify a condition; or `assertRaises()` to verify that a specific exception gets raised. These methods are used instead of the `assert` statement so the test runner can accumulate all test results and produce a report.

The `setUp()` and `tearDown()` methods allow you to define instructions that will be executed before and after each test method. They are covered in more detail in the section *Organizing test code*.

The final block shows a simple way to run the tests. `unittest.main()` provides a command-line interface to the test script. When run from the command line, the above script produces an output that looks like this:

```

...
-----
Ran 3 tests in 0.000s

OK

```

Passing the `-v` option to your test script will instruct `unittest.main()` to enable a higher level of verbosity, and produce the following output:

```

test_isupper (__main__.TestStringMethods) ... ok
test_split (__main__.TestStringMethods) ... ok
test_upper (__main__.TestStringMethods) ... ok
-----
Ran 3 tests in 0.001s

OK

```

The above examples show the most commonly used `unittest` features which are sufficient to meet many everyday testing needs. The remainder of the documentation explores the full feature set from first principles.

27.4.2 Command-Line Interface

The `unittest` module can be used from the command line to run tests from modules, classes or even individual test methods:

```
python -m unittest test_module1 test_module2
python -m unittest test_module.TestClass
python -m unittest test_module.TestClass.test_method
```

You can pass in a list with any combination of module names, and fully qualified class or method names.

Test modules can be specified by file path as well:

```
python -m unittest tests/test_something.py
```

This allows you to use the shell filename completion to specify the test module. The file specified must still be importable as a module. The path is converted to a module name by removing the `.py` and converting path separators into `.`. If you want to execute a test file that isn't importable as a module you should execute the file directly instead.

You can run tests with more detail (higher verbosity) by passing in the `-v` flag:

```
python -m unittest -v test_module
```

When executed without arguments *Test Discovery* is started:

```
python -m unittest
```

For a list of all the command-line options:

```
python -m unittest -h
```

Changed in version 3.2: In earlier versions it was only possible to run individual test methods and not modules or classes.

Command-line options

`unittest` supports these command-line options:

-b, --buffer

The standard output and standard error streams are buffered during the test run. Output during a passing test is discarded. Output is echoed normally on test fail or error and is added to the failure messages.

-c, --catch

Control-C during the test run waits for the current test to end and then reports all the results so far. A second **Control-C** raises the normal *KeyboardInterrupt* exception.

See *Signal Handling* for the functions that provide this functionality.

-f, --failfast

Stop the test run on the first error or failure.

-k

Only run test methods and classes that match the pattern or substring. This option may be used multiple times, in which case all test cases that match of the given patterns are included.

Patterns that contain a wildcard character (`*`) are matched against the test name using *fnmatch.fnmatchcase()*; otherwise simple case-sensitive substring matching is used.

Patterns are matched against the fully qualified test method name as imported by the test loader.

For example, `-k foo` matches `foo_tests.SomeTest.test_something`, `bar_tests.SomeTest.test_foo`, but not `bar_tests.FooTest.test_something`.

--locals

Show local variables in tracebacks.

New in version 3.2: The command-line options `-b`, `-c` and `-f` were added.

New in version 3.5: The command-line option `--locals`.

New in version 3.7: The command-line option `-k`.

The command line can also be used for test discovery, for running all of the tests in a project or just a subset.

27.4.3 Test Discovery

New in version 3.2.

Unittest supports simple test discovery. In order to be compatible with test discovery, all of the test files must be modules or packages (including *namespace packages*) importable from the top-level directory of the project (this means that their filenames must be valid identifiers).

Test discovery is implemented in `TestLoader.discover()`, but can also be used from the command line. The basic command-line usage is:

```
cd project_directory
python -m unittest discover
```

Note: As a shortcut, `python -m unittest` is the equivalent of `python -m unittest discover`. If you want to pass arguments to test discovery the `discover` sub-command must be used explicitly.

The `discover` sub-command has the following options:

-v, --verbose

Verbose output

-s, --start-directory directory

Directory to start discovery (. default)

-p, --pattern pattern

Pattern to match test files (`test*.py` default)

-t, --top-level-directory directory

Top level directory of project (defaults to start directory)

The `-s`, `-p`, and `-t` options can be passed in as positional arguments in that order. The following two command lines are equivalent:

```
python -m unittest discover -s project_directory -p "*_test.py"
python -m unittest discover project_directory "*_test.py"
```

As well as being a path it is possible to pass a package name, for example `myproject.subpackage.test`, as the start directory. The package name you supply will then be imported and its location on the filesystem will be used as the start directory.

Caution: Test discovery loads tests by importing them. Once test discovery has found all the test files from the start directory you specify it turns the paths into package names to import. For example `foo/bar/baz.py` will be imported as `foo.bar.baz`.

If you have a package installed globally and attempt test discovery on a different copy of the package then the import *could* happen from the wrong place. If this happens test discovery will warn you and exit.

If you supply the start directory as a package name rather than a path to a directory then discover assumes that whichever location it imports from is the location you intended, so you will not get the warning.

Test modules and packages can customize test loading and discovery by through the *load_tests protocol*.

Changed in version 3.4: Test discovery supports *namespace packages*.

27.4.4 Organizing test code

The basic building blocks of unit testing are *test cases* — single scenarios that must be set up and checked for correctness. In `unittest`, test cases are represented by `unittest.TestCase` instances. To make your own test cases you must write subclasses of `TestCase` or use `FunctionTestCase`.

The testing code of a `TestCase` instance should be entirely self contained, such that it can be run either in isolation or in arbitrary combination with any number of other test cases.

The simplest `TestCase` subclass will simply implement a test method (i.e. a method whose name starts with `test`) in order to perform specific testing code:

```
import unittest

class DefaultWidgetSizeTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    def test_default_widget_size(self):
        widget = Widget('The widget')
        self.assertEqual(widget.size(), (50, 50))
```

Note that in order to test something, we use one of the `assert*()` methods provided by the `TestCase` base class. If the test fails, an exception will be raised with an explanatory message, and `unittest` will identify the test case as a *failure*. Any other exceptions will be treated as *errors*.

Tests can be numerous, and their set-up can be repetitive. Luckily, we can factor out set-up code by implementing a method called `setUp()`, which the testing framework will automatically call for every single test we run:

```
import unittest

class WidgetTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    def setUp(self):
        self.widget = Widget('The widget')

    def test_default_widget_size(self):
        self.assertEqual(self.widget.size(), (50,50),
                         'incorrect default size')

    def test_widget_resize(self):
        self.widget.resize(100,150)
```

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```
self.assertEqual(self.widget.size(), (100,150),
                  'wrong size after resize')
```

Note: The order in which the various tests will be run is determined by sorting the test method names with respect to the built-in ordering for strings.

If the `setUp()` method raises an exception while the test is running, the framework will consider the test to have suffered an error, and the test method will not be executed.

Similarly, we can provide a `tearDown()` method that tidies up after the test method has been run:

```
import unittest

class WidgetTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    def setUp(self):
        self.widget = Widget('The widget')

    def tearDown(self):
        self.widget.dispose()
```

If `setUp()` succeeded, `tearDown()` will be run whether the test method succeeded or not.

Such a working environment for the testing code is called a *test fixture*. A new `TestCase` instance is created as a unique test fixture used to execute each individual test method. Thus `setUp()`, `tearDown()`, and `__init__()` will be called once per test.

It is recommended that you use `TestCase` implementations to group tests together according to the features they test. `unittest` provides a mechanism for this: the *test suite*, represented by `unittest`'s `TestSuite` class. In most cases, calling `unittest.main()` will do the right thing and collect all the module's test cases for you and execute them.

However, should you want to customize the building of your test suite, you can do it yourself:

```
def suite():
    suite = unittest.TestSuite()
    suite.addTest(WidgetTestCase('test_default_widget_size'))
    suite.addTest(WidgetTestCase('test_widget_resize'))
    return suite

if __name__ == '__main__':
    runner = unittest.TextTestRunner()
    runner.run(suite())
```

You can place the definitions of test cases and test suites in the same modules as the code they are to test (such as `widget.py`), but there are several advantages to placing the test code in a separate module, such as `test_widget.py`:

- The test module can be run standalone from the command line.
- The test code can more easily be separated from shipped code.
- There is less temptation to change test code to fit the code it tests without a good reason.
- Test code should be modified much less frequently than the code it tests.
- Tested code can be refactored more easily.
- Tests for modules written in C must be in separate modules anyway, so why not be consistent?

- If the testing strategy changes, there is no need to change the source code.

27.4.5 Re-using old test code

Some users will find that they have existing test code that they would like to run from `unittest`, without converting every old test function to a `TestCase` subclass.

For this reason, `unittest` provides a `FunctionTestCase` class. This subclass of `TestCase` can be used to wrap an existing test function. Set-up and tear-down functions can also be provided.

Given the following test function:

```
def testSomething():
    something = makeSomething()
    assert something.name is not None
    # ...
```

one can create an equivalent test case instance as follows, with optional set-up and tear-down methods:

```
testcase = unittest.FunctionTestCase(testSomething,
                                     setUp=makeSomethingDB,
                                     tearDown=deleteSomethingDB)
```

Note: Even though `FunctionTestCase` can be used to quickly convert an existing test base over to a `unittest`-based system, this approach is not recommended. Taking the time to set up proper `TestCase` subclasses will make future test refactorings infinitely easier.

In some cases, the existing tests may have been written using the `doctest` module. If so, `doctest` provides a `DocTestSuite` class that can automatically build `unittest.TestSuite` instances from the existing `doctest`-based tests.

27.4.6 Skipping tests and expected failures

New in version 3.1.

Unittest supports skipping individual test methods and even whole classes of tests. In addition, it supports marking a test as an “expected failure,” a test that is broken and will fail, but shouldn’t be counted as a failure on a `TestResult`.

Skipping a test is simply a matter of using the `skip()` decorator or one of its conditional variants.

Basic skipping looks like this:

```
class MyTestCase(unittest.TestCase):

    @unittest.skip("demonstrating skipping")
    def test_nothing(self):
        self.fail("shouldn't happen")

    @unittest.skipIf(mylib.__version__ < (1, 3),
                    "not supported in this library version")
    def test_format(self):
        # Tests that work for only a certain version of the library.
        pass
```

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```
@unittest.skipUnless(sys.platform.startswith("win"), "requires Windows")
def test_windows_support(self):
    # windows specific testing code
    pass
```

This is the output of running the example above in verbose mode:

```
test_format (__main__.MyTestCase) ... skipped 'not supported in this library version'
test_nothing (__main__.MyTestCase) ... skipped 'demonstrating skipping'
test_windows_support (__main__.MyTestCase) ... skipped 'requires Windows'
```

```
-----
Ran 3 tests in 0.005s
```

```
OK (skipped=3)
```

Classes can be skipped just like methods:

```
@unittest.skip("showing class skipping")
class MySkippedTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    def test_not_run(self):
        pass
```

`TestCase.setUp()` can also skip the test. This is useful when a resource that needs to be set up is not available.

Expected failures use the `expectedFailure()` decorator.

```
class ExpectedFailureTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    @unittest.expectedFailure
    def test_fail(self):
        self.assertEqual(1, 0, "broken")
```

It's easy to roll your own skipping decorators by making a decorator that calls `skip()` on the test when it wants it to be skipped. This decorator skips the test unless the passed object has a certain attribute:

```
def skipUnlessHasattr(obj, attr):
    if hasattr(obj, attr):
        return lambda func: func
    return unittest.skip("{!r} doesn't have {!r}".format(obj, attr))
```

The following decorators implement test skipping and expected failures:

`@unittest.skip(reason)`

Unconditionally skip the decorated test. *reason* should describe why the test is being skipped.

`@unittest.skipIf(condition, reason)`

Skip the decorated test if *condition* is true.

`@unittest.skipUnless(condition, reason)`

Skip the decorated test unless *condition* is true.

`@unittest.expectedFailure`

Mark the test as an expected failure. If the test fails it will be considered a success. If the test passes, it will be considered a failure.

`exception unittest.SkipTest(reason)`

This exception is raised to skip a test.

Usually you can use `TestCase.skipTest()` or one of the skipping decorators instead of raising this directly.

Skipped tests will not have `setUp()` or `tearDown()` run around them. Skipped classes will not have `setUpClass()` or `tearDownClass()` run. Skipped modules will not have `setUpModule()` or `tearDownModule()` run.

27.4.7 Distinguishing test iterations using subtests

New in version 3.4.

When there are very small differences among your tests, for instance some parameters, unittest allows you to distinguish them inside the body of a test method using the `subTest()` context manager.

For example, the following test:

```
class NumbersTest(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_even(self):
        """
        Test that numbers between 0 and 5 are all even.
        """
        for i in range(0, 6):
            with self.subTest(i=i):
                self.assertEqual(i % 2, 0)
```

will produce the following output:

```
=====
FAIL: test_even (__main__.NumbersTest) (i=1)
```

```
-----
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "subtests.py", line 32, in test_even
    self.assertEqual(i % 2, 0)
AssertionError: 1 != 0
```

```
=====
FAIL: test_even (__main__.NumbersTest) (i=3)
```

```
-----
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "subtests.py", line 32, in test_even
    self.assertEqual(i % 2, 0)
AssertionError: 1 != 0
```

```
=====
FAIL: test_even (__main__.NumbersTest) (i=5)
```

```
-----
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "subtests.py", line 32, in test_even
    self.assertEqual(i % 2, 0)
AssertionError: 1 != 0
```

Without using a subtest, execution would stop after the first failure, and the error would be less easy to diagnose because the value of `i` wouldn't be displayed:

```
=====
FAIL: test_even (__main__.NumbersTest)
-----
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "subtests.py", line 32, in test_even
    self.assertEqual(i % 2, 0)
AssertionError: 1 != 0
```

27.4.8 Classes and functions

This section describes in depth the API of `unittest`.

Test cases

`class unittest.TestCase(methodName='runTest')`

Instances of the `TestCase` class represent the logical test units in the `unittest` universe. This class is intended to be used as a base class, with specific tests being implemented by concrete subclasses. This class implements the interface needed by the test runner to allow it to drive the tests, and methods that the test code can use to check for and report various kinds of failure.

Each instance of `TestCase` will run a single base method: the method named `methodName`. In most uses of `TestCase`, you will neither change the `methodName` nor reimplement the default `runTest()` method.

Changed in version 3.2: `TestCase` can be instantiated successfully without providing a `methodName`. This makes it easier to experiment with `TestCase` from the interactive interpreter.

`TestCase` instances provide three groups of methods: one group used to run the test, another used by the test implementation to check conditions and report failures, and some inquiry methods allowing information about the test itself to be gathered.

Methods in the first group (running the test) are:

`setUp()`

Method called to prepare the test fixture. This is called immediately before calling the test method; other than `AssertionError` or `SkipTest`, any exception raised by this method will be considered an error rather than a test failure. The default implementation does nothing.

`tearDown()`

Method called immediately after the test method has been called and the result recorded. This is called even if the test method raised an exception, so the implementation in subclasses may need to be particularly careful about checking internal state. Any exception, other than `AssertionError` or `SkipTest`, raised by this method will be considered an additional error rather than a test failure (thus increasing the total number of reported errors). This method will only be called if the `setUp()` succeeds, regardless of the outcome of the test method. The default implementation does nothing.

`setUpClass()`

A class method called before tests in an individual class are run. `setUpClass` is called with the class as the only argument and must be decorated as a `classmethod()`:

```
@classmethod
def setUpClass(cls):
    ...
```

See *Class and Module Fixtures* for more details.

New in version 3.2.

tearDownClass()

A class method called after tests in an individual class have run. **tearDownClass** is called with the class as the only argument and must be decorated as a *classmethod()*:

```
@classmethod
def tearDownClass(cls):
    ...
```

See *Class and Module Fixtures* for more details.

New in version 3.2.

run(result=None)

Run the test, collecting the result into the *TestResult* object passed as *result*. If *result* is omitted or *None*, a temporary result object is created (by calling the *defaultTestResult()* method) and used. The result object is returned to *run()*'s caller.

The same effect may be had by simply calling the *TestCase* instance.

Changed in version 3.3: Previous versions of **run** did not return the result. Neither did calling an instance.

skipTest(reason)

Calling this during a test method or *setUp()* skips the current test. See *Skipping tests and expected failures* for more information.

New in version 3.1.

subTest(msg=None, **params)

Return a context manager which executes the enclosed code block as a subtest. *msg* and *params* are optional, arbitrary values which are displayed whenever a subtest fails, allowing you to identify them clearly.

A test case can contain any number of subtest declarations, and they can be arbitrarily nested.

See *Distinguishing test iterations using subtests* for more information.

New in version 3.4.

debug()

Run the test without collecting the result. This allows exceptions raised by the test to be propagated to the caller, and can be used to support running tests under a debugger.

The *TestCase* class provides several assert methods to check for and report failures. The following table lists the most commonly used methods (see the tables below for more assert methods):

Method	Checks that	New in
<code>assertEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>a == b</code>	
<code>assertNotEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>a != b</code>	
<code>assertTrue(x)</code>	<code>bool(x)</code> is <code>True</code>	
<code>assertFalse(x)</code>	<code>bool(x)</code> is <code>False</code>	
<code>assertIs(a, b)</code>	<code>a is b</code>	3.1
<code>assertIsNot(a, b)</code>	<code>a is not b</code>	3.1
<code>assertIsNone(x)</code>	<code>x is None</code>	3.1
<code>assertIsNotNone(x)</code>	<code>x is not None</code>	3.1
<code>assertIn(a, b)</code>	<code>a in b</code>	3.1
<code>assertNotIn(a, b)</code>	<code>a not in b</code>	3.1
<code>assertIsInstance(a, b)</code>	<code>isinstance(a, b)</code>	3.2
<code>assertNotIsInstance(a, b)</code>	<code>not isinstance(a, b)</code>	3.2

All the assert methods accept a *msg* argument that, if specified, is used as the error message on failure (see also *longMessage*). Note that the *msg* keyword argument can be passed to `assertRaises()`, `assertRaisesRegex()`, `assertWarns()`, `assertWarnsRegex()` only when they are used as a context manager.

assertEqual(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

Test that *first* and *second* are equal. If the values do not compare equal, the test will fail.

In addition, if *first* and *second* are the exact same type and one of list, tuple, dict, set, frozenset or str or any type that a subclass registers with `addTypeEqualityFunc()` the type-specific equality function will be called in order to generate a more useful default error message (see also the *list of type-specific methods*).

Changed in version 3.1: Added the automatic calling of type-specific equality function.

Changed in version 3.2: `assertMultiLineEqual()` added as the default type equality function for comparing strings.

assertNotEqual(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

Test that *first* and *second* are not equal. If the values do compare equal, the test will fail.

assertTrue(*expr*, *msg=None*)

assertFalse(*expr*, *msg=None*)

Test that *expr* is true (or false).

Note that this is equivalent to `bool(expr) is True` and not to `expr is True` (use `assertIs(expr, True)` for the latter). This method should also be avoided when more specific methods are available (e.g. `assertEqual(a, b)` instead of `assertTrue(a == b)`), because they provide a better error message in case of failure.

assertIs(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

assertIsNot(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

Test that *first* and *second* evaluate (or don't evaluate) to the same object.

New in version 3.1.

assertIsNone(*expr*, *msg=None*)

assertIsNotNone(*expr*, *msg=None*)

Test that *expr* is (or is not) `None`.

New in version 3.1.

assertIn(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

assertNotIn(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

Test that *first* is (or is not) in *second*.

New in version 3.1.

assertIsInstance(*obj*, *cls*, *msg=None*)

assertNotIsInstance(*obj*, *cls*, *msg=None*)

Test that *obj* is (or is not) an instance of *cls* (which can be a class or a tuple of classes, as supported by *isinstance()*). To check for the exact type, use *assertIs(type(obj), cls)*.

New in version 3.2.

It is also possible to check the production of exceptions, warnings, and log messages using the following methods:

Method	Checks that	New in
<i>assertRaises(exc, fun, *args, **kws)</i>	<i>fun(*args, **kws)</i> raises <i>exc</i>	
<i>assertRaisesRegex(exc, r, fun, *args, **kws)</i>	<i>fun(*args, **kws)</i> raises <i>exc</i> and the message matches regex <i>r</i>	3.1
<i>assertWarns(warn, fun, *args, **kws)</i>	<i>fun(*args, **kws)</i> raises <i>warn</i>	3.2
<i>assertWarnsRegex(warn, r, fun, *args, **kws)</i>	<i>fun(*args, **kws)</i> raises <i>warn</i> and the message matches regex <i>r</i>	3.2
<i>assertLogs(logger, level)</i>	The <i>with</i> block logs on <i>logger</i> with minimum <i>level</i>	3.4

assertRaises(*exception*, *callable*, **args*, ***kws*)

assertRaises(*exception*, ***, *msg=None*)

Test that an exception is raised when *callable* is called with any positional or keyword arguments that are also passed to *assertRaises()*. The test passes if *exception* is raised, is an error if another exception is raised, or fails if no exception is raised. To catch any of a group of exceptions, a tuple containing the exception classes may be passed as *exception*.

If only the *exception* and possibly the *msg* arguments are given, return a context manager so that the code under test can be written inline rather than as a function:

```
with self.assertRaises(SomeException):
    do_something()
```

When used as a context manager, *assertRaises()* accepts the additional keyword argument *msg*.

The context manager will store the caught exception object in its *exception* attribute. This can be useful if the intention is to perform additional checks on the exception raised:

```
with self.assertRaises(SomeException) as cm:
    do_something()

the_exception = cm.exception
self.assertEqual(the_exception.error_code, 3)
```

Changed in version 3.1: Added the ability to use *assertRaises()* as a context manager.

Changed in version 3.2: Added the *exception* attribute.

Changed in version 3.3: Added the *msg* keyword argument when used as a context manager.

assertRaisesRegex(*exception*, *regex*, *callable*, **args*, ***kws*)

assertRaisesRegex(*exception*, *regex*, ***, *msg=None*)

Like *assertRaises()* but also tests that *regex* matches on the string representation of the raised exception. *regex* may be a regular expression object or a string containing a regular expression suitable for use by *re.search()*. Examples:

```
self.assertRaisesRegex(ValueError, "invalid literal for.*XYZ'",
                        int, 'XYZ')
```

or:

```
with self.assertRaisesRegex(ValueError, 'literal'):
    int('XYZ')
```

New in version 3.1: under the name `assertRaisesRegexp`.

Changed in version 3.2: Renamed to `assertRaisesRegex()`.

Changed in version 3.3: Added the `msg` keyword argument when used as a context manager.

assertWarns(*warning*, *callable*, **args*, ***kws*)

assertWarns(*warning*, *, *msg*=None)

Test that a warning is triggered when *callable* is called with any positional or keyword arguments that are also passed to `assertWarns()`. The test passes if *warning* is triggered and fails if it isn't. Any exception is an error. To catch any of a group of warnings, a tuple containing the warning classes may be passed as *warnings*.

If only the *warning* and possibly the *msg* arguments are given, return a context manager so that the code under test can be written inline rather than as a function:

```
with self.assertWarns(SomeWarning):
    do_something()
```

When used as a context manager, `assertWarns()` accepts the additional keyword argument *msg*.

The context manager will store the caught warning object in its `warning` attribute, and the source line which triggered the warnings in the `filename` and `lineno` attributes. This can be useful if the intention is to perform additional checks on the warning caught:

```
with self.assertWarns(SomeWarning) as cm:
    do_something()

self.assertIn('myfile.py', cm.filename)
self.assertEqual(320, cm.lineno)
```

This method works regardless of the warning filters in place when it is called.

New in version 3.2.

Changed in version 3.3: Added the *msg* keyword argument when used as a context manager.

assertWarnsRegex(*warning*, *regex*, *callable*, **args*, ***kws*)

assertWarnsRegex(*warning*, *regex*, *, *msg*=None)

Like `assertWarns()` but also tests that *regex* matches on the message of the triggered warning. *regex* may be a regular expression object or a string containing a regular expression suitable for use by `re.search()`. Example:

```
self.assertWarnsRegex(DeprecationWarning,
                      r'legacy_function\(\) is deprecated',
                      legacy_function, 'XYZ')
```

or:

```
with self.assertWarnsRegex(RuntimeWarning, 'unsafe frobnicating'):
    frobnicate('/etc/passwd')
```


New in version 3.2.

Changed in version 3.3: Added the *msg* keyword argument when used as a context manager.

assertLogs(*logger=None, level=None*)

A context manager to test that at least one message is logged on the *logger* or one of its children, with at least the given *level*.

If given, *logger* should be a *logging.Logger* object or a *str* giving the name of a logger. The default is the root logger, which will catch all messages.

If given, *level* should be either a numeric logging level or its string equivalent (for example either "ERROR" or *logging.ERROR*). The default is *logging.INFO*.

The test passes if at least one message emitted inside the *with* block matches the *logger* and *level* conditions, otherwise it fails.

The object returned by the context manager is a recording helper which keeps tracks of the matching log messages. It has two attributes:

records

A list of *logging.LogRecord* objects of the matching log messages.

output

A list of *str* objects with the formatted output of matching messages.

Example:

```
with self.assertLogs('foo', level='INFO') as cm:
    logging.getLogger('foo').info('first message')
    logging.getLogger('foo.bar').error('second message')
self.assertEqual(cm.output, ['INFO:foo:first message',
                             'ERROR:foo.bar:second message'])
```

New in version 3.4.

There are also other methods used to perform more specific checks, such as:

Method	Checks that	New in
<i>assertAlmostEqual</i> (<i>a, b</i>)	<code>round(a-b, 7) == 0</code>	
<i>assertNotAlmostEqual</i> (<i>a, b</i>)	<code>round(a-b, 7) != 0</code>	
<i>assertGreater</i> (<i>a, b</i>)	<code>a > b</code>	3.1
<i>assertGreaterEqual</i> (<i>a, b</i>)	<code>a >= b</code>	3.1
<i>assertLess</i> (<i>a, b</i>)	<code>a < b</code>	3.1
<i>assertLessEqual</i> (<i>a, b</i>)	<code>a <= b</code>	3.1
<i>assertRegex</i> (<i>s, r</i>)	<code>r.search(s)</code>	3.1
<i>assertNotRegex</i> (<i>s, r</i>)	<code>not r.search(s)</code>	3.2
<i>assertCountEqual</i> (<i>a, b</i>)	<i>a</i> and <i>b</i> have the same elements in the same number, regardless of their order	3.2

assertAlmostEqual(*first, second, places=7, msg=None, delta=None*)

assertNotAlmostEqual(*first, second, places=7, msg=None, delta=None*)

Test that *first* and *second* are approximately (or not approximately) equal by computing the difference, rounding to the given number of decimal *places* (default 7), and comparing to zero.

Note that these methods round the values to the given number of *decimal places* (i.e. like the `round()` function) and not *significant digits*.

If *delta* is supplied instead of *places* then the difference between *first* and *second* must be less or equal to (or greater than) *delta*.

Supplying both *delta* and *places* raises a `TypeError`.

Changed in version 3.2: `assertAlmostEqual()` automatically considers almost equal objects that compare equal. `assertNotAlmostEqual()` automatically fails if the objects compare equal. Added the *delta* keyword argument.

`assertGreater(first, second, msg=None)`

`assertGreaterEqual(first, second, msg=None)`

`assertLess(first, second, msg=None)`

`assertLessEqual(first, second, msg=None)`

Test that *first* is respectively `>`, `>=`, `<` or `<=` than *second* depending on the method name. If not, the test will fail:

```
>>> self.assertGreaterEqual(3, 4)
AssertionError: "3" unexpectedly not greater than or equal to "4"
```

New in version 3.1.

`assertRegex(text, regex, msg=None)`

`assertNotRegex(text, regex, msg=None)`

Test that a *regex* search matches (or does not match) *text*. In case of failure, the error message will include the pattern and the *text* (or the pattern and the part of *text* that unexpectedly matched). *regex* may be a regular expression object or a string containing a regular expression suitable for use by `re.search()`.

New in version 3.1: under the name `assertRegexpMatches`.

Changed in version 3.2: The method `assertRegexpMatches()` has been renamed to `assertRegex()`.

New in version 3.2: `assertNotRegex()`.

New in version 3.5: The name `assertNotRegexpMatches` is a deprecated alias for `assertNotRegex()`.

`assertCountEqual(first, second, msg=None)`

Test that sequence *first* contains the same elements as *second*, regardless of their order. When they don't, an error message listing the differences between the sequences will be generated.

Duplicate elements are *not* ignored when comparing *first* and *second*. It verifies whether each element has the same count in both sequences. Equivalent to: `assertEqual(Counter(list(first)), Counter(list(second)))` but works with sequences of unhashable objects as well.

New in version 3.2.

The `assertEqual()` method dispatches the equality check for objects of the same type to different type-specific methods. These methods are already implemented for most of the built-in types, but it's also possible to register new methods using `addTypeEqualityFunc()`:

`addTypeEqualityFunc(typeobj, function)`

Registers a type-specific method called by `assertEqual()` to check if two objects of exactly the same *typeobj* (not subclasses) compare equal. *function* must take two positional arguments and a third `msg=None` keyword argument just as `assertEqual()` does. It must raise `self.failureException(msg)` when inequality between the first two parameters is detected – possibly providing useful information and explaining the inequalities in details in the error message.

New in version 3.1.

The list of type-specific methods automatically used by `assertEqual()` are summarized in the following table. Note that it's usually not necessary to invoke these methods directly.

Method	Used to compare	New in
<code>assertMultiLineEqual(a, b)</code>	strings	3.1
<code>assertSequenceEqual(a, b)</code>	sequences	3.1
<code>assertListEqual(a, b)</code>	lists	3.1
<code>assertTupleEqual(a, b)</code>	tuples	3.1
<code>assertSetEqual(a, b)</code>	sets or frozensets	3.1
<code>assertDictEqual(a, b)</code>	dicts	3.1

assertMultiLineEqual(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

Test that the multiline string *first* is equal to the string *second*. When not equal a diff of the two strings highlighting the differences will be included in the error message. This method is used by default when comparing strings with `assertEqual()`.

New in version 3.1.

assertSequenceEqual(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*, *seq_type=None*)

Tests that two sequences are equal. If a *seq_type* is supplied, both *first* and *second* must be instances of *seq_type* or a failure will be raised. If the sequences are different an error message is constructed that shows the difference between the two.

This method is not called directly by `assertEqual()`, but it's used to implement `assertListEqual()` and `assertTupleEqual()`.

New in version 3.1.

assertListEqual(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

assertTupleEqual(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

Tests that two lists or tuples are equal. If not, an error message is constructed that shows only the differences between the two. An error is also raised if either of the parameters are of the wrong type. These methods are used by default when comparing lists or tuples with `assertEqual()`.

New in version 3.1.

assertSetEqual(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

Tests that two sets are equal. If not, an error message is constructed that lists the differences between the sets. This method is used by default when comparing sets or frozensets with `assertEqual()`.

Fails if either of *first* or *second* does not have a `set.difference()` method.

New in version 3.1.

assertDictEqual(*first*, *second*, *msg=None*)

Test that two dictionaries are equal. If not, an error message is constructed that shows the differences in the dictionaries. This method will be used by default to compare dictionaries in calls to `assertEqual()`.

New in version 3.1.

Finally the `TestCase` provides the following methods and attributes:

fail(*msg=None*)

Signals a test failure unconditionally, with *msg* or `None` for the error message.

failureException

This class attribute gives the exception raised by the test method. If a test framework needs to use

a specialized exception, possibly to carry additional information, it must subclass this exception in order to “play fair” with the framework. The initial value of this attribute is *AssertionError*.

longMessage

This class attribute determines what happens when a custom failure message is passed as the *msg* argument to an *assertXXX* call that fails. **True** is the default value. In this case, the custom message is appended to the end of the standard failure message. When set to **False**, the custom message replaces the standard message.

The class setting can be overridden in individual test methods by assigning an instance attribute, *self.longMessage*, to **True** or **False** before calling the assert methods.

The class setting gets reset before each test call.

New in version 3.1.

maxDiff

This attribute controls the maximum length of diffs output by assert methods that report diffs on failure. It defaults to 80*8 characters. Assert methods affected by this attribute are *assertSequenceEqual()* (including all the sequence comparison methods that delegate to it), *assertDictEqual()* and *assertMultiLineEqual()*.

Setting *maxDiff* to **None** means that there is no maximum length of diffs.

New in version 3.2.

Testing frameworks can use the following methods to collect information on the test:

countTestCases()

Return the number of tests represented by this test object. For *TestCase* instances, this will always be 1.

defaultTestResult()

Return an instance of the test result class that should be used for this test case class (if no other result instance is provided to the *run()* method).

For *TestCase* instances, this will always be an instance of *TestResult*; subclasses of *TestCase* should override this as necessary.

id()

Return a string identifying the specific test case. This is usually the full name of the test method, including the module and class name.

shortDescription()

Returns a description of the test, or **None** if no description has been provided. The default implementation of this method returns the first line of the test method’s docstring, if available, or **None**.

Changed in version 3.1: In 3.1 this was changed to add the test name to the short description even in the presence of a docstring. This caused compatibility issues with unittest extensions and adding the test name was moved to the *TextTestResult* in Python 3.2.

addCleanup(*function*, **args*, *kwargs*)**

Add a function to be called after *tearDown()* to cleanup resources used during the test. Functions will be called in reverse order to the order they are added (LIFO). They are called with any arguments and keyword arguments passed into *addCleanup()* when they are added.

If *setUp()* fails, meaning that *tearDown()* is not called, then any cleanup functions added will still be called.

New in version 3.1.

doCleanups()

This method is called unconditionally after `tearDown()`, or after `setUp()` if `setUp()` raises an exception.

It is responsible for calling all the cleanup functions added by `addCleanup()`. If you need cleanup functions to be called *prior* to `tearDown()` then you can call `doCleanups()` yourself.

`doCleanups()` pops methods off the stack of cleanup functions one at a time, so it can be called at any time.

New in version 3.1.

class unittest.FunctionTestCase(*testFunc*, *setUp=None*, *tearDown=None*, *description=None*)

This class implements the portion of the `TestCase` interface which allows the test runner to drive the test, but does not provide the methods which test code can use to check and report errors. This is used to create test cases using legacy test code, allowing it to be integrated into a `unittest`-based test framework.

Deprecated aliases

For historical reasons, some of the `TestCase` methods had one or more aliases that are now deprecated. The following table lists the correct names along with their deprecated aliases:

Method Name	Deprecated alias	Deprecated alias
<code>assertEqual()</code>	<code>failUnlessEqual</code>	<code>assertEquals</code>
<code>assertNotEqual()</code>	<code>failIfEqual</code>	<code>assertNotEquals</code>
<code>assertTrue()</code>	<code>failUnless</code>	<code>assert__</code>
<code>assertFalse()</code>	<code>failIf</code>	
<code>assertRaises()</code>	<code>failUnlessRaises</code>	
<code>assertAlmostEqual()</code>	<code>failUnlessAlmostEqual</code>	<code>assertAlmostEquals</code>
<code>assertNotAlmostEqual()</code>	<code>failIfAlmostEqual</code>	<code>assertNotAlmostEquals</code>
<code>assertRegex()</code>		<code>assertRegexpMatches</code>
<code>assertNotRegex()</code>		<code>assertNotRegexpMatches</code>
<code>assertRaisesRegex()</code>		<code>assertRaisesRegexp</code>

Deprecated since version 3.1: the `fail*` aliases listed in the second column.

Deprecated since version 3.2: the `assert*` aliases listed in the third column.

Deprecated since version 3.2: `assertRegexpMatches` and `assertRaisesRegexp` have been renamed to `assertRegex()` and `assertRaisesRegex()`.

Deprecated since version 3.5: the `assertNotRegexpMatches` name in favor of `assertNotRegex()`.

Grouping tests

class unittest.TestSuite(*tests=()*)

This class represents an aggregation of individual test cases and test suites. The class presents the interface needed by the test runner to allow it to be run as any other test case. Running a `TestSuite` instance is the same as iterating over the suite, running each test individually.

If *tests* is given, it must be an iterable of individual test cases or other test suites that will be used to build the suite initially. Additional methods are provided to add test cases and suites to the collection later on.

TestSuite objects behave much like *TestCase* objects, except they do not actually implement a test. Instead, they are used to aggregate tests into groups of tests that should be run together. Some additional methods are available to add tests to *TestSuite* instances:

addTest(*test*)

Add a *TestCase* or *TestSuite* to the suite.

addTests(*tests*)

Add all the tests from an iterable of *TestCase* and *TestSuite* instances to this test suite.

This is equivalent to iterating over *tests*, calling *addTest()* for each element.

TestSuite shares the following methods with *TestCase*:

run(*result*)

Run the tests associated with this suite, collecting the result into the test result object passed as *result*. Note that unlike *TestCase.run()*, *TestSuite.run()* requires the result object to be passed in.

debug()

Run the tests associated with this suite without collecting the result. This allows exceptions raised by the test to be propagated to the caller and can be used to support running tests under a debugger.

countTestCases()

Return the number of tests represented by this test object, including all individual tests and sub-suites.

__iter__()

Tests grouped by a *TestSuite* are always accessed by iteration. Subclasses can lazily provide tests by overriding *__iter__()*. Note that this method may be called several times on a single suite (for example when counting tests or comparing for equality) so the tests returned by repeated iterations before *TestSuite.run()* must be the same for each call iteration. After *TestSuite.run()*, callers should not rely on the tests returned by this method unless the caller uses a subclass that overrides *TestSuite._removeTestAtIndex()* to preserve test references.

Changed in version 3.2: In earlier versions the *TestSuite* accessed tests directly rather than through iteration, so overriding *__iter__()* wasn't sufficient for providing tests.

Changed in version 3.4: In earlier versions the *TestSuite* held references to each *TestCase* after *TestSuite.run()*. Subclasses can restore that behavior by overriding *TestSuite._removeTestAtIndex()*.

In the typical usage of a *TestSuite* object, the *run()* method is invoked by a *TestRunner* rather than by the end-user test harness.

Loading and running tests

class unittest.TestLoader

The *TestLoader* class is used to create test suites from classes and modules. Normally, there is no need to create an instance of this class; the *unittest* module provides an instance that can be shared as *unittest.defaultTestLoader*. Using a subclass or instance, however, allows customization of some configurable properties.

TestLoader objects have the following attributes:

errors

A list of the non-fatal errors encountered while loading tests. Not reset by the loader at any point. Fatal errors are signalled by the relevant a method raising an exception to the caller. Non-fatal errors are also indicated by a synthetic test that will raise the original error when run.

New in version 3.5.

TestLoader objects have the following methods:

loadTestsFromTestCase(*testCaseClass*)

Return a suite of all test cases contained in the *TestCase*-derived *testCaseClass*.

A test case instance is created for each method named by *getTestCaseNames()*. By default these are the method names beginning with *test*. If *getTestCaseNames()* returns no methods, but the *runTest()* method is implemented, a single test case is created for that method instead.

loadTestsFromModule(*module*, *pattern=None*)

Return a suite of all test cases contained in the given module. This method searches *module* for classes derived from *TestCase* and creates an instance of the class for each test method defined for the class.

Note: While using a hierarchy of *TestCase*-derived classes can be convenient in sharing fixtures and helper functions, defining test methods on base classes that are not intended to be instantiated directly does not play well with this method. Doing so, however, can be useful when the fixtures are different and defined in subclasses.

If a module provides a *load_tests* function it will be called to load the tests. This allows modules to customize test loading. This is the *load_tests protocol*. The *pattern* argument is passed as the third argument to *load_tests*.

Changed in version 3.2: Support for *load_tests* added.

Changed in version 3.5: The undocumented and unofficial *use_load_tests* default argument is deprecated and ignored, although it is still accepted for backward compatibility. The method also now accepts a keyword-only argument *pattern* which is passed to *load_tests* as the third argument.

loadTestsFromName(*name*, *module=None*)

Return a suite of all test cases given a string specifier.

The specifier *name* is a “dotted name” that may resolve either to a module, a test case class, a test method within a test case class, a *TestSuite* instance, or a callable object which returns a *TestCase* or *TestSuite* instance. These checks are applied in the order listed here; that is, a method on a possible test case class will be picked up as “a test method within a test case class”, rather than “a callable object”.

For example, if you have a module *SampleTests* containing a *TestCase*-derived class *SampleTestCase* with three test methods (*test_one()*, *test_two()*, and *test_three()*), the specifier '*SampleTests.SampleTestCase*' would cause this method to return a suite which will run all three test methods. Using the specifier '*SampleTests.SampleTestCase.test_two*' would cause it to return a test suite which will run only the *test_two()* test method. The specifier can refer to modules and packages which have not been imported; they will be imported as a side-effect.

The method optionally resolves *name* relative to the given *module*.

Changed in version 3.5: If an *ImportError* or *AttributeError* occurs while traversing *name* then a synthetic test that raises that error when run will be returned. These errors are included in the errors accumulated by *self.errors*.

loadTestsFromNames(*names*, *module=None*)

Similar to *loadTestsFromName()*, but takes a sequence of names rather than a single name. The return value is a test suite which supports all the tests defined for each name.

getTestCaseNames(*testCaseClass*)

Return a sorted sequence of method names found within *testCaseClass*; this should be a subclass of *TestCase*.

discover(*start_dir*, *pattern*='test*.py', *top_level_dir*=None)

Find all the test modules by recursing into subdirectories from the specified start directory, and return a `TestSuite` object containing them. Only test files that match *pattern* will be loaded. (Using shell style pattern matching.) Only module names that are importable (i.e. are valid Python identifiers) will be loaded.

All test modules must be importable from the top level of the project. If the start directory is not the top level directory then the top level directory must be specified separately.

If importing a module fails, for example due to a syntax error, then this will be recorded as a single error and discovery will continue. If the import failure is due to `SkipTest` being raised, it will be recorded as a skip instead of an error.

If a package (a directory containing a file named `__init__.py`) is found, the package will be checked for a `load_tests` function. If this exists then it will be called `package.load_tests(loader, tests, pattern)`. Test discovery takes care to ensure that a package is only checked for tests once during an invocation, even if the `load_tests` function itself calls `loader.discover`.

If `load_tests` exists then discovery does *not* recurse into the package, `load_tests` is responsible for loading all tests in the package.

The pattern is deliberately not stored as a loader attribute so that packages can continue discovery themselves. *top_level_dir* is stored so `load_tests` does not need to pass this argument in to `loader.discover()`.

start_dir can be a dotted module name as well as a directory.

New in version 3.2.

Changed in version 3.4: Modules that raise `SkipTest` on import are recorded as skips, not errors. Discovery works for *namespace packages*. Paths are sorted before being imported so that execution order is the same even if the underlying file system's ordering is not dependent on file name.

Changed in version 3.5: Found packages are now checked for `load_tests` regardless of whether their path matches *pattern*, because it is impossible for a package name to match the default pattern.

The following attributes of a `TestLoader` can be configured either by subclassing or assignment on an instance:

testMethodPrefix

String giving the prefix of method names which will be interpreted as test methods. The default value is `'test'`.

This affects `getTestCaseNames()` and all the `loadTestsFrom*()` methods.

sortTestMethodsUsing

Function to be used to compare method names when sorting them in `getTestCaseNames()` and all the `loadTestsFrom*()` methods.

suiteClass

Callable object that constructs a test suite from a list of tests. No methods on the resulting object are needed. The default value is the `TestSuite` class.

This affects all the `loadTestsFrom*()` methods.

testNamePatterns

List of Unix shell-style wildcard test name patterns that test methods have to match to be included in test suites (see `-v` option).

If this attribute is not `None` (the default), all test methods to be included in test suites must match one of the patterns in this list. Note that matches are always performed using `fnmatch`.

`fnmatchcase()`, so unlike patterns passed to the `-v` option, simple substring patterns will have to be converted using `*` wildcards.

This affects all the `loadTestsFrom*()` methods.

New in version 3.7.

class unittest.TestResult

This class is used to compile information about which tests have succeeded and which have failed.

A *TestResult* object stores the results of a set of tests. The *TestCase* and *TestSuite* classes ensure that results are properly recorded; test authors do not need to worry about recording the outcome of tests.

Testing frameworks built on top of *unittest* may want access to the *TestResult* object generated by running a set of tests for reporting purposes; a *TestResult* instance is returned by the *TestRunner.run()* method for this purpose.

TestResult instances have the following attributes that will be of interest when inspecting the results of running a set of tests:

errors

A list containing 2-tuples of *TestCase* instances and strings holding formatted tracebacks. Each tuple represents a test which raised an unexpected exception.

failures

A list containing 2-tuples of *TestCase* instances and strings holding formatted tracebacks. Each tuple represents a test where a failure was explicitly signalled using the *TestCase.assert*()* methods.

skipped

A list containing 2-tuples of *TestCase* instances and strings holding the reason for skipping the test.

New in version 3.1.

expectedFailures

A list containing 2-tuples of *TestCase* instances and strings holding formatted tracebacks. Each tuple represents an expected failure of the test case.

unexpectedSuccesses

A list containing *TestCase* instances that were marked as expected failures, but succeeded.

shouldStop

Set to `True` when the execution of tests should stop by `stop()`.

testsRun

The total number of tests run so far.

buffer

If set to true, `sys.stdout` and `sys.stderr` will be buffered in between `startTest()` and `stopTest()` being called. Collected output will only be echoed onto the real `sys.stdout` and `sys.stderr` if the test fails or errors. Any output is also attached to the failure / error message.

New in version 3.2.

failfast

If set to true `stop()` will be called on the first failure or error, halting the test run.

New in version 3.2.

tb_locals

If set to true then local variables will be shown in tracebacks.

New in version 3.5.

wasSuccessful()

Return **True** if all tests run so far have passed, otherwise returns **False**.

Changed in version 3.4: Returns **False** if there were any *unexpectedSuccesses* from tests marked with the *expectedFailure()* decorator.

stop()

This method can be called to signal that the set of tests being run should be aborted by setting the *shouldStop* attribute to **True**. **TestRunner** objects should respect this flag and return without running any additional tests.

For example, this feature is used by the *TextTestRunner* class to stop the test framework when the user signals an interrupt from the keyboard. Interactive tools which provide **TestRunner** implementations can use this in a similar manner.

The following methods of the *TestResult* class are used to maintain the internal data structures, and may be extended in subclasses to support additional reporting requirements. This is particularly useful in building tools which support interactive reporting while tests are being run.

startTest(test)

Called when the test case *test* is about to be run.

stopTest(test)

Called after the test case *test* has been executed, regardless of the outcome.

startTestRun()

Called once before any tests are executed.

New in version 3.1.

stopTestRun()

Called once after all tests are executed.

New in version 3.1.

addError(test, err)

Called when the test case *test* raises an unexpected exception. *err* is a tuple of the form returned by *sys.exc_info()*: (type, value, traceback).

The default implementation appends a tuple (*test*, *formatted_err*) to the instance's *errors* attribute, where *formatted_err* is a formatted traceback derived from *err*.

addFailure(test, err)

Called when the test case *test* signals a failure. *err* is a tuple of the form returned by *sys.exc_info()*: (type, value, traceback).

The default implementation appends a tuple (*test*, *formatted_err*) to the instance's *failures* attribute, where *formatted_err* is a formatted traceback derived from *err*.

addSuccess(test)

Called when the test case *test* succeeds.

The default implementation does nothing.

addSkip(test, reason)

Called when the test case *test* is skipped. *reason* is the reason the test gave for skipping.

The default implementation appends a tuple (*test*, *reason*) to the instance's *skipped* attribute.

addExpectedFailure(test, err)

Called when the test case *test* fails, but was marked with the *expectedFailure()* decorator.

The default implementation appends a tuple (*test*, *formatted_err*) to the instance's *expectedFailures* attribute, where *formatted_err* is a formatted traceback derived from *err*.

addUnexpectedSuccess(*test*)

Called when the test case *test* was marked with the *expectedFailure()* decorator, but succeeded.

The default implementation appends the test to the instance's *unexpectedSuccesses* attribute.

addSubTest(*test*, *subtest*, *outcome*)

Called when a subtest finishes. *test* is the test case corresponding to the test method. *subtest* is a custom *TestCase* instance describing the subtest.

If *outcome* is *None*, the subtest succeeded. Otherwise, it failed with an exception where *outcome* is a tuple of the form returned by *sys.exc_info()*: (type, value, traceback).

The default implementation does nothing when the outcome is a success, and records subtest failures as normal failures.

New in version 3.4.

class unittest.TextTestResult(*stream*, *descriptions*, *verbosity*)

A concrete implementation of *TestResult* used by the *TextTestRunner*.

New in version 3.2: This class was previously named *_TextTestResult*. The old name still exists as an alias but is deprecated.

unittest.defaultTestLoader

Instance of the *TestLoader* class intended to be shared. If no customization of the *TestLoader* is needed, this instance can be used instead of repeatedly creating new instances.

class unittest.TextTestRunner(*stream*=None, *descriptions*=True, *verbosity*=1, *failfast*=False, *buffer*=False, *resultclass*=None, *warnings*=None, *, *tb_locals*=False)

A basic test runner implementation that outputs results to a stream. If *stream* is *None*, the default, *sys.stderr* is used as the output stream. This class has a few configurable parameters, but is essentially very simple. Graphical applications which run test suites should provide alternate implementations. Such implementations should accept ****kwargs** as the interface to construct runners changes when features are added to unittest.

By default this runner shows *DeprecationWarning*, *PendingDeprecationWarning*, *ResourceWarning* and *ImportWarning* even if they are *ignored by default*. Deprecation warnings caused by *deprecated unittest methods* are also special-cased and, when the warning filters are 'default' or 'always', they will appear only once per-module, in order to avoid too many warning messages. This behavior can be overridden using Python's *-Wd* or *-Wa* options (see Warning control) and leaving *warnings* to *None*.

Changed in version 3.2: Added the **warnings** argument.

Changed in version 3.2: The default stream is set to *sys.stderr* at instantiation time rather than import time.

Changed in version 3.5: Added the *tb_locals* parameter.

_makeResult()

This method returns the instance of *TestResult* used by *run()*. It is not intended to be called directly, but can be overridden in subclasses to provide a custom *TestResult*.

_makeResult() instantiates the class or callable passed in the *TextTestRunner* constructor as the *resultclass* argument. It defaults to *TextTestResult* if no *resultclass* is provided. The result class is instantiated with the following arguments:

stream, *descriptions*, *verbosity*

run(*test*)

This method is the main public interface to the *TextTestRunner*. This method takes a *TestSuite* or *TestCase* instance. A *TestResult* is created by calling *_makeResult()* and the test(s) are run and the results printed to stdout.

```
unittest.main(module='__main__', defaultTest=None, argv=None, testRunner=None, test-
              Loader=unittest.defaultTestLoader, exit=True, verbosity=1, failfast=None, catch-
              break=None, buffer=None, warnings=None)
```

A command-line program that loads a set of tests from *module* and runs them; this is primarily for making test modules conveniently executable. The simplest use for this function is to include the following line at the end of a test script:

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    unittest.main()
```

You can run tests with more detailed information by passing in the verbosity argument:

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    unittest.main(verbosity=2)
```

The *defaultTest* argument is either the name of a single test or an iterable of test names to run if no test names are specified via *argv*. If not specified or *None* and no test names are provided via *argv*, all tests found in *module* are run.

The *argv* argument can be a list of options passed to the program, with the first element being the program name. If not specified or *None*, the values of *sys.argv* are used.

The *testRunner* argument can either be a test runner class or an already created instance of it. By default *main* calls *sys.exit()* with an exit code indicating success or failure of the tests run.

The *testLoader* argument has to be a *TestLoader* instance, and defaults to *defaultTestLoader*.

main supports being used from the interactive interpreter by passing in the argument *exit=False*. This displays the result on standard output without calling *sys.exit()*:

```
>>> from unittest import main
>>> main(module='test_module', exit=False)
```

The *failfast*, *catchbreak* and *buffer* parameters have the same effect as the same-name *command-line options*.

The *warnings* argument specifies the *warning filter* that should be used while running the tests. If it's not specified, it will remain *None* if a *-W* option is passed to *python* (see Warning control), otherwise it will be set to *'default'*.

Calling *main* actually returns an instance of the *TestProgram* class. This stores the result of the tests run as the *result* attribute.

Changed in version 3.1: The *exit* parameter was added.

Changed in version 3.2: The *verbosity*, *failfast*, *catchbreak*, *buffer* and *warnings* parameters were added.

Changed in version 3.4: The *defaultTest* parameter was changed to also accept an iterable of test names.

load_tests Protocol

New in version 3.2.

Modules or packages can customize how tests are loaded from them during normal test runs or test discovery by implementing a function called *load_tests*.

If a test module defines *load_tests* it will be called by *TestLoader.loadTestsFromModule()* with the following arguments:

```
load_tests(loader, standard_tests, pattern)
```

where *pattern* is passed straight through from `loadTestsFromModule`. It defaults to `None`.

It should return a *TestSuite*.

loader is the instance of *TestLoader* doing the loading. *standard_tests* are the tests that would be loaded by default from the module. It is common for test modules to only want to add or remove tests from the standard set of tests. The third argument is used when loading packages as part of test discovery.

A typical `load_tests` function that loads tests from a specific set of *TestCase* classes may look like:

```
test_cases = (TestCase1, TestCase2, TestCase3)

def load_tests(loader, tests, pattern):
    suite = TestSuite()
    for test_class in test_cases:
        tests = loader.loadTestsFromTestCase(test_class)
        suite.addTests(tests)
    return suite
```

If discovery is started in a directory containing a package, either from the command line or by calling *TestLoader.discover()*, then the package `__init__.py` will be checked for `load_tests`. If that function does not exist, discovery will recurse into the package as though it were just another directory. Otherwise, discovery of the package's tests will be left up to `load_tests` which is called with the following arguments:

```
load_tests(loader, standard_tests, pattern)
```

This should return a *TestSuite* representing all the tests from the package. (*standard_tests* will only contain tests collected from `__init__.py`.)

Because the *pattern* is passed into `load_tests` the package is free to continue (and potentially modify) test discovery. A 'do nothing' `load_tests` function for a test package would look like:

```
def load_tests(loader, standard_tests, pattern):
    # top level directory cached on loader instance
    this_dir = os.path.dirname(__file__)
    package_tests = loader.discover(start_dir=this_dir, pattern=pattern)
    standard_tests.addTests(package_tests)
    return standard_tests
```

Changed in version 3.5: Discovery no longer checks package names for matching *pattern* due to the impossibility of package names matching the default pattern.

27.4.9 Class and Module Fixtures

Class and module level fixtures are implemented in *TestSuite*. When the test suite encounters a test from a new class then `tearDownClass()` from the previous class (if there is one) is called, followed by `setUpClass()` from the new class.

Similarly if a test is from a different module from the previous test then `tearDownModule` from the previous module is run, followed by `setUpModule` from the new module.

After all the tests have run the final `tearDownClass` and `tearDownModule` are run.

Note that shared fixtures do not play well with [potential] features like test parallelization and they break test isolation. They should be used with care.

The default ordering of tests created by the unittest test loaders is to group all tests from the same modules and classes together. This will lead to `setUpClass` / `setUpModule` (etc) being called exactly once per class and module. If you randomize the order, so that tests from different modules and classes are adjacent to each other, then these shared fixture functions may be called multiple times in a single test run.

Shared fixtures are not intended to work with suites with non-standard ordering. A `BaseTestSuite` still exists for frameworks that don't want to support shared fixtures.

If there are any exceptions raised during one of the shared fixture functions the test is reported as an error. Because there is no corresponding test instance an `_ErrorHolder` object (that has the same interface as a `TestCase`) is created to represent the error. If you are just using the standard unittest test runner then this detail doesn't matter, but if you are a framework author it may be relevant.

`setUpClass` and `tearDownClass`

These must be implemented as class methods:

```
import unittest

class Test(unittest.TestCase):
    @classmethod
    def setUpClass(cls):
        cls._connection = createExpensiveConnectionObject()

    @classmethod
    def tearDownClass(cls):
        cls._connection.destroy()
```

If you want the `setUpClass` and `tearDownClass` on base classes called then you must call up to them yourself. The implementations in `TestCase` are empty.

If an exception is raised during a `setUpClass` then the tests in the class are not run and the `tearDownClass` is not run. Skipped classes will not have `setUpClass` or `tearDownClass` run. If the exception is a `SkipTest` exception then the class will be reported as having been skipped instead of as an error.

`setUpModule` and `tearDownModule`

These should be implemented as functions:

```
def setUpModule():
    createConnection()

def tearDownModule():
    closeConnection()
```

If an exception is raised in a `setUpModule` then none of the tests in the module will be run and the `tearDownModule` will not be run. If the exception is a `SkipTest` exception then the module will be reported as having been skipped instead of as an error.

27.4.10 Signal Handling

New in version 3.2.

The `-c/--catch` command-line option to unittest, along with the `catchbreak` parameter to `unittest.main()`, provide more friendly handling of control-C during a test run. With catch break behavior enabled

control-C will allow the currently running test to complete, and the test run will then end and report all the results so far. A second control-c will raise a *KeyboardInterrupt* in the usual way.

The control-c handling signal handler attempts to remain compatible with code or tests that install their own `signal.SIGINT` handler. If the `unittest` handler is called but *isn't* the installed `signal.SIGINT` handler, i.e. it has been replaced by the system under test and delegated to, then it calls the default handler. This will normally be the expected behavior by code that replaces an installed handler and delegates to it. For individual tests that need `unittest` control-c handling disabled the `removeHandler()` decorator can be used.

There are a few utility functions for framework authors to enable control-c handling functionality within test frameworks.

`unittest.installHandler()`

Install the control-c handler. When a `signal.SIGINT` is received (usually in response to the user pressing control-c) all registered results have `stop()` called.

`unittest.registerResult(result)`

Register a *TestResult* object for control-c handling. Registering a result stores a weak reference to it, so it doesn't prevent the result from being garbage collected.

Registering a *TestResult* object has no side-effects if control-c handling is not enabled, so test frameworks can unconditionally register all results they create independently of whether or not handling is enabled.

`unittest.removeResult(result)`

Remove a registered result. Once a result has been removed then `stop()` will no longer be called on that result object in response to a control-c.

`unittest.removeHandler(function=None)`

When called without arguments this function removes the control-c handler if it has been installed. This function can also be used as a test decorator to temporarily remove the handler while the test is being executed:

```
@unittest.removeHandler
def test_signal_handling(self):
    ...
```

27.5 unittest.mock — mock object library

New in version 3.3.

Source code: [Lib/unittest/mock.py](#)

unittest.mock is a library for testing in Python. It allows you to replace parts of your system under test with mock objects and make assertions about how they have been used.

unittest.mock provides a core *Mock* class removing the need to create a host of stubs throughout your test suite. After performing an action, you can make assertions about which methods / attributes were used and arguments they were called with. You can also specify return values and set needed attributes in the normal way.

Additionally, mock provides a `patch()` decorator that handles patching module and class level attributes within the scope of a test, along with *sentinel* for creating unique objects. See the *quick guide* for some examples of how to use *Mock*, *MagicMock* and `patch()`.

Mock is very easy to use and is designed for use with *unittest*. Mock is based on the ‘action -> assertion’ pattern instead of ‘record -> replay’ used by many mocking frameworks.

There is a backport of *unittest.mock* for earlier versions of Python, available as [mock on PyPI](#).

27.5.1 Quick Guide

Mock and *MagicMock* objects create all attributes and methods as you access them and store details of how they have been used. You can configure them, to specify return values or limit what attributes are available, and then make assertions about how they have been used:

```
>>> from unittest.mock import MagicMock
>>> thing = ProductionClass()
>>> thing.method = MagicMock(return_value=3)
>>> thing.method(3, 4, 5, key='value')
3
>>> thing.method.assert_called_with(3, 4, 5, key='value')
```

`side_effect` allows you to perform side effects, including raising an exception when a mock is called:

```
>>> mock = Mock(side_effect=KeyError('foo'))
>>> mock()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
KeyError: 'foo'
```

```
>>> values = {'a': 1, 'b': 2, 'c': 3}
>>> def side_effect(arg):
...     return values[arg]
...
>>> mock.side_effect = side_effect
>>> mock('a'), mock('b'), mock('c')
(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock.side_effect = [5, 4, 3, 2, 1]
>>> mock(), mock(), mock()
(5, 4, 3)
```

Mock has many other ways you can configure it and control its behaviour. For example the *spec* argument configures the mock to take its specification from another object. Attempting to access attributes or methods on the mock that don't exist on the spec will fail with an *AttributeError*.

The *patch()* decorator / context manager makes it easy to mock classes or objects in a module under test. The object you specify will be replaced with a mock (or other object) during the test and restored when the test ends:

```
>>> from unittest.mock import patch
>>> @patch('module.ClassName2')
... @patch('module.ClassName1')
... def test(MockClass1, MockClass2):
...     module.ClassName1()
...     module.ClassName2()
...     assert MockClass1 is module.ClassName1
...     assert MockClass2 is module.ClassName2
...     assert MockClass1.called
...     assert MockClass2.called
...
>>> test()
```

Note: When you nest patch decorators the mocks are passed in to the decorated function in the same

order they applied (the normal *Python* order that decorators are applied). This means from the bottom up, so in the example above the mock for `module.ClassName1` is passed in first.

With `patch()` it matters that you patch objects in the namespace where they are looked up. This is normally straightforward, but for a quick guide read *where to patch*.

As well as a decorator `patch()` can be used as a context manager in a `with` statement:

```
>>> with patch.object(ProductionClass, 'method', return_value=None) as mock_method:
...     thing = ProductionClass()
...     thing.method(1, 2, 3)
...
>>> mock_method.assert_called_once_with(1, 2, 3)
```

There is also `patch.dict()` for setting values in a dictionary just during a scope and restoring the dictionary to its original state when the test ends:

```
>>> foo = {'key': 'value'}
>>> original = foo.copy()
>>> with patch.dict(foo, {'newkey': 'newvalue'}, clear=True):
...     assert foo == {'newkey': 'newvalue'}
...
>>> assert foo == original
```

Mock supports the mocking of Python *magic methods*. The easiest way of using magic methods is with the *MagicMock* class. It allows you to do things like:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock.__str__.return_value = 'foobarbaz'
>>> str(mock)
'foobarbaz'
>>> mock.__str__.assert_called_with()
```

Mock allows you to assign functions (or other Mock instances) to magic methods and they will be called appropriately. The *MagicMock* class is just a Mock variant that has all of the magic methods pre-created for you (well, all the useful ones anyway).

The following is an example of using magic methods with the ordinary Mock class:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.__str__ = Mock(return_value='wheweeee')
>>> str(mock)
'wheweeee'
```

For ensuring that the mock objects in your tests have the same api as the objects they are replacing, you can use *auto-specing*. Auto-specing can be done through the *autospec* argument to *patch*, or the *create_autospec()* function. Auto-specing creates mock objects that have the same attributes and methods as the objects they are replacing, and any functions and methods (including constructors) have the same call signature as the real object.

This ensures that your mocks will fail in the same way as your production code if they are used incorrectly:

```
>>> from unittest.mock import create_autospec
>>> def function(a, b, c):
...     pass
... 
```

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```

>>> mock_function = create_autospec(function, return_value='fishy')
>>> mock_function(1, 2, 3)
'fishy'
>>> mock_function.assert_called_once_with(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock_function('wrong arguments')
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TypeError: <lambda>() takes exactly 3 arguments (1 given)

```

`create_autospec()` can also be used on classes, where it copies the signature of the `__init__` method, and on callable objects where it copies the signature of the `__call__` method.

27.5.2 The Mock Class

Mock is a flexible mock object intended to replace the use of stubs and test doubles throughout your code. Mocks are callable and create attributes as new mocks when you access them¹. Accessing the same attribute will always return the same mock. Mocks record how you use them, allowing you to make assertions about what your code has done to them.

MagicMock is a subclass of *Mock* with all the magic methods pre-created and ready to use. There are also non-callable variants, useful when you are mocking out objects that aren't callable: *NonCallableMock* and *NonCallableMagicMock*.

The `patch()` decorators makes it easy to temporarily replace classes in a particular module with a *Mock* object. By default `patch()` will create a *MagicMock* for you. You can specify an alternative class of *Mock* using the `new_callable` argument to `patch()`.

```
class unittest.mock.Mock(spec=None, side_effect=None, return_value=DEFAULT, wraps=None,
                        name=None, spec_set=None, unsafe=False, **kwargs)
```

Create a new *Mock* object. *Mock* takes several optional arguments that specify the behaviour of the Mock object:

- *spec*: This can be either a list of strings or an existing object (a class or instance) that acts as the specification for the mock object. If you pass in an object then a list of strings is formed by calling `dir` on the object (excluding unsupported magic attributes and methods). Accessing any attribute not in this list will raise an *AttributeError*.

If *spec* is an object (rather than a list of strings) then `__class__` returns the class of the spec object. This allows mocks to pass `isinstance()` tests.

- *spec_set*: A stricter variant of *spec*. If used, attempting to *set* or *get* an attribute on the mock that isn't on the object passed as *spec_set* will raise an *AttributeError*.
- *side_effect*: A function to be called whenever the Mock is called. See the *side_effect* attribute. Useful for raising exceptions or dynamically changing return values. The function is called with the same arguments as the mock, and unless it returns *DEFAULT*, the return value of this function is used as the return value.

Alternatively *side_effect* can be an exception class or instance. In this case the exception will be raised when the mock is called.

If *side_effect* is an iterable then each call to the mock will return the next value from the iterable.

A *side_effect* can be cleared by setting it to *None*.

¹ The only exceptions are magic methods and attributes (those that have leading and trailing double underscores). Mock doesn't create these but instead raises an *AttributeError*. This is because the interpreter will often implicitly request these methods, and gets *very* confused to get a new Mock object when it expects a magic method. If you need magic method support see *magic methods*.

- *return_value*: The value returned when the mock is called. By default this is a new Mock (created on first access). See the *return_value* attribute.
- *unsafe*: By default if any attribute starts with *assert* or *assret* will raise an *AttributeError*. Passing *unsafe=True* will allow access to these attributes.

New in version 3.5.

- *wraps*: Item for the mock object to wrap. If *wraps* is not *None* then calling the Mock will pass the call through to the wrapped object (returning the real result). Attribute access on the mock will return a Mock object that wraps the corresponding attribute of the wrapped object (so attempting to access an attribute that doesn't exist will raise an *AttributeError*).

If the mock has an explicit *return_value* set then calls are not passed to the wrapped object and the *return_value* is returned instead.

- *name*: If the mock has a name then it will be used in the repr of the mock. This can be useful for debugging. The name is propagated to child mocks.

Mocks can also be called with arbitrary keyword arguments. These will be used to set attributes on the mock after it is created. See the *configure_mock()* method for details.

assert_called(*args, **kwargs)

Assert that the mock was called at least once.

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.method()
<Mock name='mock.method()' id='...'>
>>> mock.method.assert_called()
```

New in version 3.6.

assert_called_once(*args, **kwargs)

Assert that the mock was called exactly once.

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.method()
<Mock name='mock.method()' id='...'>
>>> mock.method.assert_called_once()
>>> mock.method()
<Mock name='mock.method()' id='...'>
>>> mock.method.assert_called_once()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected 'method' to have been called once. Called 2 times.
```

New in version 3.6.

assert_called_with(*args, **kwargs)

This method is a convenient way of asserting that calls are made in a particular way:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.method(1, 2, 3, test='wow')
<Mock name='mock.method()' id='...'>
>>> mock.method.assert_called_with(1, 2, 3, test='wow')
```

assert_called_once_with(*args, **kwargs)

Assert that the mock was called exactly once and that that call was with the specified arguments.

```

>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock('foo', bar='baz')
>>> mock.assert_called_once_with('foo', bar='baz')
>>> mock('other', bar='values')
>>> mock.assert_called_once_with('other', bar='values')
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected 'mock' to be called once. Called 2 times.

```

assert_any_call(*args, **kwargs)

assert the mock has been called with the specified arguments.

The assert passes if the mock has *ever* been called, unlike `assert_called_with()` and `assert_called_once_with()` that only pass if the call is the most recent one, and in the case of `assert_called_once_with()` it must also be the only call.

```

>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock(1, 2, arg='thing')
>>> mock('some', 'thing', 'else')
>>> mock.assert_any_call(1, 2, arg='thing')

```

assert_has_calls(calls, any_order=False)

assert the mock has been called with the specified calls. The `mock_calls` list is checked for the calls.

If `any_order` is false (the default) then the calls must be sequential. There can be extra calls before or after the specified calls.

If `any_order` is true then the calls can be in any order, but they must all appear in `mock_calls`.

```

>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock(1)
>>> mock(2)
>>> mock(3)
>>> mock(4)
>>> calls = [call(2), call(3)]
>>> mock.assert_has_calls(calls)
>>> calls = [call(4), call(2), call(3)]
>>> mock.assert_has_calls(calls, any_order=True)

```

assert_not_called()

Assert the mock was never called.

```

>>> m = Mock()
>>> m.hello.assert_not_called()
>>> obj = m.hello()
>>> m.hello.assert_not_called()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected 'hello' to not have been called. Called 1 times.

```

New in version 3.5.

reset_mock(*, return_value=False, side_effect=False)

The `reset_mock` method resets all the call attributes on a mock object:

```

>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock('hello')
>>> mock.called
True
>>> mock.reset_mock()
>>> mock.called
False

```

Changed in version 3.6: Added two keyword only argument to the `reset_mock` function.

This can be useful where you want to make a series of assertions that reuse the same object. Note that `reset_mock()` *doesn't* clear the return value, `side_effect` or any child attributes you have set using normal assignment by default. In case you want to reset `return_value` or `side_effect`, then pass the corresponding parameter as `True`. Child mocks and the return value mock (if any) are reset as well.

Note: `return_value`, and `side_effect` are keyword only argument.

mock_add_spec(*spec*, *spec_set=False*)

Add a spec to a mock. *spec* can either be an object or a list of strings. Only attributes on the *spec* can be fetched as attributes from the mock.

If *spec_set* is true then only attributes on the spec can be set.

attach_mock(*mock*, *attribute*)

Attach a mock as an attribute of this one, replacing its name and parent. Calls to the attached mock will be recorded in the `method_calls` and `mock_calls` attributes of this one.

configure_mock(***kwargs*)

Set attributes on the mock through keyword arguments.

Attributes plus return values and side effects can be set on child mocks using standard dot notation and unpacking a dictionary in the method call:

```

>>> mock = Mock()
>>> attrs = {'method.return_value': 3, 'other.side_effect': KeyError}
>>> mock.configure_mock(**attrs)
>>> mock.method()
3
>>> mock.other()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
KeyError

```

The same thing can be achieved in the constructor call to mocks:

```

>>> attrs = {'method.return_value': 3, 'other.side_effect': KeyError}
>>> mock = Mock(some_attribute='eggs', **attrs)
>>> mock.some_attribute
'eggs'
>>> mock.method()
3
>>> mock.other()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
KeyError

```

`configure_mock()` exists to make it easier to do configuration after the mock has been created.

`__dir__()`

`Mock` objects limit the results of `dir(some_mock)` to useful results. For mocks with a *spec* this includes all the permitted attributes for the mock.

See `FILTER_DIR` for what this filtering does, and how to switch it off.

`_get_child_mock(**kw)`

Create the child mocks for attributes and return value. By default child mocks will be the same type as the parent. Subclasses of `Mock` may want to override this to customize the way child mocks are made.

For non-callable mocks the callable variant will be used (rather than any custom subclass).

`called`

A boolean representing whether or not the mock object has been called:

```
>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock.called
False
>>> mock()
>>> mock.called
True
```

`call_count`

An integer telling you how many times the mock object has been called:

```
>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock.call_count
0
>>> mock()
>>> mock()
>>> mock.call_count
2
```

`return_value`

Set this to configure the value returned by calling the mock:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.return_value = 'fish'
>>> mock()
'fish'
```

The default return value is a mock object and you can configure it in the normal way:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.return_value.attribute = sentinel.Attribute
>>> mock.return_value()
<Mock name='mock()' id='...'>
>>> mock.return_value.assert_called_with()
```

`return_value` can also be set in the constructor:

```
>>> mock = Mock(return_value=3)
>>> mock.return_value
3
```

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```
>>> mock()
3
```

side_effect

This can either be a function to be called when the mock is called, an iterable or an exception (class or instance) to be raised.

If you pass in a function it will be called with same arguments as the mock and unless the function returns the *DEFAULT* singleton the call to the mock will then return whatever the function returns. If the function returns *DEFAULT* then the mock will return its normal value (from the *return_value*).

If you pass in an iterable, it is used to retrieve an iterator which must yield a value on every call. This value can either be an exception instance to be raised, or a value to be returned from the call to the mock (*DEFAULT* handling is identical to the function case).

An example of a mock that raises an exception (to test exception handling of an API):

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.side_effect = Exception('Boom!')
>>> mock()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
Exception: Boom!
```

Using *side_effect* to return a sequence of values:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.side_effect = [3, 2, 1]
>>> mock(), mock(), mock()
(3, 2, 1)
```

Using a callable:

```
>>> mock = Mock(return_value=3)
>>> def side_effect(*args, **kwargs):
...     return DEFAULT
...
>>> mock.side_effect = side_effect
>>> mock()
3
```

side_effect can be set in the constructor. Here's an example that adds one to the value the mock is called with and returns it:

```
>>> side_effect = lambda value: value + 1
>>> mock = Mock(side_effect=side_effect)
>>> mock(3)
4
>>> mock(-8)
-7
```

Setting *side_effect* to None clears it:

```

>>> m = Mock(side_effect=KeyError, return_value=3)
>>> m()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
KeyError
>>> m.side_effect = None
>>> m()
3

```

call_args

This is either `None` (if the mock hasn't been called), or the arguments that the mock was last called with. This will be in the form of a tuple: the first member is any ordered arguments the mock was called with (or an empty tuple) and the second member is any keyword arguments (or an empty dictionary).

```

>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> print(mock.call_args)
None
>>> mock()
>>> mock.call_args
call()
>>> mock.call_args == ()
True
>>> mock(3, 4)
>>> mock.call_args
call(3, 4)
>>> mock.call_args == ((3, 4),)
True
>>> mock(3, 4, 5, key='fish', next='w00t!')
>>> mock.call_args
call(3, 4, 5, key='fish', next='w00t!')

```

`call_args`, along with members of the lists `call_args_list`, `method_calls` and `mock_calls` are `call` objects. These are tuples, so they can be unpacked to get at the individual arguments and make more complex assertions. See *calls as tuples*.

call_args_list

This is a list of all the calls made to the mock object in sequence (so the length of the list is the number of times it has been called). Before any calls have been made it is an empty list. The `call` object can be used for conveniently constructing lists of calls to compare with `call_args_list`.

```

>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock()
>>> mock(3, 4)
>>> mock(key='fish', next='w00t!')
>>> mock.call_args_list
[call(), call(3, 4), call(key='fish', next='w00t!')]
>>> expected = [(), ((3, 4),), ({'key': 'fish', 'next': 'w00t!'},)]
>>> mock.call_args_list == expected
True

```

Members of `call_args_list` are `call` objects. These can be unpacked as tuples to get at the individual arguments. See *calls as tuples*.

method_calls

As well as tracking calls to themselves, mocks also track calls to methods and attributes, and *their* methods and attributes:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.method()
<Mock name='mock.method()' id='...'>
>>> mock.property.method.attribute()
<Mock name='mock.property.method.attribute()' id='...'>
>>> mock.method_calls
[call.method(), call.property.method.attribute()]
```

Members of `method_calls` are `call` objects. These can be unpacked as tuples to get at the individual arguments. See *calls as tuples*.

`mock_calls`

`mock_calls` records *all* calls to the mock object, its methods, magic methods *and* return value mocks.

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> result = mock(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock.first(a=3)
<MagicMock name='mock.first()' id='...'>
>>> mock.second()
<MagicMock name='mock.second()' id='...'>
>>> int(mock)
1
>>> result(1)
<MagicMock name='mock()' id='...'>
>>> expected = [call(1, 2, 3), call.first(a=3), call.second(),
... call.__int__(), call()(1)]
>>> mock.mock_calls == expected
True
```

Members of `mock_calls` are `call` objects. These can be unpacked as tuples to get at the individual arguments. See *calls as tuples*.

Note: The way `mock_calls` are recorded means that where nested calls are made, the parameters of ancestor calls are not recorded and so will always compare equal:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock.top(a=3).bottom()
<MagicMock name='mock.top().bottom()' id='...'>
>>> mock.mock_calls
[call.top(a=3), call.top().bottom()]
>>> mock.mock_calls[-1] == call.top(a=-1).bottom()
True
```

`__class__`

Normally the `__class__` attribute of an object will return its type. For a mock object with a spec, `__class__` returns the spec class instead. This allows mock objects to pass `isinstance()` tests for the object they are replacing / masquerading as:

```
>>> mock = Mock(spec=3)
>>> isinstance(mock, int)
True
```

`__class__` is assignable to, this allows a mock to pass an `isinstance()` check without forcing you to use a spec:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.__class__ = dict
>>> isinstance(mock, dict)
True
```

```
class unittest.mock.NonCallableMock(spec=None, wraps=None, name=None, spec_set=None,
                                   **kwargs)
```

A non-callable version of `Mock`. The constructor parameters have the same meaning of `Mock`, with the exception of `return_value` and `side_effect` which have no meaning on a non-callable mock.

Mock objects that use a class or an instance as a `spec` or `spec_set` are able to pass `isinstance()` tests:

```
>>> mock = Mock(spec=SomeClass)
>>> isinstance(mock, SomeClass)
True
>>> mock = Mock(spec_set=SomeClass())
>>> isinstance(mock, SomeClass)
True
```

The `Mock` classes have support for mocking magic methods. See *magic methods* for the full details.

The mock classes and the `patch()` decorators all take arbitrary keyword arguments for configuration. For the `patch()` decorators the keywords are passed to the constructor of the mock being created. The keyword arguments are for configuring attributes of the mock:

```
>>> m = MagicMock(attribute=3, other='fish')
>>> m.attribute
3
>>> m.other
'fish'
```

The return value and side effect of child mocks can be set in the same way, using dotted notation. As you can't use dotted names directly in a call you have to create a dictionary and unpack it using `**`:

```
>>> attrs = {'method.return_value': 3, 'other.side_effect': KeyError}
>>> mock = Mock(some_attribute='eggs', **attrs)
>>> mock.some_attribute
'eggs'
>>> mock.method()
3
>>> mock.other()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
KeyError
```

A callable mock which was created with a `spec` (or a `spec_set`) will introspect the specification object's signature when matching calls to the mock. Therefore, it can match the actual call's arguments regardless of whether they were passed positionally or by name:

```
>>> def f(a, b, c): pass
...
>>> mock = Mock(spec=f)
>>> mock(1, 2, c=3)
<Mock name='mock()' id='140161580456576'>
>>> mock.assert_called_with(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock.assert_called_with(a=1, b=2, c=3)
```

This applies to `assert_called_with()`, `assert_called_once_with()`, `assert_has_calls()` and `assert_any_call()`. When *Autospeccing*, it will also apply to method calls on the mock object.

Changed in version 3.4: Added signature introspection on specced and autospecced mock objects.

class `unittest.mock.PropertyMock(*args, **kwargs)`

A mock intended to be used as a property, or other descriptor, on a class. *PropertyMock* provides `__get__()` and `__set__()` methods so you can specify a return value when it is fetched.

Fetching a *PropertyMock* instance from an object calls the mock, with no args. Setting it calls the mock with the value being set.

```
>>> class Foo:
...     @property
...     def foo(self):
...         return 'something'
...     @foo.setter
...     def foo(self, value):
...         pass
...
>>> with patch('__main__.Foo.foo', new_callable=PropertyMock) as mock_foo:
...     mock_foo.return_value = 'mockity-mock'
...     this_foo = Foo()
...     print(this_foo.foo)
...     this_foo.foo = 6
...
mockity-mock
>>> mock_foo.mock_calls
[call(), call(6)]
```

Because of the way mock attributes are stored you can't directly attach a *PropertyMock* to a mock object. Instead you can attach it to the mock type object:

```
>>> m = MagicMock()
>>> p = PropertyMock(return_value=3)
>>> type(m).foo = p
>>> m.foo
3
>>> p.assert_called_once_with()
```

Calling

Mock objects are callable. The call will return the value set as the *return_value* attribute. The default return value is a new Mock object; it is created the first time the return value is accessed (either explicitly or by calling the Mock) - but it is stored and the same one returned each time.

Calls made to the object will be recorded in the attributes like *call_args* and *call_args_list*.

If *side_effect* is set then it will be called after the call has been recorded, so if *side_effect* raises an exception the call is still recorded.

The simplest way to make a mock raise an exception when called is to make *side_effect* an exception class or instance:

```
>>> m = MagicMock(side_effect=IndexError)
>>> m(1, 2, 3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
IndexError
>>> m.mock_calls
[call(1, 2, 3)]
>>> m.side_effect = KeyError('Bang!')
>>> m('two', 'three', 'four')
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
KeyError: 'Bang!'
>>> m.mock_calls
[call(1, 2, 3), call('two', 'three', 'four')]
```

If *side_effect* is a function then whatever that function returns is what calls to the mock return. The *side_effect* function is called with the same arguments as the mock. This allows you to vary the return value of the call dynamically, based on the input:

```
>>> def side_effect(value):
...     return value + 1
...
>>> m = MagicMock(side_effect=side_effect)
>>> m(1)
2
>>> m(2)
3
>>> m.mock_calls
[call(1), call(2)]
```

If you want the mock to still return the default return value (a new mock), or any set return value, then there are two ways of doing this. Either return *mock.return_value* from inside *side_effect*, or return *DEFAULT*:

```
>>> m = MagicMock()
>>> def side_effect(*args, **kwargs):
...     return m.return_value
...
>>> m.side_effect = side_effect
>>> m.return_value = 3
>>> m()
3
>>> def side_effect(*args, **kwargs):
...     return DEFAULT
...
>>> m.side_effect = side_effect
>>> m()
3
```

To remove a *side_effect*, and return to the default behaviour, set the *side_effect* to *None*:

```
>>> m = MagicMock(return_value=6)
>>> def side_effect(*args, **kwargs):
...     return 3
...
>>> m.side_effect = side_effect
>>> m()
3
>>> m.side_effect = None
>>> m()
6
```

The `side_effect` can also be any iterable object. Repeated calls to the mock will return values from the iterable (until the iterable is exhausted and a `StopIteration` is raised):

```
>>> m = MagicMock(side_effect=[1, 2, 3])
>>> m()
1
>>> m()
2
>>> m()
3
>>> m()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
StopIteration
```

If any members of the iterable are exceptions they will be raised instead of returned:

```
>>> iterable = (33, ValueError, 66)
>>> m = MagicMock(side_effect=iterable)
>>> m()
33
>>> m()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
ValueError
>>> m()
66
```

Deleting Attributes

Mock objects create attributes on demand. This allows them to pretend to be objects of any type.

You may want a mock object to return `False` to a `hasattr()` call, or raise an `AttributeError` when an attribute is fetched. You can do this by providing an object as a `spec` for a mock, but that isn't always convenient.

You “block” attributes by deleting them. Once deleted, accessing an attribute will raise an `AttributeError`.

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> hasattr(mock, 'm')
True
>>> del mock.m
```

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```
>>> hasattr(mock, 'm')
False
>>> del mock.f
>>> mock.f
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AttributeError: f
```

Mock names and the name attribute

Since “name” is an argument to the *Mock* constructor, if you want your mock object to have a “name” attribute you can’t just pass it in at creation time. There are two alternatives. One option is to use *configure_mock()*:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock.configure_mock(name='my_name')
>>> mock.name
'my_name'
```

A simpler option is to simply set the “name” attribute after mock creation:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock.name = "foo"
```

Attaching Mocks as Attributes

When you attach a mock as an attribute of another mock (or as the return value) it becomes a “child” of that mock. Calls to the child are recorded in the *method_calls* and *mock_calls* attributes of the parent. This is useful for configuring child mocks and then attaching them to the parent, or for attaching mocks to a parent that records all calls to the children and allows you to make assertions about the order of calls between mocks:

```
>>> parent = MagicMock()
>>> child1 = MagicMock(return_value=None)
>>> child2 = MagicMock(return_value=None)
>>> parent.child1 = child1
>>> parent.child2 = child2
>>> child1(1)
>>> child2(2)
>>> parent.mock_calls
[call.child1(1), call.child2(2)]
```

The exception to this is if the mock has a name. This allows you to prevent the “parenting” if for some reason you don’t want it to happen.

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> not_a_child = MagicMock(name='not-a-child')
>>> mock.attribute = not_a_child
>>> mock.attribute()
<MagicMock name='not-a-child()' id='...'>
```

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```
>>> mock.mock_calls
[]
```

Mocks created for you by `patch()` are automatically given names. To attach mocks that have names to a parent you use the `attach_mock()` method:

```
>>> thing1 = object()
>>> thing2 = object()
>>> parent = MagicMock()
>>> with patch('__main__.thing1', return_value=None) as child1:
...     with patch('__main__.thing2', return_value=None) as child2:
...         parent.attach_mock(child1, 'child1')
...         parent.attach_mock(child2, 'child2')
...         child1('one')
...         child2('two')
...
>>> parent.mock_calls
[call.child1('one'), call.child2('two')]
```

27.5.3 The patchers

The patch decorators are used for patching objects only within the scope of the function they decorate. They automatically handle the unpatching for you, even if exceptions are raised. All of these functions can also be used in with statements or as class decorators.

patch

Note: `patch()` is straightforward to use. The key is to do the patching in the right namespace. See the section *where to patch*.

`unittest.mock.patch(target, new=DEFAULT, spec=None, create=False, spec_set=None, autospec=None, new_callable=None, **kwargs)`

`patch()` acts as a function decorator, class decorator or a context manager. Inside the body of the function or with statement, the `target` is patched with a `new` object. When the function/with statement exits the patch is undone.

If `new` is omitted, then the target is replaced with a `MagicMock`. If `patch()` is used as a decorator and `new` is omitted, the created mock is passed in as an extra argument to the decorated function. If `patch()` is used as a context manager the created mock is returned by the context manager.

`target` should be a string in the form `'package.module.ClassName'`. The `target` is imported and the specified object replaced with the `new` object, so the `target` must be importable from the environment you are calling `patch()` from. The target is imported when the decorated function is executed, not at decoration time.

The `spec` and `spec_set` keyword arguments are passed to the `MagicMock` if patch is creating one for you.

In addition you can pass `spec=True` or `spec_set=True`, which causes patch to pass in the object being mocked as the `spec/spec_set` object.

`new_callable` allows you to specify a different class, or callable object, that will be called to create the `new` object. By default `MagicMock` is used.

A more powerful form of *spec* is *autospec*. If you set `autospec=True` then the mock will be created with a spec from the object being replaced. All attributes of the mock will also have the spec of the corresponding attribute of the object being replaced. Methods and functions being mocked will have their arguments checked and will raise a *TypeError* if they are called with the wrong signature. For mocks replacing a class, their return value (the ‘instance’) will have the same spec as the class. See the `create_autospec()` function and *Autospeccing*.

Instead of `autospec=True` you can pass `autospec=some_object` to use an arbitrary object as the spec instead of the one being replaced.

By default `patch()` will fail to replace attributes that don’t exist. If you pass in `create=True`, and the attribute doesn’t exist, patch will create the attribute for you when the patched function is called, and delete it again after the patched function has exited. This is useful for writing tests against attributes that your production code creates at runtime. It is off by default because it can be dangerous. With it switched on you can write passing tests against APIs that don’t actually exist!

Note: Changed in version 3.5: If you are patching builtins in a module then you don’t need to pass `create=True`, it will be added by default.

Patch can be used as a `TestCase` class decorator. It works by decorating each test method in the class. This reduces the boilerplate code when your test methods share a common patchings set. `patch()` finds tests by looking for method names that start with `patch.TEST_PREFIX`. By default this is ‘test’, which matches the way *unittest* finds tests. You can specify an alternative prefix by setting `patch.TEST_PREFIX`.

Patch can be used as a context manager, with the `with` statement. Here the patching applies to the indented block after the `with` statement. If you use “as” then the patched object will be bound to the name after the “as”; very useful if `patch()` is creating a mock object for you.

`patch()` takes arbitrary keyword arguments. These will be passed to the *Mock* (or *new_callable*) on construction.

`patch.dict(...)`, `patch.multiple(...)` and `patch.object(...)` are available for alternate use-cases.

`patch()` as function decorator, creating the mock for you and passing it into the decorated function:

```
>>> @patch('__main__.SomeClass')
... def function(normal_argument, mock_class):
...     print(mock_class is SomeClass)
...
>>> function(None)
True
```

Patching a class replaces the class with a *MagicMock instance*. If the class is instantiated in the code under test then it will be the *return_value* of the mock that will be used.

If the class is instantiated multiple times you could use *side_effect* to return a new mock each time. Alternatively you can set the *return_value* to be anything you want.

To configure return values on methods of *instances* on the patched class you must do this on the *return_value*. For example:

```
>>> class Class:
...     def method(self):
...         pass
...
... 
```

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```
>>> with patch('__main__.Class') as MockClass:
...     instance = MockClass.return_value
...     instance.method.return_value = 'foo'
...     assert Class() is instance
...     assert Class().method() == 'foo'
... 
```

If you use *spec* or *spec_set* and *patch()* is replacing a *class*, then the return value of the created mock will have the same spec.

```
>>> Original = Class
>>> patcher = patch('__main__.Class', spec=True)
>>> MockClass = patcher.start()
>>> instance = MockClass()
>>> assert isinstance(instance, Original)
>>> patcher.stop()
```

The *new_callable* argument is useful where you want to use an alternative class to the default *MagicMock* for the created mock. For example, if you wanted a *NonCallableMock* to be used:

```
>>> thing = object()
>>> with patch('__main__.thing', new_callable=NonCallableMock) as mock_thing:
...     assert thing is mock_thing
...     thing()
... 
```

Traceback (most recent call last):

```
...
TypeError: 'NonCallableMock' object is not callable
```

Another use case might be to replace an object with an *io.StringIO* instance:

```
>>> from io import StringIO
>>> def foo():
...     print('Something')
... 
```

```
>>> @patch('sys.stdout', new_callable=StringIO)
... def test(mock_stdout):
...     foo()
...     assert mock_stdout.getvalue() == 'Something\n'
... 
```

```
>>> test()
```

When *patch()* is creating a mock for you, it is common that the first thing you need to do is to configure the mock. Some of that configuration can be done in the call to *patch*. Any arbitrary keywords you pass into the call will be used to set attributes on the created mock:

```
>>> patcher = patch('__main__.thing', first='one', second='two')
>>> mock_thing = patcher.start()
>>> mock_thing.first
'one'
>>> mock_thing.second
'two'
```

As well as attributes on the created mock attributes, like the *return_value* and *side_effect*, of child mocks can also be configured. These aren't syntactically valid to pass in directly as keyword arguments, but a dictionary with these as keys can still be expanded into a *patch()* call using ****:

```
>>> config = {'method.return_value': 3, 'other.side_effect': KeyError}
>>> patcher = patch('__main__.thing', **config)
>>> mock_thing = patcher.start()
>>> mock_thing.method()
3
>>> mock_thing.other()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
KeyError
```

By default, attempting to patch a function in a module (or a method or an attribute in a class) that does not exist will fail with *AttributeError*:

```
>>> @patch('sys.non_existing_attribute', 42)
... def test():
...     assert sys.non_existing_attribute == 42
...
>>> test()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AttributeError: <module 'sys' (built-in)> does not have the attribute 'non_existing'
```

but adding *create=True* in the call to *patch()* will make the previous example work as expected:

```
>>> @patch('sys.non_existing_attribute', 42, create=True)
... def test(mock_stdout):
...     assert sys.non_existing_attribute == 42
...
>>> test()
```

patch.object

*patch.object(target, attribute, new=DEFAULT, spec=None, create=False, spec_set=None, autospec=None, new_callable=None, **kwargs)*
 patch the named member (*attribute*) on an object (*target*) with a mock object.

patch.object() can be used as a decorator, class decorator or a context manager. Arguments *new*, *spec*, *create*, *spec_set*, *autospec* and *new_callable* have the same meaning as for *patch()*. Like *patch()*, *patch.object()* takes arbitrary keyword arguments for configuring the mock object it creates.

When used as a class decorator *patch.object()* honours *patch.TEST_PREFIX* for choosing which methods to wrap.

You can either call *patch.object()* with three arguments or two arguments. The three argument form takes the object to be patched, the attribute name and the object to replace the attribute with.

When calling with the two argument form you omit the replacement object, and a mock is created for you and passed in as an extra argument to the decorated function:

```
>>> @patch.object(SomeClass, 'class_method')
... def test(mock_method):
```

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```
...     SomeClass.class_method(3)
...     mock_method.assert_called_with(3)
...
>>> test()
```

spec, *create* and the other arguments to `patch.object()` have the same meaning as they do for `patch()`.

patch.dict

`patch.dict(in_dict, values=(), clear=False, **kwargs)`

Patch a dictionary, or dictionary like object, and restore the dictionary to its original state after the test.

in_dict can be a dictionary or a mapping like container. If it is a mapping then it must at least support getting, setting and deleting items plus iterating over keys.

in_dict can also be a string specifying the name of the dictionary, which will then be fetched by importing it.

values can be a dictionary of values to set in the dictionary. *values* can also be an iterable of (*key*, *value*) pairs.

If *clear* is true then the dictionary will be cleared before the new values are set.

`patch.dict()` can also be called with arbitrary keyword arguments to set values in the dictionary.

`patch.dict()` can be used as a context manager, decorator or class decorator. When used as a class decorator `patch.dict()` honours `patch.TEST_PREFIX` for choosing which methods to wrap.

`patch.dict()` can be used to add members to a dictionary, or simply let a test change a dictionary, and ensure the dictionary is restored when the test ends.

```
>>> foo = {}
>>> with patch.dict(foo, {'newkey': 'newvalue'}):
...     assert foo == {'newkey': 'newvalue'}
...
>>> assert foo == {}
```

```
>>> import os
>>> with patch.dict('os.environ', {'newkey': 'newvalue'}):
...     print(os.environ['newkey'])
...
newvalue
>>> assert 'newkey' not in os.environ
```

Keywords can be used in the `patch.dict()` call to set values in the dictionary:

```
>>> mymodule = MagicMock()
>>> mymodule.function.return_value = 'fish'
>>> with patch.dict('sys.modules', mymodule=mymodule):
...     import mymodule
...     mymodule.function('some', 'args')
...
'fish'
```

`patch.dict()` can be used with dictionary like objects that aren't actually dictionaries. At the very minimum they must support item getting, setting, deleting and either iteration or membership test. This

corresponds to the magic methods `__getitem__()`, `__setitem__()`, `__delitem__()` and either `__iter__()` or `__contains__()`.

```
>>> class Container:
...     def __init__(self):
...         self.values = {}
...     def __getitem__(self, name):
...         return self.values[name]
...     def __setitem__(self, name, value):
...         self.values[name] = value
...     def __delitem__(self, name):
...         del self.values[name]
...     def __iter__(self):
...         return iter(self.values)
...
>>> thing = Container()
>>> thing['one'] = 1
>>> with patch.dict(thing, one=2, two=3):
...     assert thing['one'] == 2
...     assert thing['two'] == 3
...
>>> assert thing['one'] == 1
>>> assert list(thing) == ['one']
```

patch.multiple

`patch.multiple(target, spec=None, create=False, spec_set=None, autospec=None, new_callable=None, **kwargs)`

Perform multiple patches in a single call. It takes the object to be patched (either as an object or a string to fetch the object by importing) and keyword arguments for the patches:

```
with patch.multiple(settings, FIRST_PATCH='one', SECOND_PATCH='two'):
    ...
```

Use `DEFAULT` as the value if you want `patch.multiple()` to create mocks for you. In this case the created mocks are passed into a decorated function by keyword, and a dictionary is returned when `patch.multiple()` is used as a context manager.

`patch.multiple()` can be used as a decorator, class decorator or a context manager. The arguments `spec`, `spec_set`, `create`, `autospec` and `new_callable` have the same meaning as for `patch()`. These arguments will be applied to *all* patches done by `patch.multiple()`.

When used as a class decorator `patch.multiple()` honours `patch.TEST_PREFIX` for choosing which methods to wrap.

If you want `patch.multiple()` to create mocks for you, then you can use `DEFAULT` as the value. If you use `patch.multiple()` as a decorator then the created mocks are passed into the decorated function by keyword.

```
>>> thing = object()
>>> other = object()
```

```
>>> @patch.multiple('__main__', thing=DEFAULT, other=DEFAULT)
... def test_function(thing, other):
```

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```
...     assert isinstance(thing, MagicMock)
...     assert isinstance(other, MagicMock)
...
>>> test_function()
```

`patch.multiple()` can be nested with other `patch` decorators, but put arguments passed by keyword *after* any of the standard arguments created by `patch()`:

```
>>> @patch('sys.exit')
... @patch.multiple('__main__', thing=DEFAULT, other=DEFAULT)
... def test_function(mock_exit, other, thing):
...     assert 'other' in repr(other)
...     assert 'thing' in repr(thing)
...     assert 'exit' in repr(mock_exit)
...
>>> test_function()
```

If `patch.multiple()` is used as a context manager, the value returned by the context manager is a dictionary where created mocks are keyed by name:

```
>>> with patch.multiple('__main__', thing=DEFAULT, other=DEFAULT) as values:
...     assert 'other' in repr(values['other'])
...     assert 'thing' in repr(values['thing'])
...     assert values['thing'] is thing
...     assert values['other'] is other
...
>>>
```

patch methods: start and stop

All the patchers have `start()` and `stop()` methods. These make it simpler to do patching in `setUp` methods or where you want to do multiple patches without nesting decorators or with statements.

To use them call `patch()`, `patch.object()` or `patch.dict()` as normal and keep a reference to the returned patcher object. You can then call `start()` to put the patch in place and `stop()` to undo it.

If you are using `patch()` to create a mock for you then it will be returned by the call to `patcher.start`.

```
>>> patcher = patch('package.module.ClassName')
>>> from package import module
>>> original = module.ClassName
>>> new_mock = patcher.start()
>>> assert module.ClassName is not original
>>> assert module.ClassName is new_mock
>>> patcher.stop()
>>> assert module.ClassName is original
>>> assert module.ClassName is not new_mock
```

A typical use case for this might be for doing multiple patches in the `setUp` method of a `TestCase`:

```
>>> class MyTest(TestCase):
...     def setUp(self):
...         self.patcher1 = patch('package.module.Class1')
...         self.patcher2 = patch('package.module.Class2')
```

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```

...     self.MockClass1 = self.patcher1.start()
...     self.MockClass2 = self.patcher2.start()
...
...     def tearDown(self):
...         self.patcher1.stop()
...         self.patcher2.stop()
...
...     def test_something(self):
...         assert package.module.Class1 is self.MockClass1
...         assert package.module.Class2 is self.MockClass2
...
>>> MyTest('test_something').run()

```

Caution: If you use this technique you must ensure that the patching is “undone” by calling `stop`. This can be fiddlier than you might think, because if an exception is raised in the `setUp` then `tearDown` is not called. `unittest.TestCase.addCleanup()` makes this easier:

```

>>> class MyTest(TestCase):
...     def setUp(self):
...         patcher = patch('package.module.Class')
...         self.MockClass = patcher.start()
...         self.addCleanup(patcher.stop)
...
...     def test_something(self):
...         assert package.module.Class is self.MockClass
...

```

As an added bonus you no longer need to keep a reference to the `patcher` object.

It is also possible to stop all patches which have been started by using `patch.stopall()`.

`patch.stopall()`

Stop all active patches. Only stops patches started with `start`.

patch builtins

You can patch any builtins within a module. The following example patches builtin `ord()`:

```

>>> @patch('__main__.ord')
... def test(mock_ord):
...     mock_ord.return_value = 101
...     print(ord('c'))
...
>>> test()
101

```

TEST_PREFIX

All of the patchers can be used as class decorators. When used in this way they wrap every test method on the class. The patchers recognise methods that start with `'test'` as being test methods. This is the same way that the `unittest.TestLoader` finds test methods by default.

It is possible that you want to use a different prefix for your tests. You can inform the patchers of the different prefix by setting `patch.TEST_PREFIX`:

```
>>> patch.TEST_PREFIX = 'foo'
>>> value = 3
>>>
>>> @patch('__main__.value', 'not three')
... class Thing:
...     def foo_one(self):
...         print(value)
...     def foo_two(self):
...         print(value)
...
>>>
>>> Thing().foo_one()
not three
>>> Thing().foo_two()
not three
>>> value
3
```

Nesting Patch Decorators

If you want to perform multiple patches then you can simply stack up the decorators.

You can stack up multiple patch decorators using this pattern:

```
>>> @patch.object(SomeClass, 'class_method')
... @patch.object(SomeClass, 'static_method')
... def test(mock1, mock2):
...     assert SomeClass.static_method is mock1
...     assert SomeClass.class_method is mock2
...     SomeClass.static_method('foo')
...     SomeClass.class_method('bar')
...     return mock1, mock2
...
>>> mock1, mock2 = test()
>>> mock1.assert_called_once_with('foo')
>>> mock2.assert_called_once_with('bar')
```

Note that the decorators are applied from the bottom upwards. This is the standard way that Python applies decorators. The order of the created mocks passed into your test function matches this order.

Where to patch

`patch()` works by (temporarily) changing the object that a *name* points to with another one. There can be many names pointing to any individual object, so for patching to work you must ensure that you patch the name used by the system under test.

The basic principle is that you patch where an object is *looked up*, which is not necessarily the same place as where it is defined. A couple of examples will help to clarify this.

Imagine we have a project that we want to test with the following structure:

```
a.py
    -> Defines SomeClass

b.py
    -> from a import SomeClass
    -> some_function instantiates SomeClass
```

Now we want to test `some_function` but we want to mock out `SomeClass` using `patch()`. The problem is that when we import module `b`, which we will have to do then it imports `SomeClass` from module `a`. If we use `patch()` to mock out `a.SomeClass` then it will have no effect on our test; module `b` already has a reference to the *real* `SomeClass` and it looks like our patching had no effect.

The key is to patch out `SomeClass` where it is used (or where it is looked up). In this case `some_function` will actually look up `SomeClass` in module `b`, where we have imported it. The patching should look like:

```
@patch('b.SomeClass')
```

However, consider the alternative scenario where instead of `from a import SomeClass` module `b` does `import a` and `some_function` uses `a.SomeClass`. Both of these import forms are common. In this case the class we want to patch is being looked up in the module and so we have to patch `a.SomeClass` instead:

```
@patch('a.SomeClass')
```

Patching Descriptors and Proxy Objects

Both `patch` and `patch.object` correctly patch and restore descriptors: class methods, static methods and properties. You should patch these on the *class* rather than an instance. They also work with *some* objects that proxy attribute access, like the `django settings object`.

27.5.4 MagicMock and magic method support

Mocking Magic Methods

`Mock` supports mocking the Python protocol methods, also known as “magic methods”. This allows mock objects to replace containers or other objects that implement Python protocols.

Because magic methods are looked up differently from normal methods², this support has been specially implemented. This means that only specific magic methods are supported. The supported list includes *almost* all of them. If there are any missing that you need please let us know.

You mock magic methods by setting the method you are interested in to a function or a mock instance. If you are using a function then it *must* take `self` as the first argument³.

```
>>> def __str__(self):
...     return 'fooble'
...
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.__str__ = __str__
>>> str(mock)
'fooble'
```

² Magic methods *should* be looked up on the class rather than the instance. Different versions of Python are inconsistent about applying this rule. The supported protocol methods should work with all supported versions of Python.

³ The function is basically hooked up to the class, but each `Mock` instance is kept isolated from the others.


```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.__str__ = Mock()
>>> mock.__str__.return_value = 'fooble'
>>> str(mock)
'fooble'
```

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.__iter__ = Mock(return_value=iter([]))
>>> list(mock)
[]
```

One use case for this is for mocking objects used as context managers in a `with` statement:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.__enter__ = Mock(return_value='foo')
>>> mock.__exit__ = Mock(return_value=False)
>>> with mock as m:
...     assert m == 'foo'
...
>>> mock.__enter__.assert_called_with()
>>> mock.__exit__.assert_called_with(None, None, None)
```

Calls to magic methods do not appear in `method_calls`, but they are recorded in `mock_calls`.

Note: If you use the `spec` keyword argument to create a mock then attempting to set a magic method that isn't in the spec will raise an `AttributeError`.

The full list of supported magic methods is:

- `__hash__`, `__sizeof__`, `__repr__` and `__str__`
- `__dir__`, `__format__` and `__subclasses__`
- `__floor__`, `__trunc__` and `__ceil__`
- Comparisons: `__lt__`, `__gt__`, `__le__`, `__ge__`, `__eq__` and `__ne__`
- Container methods: `__getitem__`, `__setitem__`, `__delitem__`, `__contains__`, `__len__`, `__iter__`, `__reversed__` and `__missing__`
- Context manager: `__enter__` and `__exit__`
- Unary numeric methods: `__neg__`, `__pos__` and `__invert__`
- The numeric methods (including right hand and in-place variants): `__add__`, `__sub__`, `__mul__`, `__matmul__`, `__div__`, `__truediv__`, `__floordiv__`, `__mod__`, `__divmod__`, `__lshift__`, `__rshift__`, `__and__`, `__xor__`, `__or__`, and `__pow__`
- Numeric conversion methods: `__complex__`, `__int__`, `__float__` and `__index__`
- Descriptor methods: `__get__`, `__set__` and `__delete__`
- Pickling: `__reduce__`, `__reduce_ex__`, `__getinitargs__`, `__getnewargs__`, `__getstate__` and `__setstate__`

The following methods exist but are *not* supported as they are either in use by mock, can't be set dynamically, or can cause problems:

- `__getattr__`, `__setattr__`, `__init__` and `__new__`
- `__prepare__`, `__instancecheck__`, `__subclasscheck__`, `__del__`

Magic Mock

There are two `MagicMock` variants: *`MagicMock`* and *`NonCallableMagicMock`*.

`class unittest.mock.MagicMock(*args, **kw)`

`MagicMock` is a subclass of *`Mock`* with default implementations of most of the magic methods. You can use `MagicMock` without having to configure the magic methods yourself.

The constructor parameters have the same meaning as for *`Mock`*.

If you use the *`spec`* or *`spec_set`* arguments then *only* magic methods that exist in the spec will be created.

`class unittest.mock.NonCallableMagicMock(*args, **kw)`

A non-callable version of *`MagicMock`*.

The constructor parameters have the same meaning as for *`MagicMock`*, with the exception of *`return_value`* and *`side_effect`* which have no meaning on a non-callable mock.

The magic methods are setup with *`MagicMock`* objects, so you can configure them and use them in the usual way:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock[3] = 'fish'
>>> mock.__setitem__.assert_called_with(3, 'fish')
>>> mock.__getitem__.return_value = 'result'
>>> mock[2]
'result'
```

By default many of the protocol methods are required to return objects of a specific type. These methods are preconfigured with a default return value, so that they can be used without you having to do anything if you aren't interested in the return value. You can still *set* the return value manually if you want to change the default.

Methods and their defaults:

- `__lt__`: `NotImplemented`
- `__gt__`: `NotImplemented`
- `__le__`: `NotImplemented`
- `__ge__`: `NotImplemented`
- `__int__`: `1`
- `__contains__`: `False`
- `__len__`: `0`
- `__iter__`: `iter([])`
- `__exit__`: `False`
- `__complex__`: `1j`
- `__float__`: `1.0`
- `__bool__`: `True`
- `__index__`: `1`
- `__hash__`: default hash for the mock
- `__str__`: default str for the mock
- `__sizeof__`: default sizeof for the mock

For example:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> int(mock)
1
>>> len(mock)
0
>>> list(mock)
[]
>>> object() in mock
False
```

The two equality methods, `__eq__()` and `__ne__()`, are special. They do the default equality comparison on identity, using the *side_effect* attribute, unless you change their return value to return something else:

```
>>> MagicMock() == 3
False
>>> MagicMock() != 3
True
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock.__eq__.return_value = True
>>> mock == 3
True
```

The return value of `MagicMock.__iter__()` can be any iterable object and isn't required to be an iterator:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock.__iter__.return_value = ['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> list(mock)
['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> list(mock)
['a', 'b', 'c']
```

If the return value *is* an iterator, then iterating over it once will consume it and subsequent iterations will result in an empty list:

```
>>> mock.__iter__.return_value = iter(['a', 'b', 'c'])
>>> list(mock)
['a', 'b', 'c']
>>> list(mock)
[]
```

`MagicMock` has all of the supported magic methods configured except for some of the obscure and obsolete ones. You can still set these up if you want.

Magic methods that are supported but not setup by default in `MagicMock` are:

- `__subclasses__`
- `__dir__`
- `__format__`
- `__get__`, `__set__` and `__delete__`
- `__reversed__` and `__missing__`
- `__reduce__`, `__reduce_ex__`, `__getinitargs__`, `__getnewargs__`, `__getstate__` and `__setstate__`
- `__getformat__` and `__setformat__`

27.5.5 Helpers

sentinel

unittest.mock.sentinel

The `sentinel` object provides a convenient way of providing unique objects for your tests.

Attributes are created on demand when you access them by name. Accessing the same attribute will always return the same object. The objects returned have a sensible repr so that test failure messages are readable.

Changed in version 3.7: The `sentinel` attributes now preserve their identity when they are *copied* or *pickled*.

Sometimes when testing you need to test that a specific object is passed as an argument to another method, or returned. It can be common to create named sentinel objects to test this. `sentinel` provides a convenient way of creating and testing the identity of objects like this.

In this example we monkey patch `method` to return `sentinel.some_object`:

```
>>> real = ProductionClass()
>>> real.method = Mock(name="method")
>>> real.method.return_value = sentinel.some_object
>>> result = real.method()
>>> assert result is sentinel.some_object
>>> sentinel.some_object
sentinel.some_object
```

DEFAULT

unittest.mock.DEFAULT

The `DEFAULT` object is a pre-created sentinel (actually `sentinel.DEFAULT`). It can be used by *side_effect* functions to indicate that the normal return value should be used.

call

unittest.mock.call(*args, **kwargs)

`call()` is a helper object for making simpler assertions, for comparing with *call_args*, *call_args_list*, *mock_calls* and *method_calls*. `call()` can also be used with *assert_has_calls()*.

```
>>> m = MagicMock(return_value=None)
>>> m(1, 2, a='foo', b='bar')
>>> m()
>>> m.call_args_list == [call(1, 2, a='foo', b='bar'), call()]
True
```

call.call_list()

For a call object that represents multiple calls, *call_list()* returns a list of all the intermediate calls as well as the final call.

call_list is particularly useful for making assertions on “chained calls”. A chained call is multiple calls on a single line of code. This results in multiple entries in *mock_calls* on a mock. Manually constructing the sequence of calls can be tedious.

call_list() can construct the sequence of calls from the same chained call:

```

>>> m = MagicMock()
>>> m(1).method(arg='foo').other('bar')(2.0)
<MagicMock name='mock().method().other()' id='...'>
>>> kall = call(1).method(arg='foo').other('bar')(2.0)
>>> kall.call_list()
[call(1),
 call().method(arg='foo'),
 call().method().other('bar'),
 call().method().other()(2.0)]
>>> m.mock_calls == kall.call_list()
True

```

A `call` object is either a tuple of (positional args, keyword args) or (name, positional args, keyword args) depending on how it was constructed. When you construct them yourself this isn't particularly interesting, but the `call` objects that are in the `Mock.call_args`, `Mock.call_args_list` and `Mock.mock_calls` attributes can be introspected to get at the individual arguments they contain.

The `call` objects in `Mock.call_args` and `Mock.call_args_list` are two-tuples of (positional args, keyword args) whereas the `call` objects in `Mock.mock_calls`, along with ones you construct yourself, are three-tuples of (name, positional args, keyword args).

You can use their “tupleness” to pull out the individual arguments for more complex introspection and assertions. The positional arguments are a tuple (an empty tuple if there are no positional arguments) and the keyword arguments are a dictionary:

```

>>> m = MagicMock(return_value=None)
>>> m(1, 2, 3, arg='one', arg2='two')
>>> kall = m.call_args
>>> args, kwargs = kall
>>> args
(1, 2, 3)
>>> kwargs
{'arg2': 'two', 'arg': 'one'}
>>> args is kall[0]
True
>>> kwargs is kall[1]
True

```

```

>>> m = MagicMock()
>>> m.foo(4, 5, 6, arg='two', arg2='three')
<MagicMock name='mock.foo()' id='...'>
>>> kall = m.mock_calls[0]
>>> name, args, kwargs = kall
>>> name
'foo'
>>> args
(4, 5, 6)
>>> kwargs
{'arg2': 'three', 'arg': 'two'}
>>> name is m.mock_calls[0][0]
True

```

create_autospec

`unittest.mock.create_autospec(spec, spec_set=False, instance=False, **kwargs)`

Create a mock object using another object as a spec. Attributes on the mock will use the corresponding attribute on the *spec* object as their spec.

Functions or methods being mocked will have their arguments checked to ensure that they are called with the correct signature.

If *spec_set* is `True` then attempting to set attributes that don't exist on the spec object will raise an *AttributeError*.

If a class is used as a spec then the return value of the mock (the instance of the class) will have the same spec. You can use a class as the spec for an instance object by passing *instance=True*. The returned mock will only be callable if instances of the mock are callable.

create_autospec() also takes arbitrary keyword arguments that are passed to the constructor of the created mock.

See *Autospeccing* for examples of how to use auto-speccing with *create_autospec()* and the *autospec* argument to *patch()*.

ANY

`unittest.mock.ANY`

Sometimes you may need to make assertions about *some* of the arguments in a call to mock, but either not care about some of the arguments or want to pull them individually out of *call_args* and make more complex assertions on them.

To ignore certain arguments you can pass in objects that compare equal to *everything*. Calls to *assert_called_with()* and *assert_called_once_with()* will then succeed no matter what was passed in.

```
>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock('foo', bar=object())
>>> mock.assert_called_once_with('foo', bar=ANY)
```

ANY can also be used in comparisons with call lists like *mock_calls*:

```
>>> m = MagicMock(return_value=None)
>>> m(1)
>>> m(1, 2)
>>> m(object())
>>> m.mock_calls == [call(1), call(1, 2), ANY]
True
```

FILTER_DIR

`unittest.mock.FILTER_DIR`

FILTER_DIR is a module level variable that controls the way mock objects respond to *dir()* (only for Python 2.6 or more recent). The default is `True`, which uses the filtering described below, to only show useful members. If you dislike this filtering, or need to switch it off for diagnostic purposes, then set `mock.FILTER_DIR = False`.

With filtering on, `dir(some_mock)` shows only useful attributes and will include any dynamically created attributes that wouldn't normally be shown. If the mock was created with a *spec* (or *autospec* of course) then all the attributes from the original are shown, even if they haven't been accessed yet:

```
>>> dir(Mock())
['assert_any_call',
 'assert_called_once_with',
 'assert_called_with',
 'assert_has_calls',
 'attach_mock',
 ...
>>> from urllib import request
>>> dir(Mock(spec=request))
['AbstractBasicAuthHandler',
 'AbstractDigestAuthHandler',
 'AbstractHTTPHandler',
 'BaseHandler',
 ...]
```

Many of the not-very-useful (private to *Mock* rather than the thing being mocked) underscore and double underscore prefixed attributes have been filtered from the result of calling `dir()` on a *Mock*. If you dislike this behaviour you can switch it off by setting the module level switch `FILTER_DIR`:

```
>>> from unittest import mock
>>> mock.FILTER_DIR = False
>>> dir(mock.Mock())
['_NonCallableMock__get_return_value',
 '_NonCallableMock__get_side_effect',
 '_NonCallableMock__return_value_doc',
 '_NonCallableMock__set_return_value',
 '_NonCallableMock__set_side_effect',
 '__call__',
 '__class__',
 ...]
```

Alternatively you can just use `vars(my_mock)` (instance members) and `dir(type(my_mock))` (type members) to bypass the filtering irrespective of `mock.FILTER_DIR`.

mock_open

`unittest.mock.mock_open(mock=None, read_data=None)`

A helper function to create a mock to replace the use of `open()`. It works for `open()` called directly or used as a context manager.

The *mock* argument is the mock object to configure. If `None` (the default) then a *MagicMock* will be created for you, with the API limited to methods or attributes available on standard file handles.

read_data is a string for the `read()`, `readline()`, and `readlines()` methods of the file handle to return. Calls to those methods will take data from *read_data* until it is depleted. The mock of these methods is pretty simplistic: every time the *mock* is called, the *read_data* is rewound to the start. If you need more control over the data that you are feeding to the tested code you will need to customize this mock for yourself. When that is insufficient, one of the in-memory filesystem packages on PyPI can offer a realistic filesystem for testing.

Changed in version 3.4: Added `readline()` and `readlines()` support. The mock of `read()` changed to consume *read_data* rather than returning it on each call.

Changed in version 3.5: `read_data` is now reset on each call to the *mock*.

Changed in version 3.7.1: Added `__iter__()` to implementation so that iteration (such as in for loops) correctly consumes `read_data`.

Using `open()` as a context manager is a great way to ensure your file handles are closed properly and is becoming common:

```
with open('/some/path', 'w') as f:
    f.write('something')
```

The issue is that even if you mock out the call to `open()` it is the *returned object* that is used as a context manager (and has `__enter__()` and `__exit__()` called).

Mocking context managers with a *MagicMock* is common enough and fiddly enough that a helper function is useful.

```
>>> m = mock_open()
>>> with patch('__main__.open', m):
...     with open('foo', 'w') as h:
...         h.write('some stuff')
...
>>> m.mock_calls
[call('foo', 'w'),
 call().__enter__(),
 call().write('some stuff'),
 call().__exit__(None, None, None)]
>>> m.assert_called_once_with('foo', 'w')
>>> handle = m()
>>> handle.write.assert_called_once_with('some stuff')
```

And for reading files:

```
>>> with patch('__main__.open', mock_open(read_data='bibble')) as m:
...     with open('foo') as h:
...         result = h.read()
...
>>> m.assert_called_once_with('foo')
>>> assert result == 'bibble'
```

Autospeccing

Autospeccing is based on the existing *spec* feature of *mock*. It limits the api of mocks to the api of an original object (the spec), but it is recursive (implemented lazily) so that attributes of mocks only have the same api as the attributes of the spec. In addition mocked functions / methods have the same call signature as the original so they raise a *TypeError* if they are called incorrectly.

Before I explain how auto-speccing works, here's why it is needed.

Mock is a very powerful and flexible object, but it suffers from two flaws when used to mock out objects from a system under test. One of these flaws is specific to the *Mock* api and the other is a more general problem with using mock objects.

First the problem specific to *Mock*. *Mock* has two assert methods that are extremely handy: `assert_called_with()` and `assert_called_once_with()`.


```
>>> mock = Mock(name='Thing', return_value=None)
>>> mock(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock.assert_called_once_with(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock.assert_called_once_with(1, 2, 3)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected 'mock' to be called once. Called 2 times.
```

Because mocks auto-create attributes on demand, and allow you to call them with arbitrary arguments, if you misspell one of these assert methods then your assertion is gone:

```
>>> mock = Mock(name='Thing', return_value=None)
>>> mock(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock.assret_called_once_with(4, 5, 6)
```

Your tests can pass silently and incorrectly because of the typo.

The second issue is more general to mocking. If you refactor some of your code, rename members and so on, any tests for code that is still using the *old api* but uses mocks instead of the real objects will still pass. This means your tests can all pass even though your code is broken.

Note that this is another reason why you need integration tests as well as unit tests. Testing everything in isolation is all fine and dandy, but if you don't test how your units are “wired together” there is still lots of room for bugs that tests might have caught.

`mock` already provides a feature to help with this, called speccing. If you use a class or instance as the `spec` for a mock then you can only access attributes on the mock that exist on the real class:

```
>>> from urllib import request
>>> mock = Mock(spec=request.Request)
>>> mock.assret_called_with
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AttributeError: Mock object has no attribute 'assret_called_with'
```

The spec only applies to the mock itself, so we still have the same issue with any methods on the mock:

```
>>> mock.has_data()
<mock.Mock object at 0x...>
>>> mock.has_data.assret_called_with()
```

Auto-speccing solves this problem. You can either pass `autospec=True` to `patch()` / `patch.object()` or use the `create_autospec()` function to create a mock with a spec. If you use the `autospec=True` argument to `patch()` then the object that is being replaced will be used as the spec object. Because the speccing is done “lazily” (the spec is created as attributes on the mock are accessed) you can use it with very complex or deeply nested objects (like modules that import modules that import modules) without a big performance hit.

Here's an example of it in use:

```
>>> from urllib import request
>>> patcher = patch('__main__.request', autospec=True)
>>> mock_request = patcher.start()
>>> request is mock_request
True
```

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```
>>> mock_request.Request
<MagicMock name='request.Request' spec='Request' id='... '>
```

You can see that `request.Request` has a spec. `request.Request` takes two arguments in the constructor (one of which is *self*). Here's what happens if we try to call it incorrectly:

```
>>> req = request.Request()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
TypeError: <lambda>() takes at least 2 arguments (1 given)
```

The spec also applies to instantiated classes (i.e. the return value of specced mocks):

```
>>> req = request.Request('foo')
>>> req
<NonCallableMagicMock name='request.Request()' spec='Request' id='... '>
```

`Request` objects are not callable, so the return value of instantiating our mocked out `request.Request` is a non-callable mock. With the spec in place any typos in our asserts will raise the correct error:

```
>>> req.add_header('spam', 'eggs')
<MagicMock name='request.Request().add_header()' id='... '>
>>> req.add_header.assert_called_with
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AttributeError: Mock object has no attribute 'assert_called_with'
>>> req.add_header.assert_called_with('spam', 'eggs')
```

In many cases you will just be able to add `autospec=True` to your existing `patch()` calls and then be protected against bugs due to typos and api changes.

As well as using *autospec* through `patch()` there is a `create_autospec()` for creating autospecced mocks directly:

```
>>> from urllib import request
>>> mock_request = create_autospec(request)
>>> mock_request.Request('foo', 'bar')
<NonCallableMagicMock name='mock.Request()' spec='Request' id='... '>
```

This isn't without caveats and limitations however, which is why it is not the default behaviour. In order to know what attributes are available on the spec object, *autospec* has to introspect (access attributes) the spec. As you traverse attributes on the mock a corresponding traversal of the original object is happening under the hood. If any of your specced objects have properties or descriptors that can trigger code execution then you may not be able to use *autospec*. On the other hand it is much better to design your objects so that introspection is safe⁴.

A more serious problem is that it is common for instance attributes to be created in the `__init__()` method and not to exist on the class at all. *autospec* can't know about any dynamically created attributes and restricts the api to visible attributes.

```
>>> class Something:
...     def __init__(self):
```

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⁴ This only applies to classes or already instantiated objects. Calling a mocked class to create a mock instance *does not* create a real instance. It is only attribute lookups - along with calls to `dir()` - that are done.

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```

...     self.a = 33
...
>>> with patch('__main__.Something', autospec=True):
...     thing = Something()
...     thing.a
...
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AttributeError: Mock object has no attribute 'a'

```

There are a few different ways of resolving this problem. The easiest, but not necessarily the least annoying, way is to simply set the required attributes on the mock after creation. Just because *autospec* doesn't allow you to fetch attributes that don't exist on the spec it doesn't prevent you setting them:

```

>>> with patch('__main__.Something', autospec=True):
...     thing = Something()
...     thing.a = 33
...

```

There is a more aggressive version of both *spec* and *autospec* that *does* prevent you setting non-existent attributes. This is useful if you want to ensure your code only *sets* valid attributes too, but obviously it prevents this particular scenario:

```

>>> with patch('__main__.Something', autospec=True, spec_set=True):
...     thing = Something()
...     thing.a = 33
...
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AttributeError: Mock object has no attribute 'a'

```

Probably the best way of solving the problem is to add class attributes as default values for instance members initialised in `__init__()`. Note that if you are only setting default attributes in `__init__()` then providing them via class attributes (shared between instances of course) is faster too. e.g.

```

class Something:
    a = 33

```

This brings up another issue. It is relatively common to provide a default value of `None` for members that will later be an object of a different type. `None` would be useless as a spec because it wouldn't let you access *any* attributes or methods on it. As `None` is *never* going to be useful as a spec, and probably indicates a member that will normally of some other type, *autospec* doesn't use a spec for members that are set to `None`. These will just be ordinary mocks (well - *MagicMocks*):

```

>>> class Something:
...     member = None
...
>>> mock = create_autospec(Something)
>>> mock.member.foo.bar.baz()
<MagicMock name='mock.member.foo.bar.baz()' id='...'>

```

If modifying your production classes to add defaults isn't to your liking then there are more options. One of these is simply to use an instance as the spec rather than the class. The other is to create a subclass of the production class and add the defaults to the subclass without affecting the production class. Both of these

require you to use an alternative object as the spec. Thankfully `patch()` supports this - you can simply pass the alternative object as the `autospec` argument:

```
>>> class Something:
...     def __init__(self):
...         self.a = 33
...
>>> class SomethingForTest(Something):
...     a = 33
...
>>> p = patch('__main__.Something', autospec=SomethingForTest)
>>> mock = p.start()
>>> mock.a
<NonCallableMagicMock name='Something.a' spec='int' id='...'>
```

Sealing mocks

`unittest.mock.seal(mock)`

Seal will disable the automatic creation of mocks when accessing an attribute of the mock being sealed or any of its attributes that are already mocks recursively.

If a mock instance with a name or a spec is assigned to an attribute it won't be considered in the sealing chain. This allows one to prevent seal from fixing part of the mock object.

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.submock.attribute1 = 2
>>> mock.not_submock = mock.Mock(name="sample_name")
>>> seal(mock)
>>> mock.new_attribute # This will raise AttributeError.
>>> mock.submock.attribute2 # This will raise AttributeError.
>>> mock.not_submock.attribute2 # This won't raise.
```

New in version 3.7.

27.6 unittest.mock — getting started

New in version 3.3.

27.6.1 Using Mock

Mock Patching Methods

Common uses for *Mock* objects include:

- Patching methods
- Recording method calls on objects

You might want to replace a method on an object to check that it is called with the correct arguments by another part of the system:

```
>>> real = SomeClass()
>>> real.method = MagicMock(name='method')
>>> real.method(3, 4, 5, key='value')
<MagicMock name='method()' id='...'>
```

Once our mock has been used (`real.method` in this example) it has methods and attributes that allow you to make assertions about how it has been used.

Note: In most of these examples the *Mock* and *MagicMock* classes are interchangeable. As the *MagicMock* is the more capable class it makes a sensible one to use by default.

Once the mock has been called its *called* attribute is set to `True`. More importantly we can use the *assert_called_with()* or *assert_called_once_with()* method to check that it was called with the correct arguments.

This example tests that calling `ProductionClass().method` results in a call to the `something` method:

```
>>> class ProductionClass:
...     def method(self):
...         self.something(1, 2, 3)
...     def something(self, a, b, c):
...         pass
...
>>> real = ProductionClass()
>>> real.something = MagicMock()
>>> real.method()
>>> real.something.assert_called_once_with(1, 2, 3)
```

Mock for Method Calls on an Object

In the last example we patched a method directly on an object to check that it was called correctly. Another common use case is to pass an object into a method (or some part of the system under test) and then check that it is used in the correct way.

The simple `ProductionClass` below has a `closer` method. If it is called with an object then it calls `close` on it.

```
>>> class ProductionClass:
...     def closer(self, something):
...         something.close()
...
>>>
```

So to test it we need to pass in an object with a `close` method and check that it was called correctly.

```
>>> real = ProductionClass()
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> real.closer(mock)
>>> mock.close.assert_called_with()
```

We don't have to do any work to provide the 'close' method on our mock. Accessing `close` creates it. So, if 'close' hasn't already been called then accessing it in the test will create it, but *assert_called_with()* will raise a failure exception.

Mocking Classes

A common use case is to mock out classes instantiated by your code under test. When you patch a class, then that class is replaced with a mock. Instances are created by *calling the class*. This means you access the “mock instance” by looking at the return value of the mocked class.

In the example below we have a function `some_function` that instantiates `Foo` and calls a method on it. The call to `patch()` replaces the class `Foo` with a mock. The `Foo` instance is the result of calling the mock, so it is configured by modifying the mock *return_value*.

```
>>> def some_function():
...     instance = module.Foo()
...     return instance.method()
...
>>> with patch('module.Foo') as mock:
...     instance = mock.return_value
...     instance.method.return_value = 'the result'
...     result = some_function()
...     assert result == 'the result'
```

Naming your mocks

It can be useful to give your mocks a name. The name is shown in the repr of the mock and can be helpful when the mock appears in test failure messages. The name is also propagated to attributes or methods of the mock:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock(name='foo')
>>> mock
<MagicMock name='foo' id='...'>
>>> mock.method
<MagicMock name='foo.method' id='...'>
```

Tracking all Calls

Often you want to track more than a single call to a method. The *mock_calls* attribute records all calls to child attributes of the mock - and also to their children.

```
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock.method()
<MagicMock name='mock.method()' id='...'>
>>> mock.attribute.method(10, x=53)
<MagicMock name='mock.attribute.method()' id='...'>
>>> mock.mock_calls
[call.method(), call.attribute.method(10, x=53)]
```

If you make an assertion about `mock_calls` and any unexpected methods have been called, then the assertion will fail. This is useful because as well as asserting that the calls you expected have been made, you are also checking that they were made in the right order and with no additional calls:

You use the *call* object to construct lists for comparing with `mock_calls`:

```
>>> expected = [call.method(), call.attribute.method(10, x=53)]
>>> mock.mock_calls == expected
True
```

However, parameters to calls that return mocks are not recorded, which means it is not possible to track nested calls where the parameters used to create ancestors are important:

```
>>> m = Mock()
>>> m.factory(important=True).deliver()
<Mock name='mock.factory().deliver()' id='...'>
>>> m.mock_calls[-1] == call.factory(important=False).deliver()
True
```

Setting Return Values and Attributes

Setting the return values on a mock object is trivially easy:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.return_value = 3
>>> mock()
3
```

Of course you can do the same for methods on the mock:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.method.return_value = 3
>>> mock.method()
3
```

The return value can also be set in the constructor:

```
>>> mock = Mock(return_value=3)
>>> mock()
3
```

If you need an attribute setting on your mock, just do it:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.x = 3
>>> mock.x
3
```

Sometimes you want to mock up a more complex situation, like for example `mock.connection.cursor().execute("SELECT 1")`. If we wanted this call to return a list, then we have to configure the result of the nested call.

We can use `call` to construct the set of calls in a “chained call” like this for easy assertion afterwards:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> cursor = mock.connection.cursor.return_value
>>> cursor.execute.return_value = ['foo']
>>> mock.connection.cursor().execute("SELECT 1")
['foo']
>>> expected = call.connection.cursor().execute("SELECT 1").call_list()
>>> mock.mock_calls
[call.connection.cursor(), call.connection.cursor().execute('SELECT 1')]
>>> mock.mock_calls == expected
True
```

It is the call to `.call_list()` that turns our call object into a list of calls representing the chained calls.

Raising exceptions with mocks

A useful attribute is `side_effect`. If you set this to an exception class or instance then the exception will be raised when the mock is called.

```
>>> mock = Mock(side_effect=Exception('Boom!'))
>>> mock()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
Exception: Boom!
```

Side effect functions and iterables

`side_effect` can also be set to a function or an iterable. The use case for `side_effect` as an iterable is where your mock is going to be called several times, and you want each call to return a different value. When you set `side_effect` to an iterable every call to the mock returns the next value from the iterable:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock(side_effect=[4, 5, 6])
>>> mock()
4
>>> mock()
5
>>> mock()
6
```

For more advanced use cases, like dynamically varying the return values depending on what the mock is called with, `side_effect` can be a function. The function will be called with the same arguments as the mock. Whatever the function returns is what the call returns:

```
>>> vals = {(1, 2): 1, (2, 3): 2}
>>> def side_effect(*args):
...     return vals[args]
...
>>> mock = MagicMock(side_effect=side_effect)
>>> mock(1, 2)
1
>>> mock(2, 3)
2
```

Creating a Mock from an Existing Object

One problem with over use of mocking is that it couples your tests to the implementation of your mocks rather than your real code. Suppose you have a class that implements `some_method`. In a test for another class, you provide a mock of this object that *also* provides `some_method`. If later you refactor the first class, so that it no longer has `some_method` - then your tests will continue to pass even though your code is now broken!

`Mock` allows you to provide an object as a specification for the mock, using the `spec` keyword argument. Accessing methods / attributes on the mock that don't exist on your specification object will immediately raise an attribute error. If you change the implementation of your specification, then tests that use that class will start failing immediately without you having to instantiate the class in those tests.


```
>>> mock = Mock(spec=SomeClass)
>>> mock.old_method()
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AttributeError: object has no attribute 'old_method'
```

Using a specification also enables a smarter matching of calls made to the mock, regardless of whether some parameters were passed as positional or named arguments:

```
>>> def f(a, b, c): pass
...
>>> mock = Mock(spec=f)
>>> mock(1, 2, 3)
<Mock name='mock()' id='140161580456576'>
>>> mock.assert_called_with(a=1, b=2, c=3)
```

If you want this smarter matching to also work with method calls on the mock, you can use *auto-specing*.

If you want a stronger form of specification that prevents the setting of arbitrary attributes as well as the getting of them then you can use *spec_set* instead of *spec*.

27.6.2 Patch Decorators

Note: With *patch()* it matters that you patch objects in the namespace where they are looked up. This is normally straightforward, but for a quick guide read *where to patch*.

A common need in tests is to patch a class attribute or a module attribute, for example patching a builtin or patching a class in a module to test that it is instantiated. Modules and classes are effectively global, so patching on them has to be undone after the test or the patch will persist into other tests and cause hard to diagnose problems.

mock provides three convenient decorators for this: *patch()*, *patch.object()* and *patch.dict()*. *patch* takes a single string, of the form `package.module.Class.attribute` to specify the attribute you are patching. It also optionally takes a value that you want the attribute (or class or whatever) to be replaced with. ‘*patch.object*’ takes an object and the name of the attribute you would like patched, plus optionally the value to patch it with.

patch.object:

```
>>> original = SomeClass.attribute
>>> @patch.object(SomeClass, 'attribute', sentinel.attribute)
... def test():
...     assert SomeClass.attribute == sentinel.attribute
...
>>> test()
>>> assert SomeClass.attribute == original
```

```
>>> @patch('package.module.attribute', sentinel.attribute)
... def test():
...     from package.module import attribute
...     assert attribute is sentinel.attribute
...
>>> test()
```

If you are patching a module (including *builtins*) then use *patch()* instead of *patch.object()*:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock(return_value=sentinel.file_handle)
>>> with patch('builtins.open', mock):
...     handle = open('filename', 'r')
...
>>> mock.assert_called_with('filename', 'r')
>>> assert handle == sentinel.file_handle, "incorrect file handle returned"
```

The module name can be 'dotted', in the form *package.module* if needed:

```
>>> @patch('package.module.ClassName.attribute', sentinel.attribute)
... def test():
...     from package.module import ClassName
...     assert ClassName.attribute == sentinel.attribute
...
>>> test()
```

A nice pattern is to actually decorate test methods themselves:

```
>>> class MyTest(unittest.TestCase):
...     @patch.object(SomeClass, 'attribute', sentinel.attribute)
...     def test_something(self):
...         self.assertEqual(SomeClass.attribute, sentinel.attribute)
...
>>> original = SomeClass.attribute
>>> MyTest('test_something').test_something()
>>> assert SomeClass.attribute == original
```

If you want to patch with a Mock, you can use *patch()* with only one argument (or *patch.object()* with two arguments). The mock will be created for you and passed into the test function / method:

```
>>> class MyTest(unittest.TestCase):
...     @patch.object(SomeClass, 'static_method')
...     def test_something(self, mock_method):
...         SomeClass.static_method()
...         mock_method.assert_called_with()
...
>>> MyTest('test_something').test_something()
```

You can stack up multiple patch decorators using this pattern:

```
>>> class MyTest(unittest.TestCase):
...     @patch('package.module.ClassName1')
...     @patch('package.module.ClassName2')
...     def test_something(self, MockClass2, MockClass1):
...         self.assertIs(package.module.ClassName1, MockClass1)
...         self.assertIs(package.module.ClassName2, MockClass2)
...
>>> MyTest('test_something').test_something()
```

When you nest patch decorators the mocks are passed in to the decorated function in the same order they applied (the normal *Python* order that decorators are applied). This means from the bottom up, so in the example above the mock for *test_module.ClassName2* is passed in first.

There is also `patch.dict()` for setting values in a dictionary just during a scope and restoring the dictionary to its original state when the test ends:

```
>>> foo = {'key': 'value'}
>>> original = foo.copy()
>>> with patch.dict(foo, {'newkey': 'newvalue'}, clear=True):
...     assert foo == {'newkey': 'newvalue'}
...
>>> assert foo == original
```

`patch`, `patch.object` and `patch.dict` can all be used as context managers.

Where you use `patch()` to create a mock for you, you can get a reference to the mock using the “as” form of the with statement:

```
>>> class ProductionClass:
...     def method(self):
...         pass
...
>>> with patch.object(ProductionClass, 'method') as mock_method:
...     mock_method.return_value = None
...     real = ProductionClass()
...     real.method(1, 2, 3)
...
>>> mock_method.assert_called_with(1, 2, 3)
```

As an alternative `patch`, `patch.object` and `patch.dict` can be used as class decorators. When used in this way it is the same as applying the decorator individually to every method whose name starts with “test”.

27.6.3 Further Examples

Here are some more examples for some slightly more advanced scenarios.

Mocking chained calls

Mocking chained calls is actually straightforward with mock once you understand the `return_value` attribute. When a mock is called for the first time, or you fetch its `return_value` before it has been called, a new `Mock` is created.

This means that you can see how the object returned from a call to a mocked object has been used by interrogating the `return_value` mock:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock().foo(a=2, b=3)
<Mock name='mock().foo()' id='...'>
>>> mock.return_value.foo.assert_called_with(a=2, b=3)
```

From here it is a simple step to configure and then make assertions about chained calls. Of course another alternative is writing your code in a more testable way in the first place...

So, suppose we have some code that looks a little bit like this:

```
>>> class Something:
...     def __init__(self):
...         self.backend = BackendProvider()
```

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```
...     def method(self):
...         response = self.backend.get_endpoint('foobar').create_call('spam', 'eggs').
↪ start_call()
...         # more code
```

Assuming that `BackendProvider` is already well tested, how do we test `method()`? Specifically, we want to test that the code section `# more code` uses the response object in the correct way.

As this chain of calls is made from an instance attribute we can monkey patch the `backend` attribute on a `Something` instance. In this particular case we are only interested in the return value from the final call to `start_call` so we don't have much configuration to do. Let's assume the object it returns is 'file-like', so we'll ensure that our response object uses the builtin `open()` as its `spec`.

To do this we create a mock instance as our mock backend and create a mock response object for it. To set the response as the return value for that final `start_call` we could do this:

```
mock_backend.get_endpoint.return_value.create_call.return_value.start_call.return_value_
↪ = mock_response
```

We can do that in a slightly nicer way using the `configure_mock()` method to directly set the return value for us:

```
>>> something = Something()
>>> mock_response = Mock(spec=open)
>>> mock_backend = Mock()
>>> config = {'get_endpoint.return_value.create_call.return_value.start_call.return_value_
↪ ': mock_response}
>>> mock_backend.configure_mock(**config)
```

With these we monkey patch the “mock backend” in place and can make the real call:

```
>>> something.backend = mock_backend
>>> something.method()
```

Using `mock_calls` we can check the chained call with a single assert. A chained call is several calls in one line of code, so there will be several entries in `mock_calls`. We can use `call.call_list()` to create this list of calls for us:

```
>>> chained = call.get_endpoint('foobar').create_call('spam', 'eggs').start_call()
>>> call_list = chained.call_list()
>>> assert mock_backend.mock_calls == call_list
```

Partial mocking

In some tests I wanted to mock out a call to `datetime.date.today()` to return a known date, but I didn't want to prevent the code under test from creating new date objects. Unfortunately `datetime.date` is written in C, and so I couldn't just monkey-patch out the static `date.today()` method.

I found a simple way of doing this that involved effectively wrapping the date class with a mock, but passing through calls to the constructor to the real class (and returning real instances).

The `patch decorator` is used here to mock out the `date` class in the module under test. The `side_effect` attribute on the mock date class is then set to a lambda function that returns a real date. When the mock date class is called a real date will be constructed and returned by `side_effect`.

```
>>> from datetime import date
>>> with patch('mymodule.date') as mock_date:
...     mock_date.today.return_value = date(2010, 10, 8)
...     mock_date.side_effect = lambda *args, **kw: date(*args, **kw)
...
...     assert mymodule.date.today() == date(2010, 10, 8)
...     assert mymodule.date(2009, 6, 8) == date(2009, 6, 8)
...
... 
```

Note that we don't patch `datetime.date` globally, we patch `date` in the module that *uses* it. See [where to patch](#).

When `date.today()` is called a known date is returned, but calls to the `date(...)` constructor still return normal dates. Without this you can find yourself having to calculate an expected result using exactly the same algorithm as the code under test, which is a classic testing anti-pattern.

Calls to the date constructor are recorded in the `mock_date` attributes (`call_count` and `friends`) which may also be useful for your tests.

An alternative way of dealing with mocking dates, or other builtin classes, is discussed in [this blog entry](#).

Mocking a Generator Method

A Python generator is a function or method that uses the `yield` statement to return a series of values when iterated over¹.

A generator method / function is called to return the generator object. It is the generator object that is then iterated over. The protocol method for iteration is `__iter__()`, so we can mock this using a [MagicMock](#).

Here's an example class with an "iter" method implemented as a generator:

```
>>> class Foo:
...     def iter(self):
...         for i in [1, 2, 3]:
...             yield i
...
>>> foo = Foo()
>>> list(foo.iter())
[1, 2, 3]
```

How would we mock this class, and in particular its "iter" method?

To configure the values returned from the iteration (implicit in the call to `list`), we need to configure the object returned by the call to `foo.iter()`.

```
>>> mock_foo = MagicMock()
>>> mock_foo.iter.return_value = iter([1, 2, 3])
>>> list(mock_foo.iter())
[1, 2, 3]
```

Applying the same patch to every test method

If you want several patches in place for multiple test methods the obvious way is to apply the patch decorators to every method. This can feel like unnecessary repetition. For Python 2.6 or more recent you can use

¹ There are also generator expressions and more [advanced uses](#) of generators, but we aren't concerned about them here. A very good introduction to generators and how powerful they are is: [Generator Tricks for Systems Programmers](#).

`patch()` (in all its various forms) as a class decorator. This applies the patches to all test methods on the class. A test method is identified by methods whose names start with `test`:

```
>>> @patch('mymodule.SomeClass')
... class MyTest(TestCase):
...
...     def test_one(self, MockSomeClass):
...         self.assertIs(mymodule.SomeClass, MockSomeClass)
...
...     def test_two(self, MockSomeClass):
...         self.assertIs(mymodule.SomeClass, MockSomeClass)
...
...     def not_a_test(self):
...         return 'something'
...
>>> MyTest('test_one').test_one()
>>> MyTest('test_two').test_two()
>>> MyTest('test_two').not_a_test()
'something'
```

An alternative way of managing patches is to use the *patch methods: start and stop*. These allow you to move the patching into your `setUp` and `tearDown` methods.

```
>>> class MyTest(TestCase):
...     def setUp(self):
...         self.patcher = patch('mymodule.foo')
...         self.mock_foo = self.patcher.start()
...
...     def test_foo(self):
...         self.assertIs(mymodule.foo, self.mock_foo)
...
...     def tearDown(self):
...         self.patcher.stop()
...
>>> MyTest('test_foo').run()
```

If you use this technique you must ensure that the patching is “undone” by calling `stop`. This can be fiddlier than you might think, because if an exception is raised in the `setUp` then `tearDown` is not called. `unittest.TestCase.addCleanup()` makes this easier:

```
>>> class MyTest(TestCase):
...     def setUp(self):
...         patcher = patch('mymodule.foo')
...         self.addCleanup(patcher.stop)
...         self.mock_foo = patcher.start()
...
...     def test_foo(self):
...         self.assertIs(mymodule.foo, self.mock_foo)
...
>>> MyTest('test_foo').run()
```

Mocking Unbound Methods

Whilst writing tests today I needed to patch an *unbound method* (patching the method on the class rather than on the instance). I needed `self` to be passed in as the first argument because I want to make asserts about which objects were calling this particular method. The issue is that you can't patch with a mock for this, because if you replace an unbound method with a mock it doesn't become a bound method when fetched from the instance, and so it doesn't get `self` passed in. The workaround is to patch the unbound method with a real function instead. The `patch()` decorator makes it so simple to patch out methods with a mock that having to create a real function becomes a nuisance.

If you pass `autospec=True` to patch then it does the patching with a *real* function object. This function object has the same signature as the one it is replacing, but delegates to a mock under the hood. You still get your mock auto-created in exactly the same way as before. What it means though, is that if you use it to patch out an unbound method on a class the mocked function will be turned into a bound method if it is fetched from an instance. It will have `self` passed in as the first argument, which is exactly what I wanted:

```
>>> class Foo:
...     def foo(self):
...         pass
...
>>> with patch.object(Foo, 'foo', autospec=True) as mock_foo:
...     mock_foo.return_value = 'foo'
...     foo = Foo()
...     foo.foo()
...
'foo'
>>> mock_foo.assert_called_once_with(foo)
```

If we don't use `autospec=True` then the unbound method is patched out with a Mock instance instead, and isn't called with `self`.

Checking multiple calls with mock

mock has a nice API for making assertions about how your mock objects are used.

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.foo_bar.return_value = None
>>> mock.foo_bar('baz', spam='eggs')
>>> mock.foo_bar.assert_called_with('baz', spam='eggs')
```

If your mock is only being called once you can use the `assert_called_once_with()` method that also asserts that the `call_count` is one.

```
>>> mock.foo_bar.assert_called_once_with('baz', spam='eggs')
>>> mock.foo_bar()
>>> mock.foo_bar.assert_called_once_with('baz', spam='eggs')
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected to be called once. Called 2 times.
```

Both `assert_called_with` and `assert_called_once_with` make assertions about the *most recent* call. If your mock is going to be called several times, and you want to make assertions about *all* those calls you can use `call_args_list`:

```
>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock(1, 2, 3)
>>> mock(4, 5, 6)
>>> mock()
>>> mock.call_args_list
[call(1, 2, 3), call(4, 5, 6), call()]
```

The `call` helper makes it easy to make assertions about these calls. You can build up a list of expected calls and compare it to `call_args_list`. This looks remarkably similar to the repr of the `call_args_list`:

```
>>> expected = [call(1, 2, 3), call(4, 5, 6), call()]
>>> mock.call_args_list == expected
True
```

Coping with mutable arguments

Another situation is rare, but can bite you, is when your mock is called with mutable arguments. `call_args` and `call_args_list` store *references* to the arguments. If the arguments are mutated by the code under test then you can no longer make assertions about what the values were when the mock was called.

Here's some example code that shows the problem. Imagine the following functions defined in 'mymodule':

```
def frob(val):
    pass

def grob(val):
    "First frob and then clear val"
    frob(val)
    val.clear()
```

When we try to test that `grob` calls `frob` with the correct argument look what happens:

```
>>> with patch('mymodule.frob') as mock_frob:
...     val = {6}
...     mymodule.grob(val)
...
>>> val
set()
>>> mock_frob.assert_called_with({6})
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected: (({6},), {6})
Called with: ((set(),), {6})
```

One possibility would be for mock to copy the arguments you pass in. This could then cause problems if you do assertions that rely on object identity for equality.

Here's one solution that uses the `side_effect` functionality. If you provide a `side_effect` function for a mock then `side_effect` will be called with the same args as the mock. This gives us an opportunity to copy the arguments and store them for later assertions. In this example I'm using *another* mock to store the arguments so that I can use the mock methods for doing the assertion. Again a helper function sets this up for me.


```

>>> from copy import deepcopy
>>> from unittest.mock import Mock, patch, DEFAULT
>>> def copy_call_args(mock):
...     new_mock = Mock()
...     def side_effect(*args, **kwargs):
...         args = deepcopy(args)
...         kwargs = deepcopy(kwargs)
...         new_mock(*args, **kwargs)
...         return DEFAULT
...     mock.side_effect = side_effect
...     return new_mock
...
>>> with patch('mymodule.frob') as mock_frob:
...     new_mock = copy_call_args(mock_frob)
...     val = {6}
...     mymodule.frob(val)
...
>>> new_mock.assert_called_with({6})
>>> new_mock.call_args
call({6})

```

`copy_call_args` is called with the mock that will be called. It returns a new mock that we do the assertion on. The `side_effect` function makes a copy of the args and calls our `new_mock` with the copy.

Note: If your mock is only going to be used once there is an easier way of checking arguments at the point they are called. You can simply do the checking inside a `side_effect` function.

```

>>> def side_effect(arg):
...     assert arg == {6}
...
>>> mock = Mock(side_effect=side_effect)
>>> mock({6})
>>> mock(set())
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError

```

An alternative approach is to create a subclass of `Mock` or `MagicMock` that copies (using `copy.deepcopy()`) the arguments. Here's an example implementation:

```

>>> from copy import deepcopy
>>> class CopyingMock(MagicMock):
...     def __call__(self, *args, **kwargs):
...         args = deepcopy(args)
...         kwargs = deepcopy(kwargs)
...         return super(CopyingMock, self).__call__(*args, **kwargs)
...
>>> c = CopyingMock(return_value=None)
>>> arg = set()
>>> c(arg)
>>> arg.add(1)
>>> c.assert_called_with(set())

```

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```
>>> c.assert_called_with(arg)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected call: mock({1})
Actual call: mock(set())
>>> c.foo
<CopyingMock name='mock.foo' id='...'>
```

When you subclass `Mock` or `MagicMock` all dynamically created attributes, and the `return_value` will use your subclass automatically. That means all children of a `CopyingMock` will also have the type `CopyingMock`.

Nesting Patches

Using `patch` as a context manager is nice, but if you do multiple patches you can end up with nested with statements indenting further and further to the right:

```
>>> class MyTest(TestCase):
...
...     def test_foo(self):
...         with patch('mymodule.Foo') as mock_foo:
...             with patch('mymodule.Bar') as mock_bar:
...                 with patch('mymodule.Spam') as mock_spam:
...                     assert mymodule.Foo is mock_foo
...                     assert mymodule.Bar is mock_bar
...                     assert mymodule.Spam is mock_spam
...
>>> original = mymodule.Foo
>>> MyTest('test_foo').test_foo()
>>> assert mymodule.Foo is original
```

With unittest cleanup functions and the *patch methods: start and stop* we can achieve the same effect without the nested indentation. A simple helper method, `create_patch`, puts the patch in place and returns the created mock for us:

```
>>> class MyTest(TestCase):
...
...     def create_patch(self, name):
...         patcher = patch(name)
...         thing = patcher.start()
...         self.addCleanup(patcher.stop)
...         return thing
...
...     def test_foo(self):
...         mock_foo = self.create_patch('mymodule.Foo')
...         mock_bar = self.create_patch('mymodule.Bar')
...         mock_spam = self.create_patch('mymodule.Spam')
...
...         assert mymodule.Foo is mock_foo
...         assert mymodule.Bar is mock_bar
...         assert mymodule.Spam is mock_spam
...
>>> original = mymodule.Foo
```

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```
>>> MyTest('test_foo').run()
>>> assert mymodule.Foo is original
```

Mocking a dictionary with MagicMock

You may want to mock a dictionary, or other container object, recording all access to it whilst having it still behave like a dictionary.

We can do this with *MagicMock*, which will behave like a dictionary, and using *side_effect* to delegate dictionary access to a real underlying dictionary that is under our control.

When the `__getitem__()` and `__setitem__()` methods of our *MagicMock* are called (normal dictionary access) then *side_effect* is called with the key (and in the case of `__setitem__` the value too). We can also control what is returned.

After the *MagicMock* has been used we can use attributes like *call_args_list* to assert about how the dictionary was used:

```
>>> my_dict = {'a': 1, 'b': 2, 'c': 3}
>>> def getitem(name):
...     return my_dict[name]
...
>>> def setitem(name, val):
...     my_dict[name] = val
...
>>> mock = MagicMock()
>>> mock.__getitem__.side_effect = getitem
>>> mock.__setitem__.side_effect = setitem
```

Note: An alternative to using *MagicMock* is to use *Mock* and *only* provide the magic methods you specifically want:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> mock.__getitem__ = Mock(side_effect=getitem)
>>> mock.__setitem__ = Mock(side_effect=setitem)
```

A *third* option is to use *MagicMock* but passing in `dict` as the *spec* (or *spec_set*) argument so that the *MagicMock* created only has dictionary magic methods available:

```
>>> mock = MagicMock(spec_set=dict)
>>> mock.__getitem__.side_effect = getitem
>>> mock.__setitem__.side_effect = setitem
```

With these side effect functions in place, the *mock* will behave like a normal dictionary but recording the access. It even raises a *KeyError* if you try to access a key that doesn't exist.

```
>>> mock['a']
1
>>> mock['c']
3
>>> mock['d']
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

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```
...
KeyError: 'd'
>>> mock['b'] = 'fish'
>>> mock['d'] = 'eggs'
>>> mock['b']
'fish'
>>> mock['d']
'eggs'
```

After it has been used you can make assertions about the access using the normal mock methods and attributes:

```
>>> mock.__getitem__.call_args_list
[call('a'), call('c'), call('d'), call('b'), call('d')]
>>> mock.__setitem__.call_args_list
[call('b', 'fish'), call('d', 'eggs')]
>>> my_dict
{'a': 1, 'c': 3, 'b': 'fish', 'd': 'eggs'}
```

Mock subclasses and their attributes

There are various reasons why you might want to subclass `Mock`. One reason might be to add helper methods. Here's a silly example:

```
>>> class MyMock(Mock):
...     def has_been_called(self):
...         return self.called
...
>>> mymock = MyMock(return_value=None)
>>> mymock
<MyMock id='...'>
>>> mymock.has_been_called()
False
>>> mymock()
>>> mymock.has_been_called()
True
```

The standard behaviour for `Mock` instances is that attributes and the return value mocks are of the same type as the mock they are accessed on. This ensures that `Mock` attributes are `Mocks` and `MagicMock` attributes are `MagicMocks`². So if you're subclassing to add helper methods then they'll also be available on the attributes and return value mock of instances of your subclass.

```
>>> mymock.foo
<MyMock name='mock.foo' id='...'>
>>> mymock.foo.has_been_called()
False
>>> mymock.foo()
<MyMock name='mock.foo()' id='...'>
>>> mymock.foo.has_been_called()
True
```

² An exception to this rule are the non-callable mocks. Attributes use the callable variant because otherwise non-callable mocks couldn't have callable methods.

Sometimes this is inconvenient. For example, [one user](#) is subclassing mock to created a [Twisted](#) adaptor. Having this applied to attributes too actually causes errors.

Mock (in all its flavours) uses a method called `_get_child_mock` to create these “sub-mocks” for attributes and return values. You can prevent your subclass being used for attributes by overriding this method. The signature is that it takes arbitrary keyword arguments (`**kwargs`) which are then passed onto the mock constructor:

```
>>> class Subclass(MagicMock):
...     def _get_child_mock(self, **kwargs):
...         return MagicMock(**kwargs)
...
>>> mymock = Subclass()
>>> mymock.foo
<MagicMock name='mock.foo' id='...'>
>>> assert isinstance(mymock, Subclass)
>>> assert not isinstance(mymock.foo, Subclass)
>>> assert not isinstance(mymock(), Subclass)
```

Mocking imports with `patch.dict`

One situation where mocking can be hard is where you have a local import inside a function. These are harder to mock because they aren’t using an object from the module namespace that we can patch out.

Generally local imports are to be avoided. They are sometimes done to prevent circular dependencies, for which there is *usually* a much better way to solve the problem (refactor the code) or to prevent “up front costs” by delaying the import. This can also be solved in better ways than an unconditional local import (store the module as a class or module attribute and only do the import on first use).

That aside there is a way to use mock to affect the results of an import. Importing fetches an *object* from the `sys.modules` dictionary. Note that it fetches an *object*, which need not be a module. Importing a module for the first time results in a module object being put in `sys.modules`, so usually when you import something you get a module back. This need not be the case however.

This means you can use `patch.dict()` to *temporarily* put a mock in place in `sys.modules`. Any imports whilst this patch is active will fetch the mock. When the patch is complete (the decorated function exits, the with statement body is complete or `patcher.stop()` is called) then whatever was there previously will be restored safely.

Here’s an example that mocks out the ‘fooble’ module.

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> with patch.dict('sys.modules', {'fooble': mock}):
...     import fooble
...     fooble.blob()
...
<Mock name='mock.blob()' id='...'>
>>> assert 'fooble' not in sys.modules
>>> mock.blob.assert_called_once_with()
```

As you can see the import `fooble` succeeds, but on exit there is no ‘fooble’ left in `sys.modules`.

This also works for the `from module import name` form:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> with patch.dict('sys.modules', {'fooble': mock}):
```

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```
...     from fooble import blob
...     blob.blip()
...
<Mock name='mock.blob.blip()' id='... '>
>>> mock.blob.blip.assert_called_once_with()
```

With slightly more work you can also mock package imports:

```
>>> mock = Mock()
>>> modules = {'package': mock, 'package.module': mock.module}
>>> with patch.dict('sys.modules', modules):
...     from package.module import fooble
...     fooble()
...
<Mock name='mock.module.fooble()' id='... '>
>>> mock.module.fooble.assert_called_once_with()
```

Tracking order of calls and less verbose call assertions

The `Mock` class allows you to track the *order* of method calls on your mock objects through the `method_calls` attribute. This doesn't allow you to track the order of calls between separate mock objects, however we can use `mock_calls` to achieve the same effect.

Because mocks track calls to child mocks in `mock_calls`, and accessing an arbitrary attribute of a mock creates a child mock, we can create our separate mocks from a parent one. Calls to those child mock will then all be recorded, in order, in the `mock_calls` of the parent:

```
>>> manager = Mock()
>>> mock_foo = manager.foo
>>> mock_bar = manager.bar
```

```
>>> mock_foo.something()
<Mock name='mock.foo.something()' id='... '>
>>> mock_bar.other.thing()
<Mock name='mock.bar.other.thing()' id='... '>
```

```
>>> manager.mock_calls
[call.foo.something(), call.bar.other.thing()]
```

We can then assert about the calls, including the order, by comparing with the `mock_calls` attribute on the manager mock:

```
>>> expected_calls = [call.foo.something(), call.bar.other.thing()]
>>> manager.mock_calls == expected_calls
True
```

If `patch` is creating, and putting in place, your mocks then you can attach them to a manager mock using the `attach_mock()` method. After attaching calls will be recorded in `mock_calls` of the manager.

```
>>> manager = MagicMock()
>>> with patch('mymodule.Class1') as MockClass1:
...     with patch('mymodule.Class2') as MockClass2:
```

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```

...     manager.attach_mock(MockClass1, 'MockClass1')
...     manager.attach_mock(MockClass2, 'MockClass2')
...     MockClass1().foo()
...     MockClass2().bar()
...
<MagicMock name='mock.MockClass1().foo()' id='...'>
<MagicMock name='mock.MockClass2().bar()' id='...'>
>>> manager.mock_calls
[call.MockClass1(),
 call.MockClass1().foo(),
 call.MockClass2(),
 call.MockClass2().bar()]

```

If many calls have been made, but you're only interested in a particular sequence of them then an alternative is to use the `assert_has_calls()` method. This takes a list of calls (constructed with the `call` object). If that sequence of calls are in `mock_calls` then the assert succeeds.

```

>>> m = MagicMock()
>>> m().foo().bar().baz()
<MagicMock name='mock().foo().bar().baz()' id='...'>
>>> m.one().two().three()
<MagicMock name='mock.one().two().three()' id='...'>
>>> calls = call.one().two().three().call_list()
>>> m.assert_has_calls(calls)

```

Even though the chained call `m.one().two().three()` aren't the only calls that have been made to the mock, the assert still succeeds.

Sometimes a mock may have several calls made to it, and you are only interested in asserting about *some* of those calls. You may not even care about the order. In this case you can pass `any_order=True` to `assert_has_calls`:

```

>>> m = MagicMock()
>>> m(1), m.two(2, 3), m.seven(7), m.fifty('50')
(...)
>>> calls = [call.fifty('50'), call(1), call.seven(7)]
>>> m.assert_has_calls(calls, any_order=True)

```

More complex argument matching

Using the same basic concept as *ANY* we can implement matchers to do more complex assertions on objects used as arguments to mocks.

Suppose we expect some object to be passed to a mock that by default compares equal based on object identity (which is the Python default for user defined classes). To use `assert_called_with()` we would need to pass in the exact same object. If we are only interested in some of the attributes of this object then we can create a matcher that will check these attributes for us.

You can see in this example how a 'standard' call to `assert_called_with` isn't sufficient:

```

>>> class Foo:
...     def __init__(self, a, b):
...         self.a, self.b = a, b

```

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```
...
>>> mock = Mock(return_value=None)
>>> mock(Foo(1, 2))
>>> mock.assert_called_with(Foo(1, 2))
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected: call(<__main__.Foo object at 0x...>)
Actual call: call(<__main__.Foo object at 0x...>)
```

A comparison function for our Foo class might look something like this:

```
>>> def compare(self, other):
...     if not type(self) == type(other):
...         return False
...     if self.a != other.a:
...         return False
...     if self.b != other.b:
...         return False
...     return True
...
```

And a matcher object that can use comparison functions like this for its equality operation would look something like this:

```
>>> class Matcher:
...     def __init__(self, compare, some_obj):
...         self.compare = compare
...         self.some_obj = some_obj
...     def __eq__(self, other):
...         return self.compare(self.some_obj, other)
...
```

Putting all this together:

```
>>> match_foo = Matcher(compare, Foo(1, 2))
>>> mock.assert_called_with(match_foo)
```

The `Matcher` is instantiated with our compare function and the `Foo` object we want to compare against. In `assert_called_with` the `Matcher` equality method will be called, which compares the object the mock was called with against the one we created our matcher with. If they match then `assert_called_with` passes, and if they don't an `AssertionError` is raised:

```
>>> match_wrong = Matcher(compare, Foo(3, 4))
>>> mock.assert_called_with(match_wrong)
Traceback (most recent call last):
...
AssertionError: Expected: ((<Matcher object at 0x...>,), {})
Called with: ((<Foo object at 0x...>,), {})
```

With a bit of tweaking you could have the comparison function raise the `AssertionError` directly and provide a more useful failure message.

As of version 1.5, the Python testing library `PyHamcrest` provides similar functionality, that may be useful here, in the form of its equality matcher (`hamcrest.library.integration.match_equality`).

27.7 2to3 - Automated Python 2 to 3 code translation

2to3 is a Python program that reads Python 2.x source code and applies a series of *fixers* to transform it into valid Python 3.x code. The standard library contains a rich set of fixers that will handle almost all code. 2to3 supporting library *lib2to3* is, however, a flexible and generic library, so it is possible to write your own fixers for 2to3. *lib2to3* could also be adapted to custom applications in which Python code needs to be edited automatically.

27.7.1 Using 2to3

2to3 will usually be installed with the Python interpreter as a script. It is also located in the `Tools/scripts` directory of the Python root.

2to3's basic arguments are a list of files or directories to transform. The directories are recursively traversed for Python sources.

Here is a sample Python 2.x source file, `example.py`:

```
def greet(name):
    print "Hello, {0}!".format(name)
print "What's your name?"
name = raw_input()
greet(name)
```

It can be converted to Python 3.x code via 2to3 on the command line:

```
$ 2to3 example.py
```

A diff against the original source file is printed. 2to3 can also write the needed modifications right back to the source file. (A backup of the original file is made unless `-n` is also given.) Writing the changes back is enabled with the `-w` flag:

```
$ 2to3 -w example.py
```

After transformation, `example.py` looks like this:

```
def greet(name):
    print("Hello, {0}!".format(name))
print("What's your name?")
name = input()
greet(name)
```

Comments and exact indentation are preserved throughout the translation process.

By default, 2to3 runs a set of *predefined fixers*. The `-l` flag lists all available fixers. An explicit set of fixers to run can be given with `-f`. Likewise the `-x` explicitly disables a fixer. The following example runs only the `imports` and `has_key` fixers:

```
$ 2to3 -f imports -f has_key example.py
```

This command runs every fixer except the `apply` fixer:

```
$ 2to3 -x apply example.py
```

Some fixers are *explicit*, meaning they aren't run by default and must be listed on the command line to be run. Here, in addition to the default fixers, the `idioms` fixer is run:

```
$ 2to3 -f all -f idioms example.py
```

Notice how passing `all` enables all default fixers.

Sometimes 2to3 will find a place in your source code that needs to be changed, but 2to3 cannot fix automatically. In this case, 2to3 will print a warning beneath the diff for a file. You should address the warning in order to have compliant 3.x code.

2to3 can also refactor doctests. To enable this mode, use the `-d` flag. Note that *only* doctests will be refactored. This also doesn't require the module to be valid Python. For example, doctest like examples in a reST document could also be refactored with this option.

The `-v` option enables output of more information on the translation process.

Since some print statements can be parsed as function calls or statements, 2to3 cannot always read files containing the print function. When 2to3 detects the presence of the `from __future__ import print_function` compiler directive, it modifies its internal grammar to interpret `print()` as a function. This change can also be enabled manually with the `-p` flag. Use `-p` to run fixers on code that already has had its print statements converted.

The `-o` or `--output-dir` option allows specification of an alternate directory for processed output files to be written to. The `-n` flag is required when using this as backup files do not make sense when not overwriting the input files.

New in version 3.2.3: The `-o` option was added.

The `-W` or `--write-unchanged-files` flag tells 2to3 to always write output files even if no changes were required to the file. This is most useful with `-o` so that an entire Python source tree is copied with translation from one directory to another. This option implies the `-w` flag as it would not make sense otherwise.

New in version 3.2.3: The `-W` flag was added.

The `--add-suffix` option specifies a string to append to all output filenames. The `-n` flag is required when specifying this as backups are not necessary when writing to different filenames. Example:

```
$ 2to3 -n -W --add-suffix=3 example.py
```

Will cause a converted file named `example.py3` to be written.

New in version 3.2.3: The `--add-suffix` option was added.

To translate an entire project from one directory tree to another use:

```
$ 2to3 --output-dir=python3-version/mycode -W -n python2-version/mycode
```

27.7.2 Fixers

Each step of transforming code is encapsulated in a fixer. The command `2to3 -l` lists them. As *documented above*, each can be turned on and off individually. They are described here in more detail.

apply

Removes usage of `apply()`. For example `apply(function, *args, **kwargs)` is converted to `function(*args, **kwargs)`.

asserts

Replaces deprecated `unittest` method names with the correct ones.

From	To
<code>failUnlessEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>assertEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>assertEquals(a, b)</code>	<code>assertEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>failIfEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>assertNotEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>assertNotEquals(a, b)</code>	<code>assertNotEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>failUnless(a)</code>	<code>assertTrue(a)</code>
<code>assert_(a)</code>	<code>assertTrue(a)</code>
<code>failIf(a)</code>	<code>assertFalse(a)</code>
<code>failUnlessRaises(exc, cal)</code>	<code>assertRaises(exc, cal)</code>
<code>failUnlessAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>assertAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>assertAlmostEquals(a, b)</code>	<code>assertAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>failIfAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>	<code>assertNotAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>
<code>assertNotAlmostEquals(a, b)</code>	<code>assertNotAlmostEqual(a, b)</code>

basestring

Converts `basestring` to `str`.

buffer

Converts `buffer` to `memoryview`. This fixer is optional because the `memoryview` API is similar but not exactly the same as that of `buffer`.

dict

Fixes dictionary iteration methods. `dict.iteritems()` is converted to `dict.items()`, `dict.iterkeys()` to `dict.keys()`, and `dict.itervalues()` to `dict.values()`. Similarly, `dict.viewitems()`, `dict.viewkeys()` and `dict.viewvalues()` are converted respectively to `dict.items()`, `dict.keys()` and `dict.values()`. It also wraps existing usages of `dict.items()`, `dict.keys()`, and `dict.values()` in a call to `list`.

except

Converts `except X, T` to `except X as T`.

exec

Converts the `exec` statement to the `exec()` function.

execfile

Removes usage of `execfile()`. The argument to `execfile()` is wrapped in calls to `open()`, `compile()`, and `exec()`.

exitfunc

Changes assignment of `sys.exitfunc` to use of the `atexit` module.

filter

Wraps `filter()` usage in a `list` call.

funcattrs

Fixes function attributes that have been renamed. For example, `my_function.func_closure` is converted to `my_function.__closure__`.

future

Removes from `__future__` `import new_feature` statements.

getcwdu

Renames `os.getcwdu()` to `os.getcwd()`.

has_key

Changes `dict.has_key(key)` to `key in dict`.

idioms

This optional fixer performs several transformations that make Python code more idiomatic. Type comparisons like `type(x) is SomeClass` and `type(x) == SomeClass` are converted to `isinstance(x,`

SomeClass). `while 1` becomes `while True`. This fixer also tries to make use of `sorted()` in appropriate places. For example, this block

```
L = list(some_iterable)
L.sort()
```

is changed to

```
L = sorted(some_iterable)
```

import

Detects sibling imports and converts them to relative imports.

imports

Handles module renames in the standard library.

imports2

Handles other modules renames in the standard library. It is separate from the `imports` fixer only because of technical limitations.

input

Converts `input(prompt)` to `eval(input(prompt))`.

intern

Converts `intern()` to `sys.intern()`.

isinstance

Fixes duplicate types in the second argument of `isinstance()`. For example, `isinstance(x, (int, int))` is converted to `isinstance(x, int)` and `isinstance(x, (int, float, int))` is converted to `isinstance(x, (int, float))`.

itertools_imports

Removes imports of `itertools.ifilter()`, `itertools.izip()`, and `itertools.imap()`. Imports of `itertools.ifilterfalse()` are also changed to `itertools.filterfalse()`.

itertools

Changes usage of `itertools.ifilter()`, `itertools.izip()`, and `itertools.imap()` to their built-in equivalents. `itertools.ifilterfalse()` is changed to `itertools.filterfalse()`.

long

Renames `long` to `int`.

map

Wraps `map()` in a `list` call. It also changes `map(None, x)` to `list(x)`. Using `from future_builtins import map` disables this fixer.

metaclass

Converts the old metaclass syntax (`__metaclass__ = Meta` in the class body) to the new (`class X(metaclass=Meta)`).

methodattrs

Fixes old method attribute names. For example, `meth.im_func` is converted to `meth.__func__`.

ne

Converts the old not-equal syntax, `<>`, to `!=`.

next

Converts the use of iterator's `next()` methods to the `next()` function. It also renames `next()` methods to `__next__()`.

nonzero

Renames `__nonzero__()` to `__bool__()`.

numliterals

Converts octal literals into the new syntax.

operator

Converts calls to various functions in the *operator* module to other, but equivalent, function calls. When needed, the appropriate `import` statements are added, e.g. `import collections.abc`. The following mapping are made:

From	To
<code>operator.isCallable(obj)</code>	<code>callable(obj)</code>
<code>operator.sequenceIncludes(obj)</code>	<code>operator.contains(obj)</code>
<code>operator.isSequenceType(obj)</code>	<code>isinstance(obj, collections.abc.Sequence)</code>
<code>operator.isMappingType(obj)</code>	<code>isinstance(obj, collections.abc.Mapping)</code>
<code>operator.isNumberType(obj)</code>	<code>isinstance(obj, numbers.Number)</code>
<code>operator.repeat(obj, n)</code>	<code>operator.mul(obj, n)</code>
<code>operator.irepeat(obj, n)</code>	<code>operator.imul(obj, n)</code>

paren

Add extra parenthesis where they are required in list comprehensions. For example, `[x for x in 1, 2]` becomes `[x for x in (1, 2)]`.

print

Converts the `print` statement to the *print()* function.

raise

Converts `raise E, V` to `raise E(V)`, and `raise E, V, T` to `raise E(V).with_traceback(T)`. If `E` is a tuple, the translation will be incorrect because substituting tuples for exceptions has been removed in 3.0.

raw_input

Converts `raw_input()` to *input()*.

reduce

Handles the move of `reduce()` to *functools.reduce()*.

reload

Converts `reload()` to *importlib.reload()*.

renames

Changes `sys.maxint` to *sys.maxsize*.

repr

Replaces backtick `repr` with the *repr()* function.

set_literal

Replaces use of the *set* constructor with set literals. This fixer is optional.

standarderror

Renames `StandardError` to *Exception*.

sys_exc

Changes the deprecated `sys.exc_value`, `sys.exc_type`, `sys.exc_traceback` to use *sys.exc_info()*.

throw

Fixes the API change in generator's `throw()` method.

tuple_params

Removes implicit tuple parameter unpacking. This fixer inserts temporary variables.

types

Fixes code broken from the removal of some members in the *types* module.

unicode

Renames `unicode` to `str`.

urllib

Handles the rename of `urllib` and `urllib2` to the `urllib` package.

ws_comma

Removes excess whitespace from comma separated items. This fixer is optional.

xrange

Renames `xrange()` to `range()` and wraps existing `range()` calls with `list`.

xreadlines

Changes for `x in file.xreadlines()` to `for x in file`.

zip

Wraps `zip()` usage in a `list` call. This is disabled when `from future_builtins import zip` appears.

27.7.3 lib2to3 - 2to3's library

Source code: [Lib/lib2to3/](#)

Note: The `lib2to3` API should be considered unstable and may change drastically in the future.

27.8 test — Regression tests package for Python

Note: The `test` package is meant for internal use by Python only. It is documented for the benefit of the core developers of Python. Any use of this package outside of Python's standard library is discouraged as code mentioned here can change or be removed without notice between releases of Python.

The `test` package contains all regression tests for Python as well as the modules `test.support` and `test.regrtest`. `test.support` is used to enhance your tests while `test.regrtest` drives the testing suite.

Each module in the `test` package whose name starts with `test_` is a testing suite for a specific module or feature. All new tests should be written using the `unittest` or `doctest` module. Some older tests are written using a “traditional” testing style that compares output printed to `sys.stdout`; this style of test is considered deprecated.

See also:

Module `unittest` Writing PyUnit regression tests.

Module `doctest` Tests embedded in documentation strings.

27.8.1 Writing Unit Tests for the test package

It is preferred that tests that use the `unittest` module follow a few guidelines. One is to name the test module by starting it with `test_` and end it with the name of the module being tested. The test methods in the test module should start with `test_` and end with a description of what the method is testing. This is needed so that the methods are recognized by the test driver as test methods. Also, no documentation string for the method should be included. A comment (such as `# Tests function returns only True`

or `False`) should be used to provide documentation for test methods. This is done because documentation strings get printed out if they exist and thus what test is being run is not stated.

A basic boilerplate is often used:

```
import unittest
from test import support

class MyTestCase1(unittest.TestCase):

    # Only use setUp() and tearDown() if necessary

    def setUp(self):
        ... code to execute in preparation for tests ...

    def tearDown(self):
        ... code to execute to clean up after tests ...

    def test_feature_one(self):
        # Test feature one.
        ... testing code ...

    def test_feature_two(self):
        # Test feature two.
        ... testing code ...

    ... more test methods ...

class MyTestCase2(unittest.TestCase):
    ... same structure as MyTestCase1 ...

... more test classes ...

if __name__ == '__main__':
    unittest.main()
```

This code pattern allows the testing suite to be run by `test.regrtest`, on its own as a script that supports the `unittest` CLI, or via the `python -m unittest` CLI.

The goal for regression testing is to try to break code. This leads to a few guidelines to be followed:

- The testing suite should exercise all classes, functions, and constants. This includes not just the external API that is to be presented to the outside world but also “private” code.
- Whitebox testing (examining the code being tested when the tests are being written) is preferred. Blackbox testing (testing only the published user interface) is not complete enough to make sure all boundary and edge cases are tested.
- Make sure all possible values are tested including invalid ones. This makes sure that not only all valid values are acceptable but also that improper values are handled correctly.
- Exhaust as many code paths as possible. Test where branching occurs and thus tailor input to make sure as many different paths through the code are taken.
- Add an explicit test for any bugs discovered for the tested code. This will make sure that the error does not crop up again if the code is changed in the future.
- Make sure to clean up after your tests (such as close and remove all temporary files).

- If a test is dependent on a specific condition of the operating system then verify the condition already exists before attempting the test.
- Import as few modules as possible and do it as soon as possible. This minimizes external dependencies of tests and also minimizes possible anomalous behavior from side-effects of importing a module.
- Try to maximize code reuse. On occasion, tests will vary by something as small as what type of input is used. Minimize code duplication by subclassing a basic test class with a class that specifies the input:

```
class TestFuncAcceptsSequencesMixin:

    func = mySuperWhammyFunction

    def test_func(self):
        self.func(self.arg)

class AcceptLists(TestFuncAcceptsSequencesMixin, unittest.TestCase):
    arg = [1, 2, 3]

class AcceptStrings(TestFuncAcceptsSequencesMixin, unittest.TestCase):
    arg = 'abc'

class AcceptTuples(TestFuncAcceptsSequencesMixin, unittest.TestCase):
    arg = (1, 2, 3)
```

When using this pattern, remember that all classes that inherit from `unittest.TestCase` are run as tests. The Mixin class in the example above does not have any data and so can't be run by itself, thus it does not inherit from `unittest.TestCase`.

See also:

Test Driven Development A book by Kent Beck on writing tests before code.

27.8.2 Running tests using the command-line interface

The `test` package can be run as a script to drive Python's regression test suite, thanks to the `-m` option: `python -m test`. Under the hood, it uses `test.regrtest`; the call `python -m test.regrtest` used in previous Python versions still works. Running the script by itself automatically starts running all regression tests in the `test` package. It does this by finding all modules in the package whose name starts with `test_`, importing them, and executing the function `test_main()` if present or loading the tests via `unittest.TestLoader.loadTestsFromModule` if `test_main` does not exist. The names of tests to execute may also be passed to the script. Specifying a single regression test (`python -m test test_spam`) will minimize output and only print whether the test passed or failed.

Running `test` directly allows what resources are available for tests to use to be set. You do this by using the `-u` command-line option. Specifying `all` as the value for the `-u` option enables all possible resources: `python -m test -uall`. If all but one resource is desired (a more common case), a comma-separated list of resources that are not desired may be listed after `all`. The command `python -m test -uall,-audio,-largefile` will run `test` with all resources except the `audio` and `largefile` resources. For a list of all resources and more command-line options, run `python -m test -h`.

Some other ways to execute the regression tests depend on what platform the tests are being executed on. On Unix, you can run `make test` at the top-level directory where Python was built. On Windows, executing `rt.bat` from your `PCbuild` directory will run all regression tests.

27.9 test.support — Utilities for the Python test suite

The `test.support` module provides support for Python's regression test suite.

Note: `test.support` is not a public module. It is documented here to help Python developers write tests. The API of this module is subject to change without backwards compatibility concerns between releases.

This module defines the following exceptions:

exception test.support.TestFailed

Exception to be raised when a test fails. This is deprecated in favor of `unittest`-based tests and `unittest.TestCase`'s assertion methods.

exception test.support.ResourceDenied

Subclass of `unittest.SkipTest`. Raised when a resource (such as a network connection) is not available. Raised by the `requires()` function.

The `test.support` module defines the following constants:

test.support.verbose

True when verbose output is enabled. Should be checked when more detailed information is desired about a running test. `verbose` is set by `test.regrtest`.

test.support.is_jython

True if the running interpreter is Jython.

test.support.is_android

True if the system is Android.

test.support.unix_shell

Path for shell if not on Windows; otherwise None.

test.support.FS_NONASCII

A non-ASCII character encodable by `os.fsencode()`.

test.support.TESTFN

Set to a name that is safe to use as the name of a temporary file. Any temporary file that is created should be closed and unlinked (removed).

test.support.TESTFN_UNICODE

Set to a non-ASCII name for a temporary file.

test.support.TESTFN_ENCODING

Set to `sys.getfilesystemencoding()`.

test.support.TESTFN_UNENCODABLE

Set to a filename (str type) that should not be able to be encoded by file system encoding in strict mode. It may be None if it's not possible to generate such a filename.

test.support.TESTFN_UNDECODABLE

Set to a filename (bytes type) that should not be able to be decoded by file system encoding in strict mode. It may be None if it's not possible to generate such a filename.

test.support.TESTFN_NONASCII

Set to a filename containing the `FS_NONASCII` character.

test.support.IPV6_ENABLED

Set to True if IPV6 is enabled on this host, False otherwise.

test.support.SAVEDCWD

Set to `os.getcwd()`.

`test.support.PGO`

Set when tests can be skipped when they are not useful for PGO.

`test.support.PIPE_MAX_SIZE`

A constant that is likely larger than the underlying OS pipe buffer size, to make writes blocking.

`test.support.SOCK_MAX_SIZE`

A constant that is likely larger than the underlying OS socket buffer size, to make writes blocking.

`test.support.TEST_SUPPORT_DIR`

Set to the top level directory that contains *test.support*.

`test.support.TEST_HOME_DIR`

Set to the top level directory for the test package.

`test.support.TEST_DATA_DIR`

Set to the data directory within the test package.

`test.support.MAX_Py_ssize_t`

Set to *sys.maxsize* for big memory tests.

`test.support.max_memuse`

Set by *set_memlimit()* as the memory limit for big memory tests. Limited by *MAX_Py_ssize_t*.

`test.support.real_max_memuse`

Set by *set_memlimit()* as the memory limit for big memory tests. Not limited by *MAX_Py_ssize_t*.

`test.support.MISSING_C_DOCSTRINGS`

Return True if running on CPython, not on Windows, and configuration not set with *WITH_DOC_STRINGS*.

`test.support.HAVE_DOCSTRINGS`

Check for presence of docstrings.

The *test.support* module defines the following functions:

`test.support.forget(module_name)`

Remove the module named *module_name* from *sys.modules* and delete any byte-compiled files of the module.

`test.support.unload(name)`

Delete *name* from *sys.modules*.

`test.support.unlink(filename)`

Call *os.unlink()* on *filename*. On Windows platforms, this is wrapped with a wait loop that checks for the existence of the file.

`test.support.rmdir(filename)`

Call *os.rmdir()* on *filename*. On Windows platforms, this is wrapped with a wait loop that checks for the existence of the file.

`test.support.rmtree(path)`

Call *shutil.rmtree()* on *path* or call *os.lstat()* and *os.rmdir()* to remove a path and its contents. On Windows platforms, this is wrapped with a wait loop that checks for the existence of the files.

`test.support.make_legacy_pyc(source)`

Move a PEP 3147/488 pyc file to its legacy pyc location and return the file system path to the legacy pyc file. The *source* value is the file system path to the source file. It does not need to exist, however the PEP 3147/488 pyc file must exist.

`test.support.is_resource_enabled(resource)`

Return True if *resource* is enabled and available. The list of available resources is only set when *test.regrtest* is executing the tests.

`test.support.python_is_optimized()`
Return True if Python was not built with `-O0` or `-Og`.

`test.support.with_pymalloc()`
Return `_testcapi.WITH_PYMALLOC`.

`test.support.requires(resource, msg=None)`
Raise `ResourceDenied` if `resource` is not available. `msg` is the argument to `ResourceDenied` if it is raised. Always returns True if called by a function whose `__name__` is `'__main__'`. Used when tests are executed by `test.regrtest`.

`test.support.system_must_validate_cert(f)`
Raise `unittest.SkipTest` on TLS certification validation failures.

`test.support.sortedict(dict)`
Return a repr of `dict` with keys sorted.

`test.support.findfile(filename, subdir=None)`
Return the path to the file named `filename`. If no match is found `filename` is returned. This does not equal a failure since it could be the path to the file.

Setting `subdir` indicates a relative path to use to find the file rather than looking directly in the path directories.

`test.support.create_empty_file(filename)`
Create an empty file with `filename`. If it already exists, truncate it.

`test.support.fd_count()`
Count the number of open file descriptors.

`test.support.match_test(test)`
Match `test` to patterns set in `set_match_tests()`.

`test.support.set_match_tests(patterns)`
Define match test with regular expression `patterns`.

`test.support.run_unittest(*classes)`
Execute `unittest.TestCase` subclasses passed to the function. The function scans the classes for methods starting with the prefix `test_` and executes the tests individually.

It is also legal to pass strings as parameters; these should be keys in `sys.modules`. Each associated module will be scanned by `unittest.TestLoader.loadTestsFromModule()`. This is usually seen in the following `test_main()` function:

```
def test_main():
    support.run_unittest(__name__)
```

This will run all tests defined in the named module.

`test.support.run_doctest(module, verbosity=None, optionflags=0)`
Run `doctest.testmod()` on the given `module`. Return `(failure_count, test_count)`.

If `verbosity` is None, `doctest.testmod()` is run with verbosity set to `verbose`. Otherwise, it is run with verbosity set to None. `optionflags` is passed as `optionflags` to `doctest.testmod()`.

`test.support.setswitchinterval(interval)`
Set the `sys.setswitchinterval()` to the given `interval`. Defines a minimum interval for Android systems to prevent the system from hanging.

`test.support.check_impl_detail(**guards)`
Use this check to guard CPython's implementation-specific tests or to run them only on the implementations guarded by the arguments:

```

check_impl_detail()           # Only on CPython (default).
check_impl_detail(jython=True) # Only on Jython.
check_impl_detail(cpython=False) # Everywhere except CPython.

```

`test.support.check_warnings(*filters, quiet=True)`

A convenience wrapper for `warnings.catch_warnings()` that makes it easier to test that a warning was correctly raised. It is approximately equivalent to calling `warnings.catch_warnings(record=True)` with `warnings.simplefilter()` set to `always` and with the option to automatically validate the results that are recorded.

`check_warnings` accepts 2-tuples of the form ("message regexp", `WarningCategory`) as positional arguments. If one or more *filters* are provided, or if the optional keyword argument *quiet* is `False`, it checks to make sure the warnings are as expected: each specified filter must match at least one of the warnings raised by the enclosed code or the test fails, and if any warnings are raised that do not match any of the specified filters the test fails. To disable the first of these checks, set *quiet* to `True`.

If no arguments are specified, it defaults to:

```

check_warnings(("", Warning), quiet=True)

```

In this case all warnings are caught and no errors are raised.

On entry to the context manager, a `WarningRecorder` instance is returned. The underlying warnings list from `catch_warnings()` is available via the recorder object's `warnings` attribute. As a convenience, the attributes of the object representing the most recent warning can also be accessed directly through the recorder object (see example below). If no warning has been raised, then any of the attributes that would otherwise be expected on an object representing a warning will return `None`.

The recorder object also has a `reset()` method, which clears the warnings list.

The context manager is designed to be used like this:

```

with check_warnings(("assertion is always true", SyntaxWarning),
                    ("", UserWarning)):
    exec('assert(False, "Hey!")')
    warnings.warn(UserWarning("Hide me!"))

```

In this case if either warning was not raised, or some other warning was raised, `check_warnings()` would raise an error.

When a test needs to look more deeply into the warnings, rather than just checking whether or not they occurred, code like this can be used:

```

with check_warnings(quiet=True) as w:
    warnings.warn("foo")
    assert str(w.args[0]) == "foo"
    warnings.warn("bar")
    assert str(w.args[0]) == "bar"
    assert str(w.warnings[0].args[0]) == "foo"
    assert str(w.warnings[1].args[0]) == "bar"
    w.reset()
    assert len(w.warnings) == 0

```

Here all warnings will be caught, and the test code tests the captured warnings directly.

Changed in version 3.2: New optional arguments *filters* and *quiet*.

`test.support.check_no_resource_warning(testcase)`
 Context manager to check that no *ResourceWarning* was raised. You must remove the object which may emit *ResourceWarning* before the end of the context manager.

`test.support.set_memlimit(limit)`
 Set the values for *max_memuse* and *real_max_memuse* for big memory tests.

`test.support.record_original_stdout(stdout)`
 Store the value from *stdout*. It is meant to hold the stdout at the time the regrtest began.

`test.support.get_original_stdout()`
 Return the original stdout set by *record_original_stdout()* or *sys.stdout* if it's not set.

`test.support.strip_python_stderr(stderr)`
 Strip the *stderr* of a Python process from potential debug output emitted by the interpreter. This will typically be run on the result of *subprocess.Popen.communicate()*.

`test.support.args_from_interpreter_flags()`
 Return a list of command line arguments reproducing the current settings in *sys.flags* and *sys.warnoptions*.

`test.support.optim_args_from_interpreter_flags()`
 Return a list of command line arguments reproducing the current optimization settings in *sys.flags*.

`test.support.captured_stdin()`
`test.support.captured_stdout()`
`test.support.captured_stderr()`
 A context managers that temporarily replaces the named stream with *io.StringIO* object.

Example use with output streams:

```
with captured_stdout() as stdout, captured_stderr() as stderr:
    print("hello")
    print("error", file=sys.stderr)
assert stdout.getvalue() == "hello\n"
assert stderr.getvalue() == "error\n"
```

Example use with input stream:

```
with captured_stdin() as stdin:
    stdin.write('hello\n')
    stdin.seek(0)
    # call test code that consumes from sys.stdin
    captured = input()
self.assertEqual(captured, "hello")
```

`test.support.temp_dir(path=None, quiet=False)`
 A context manager that creates a temporary directory at *path* and yields the directory.

If *path* is *None*, the temporary directory is created using *tempfile.mkdtemp()*. If *quiet* is *False*, the context manager raises an exception on error. Otherwise, if *path* is specified and cannot be created, only a warning is issued.

`test.support.change_cwd(path, quiet=False)`
 A context manager that temporarily changes the current working directory to *path* and yields the directory.

If *quiet* is *False*, the context manager raises an exception on error. Otherwise, it issues only a warning and keeps the current working directory the same.

`test.support.temp_cwd(name='tempcwd', quiet=False)`

A context manager that temporarily creates a new directory and changes the current working directory (CWD).

The context manager creates a temporary directory in the current directory with name *name* before temporarily changing the current working directory. If *name* is `None`, the temporary directory is created using `tempfile.mkdtemp()`.

If *quiet* is `False` and it is not possible to create or change the CWD, an error is raised. Otherwise, only a warning is raised and the original CWD is used.

`test.support.temp_umask(umask)`

A context manager that temporarily sets the process umask.

`test.support.transient_internet(resource_name, *, timeout=30.0, errnos=())`

A context manager that raises `ResourceDenied` when various issues with the internet connection manifest themselves as exceptions.

`test.support.disable_faulthandler()`

A context manager that replaces `sys.stderr` with `sys.__stderr__`.

`test.support.gc_collect()`

Force as many objects as possible to be collected. This is needed because timely deallocation is not guaranteed by the garbage collector. This means that `__del__` methods may be called later than expected and weakrefs may remain alive for longer than expected.

`test.support.disable_gc()`

A context manager that disables the garbage collector upon entry and reenables it upon exit.

`test.support.swap_attr(obj, attr, new_val)`

Context manager to swap out an attribute with a new object.

Usage:

```
with swap_attr(obj, "attr", 5):  
    ...
```

This will set `obj.attr` to 5 for the duration of the `with` block, restoring the old value at the end of the block. If `attr` doesn't exist on `obj`, it will be created and then deleted at the end of the block.

The old value (or `None` if it doesn't exist) will be assigned to the target of the “as” clause, if there is one.

`test.support.swap_item(obj, attr, new_val)`

Context manager to swap out an item with a new object.

Usage:

```
with swap_item(obj, "item", 5):  
    ...
```

This will set `obj["item"]` to 5 for the duration of the `with` block, restoring the old value at the end of the block. If `item` doesn't exist on `obj`, it will be created and then deleted at the end of the block.

The old value (or `None` if it doesn't exist) will be assigned to the target of the “as” clause, if there is one.

`test.support.wait_threads_exit(timeout=60.0)`

Context manager to wait until all threads created in the `with` statement exit.

`test.support.start_threads(threads, unlock=None)`

Context manager to start *threads*. It attempts to join the threads upon exit.

`test.support.calcobjsize(fmt)`
Return `struct.calcsize()` for `nP{fmt}On` or, if `gettotalrefcount` exists, `2PnP{fmt}OP`.

`test.support.calcvobjsize(fmt)`
Return `struct.calcsize()` for `nPn{fmt}On` or, if `gettotalrefcount` exists, `2PnPn{fmt}OP`.

`test.support.checksizeof(test, o, size)`
For testcase `test`, assert that the `sys.getsizeof` for `o` plus the GC header size equals `size`.

`test.support.can_symlink()`
Return `True` if the OS supports symbolic links, `False` otherwise.

`test.support.can_xattr()`
Return `True` if the OS supports `xattr`, `False` otherwise.

`@test.support.skip_unless_symlink`
A decorator for running tests that require support for symbolic links.

`@test.support.skip_unless_xattr`
A decorator for running tests that require support for `xattr`.

`@test.support.skip_unless_bind_unix_socket`
A decorator for running tests that require a functional `bind()` for Unix sockets.

`@test.support.anticipate_failure(condition)`
A decorator to conditionally mark tests with `unittest.expectedFailure()`. Any use of this decorator should have an associated comment identifying the relevant tracker issue.

`@test.support.run_with_locale(catstr, *locales)`
A decorator for running a function in a different locale, correctly resetting it after it has finished. `catstr` is the locale category as a string (for example `"LC_ALL"`). The `locales` passed will be tried sequentially, and the first valid locale will be used.

`@test.support.run_with_tz(tz)`
A decorator for running a function in a specific timezone, correctly resetting it after it has finished.

`@test.support.requires_freebsd_version(*min_version)`
Decorator for the minimum version when running test on FreeBSD. If the FreeBSD version is less than the minimum, raise `unittest.SkipTest`.

`@test.support.requires_linux_version(*min_version)`
Decorator for the minimum version when running test on Linux. If the Linux version is less than the minimum, raise `unittest.SkipTest`.

`@test.support.requires_mac_version(*min_version)`
Decorator for the minimum version when running test on Mac OS X. If the MAC OS X version is less than the minimum, raise `unittest.SkipTest`.

`@test.support.requires_IEEE_754`
Decorator for skipping tests on non-IEEE 754 platforms.

`@test.support.requires_zlib`
Decorator for skipping tests if `zlib` doesn't exist.

`@test.support.requires_gzip`
Decorator for skipping tests if `gzip` doesn't exist.

`@test.support.requires_bz2`
Decorator for skipping tests if `bz2` doesn't exist.

`@test.support.requires_lzma`
Decorator for skipping tests if `lzma` doesn't exist.

`@test.support.requires_resource(resource)`
Decorator for skipping tests if `resource` is not available.

`@test.support.requires_docstrings`

Decorator for only running the test if `HAVE_DOCSTRINGS`.

`@test.support.cpython_only(test)`

Decorator for tests only applicable to CPython.

`@test.support.impl_detail(msg=None, **guards)`

Decorator for invoking `check_impl_detail()` on `guards`. If that returns `False`, then uses `msg` as the reason for skipping the test.

`@test.support.no_tracing(func)`

Decorator to temporarily turn off tracing for the duration of the test.

`@test.support.refcount_test(test)`

Decorator for tests which involve reference counting. The decorator does not run the test if it is not run by CPython. Any trace function is unset for the duration of the test to prevent unexpected refcounts caused by the trace function.

`@test.support.reap_threads(func)`

Decorator to ensure the threads are cleaned up even if the test fails.

`@test.support.bigmemtest(size, memuse, dry_run=True)`

Decorator for bigmem tests.

`size` is a requested size for the test (in arbitrary, test-interpreted units.) `memuse` is the number of bytes per unit for the test, or a good estimate of it. For example, a test that needs two byte buffers, of 4 GiB each, could be decorated with `@bigmemtest(size=_4G, memuse=2)`.

The `size` argument is normally passed to the decorated test method as an extra argument. If `dry_run` is `True`, the value passed to the test method may be less than the requested value. If `dry_run` is `False`, it means the test doesn't support dummy runs when `-M` is not specified.

`@test.support.bigaddrspace_test(f)`

Decorator for tests that fill the address space. `f` is the function to wrap.

`test.support.make_bad_fd()`

Create an invalid file descriptor by opening and closing a temporary file, and returning its descriptor.

`test.support.check_syntax_error(testcase, statement, errtext="", *, lineno=None, offset=None)`

Test for syntax errors in `statement` by attempting to compile `statement`. `testcase` is the `unittest` instance for the test. `errtext` is the text of the error raised by `SyntaxError`. If `lineno` is not `None`, compares to the line of the `SyntaxError`. If `offset` is not `None`, compares to the offset of the `SyntaxError`.

`test.support.open_urlresource(url, *args, **kw)`

Open `url`. If open fails, raises `TestFailed`.

`test.support.import_module(name, deprecated=False, *, required_on=())`

This function imports and returns the named module. Unlike a normal import, this function raises `unittest.SkipTest` if the module cannot be imported.

Module and package deprecation messages are suppressed during this import if `deprecated` is `True`. If a module is required on a platform but optional for others, set `required_on` to an iterable of platform prefixes which will be compared against `sys.platform`.

New in version 3.1.

`test.support.import_fresh_module(name, fresh=(), blocked=(), deprecated=False)`

This function imports and returns a fresh copy of the named Python module by removing the named module from `sys.modules` before doing the import. Note that unlike `reload()`, the original module is not affected by this operation.

`fresh` is an iterable of additional module names that are also removed from the `sys.modules` cache before doing the import.

blocked is an iterable of module names that are replaced with `None` in the module cache during the import to ensure that attempts to import them raise *ImportError*.

The named module and any modules named in the *fresh* and *blocked* parameters are saved before starting the import and then reinserted into `sys.modules` when the fresh import is complete.

Module and package deprecation messages are suppressed during this import if *deprecated* is `True`.

This function will raise *ImportError* if the named module cannot be imported.

Example use:

```
# Get copies of the warnings module for testing without affecting the
# version being used by the rest of the test suite. One copy uses the
# C implementation, the other is forced to use the pure Python fallback
# implementation
py_warnings = import_fresh_module('warnings', blocked=['_warnings'])
c_warnings = import_fresh_module('warnings', fresh=['_warnings'])
```

New in version 3.1.

`test.support.modules_setup()`

Return a copy of *sys.modules*.

`test.support.modules_cleanup(oldmodules)`

Remove modules except for *oldmodules* and *encodings* in order to preserve internal cache.

`test.support.threading_setup()`

Return current thread count and copy of dangling threads.

`test.support.threading_cleanup(*original_values)`

Cleanup up threads not specified in *original_values*. Designed to emit a warning if a test leaves running threads in the background.

`test.support.join_thread(thread, timeout=30.0)`

Join a *thread* within *timeout*. Raise an *AssertionError* if thread is still alive after *timeout* seconds.

`test.support.reap_children()`

Use this at the end of *test_main* whenever sub-processes are started. This will help ensure that no extra children (zombies) stick around to hog resources and create problems when looking for reflinks.

`test.support.get_attribute(obj, name)`

Get an attribute, raising *unittest.SkipTest* if *AttributeError* is raised.

`test.support.bind_port(sock, host=HOST)`

Bind the socket to a free port and return the port number. Relies on ephemeral ports in order to ensure we are using an unbound port. This is important as many tests may be running simultaneously, especially in a buildbot environment. This method raises an exception if the *sock.family* is *AF_INET* and *sock.type* is *SOCK_STREAM*, and the socket has *SO_REUSEADDR* or *SO_REUSEPORT* set on it. Tests should never set these socket options for TCP/IP sockets. The only case for setting these options is testing multicasting via multiple UDP sockets.

Additionally, if the *SO_EXCLUSIVEADDRUSE* socket option is available (i.e. on Windows), it will be set on the socket. This will prevent anyone else from binding to our host/port for the duration of the test.

`test.support.bind_unix_socket(sock, addr)`

Bind a unix socket, raising *unittest.SkipTest* if *PermissionError* is raised.

`test.support.find_unused_port(family=socket.AF_INET, socktype=socket.SOCK_STREAM)`

Returns an unused port that should be suitable for binding. This is achieved by creating a temporary socket with the same family and type as the *sock* parameter (default is *AF_INET*, *SOCK_STREAM*), and binding it to the specified host address (defaults to 0.0.0.0) with the port set to 0, eliciting an unused

ephemeral port from the OS. The temporary socket is then closed and deleted, and the ephemeral port is returned.

Either this method or `bind_port()` should be used for any tests where a server socket needs to be bound to a particular port for the duration of the test. Which one to use depends on whether the calling code is creating a Python socket, or if an unused port needs to be provided in a constructor or passed to an external program (i.e. the `-accept` argument to openssl's `s_server` mode). Always prefer `bind_port()` over `find_unused_port()` where possible. Using a hard coded port is discouraged since it can make multiple instances of the test impossible to run simultaneously, which is a problem for buildbots.

`test.support.load_package_tests(pkg_dir, loader, standard_tests, pattern)`

Generic implementation of the `unittest` `load_tests` protocol for use in test packages. `pkg_dir` is the root directory of the package; `loader`, `standard_tests`, and `pattern` are the arguments expected by `load_tests`. In simple cases, the test package's `__init__.py` can be the following:

```
import os
from test.support import load_package_tests

def load_tests(*args):
    return load_package_tests(os.path.dirname(__file__), *args)
```

`test.support.fs_is_case_insensitive(directory)`

Return True if the file system for `directory` is case-insensitive.

`test.support.detect_api_mismatch(ref_api, other_api, *, ignore=())`

Returns the set of attributes, functions or methods of `ref_api` not found on `other_api`, except for a defined list of items to be ignored in this check specified in `ignore`.

By default this skips private attributes beginning with `'_'` but includes all magic methods, i.e. those starting and ending in `'__'`.

New in version 3.5.

`test.support.patch(test_instance, object_to_patch, attr_name, new_value)`

Override `object_to_patch.attr_name` with `new_value`. Also add cleanup procedure to `test_instance` to restore `object_to_patch` for `attr_name`. The `attr_name` should be a valid attribute for `object_to_patch`.

`test.support.run_in_subinterp(code)`

Run `code` in subinterpreter. Raise `unittest.SkipTest` if `tracemalloc` is enabled.

`test.support.check_free_after_iterating(test, iter, cls, args=())`

Assert that `iter` is deallocated after iterating.

`test.support.missing_compiler_executable(cmd_names=[])`

Check for the existence of the compiler executables whose names are listed in `cmd_names` or all the compiler executables when `cmd_names` is empty and return the first missing executable or `None` when none is found missing.

`test.support.check_all__(test_case, module, name_of_module=None, extra=(), blacklist=())`

Assert that the `__all__` variable of `module` contains all public names.

The module's public names (its API) are detected automatically based on whether they match the public name convention and were defined in `module`.

The `name_of_module` argument can specify (as a string or tuple thereof) what module(s) an API could be defined in order to be detected as a public API. One case for this is when `module` imports part of its public API from other modules, possibly a C backend (like `csv` and its `_csv`).

The `extra` argument can be a set of names that wouldn't otherwise be automatically detected as "public", like objects without a proper `__module__` attribute. If provided, it will be added to the automatically detected ones.

The *blacklist* argument can be a set of names that must not be treated as part of the public API even though their names indicate otherwise.

Example use:

```
import bar
import foo
import unittest
from test import support

class MiscTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    def test__all__(self):
        support.check__all__(self, foo)

class OtherTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
    def test__all__(self):
        extra = {'BAR_CONST', 'FOO_CONST'}
        blacklist = {'baz'} # Undocumented name.
        # bar imports part of its API from _bar.
        support.check__all__(self, bar, ('bar', '_bar'),
                               extra=extra, blacklist=blacklist)
```

New in version 3.6.

The *test.support* module defines the following classes:

class *test.support*.TransientResource(*exc*, ***kwargs*)

Instances are a context manager that raises *ResourceDenied* if the specified exception type is raised. Any keyword arguments are treated as attribute/value pairs to be compared against any exception raised within the *with* statement. Only if all pairs match properly against attributes on the exception is *ResourceDenied* raised.

class *test.support*.EnvironmentVarGuard

Class used to temporarily set or unset environment variables. Instances can be used as a context manager and have a complete dictionary interface for querying/modifying the underlying *os.environ*. After exit from the context manager all changes to environment variables done through this instance will be rolled back.

Changed in version 3.1: Added dictionary interface.

EnvironmentVarGuard.set(*envvar*, *value*)

Temporarily set the environment variable *envvar* to the value of *value*.

EnvironmentVarGuard.unset(*envvar*)

Temporarily unset the environment variable *envvar*.

class *test.support*.SuppressCrashReport

A context manager used to try to prevent crash dialog popups on tests that are expected to crash a subprocess.

On Windows, it disables Windows Error Reporting dialogs using *SetErrorMode*.

On UNIX, *resource.setrlimit()* is used to set *resource.RLIMIT_CORE*'s soft limit to 0 to prevent coredump file creation.

On both platforms, the old value is restored by *__exit__()*.

class *test.support*.CleanImport(**module_names*)

A context manager to force import to return a new module reference. This is useful for testing module-level behaviors, such as the emission of a *DeprecationWarning* on import. Example usage:

```
with CleanImport('foo'):
    importlib.import_module('foo')  # New reference.
```

class `test.support.DirsOnSysPath(*paths)`

A context manager to temporarily add directories to `sys.path`.

This makes a copy of `sys.path`, appends any directories given as positional arguments, then reverts `sys.path` to the copied settings when the context ends.

Note that *all* `sys.path` modifications in the body of the context manager, including replacement of the object, will be reverted at the end of the block.

class `test.support.SaveSignals`

Class to save and restore signal handlers registered by the Python signal handler.

class `test.support.Matcher`

matches(*self*, *d*, ***kwargs*)

Try to match a single dict with the supplied arguments.

match_value(*self*, *k*, *dv*, *v*)

Try to match a single stored value (*dv*) with a supplied value (*v*).

class `test.support.WarningsRecorder`

Class used to record warnings for unit tests. See documentation of `check_warnings()` above for more details.

class `test.support.BasicTestRunner`

run(*test*)

Run *test* and return the result.

class `test.support.TestHandler(logging.handlers.BufferingHandler)`

Class for logging support.

class `test.support.FakePath(path)`

Simple *path-like object*. It implements the `__fspath__()` method which just returns the *path* argument. If *path* is an exception, it will be raised in `__fspath__()`.

27.10 `test.support.script_helper` — Utilities for the Python execution tests

The `test.support.script_helper` module provides support for Python's script execution tests.

`test.support.script_helper.interpreter_requires_environment()`

Return True if `sys.executable interpreter` requires environment variables in order to be able to run at all.

This is designed to be used with `@unittest.skipIf()` to annotate tests that need to use an `assert_python*`() function to launch an isolated mode (-I) or no environment mode (-E) sub-interpreter process.

A normal build & test does not run into this situation but it can happen when trying to run the standard library test suite from an interpreter that doesn't have an obvious home with Python's current home finding logic.

Setting `PYTHONHOME` is one way to get most of the testsuite to run in that situation. `PYTHONPATH` or `PYTHONUSERSITE` are other common environment variables that might impact whether or not the interpreter can start.

`test.support.script_helper.run_python_until_end(*args, **env_vars)`

Set up the environment based on `env_vars` for running the interpreter in a subprocess. The values can include `__isolated`, `__cleanenv`, `__cwd`, and `TERM`.

`test.support.script_helper.assert_python_ok(*args, **env_vars)`

Assert that running the interpreter with `args` and optional environment variables `env_vars` succeeds (`rc == 0`) and return a `(return code, stdout, stderr)` tuple.

If the `__cleanenv` keyword is set, `env_vars` is used as a fresh environment.

Python is started in isolated mode (command line option `-I`), except if the `__isolated` keyword is set to `False`.

`test.support.script_helper.assert_python_failure(*args, **env_vars)`

Assert that running the interpreter with `args` and optional environment variables `env_vars` fails (`rc != 0`) and return a `(return code, stdout, stderr)` tuple.

See `assert_python_ok()` for more options.

`test.support.script_helper.spawn_python(*args, stdout=subprocess.PIPE, stderr=subprocess.STDOUT, **kw)`

Run a Python subprocess with the given arguments.

`kw` is extra keyword args to pass to `subprocess.Popen()`. Returns a `subprocess.Popen` object.

`test.support.script_helper.kill_python(p)`

Run the given `subprocess.Popen` process until completion and return `stdout`.

`test.support.script_helper.make_script(script_dir, script_basename, source, omit_suffix=False)`

Create script containing `source` in path `script_dir` and `script_basename`. If `omit_suffix` is `False`, append `.py` to the name. Return the full script path.

`test.support.script_helper.make_zip_script(zip_dir, zip_basename, script_name, name_in_zip=None)`

Create zip file at `zip_dir` and `zip_basename` with extension `zip` which contains the files in `script_name`. `name_in_zip` is the archive name. Return a tuple containing `(full path, full path of archive name)`.

`test.support.script_helper.make_pkg(pkg_dir, init_source="")`

Create a directory named `pkg_dir` containing an `__init__` file with `init_source` as its contents.

`test.support.script_helper.make_zip_pkg(zip_dir, zip_basename, pkg_name, script_basename, source, depth=1, compiled=False)`

Create a zip package directory with a path of `zip_dir` and `zip_basename` containing an empty `__init__` file and a file `script_basename` containing the `source`. If `compiled` is `True`, both source files will be compiled and added to the zip package. Return a tuple of the full zip path and the archive name for the zip file.

See also the Python development mode: the `-X dev` option and `PYTHONDEVMODE` environment variable.

